

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

**CONSUMER AWARENESS, ETHNOCENTRISM, ATTITUDE AND PURCHASE BEHAVIOUR
TOWARD IMPORTED POULTRY PRODUCTS: A ZIMBABWEAN PERSPECTIVE**

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2014

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ABSTRACT

The global poultry meat industry has become very competitive as a result of increased international trade of poultry products for the past few decades while consumer behaviour studies focussing on international markets have received considerable attention. However, none of these studies have focussed on how consumer awareness predicts consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported products. More so, the existing empirical evidence does not reveal how consumer ethnocentrism predicts the actual purchase behaviour of consumers. The present study, therefore, sought to answer the questions as follows: - (i) does consumer awareness predict consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products? (ii) does consumer attitude predict consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products? (iii) does consumer ethnocentrism predict consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products? (iv) which are the critical decision factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products? A cross-section of 305 consumers was taken from Harare and Bulawayo in Zimbabwe. The respondents were intercepted while shopping in major supermarkets. A mixed method approach was used to collect data through an interviewer administered questionnaire. Descriptive statistical analysis, exploratory factor analysis and hypothesis testing were done on quantitative data. Qualitative data were analysed at three levels, namely thematic, content and discourse analyses. The study established that consumer awareness positively predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. No significant relationship was found between consumer awareness and consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. Consumer ethnocentrism was found to inversely predict consumer attitude while no significant relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. Lastly, the established that the factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products are price, quality, genetically modified food status, product labelling, country of origin, packaging, production methods and branding. It is therefore recommended that both marketers and policy makers take into account the present findings when designing strategies on the marketing of imported poultry products.

Key words: consumer attitude, consumer awareness, consumer behaviour, consumer decision making, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer purchasing, imported poultry, poultry imports, poultry marketing, purchase behaviour

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT	iiv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xvii
TERMINOLOGY	xviii
 CHAPTER 1	
INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW	1
1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	1
1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	5
1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	7
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	7
1.5 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES	7
1.6 OVERVIEW OF THE METHOD OF INVESTIGATION	9
1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY	10
1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	11
1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	12
1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS	13
1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY	14
 CHAPTER 2	
LITERATURE STUDY	15
2.1 INTRODUCTION	15
2.2 MARKETING	16
2.2.1 Definition and scope of marketing	16
2.2.2 Historical development of marketing	17
2.2.3 Marketing concepts	19
2.2.3.1 Production concept	20
2.2.3.2 Product concept	20
2.2.3.3 Selling concept	20
2.2.3.4 Marketing concept	21
2.2.3.5 Societal marketing concept	22
2.2.3.6 Customer orientation	23

2.2.4	Managing the marketing mix	24
2.3	CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR.....	28
2.3.1	Definition and scope of consumer behaviour.....	28
2.3.2	Historical development of consumer behaviour	30
2.4	CONSUMER DECISION MAKING AND PURCHASE BEHAVIOUR	33
2.4.1	Consumer decision making and purchase behaviour	33
2.4.2	Views of consumer decision making	33
2.4.3	An overview model of consumer decision making process.....	38
2.4.4	A framework of consumer decision making towards meat.....	42
2.4.5	Levels of consumer decision making and types of purchase behaviour	45
2.4.6	An overview of factors influencing decision making and purchase behaviour of consumers	49
2.4.6.1	Cultural factors.....	50
2.4.6.2	Social factors.....	51
2.4.6.3	Personal factors	53
2.4.6.4	Psychological factors	55
2.4.6.5	Other factors.....	57
2.4.7	Factors influencing the consumption of poultry products.....	58
2.5	CONSUMER ATTITUDE.....	60
2.5.1	Definition and scope of consumer attitudes	60
2.5.2	Models of consumer attitudes	61
2.5.2.1	Tri-component attitude model.....	62
2.5.2.2	Hierarchy of effects model.....	64
2.5.2.3	Attitude toward object model.....	65
2.5.2.4	Attitude towards behaviour model	66
2.5.2.5	Theory of reasoned action.....	66
2.5.2.6	Theory of planned behaviour	68
2.5.3	Attitude formation.....	69
2.5.3.1	How attitudes are learned.....	70
2.5.3.2	Sources of influence on attitude formation	72
2.5.3.3	The impact of personality on attitude formation	73
2.5.4	Attitude changing strategies.....	74
2.5.4.1	Changing the basic motivation function.....	75
2.5.4.2	Associating the product with a specific group	76
2.5.4.3	Resolving two conflicting attitudes.....	76
2.5.4.4	Altering components of the multi-attribute model.....	76
2.5.4.5	Changing consumer beliefs about competitors	77

2.5.4.6	Blythe's (2004) four strategies.....	77
2.5.4.7	Changing attitudes of existing users.....	78
2.5.4.8	Changing attitudes of non-users.....	78
2.5.5	The elaboration likelihood model.....	78
2.5.6	Relationship between consumer attitude and purchase behaviour.....	80
2.5.6.1	Cognitive dissonance theory.....	80
2.5.6.2	Passive learning theory.....	81
2.5.6.3	Disconfirmation of expectations theory.....	81
2.5.7	General influences on consumer attitudes.....	81
2.6	CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM.....	82
2.6.1	Definition and scope of consumer ethnocentrism.....	82
2.6.2	Origin of consumer ethnocentrism.....	83
2.6.3	Measurement and dimensionality of consumer ethnocentrism.....	84
2.6.4	Influences on consumer ethnocentrism.....	85
2.6.4.1	Availability of product.....	85
2.6.4.2	Nature of product.....	86
2.6.4.3	Level of market development and economic factors.....	87
2.6.4.4	Country of origin.....	87
2.6.4.5	Cultural similarity.....	88
2.6.4.6	Demographic characteristics.....	88
2.6.4.7	Socio-psychological factors.....	89
2.6.4.8	Political environment.....	91
2.6.5	Effect of consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes and purchase behaviour.....	91
2.6.6	Conceptual models of the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism and its effect on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour.....	92
2.6.6.1	Conceptual model proposed by Sharma et al. (1995:28).....	92
2.6.6.2	Conceptual model proposed by De Ruyter et al. (1998:190).....	93
2.6.6.3	Conceptual model proposed by Vida and Damjan (2001:116).....	94
2.6.6.4	Conceptual model proposed by Javalgi et al. (2005:329).....	96
2.6.6.5	Conceptual model proposed by Shankarmahesh (2006:161).....	97
2.6.6.6	Conceptual model proposed by Jain and Jain (2013:4).....	98
2.7	CONSUMER AWARENESS.....	99
2.7.1	Definition, scope and origin of consumer awareness.....	99
2.7.2	Consumer rights and responsibilities.....	103
2.7.3	Measurement and dimensionality of consumer awareness.....	107
2.7.4	Factors that influence consumer awareness.....	107
2.7.5	Consumerism in Zimbabwe.....	108

2.8	INTERNATIONAL POULTRY PRODUCTION AND MARKETING.....	109
2.8.1	International marketing.....	109
2.8.2	Stages of international marketing involvement.....	110
2.8.3	International marketing concepts.....	112
2.8.4	Globalisation and development of global marketing.....	114
2.8.5	Market entry strategies.....	116
2.8.6	The international poultry sector.....	118
2.8.7	Global trends affecting the poultry sector.....	120
2.8.8	Opportunities and challenges in the world poultry sector.....	121
2.8.9	Developments of poultry business in Zimbabwe.....	124
2.8.9.1	Production trends.....	124
2.8.9.2	Opportunities and challenges.....	126
2.9	CHAPTER SUMMARY AND THE KNOWLEDGE GAP.....	127

CHAPTER 3

	RESEARCH PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGY.....	134
3.1	INTRODUCTION.....	134
3.2	RESEARCH PROBLEM.....	134
3.2.1	Research objectives and questions.....	138
3.2.2	Research hypotheses and conceptual framework.....	139
3.3	RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY.....	143
3.4	RESEARCH STRATEGY: QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH.....	147
3.5	RESEARCH DESIGN.....	148
3.6	SAMPLING.....	149
3.7	DATA COLLECTION METHODS.....	151
3.8	MEASUREMENT AND SCALES.....	153
3.9	DESIGNING THE QUESTIONNAIRE.....	157
3.10	PRETESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE.....	165
3.11	RELIABILITY.....	165
3.12	VALIDITY.....	167
3.13	SENSITIVITY.....	168
3.14	DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION PROCEDURE.....	169
3.14.1	Quantitative analysis.....	169
3.14.2	Qualitative analysis.....	172
3.15	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	174
3.16	DUE DILIGENCE.....	174
3.17	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	178

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	179
4.1 INTRODUCTION	179
4.2 RESPONSE RATE ANALYSIS	179
4.3 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS	180
4.3.1 Descriptive statistics of socio-demographic variables	180
4.3.2 Association between socio-demographic variables.....	183
4.4 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS	187
4.5 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS	187
4.5.1 Descriptive statistics of consumer awareness	188
4.5.2 Descriptive statistics of consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products	190
4.5.3 Descriptive statistics of consumer ethnocentrism	192
4.5.4 Descriptive statistics of consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products.....	194
4.5.5 Descriptive statistics of factors considered by consumers	196
4.6 FACTOR ANALYSIS	198
4.6.1 KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity analysis.....	199
4.6.2 Exploratory factor analysis of consumer awareness data.....	200
4.6.2.1 Product knowledge.....	201
4.6.2.2 Price consciousness.....	201
4.6.2.3 General consumer knowledge	201
4.6.2.4 Bargain hunting.....	201
4.6.2.5 Obtaining the best deal.....	202
4.6.2.6 Information search	202
4.6.3 Exploratory factor analysis of consumer attitude data	202
4.6.3.1 Consumer intentions to purchase	203
4.6.3.2 Consumer beliefs.....	204
4.6.3.3 Consumer feelings.....	204
4.6.4 Exploratory factor analysis of consumer ethnocentrism data	204
4.6.4.1 Negative impact of foreign products.....	205
4.6.4.2 Preference for domestic products.....	205
4.6.5 Exploratory factor analysis of consumer purchase behaviour data.....	206
4.6.5.1 Repeat purchase	206
4.6.5.2 Trial purchase.....	207
4.6.6 Exploratory factor analysis of factors considered by consumers data	207
4.6.6.1 Quality.....	208
4.6.6.2 Socio-cultural factors	208

4.6.6.3	Firm's marketing effort.....	208
4.7	TESTING OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES.....	208
4.7.1	Consumer attitude and its relationship with consumer awareness, ethnocentrism and factors considered by consumers.....	209
4.7.2	Consumer purchase behaviour and its relationship with consumer awareness, attitude, ethnocentrism and factors considered by consumers	211
4.7.3	Summary of results of hypotheses testing and confirmed relationships	213
4.8	EFFECTS OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS	214
4.8.1	Effects of socio-demographic characteristics on consumer awareness.....	215
4.8.2	Effects of socio-demographic characteristics on consumer attitudes.....	216
4.8.3	Effects of socio-demographic characteristics on consumer ethnocentrism.....	218
4.8.4	Effects of socio-demographic characteristics on consumer purchase behaviour	219
4.8.5	Effects of socio-demographic characteristics on factors considered by consumers: results from structured questions	220
4.9	FACTORS CONSIDERED BY CONSUMERS: FINDINGS FROM QUALITATIVE DATA.....	222
4.9.1	Factors emerging from quantitative data that were confirmed qualitatively.....	223
4.9.1.1	Price	223
4.9.1.2	Quality.....	227
4.9.2	Emerging factors	231
4.9.2.1	Genetically modified food status.....	231
4.9.2.2	Product labelling	233
4.9.2.3	Country of origin.....	235
4.9.2.4	Packaging.....	236
4.9.2.5	Production methods.....	237
4.9.2.6	Branding.....	237
4.9.3	Effects of socio-demographics on emerging factors	238
4.10	CHAPTER SUMMARY	239

CHAPTER 5

	DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	240
5.1	INTRODUCTION	240
5.2	DISCUSSION OF RESULTS ON RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RELATED HYPOTHESES	240
5.2.1	Consumer awareness and prediction of consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products	240

5.2.2	Consumer attitude and prediction of purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products	242
5.2.3	Consumer ethnocentrism and prediction of consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products	242
5.2.4	Factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products	244
5.3	DISCUSSION OF RESULTS ON THE STUDY VARIABLES.....	251
5.3.1	Consumer awareness.....	251
5.3.2	Consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.....	252
5.3.3	Consumer ethnocentrism.....	253
5.3.4	Consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.....	254
5.3.5	Factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products	255
5.4	DISCUSSION OF RESULTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS ON THE STUDY VARIABLES	256
5.5	CHAPTER SUMMARY	259
CHAPTER 6		
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....		260
6.1	INTRODUCTION	260
6.2	CONCLUSIONS.....	260
6.3	IMPLICATIONS FOR MARKETING THEORY AND KNOWLEDGE, MANAGEMENT AND METHODOLOGY	264
6.3.1	Implications for marketing theory and knowledge	264
6.3.2	Implications for policy and practice.....	267
6.3.3	Methodological implications.....	271
6.4	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH.....	272
REFERENCES.....		274
LIST OF APPENDICES		
Appendix 1: Research instrument and informed consent		
Appendix 2: The 17-item original CETSCALE		
Appendix 3: A scale to measure consumer awareness		
Appendix 4: Attributes of a food product		
Appendix 5: Attributes of a food product		
Appendix 6: Consumer's belief system for two methods of broadband Internet access		
Appendix 7: Attitude toward the brand		
Appendix 8: Brand belief		
Appendix 9: Selected evaluative scale used to gauge consumers' attitudes toward Lubridem Skin Therapy Moisturising Lotion		

Appendix 10: Measuring consumer's feelings and emotions with regard to using
Lubriderm Skin Therapy Moisturising Lotion

Appendix 11: General affective response

Appendix 12: Attitude toward the brand (general attitude)

Appendix 13: Attitude toward the brand and product category

Appendix 14: Attitude toward the brand (beer)

Appendix 15: Attitude toward the product/brand

Appendix 16: Behavioural intention

Appendix 17: Behavioural intention

Appendix 18: Two examples of intention-to-buy scales

Appendix 19: Turnitin originality report (first page)

Appendix 20: Ethical clearance certificate

Appendix 21: Change of project title approval

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 World poultry meat production and consumption by region, 1990-1992, 2003-2005 and 2030 projections	119
Table 2.2 Human population of Zimbabwe and Africa and poultry meat consumption.....	127
Table 3.1 Comparison of four research philosophies in management research.....	145
Table 3.2 Scale to measure consumer awareness.....	159
Table 3.3 Scale to measure consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products.....	161
Table 3.4 Scale to measure imports purchase behaviour	162
Table 3.5 Scale to measure consumer ethnocentric tendencies	163
Table 3.6 Scale to identify factors considered by consumers	164
Table 3.7 Demographic variables	165
Table 3.8 Due diligence process of the study	175
Table 4.1 Socio-demographic profile of the respondents	181
Table 4.2 Cross tabulation of gender and income	184
Table 4.3 Cross tabulation of age and education	185
Table 4.4 Cross tabulation of age and income	185
Table 4.5 Cross tabulation of level of education and income	186
Table 4.6 Cross tabulation of city and ethnic grouping	186
Table 4.7 Reliability analysis of the measurement scales.....	187
Table 4.8 Descriptive statistics of consumer awareness	189
Table 4.9 Descriptive statistics of consumer attitudes	191
Table 4.10 Descriptive statistics of consumer ethnocentrism	193
Table 4.11 Descriptive statistics of consumer purchase behaviour	195
Table 4.12 Descriptive statistics of factors considered by consumers	197
Table 4.13 KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity statistics.....	199
Table 4.14 Factor loadings of consumer awareness data.....	200
Table 4.15 Factor loadings of consumer attitude data	203
Table 4.16 Factor loadings of consumer ethnocentrism data.....	204
Table 4.17 Factor loadings of consumer purchase behaviour data	206
Table 4.18 Factor loadings of factors considered data.....	207
Table 4.19 Testing H1, H4 and H6: Results of multiple linear regression analysis	210
Table 4.20 Testing H2, H3, H5 and H7: Results of multiple linear regression analysis.....	212
Table 4.21 Summary of results of hypotheses testing.....	213
Table 4.22 One way ANOVA: Mean differences of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size on consumer awareness	216

Table 4.23 One way ANOVA: Mean differences of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size on consumer attitudes	217
Table 4.24 One way ANOVA: Mean differences of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size on consumer ethnocentrism	219
Table 4.25 One way ANOVA: Mean differences of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size on consumer purchase behaviour	220
Table 4.26 One way ANOVA: Mean differences of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size on factors considered by consumers	222
Table 4.27 Selected respondents' remarks about price	224
Table 4.28 Selected respondents' remarks concerning quantity purchased and pack sizes	225
Table 4.29 Selected respondents' remarks about income levels and propensity to save	226
Table 4.30 Selected respondents' remarks regarding quality	227
Table 4.31 Selected respondents' remarks concerning health and safety issues.....	228
Table 4.32 Selected respondents' remarks about taste.....	229
Table 4.33 Selected respondents' remarks regarding taste	230
Table 4.34 Selected respondents' remarks concerning tenderness	230
Table 4.35 Selected respondents' remarks about genetically modified foods	232
Table 4.36 Selected respondents' remarks regarding product labelling	233
Table 4.37 Selected respondents' remarks concerning expiry dates.....	234
Table 4.38 Selected respondents' remarks about nutrition content	235
Table 4.39 Selected respondents' remarks concerning the country of origin	236
Table 4.40 Selected respondents' remarks about packaging.....	236
Table 4.41 Selected respondents' remarks regarding production methods.....	237
Table 4.42 Selected respondents' remarks about branding.....	238

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Conceptual framework of the study.....	8
Figure 2.1 The selling and marketing concepts contrasted	22
Figure 2.2 The considerations underlying the societal marketing concepts.....	23
Figure 2.3 The 7Ps components of the marketing mix	25
Figure 2.4 Goal setting and goal pursuit in consumer behaviour.....	35
Figure 2.5 A simple model of consumer decision making.....	39
Figure 2.6 Conceptual framework for analysing consumer decision-making towards meat	43
Figure 2.7 Quality attributes of a food product.....	59
Figure 2.8 The tri-component attitude model	62
Figure 2.9 Hierarchy of effects	64
Figure 2.10 A simplified version of the theory of reasoned action.....	67
Figure 2.11 Theory of planned behaviour.....	69
Figure 2.12 Elaboration likelihood model of persuasion	79
Figure 2.13 Conceptual model proposed by Sharma <i>et al.</i> (1995:28).....	93
Figure 2.14 Conceptual model proposed by De Ruyter <i>et al.</i> (1998:190)	94
Figure 2.15 Conceptual model proposed by Vida and Damjan (2001:116).....	95
Figure 2.16 Conceptual model proposed by Javalgi <i>et al.</i> (2005:329)	96
Figure 2.17 Conceptual model proposed by Shankarmahesh (2006:161).....	97
Figure 2.18 Conceptual model proposed by Jain and Jain (2013:4)	99
Figure 2.19 Projected rises in world consumption of chicken and eggs (kg/ person per year ..	122
Figure 2.20 Growth in global meat markets to 2030	122
Figure 2.21 World GDP growth rate and percent annual change in global chicken meat	123
Figure 2.22 Comparison of first-quarter returns of broiler day-old chick placements and number and weight of dressed broilers, 2009 to 2012	125
Figure 2.23 Comparison of first-quarter returns of layer day-old chick placements, growing and laying birds, and table-egg production from 2009 to 2012	126
Figure 3.1 Conceptual framework of the study.....	143
Figure 4.1 Average responses for the 7-point rating of consumer awareness (N = 305).....	190
Figure 4.2 Average responses for the 7-point rating of the consumer attitude (N = 305)	192
Figure 4.3 Average responses for the 7-point rating of consumer ethnocentrism (N = 305)....	194
Figure 4.4 Average responses for the 7-point rating of consumer	196
Figure 4.5 Average responses for the 7-point rating of factors.....	198
Figure 4.6 Conceptual framework showing confirmed relationships	214

Figure 6.1 Theoretical framework of consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, attitude and purchase
behaviour toward imported poultry products 265

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AIDS:	acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
A-Level:	Advanced Level of education
AMA:	American Marketing Association
ANOVA:	analysis of variance
CCZ:	Consumer Council of Zimbabwe
CETSCALE:	consumer ethnocentric tendencies scale
CETSCORE:	consumer ethnocentric tendencies score
CIM:	The Chartered Institute of Marketing
COO:	country of origin
COOE:	country of origin effect
EFA:	exploratory factor analysis
ELM:	Elaboration likelihood model
GM:	genetically modified
GMO:	genetically modified organism
IFDC:	International Fertilizer Development Centre
KMO:	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
M:	mean
O-Level:	Ordinary Level of education
SD:	standard deviation
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TRA:	Theory of reasoned action
TRB:	Theory of planned behaviour
UK:	United Kingdom
UKZN:	University of KwaZulu-Natal
US:	United States
USA:	United States of America
USD:	United States dollar
VIF:	valence inflation factor
WHO:	World Health Organisation
ZIMSTAT:	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency
ZJC:	Zimbabwe Junior Certificate of education
ZPA:	Zimbabwe Poultry Association

TERMINOLOGY

Consumer attitude:	the inclination of consumers to consistently behave, favourably or unfavourably, with regards to imported poultry products (Assael, 2004:216; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004: 253).
Consumer awareness:	the extent to which consumers are alert to their rights and responsibilities at the market place (Assael, 2004:564; Rousseau & Venter, 1995:18).
Consumer ethnocentrism:	a personality trait that shapes the beliefs of consumers concerning the suitability of buying foreign products (Apil, 2006:28; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:126; Shimp & Sharma, 1987:280).
Consumer purchase behaviour:	one of the stages of the consumer decision making process where the consumer actually makes a purchase (Kotler, 2002:98; Verbeke, 2000:524).
Imported poultry products:	chicken meat or processed products derived from chicken meat (European Commission, 2013).
Multi-currency system:	a monetary system that allows the simultaneous use of several currencies as legal tender in a particular economy (QUICKFINANCE, 2013).

CHAPTER 1.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The world has experienced heightened globalisation for the past few decades. This has not only presented massive opportunities to international marketers but also a considerable number of challenges (Ranjbarian, Rojuee & Mirzaei, 2010:372). One characteristic of globalisation is the liberation of trade policies. This has led to increased international trade of products. Accordingly, consumers all over the world have had increased access to a wide variety of products from other countries than ever before (Teo, Mohamad & Ramayah, 2011:2805; Ranjbarian *et al.*, 2010:372; Saffu & Walker, 2006a:168). This phenomenon has also been witnessed in the world poultry business (Jez, Beaumont & Magdelaine, 2011:105; WATT Executive Guide, 2011:12; McLeod, Thieme & Mack, 2009:191; Saha, Perumalla, Lee, Meullenet & Owens, 2009:1250; Narrod, Tiongco & Costales, 2008:1; Harlan, 2007:1; Constance, 2002:31). As a result, the global poultry meat industry has become very competitive (Vukasovič, 2009:65).

A general increase in both production and consumption of poultry meat in the world has been observed in recent years (WATT Executive Guide, 2011:12; Jez *et al.*, 2011:105; McLeod *et al.*, 2009:191; Saha *et al.*, 2009:1250; Narrod *et al.*, 2008:1; Harlan, 2007:1; Constance, 2002:31). Narrod *et al.* (2008:1) observe that the increase in poultry meat consumption has been most evident in East and South East Asian nations as well as Latin America, particularly in China and Brazil respectively. In developing countries the world's poultry meat consumed rose from 43 to 54 per cent between 1990 and 2005, while the proportion of the world's poultry meat produced in developing countries rose from 42 to 57 per cent over this period. It is estimated that production and consumption of poultry meat in developing countries will increase by 3.6 per cent and 3.5 per cent per annum from 2005 to 2030 respectively because of rising income, diversification of diets and expanding markets, particularly in Brazil and China (Narrod *et al.*, 2008:1).

It has become inevitable and a matter of survival for marketers to understand their target markets in this highly competitive global marketing environment i.e. marketers now seek to understand every detail about their target markets (Mangnale, Potluri & Degufu, 2011:241). In this regard, consumer ethnocentrism as well as consumer attitudes toward products originating from other countries have attracted significant interest from international business practitioners and consumer behaviour

researchers for the past few decades (Bandara & Miloslava, 2012:10; Teo *et al.*, 2011:2811; Ranjbarian *et al.*, 2010:372; Du Plessis, Rousseau, Boshoff, Ehlers, Engelbrecht, Joubert & Sanders, 2007:260; Apil, 2006:28; Blackwell, Miniard & Engel, 2006:375; Saffu & Walker, 2006a:167; Assael, 2004:216; Bawa, 2004:45; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004: 554; Wang & Chen, 2004:391; Arnould, Price & Zinkhan, 2002:459; Solomon, 2002:527; Verbeke, 2000:524; Klein & Ettenson, 1999:6; Shimp & Sharma, 1987:280).

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:4) submit that consumer behaviour deals with how and why individuals buy and dispose of products while Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:260) refer to consumer decision making as an activity that solves consumer problems. The prime decision made by consumers is whether to purchase or not, to spend or save money when faced with a particular buying situation (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:260). Early consumer behaviour studies were based on the economic theory which assumed that consumers are rational beings who aim to maximise benefits that they derive from the purchase of products. However, further research revealed that consumers are also likely to purchase products impulsively and are influenced by a number of factors such as family members, friends, situations, moods as well as emotions. When these factors are combined, they lead to comprehensive models of consumer behaviour that help in explaining, not only cognitive aspects of consumer decision making, but also emotional aspects (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:19). Consumer purchase behaviour has been identified as a critical stage in the consumer decision making process (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:260, Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:19). It is important for the marketer to know when consumers purchase products and the factors that they consider. This knowledge would enable marketers to craft strategies that can effectively influence consumers to buy their products.

Consumer attitudes play a crucial role in the behaviour of consumers. Therefore, in order to adequately understand the behaviour of consumers, one must also understand consumer attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:253; Wilcock, Pun, Khanona & Aung, 2004:56). In the context of consumer behaviour, an attitude refers to the consistent tendency of consumers to behave, favourably or unfavourably, with regards to a specific product or brand (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004: 253). Attitudes play an important part in developing marketing strategy. Likewise, Assael (2004:222) suggests that attitudes help marketers to identify benefit segments, develop new products, and formulate and evaluate promotional strategies. Similarly, Wilcock *et al.* (2004:56) observe that the knowledge of consumer attitudes is critical in that it enables marketers to predict consumer behaviour. On the other hand, consumer behaviour is believed also to influence consumer attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:265). Moreover, Juric and Worsely (1998:43) posit that in order to succeed in the international market place, marketers need to consider the attitudes of

consumers toward foreign products. In this regard, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:269) acknowledge that changing the attitudes of consumers is a fundamental strategy consideration for most marketers. Equally important, the aim of competitors when designing marketing strategies is to overtake market leaders. To achieve this, competitors aim at altering the attitudes of the market leaders' consumers so that they can also have favourable attitudes toward the competitors' products or brands. Market leaders also try to reinforce the existing attitudes of their consumers. They do this in order to make sure that their customers are not enticed by the offerings of competitors (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:269).

Consumer ethnocentrism is a concept which has received much attention in the study of consumer behaviour and attitudes toward products originating from other countries (Wu, Zhu and Dai, 2010:2262). More so, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004:80) observe that one of the major concerns of international marketers for over the years has been the 'foreignness' of a product. Marketers have wanted to understand whether this affects the preference of a particular product in a particular country. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:126) and Shimp and Sharma (1987:280) refer to consumer ethnocentrism as "a trait that shapes an individual's personality and attitude toward foreign products". Consumer ethnocentrism varies from one country to another and also from one product to another (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:136; Kaynak & Kara, 2002:933). Netemeyer, Durvasula and Lichtenstein (1991:321) suggest that, from the standpoint of the international marketer, it is of paramount importance to determine consumer ethnocentric tendencies across countries for three major reasons. First, consumer ethnocentrism is thought of acting as stumbling block to international marketing effort. Second, the success of international product-positioning strategies is hinged on a good understanding of consumer ethnocentrism. Third, the bias of consumers towards domestic products may be explained by consumer ethnocentrism. Generally, consumer ethnocentric tendencies have been reported to negatively influence consumer attitudes toward foreign products while positively influencing consumer attitudes toward domestic products (Pentz's, 2011:231; Wongtada & Rice, 2011:211; Ranjbarian *et al.*, 2010:372; Shankarmahesh, 2006:166; Moon, 2004:668; Supphellen & Rittenburg, 2001:908; Netemeyer *et al.*, 1991:321).

Consumer awareness refers to "the extent or alertness of individual consumers of their rights and responsibilities in the market place". Consumer awareness, as a construct, is a subset of consumerism (Rousseau & Venter, 1995:18). Du Plessis, Rousseau and Blem (1994:331) refer to consumerism as consumer awareness movement. More so, Rousseau and Venter (1995:18) observe that the construct of consumer awareness evolved from literature on consumerism, consumer rights and protection which originated in the United States. Similarly, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:6) noted that

consumer awareness is a part of consumerism which came to the fore as the discipline of consumer behaviour improved. They argue that consumerism gained prominence as the discipline of consumer behaviour grew into a fully-fledged research discipline around the 1970s. The prime concern of consumerism is to protect the rights of consumers in the process of exchange (Assael, 2004:564). Consumerism is concerned with the rights and privileges of consumers as they make purchase decisions in the market place (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:6).

As the world increasingly becomes a global village, consumerism has witnessed substantive growth for over the years. The concerns about the quality of food that consumers eat have taken centre stage (Brewer & Rojas, 2008:2). In view of this, food safety concerns continue to increase among consumers (Brewer & Rojas, 2008:2). Zakersalehi and Zakersalehi (2012:1) also acknowledge the importance of consumerism in the everyday life of the present day consumer. The majority of consumers do not exercise their rights to protect themselves against unprincipled business practices due to ignorance (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:361). And yet, Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:331) assert that an alertness of an individual consumer to his/her rights and responsibilities in the market place is critical in that it gives the consumer some sense of consciousness and direction when it comes to purchase decisions. That is, the knowledge of consumerism can help the consumer to show discretion in his/her buying habits as it provides him/her with information regarding his/her rights and privileges in the market place. By being informed on product knowledge as well as on consumer rights, as a buyer the consumer is not only protected against exploitation but is also more likely to obtain maximum satisfaction of his/her household needs. In support of this view, Solomon (2002:21) submits that the knowledge of consumerism is important to researchers. Research plays a significant role in formulating or evaluating public policies. These policies ensure that products are labelled correctly, that consumers can understand important information presented in advertising, or that minority groups are not disadvantaged. Typical minority groups concerns include ensuring that children are not exploited by programs masquerading as television shows but seeking to coerce them.

Agriculture was the lifeblood of the Zimbabwean economy until the year 2000 (Cooper, 2003:28). Since then, the agricultural sector has been bedevilled with challenges. As a result, the sector has failed to grow to competitive levels. As such, the poultry industry, an important part of the agricultural sector in Zimbabwe, has been struggling for almost a decade (Zimbabwe Poultry Association, 2010). For example, the cost of commercial poultry production in Zimbabwe has generally been higher as compared to other countries (Irvine's, 2010:1). The industry almost collapsed towards the end of 2008 and showed signs of sluggish recovery at the beginning of 2009

with the adoption of multi-currencies in the economy. These events have reduced the competitiveness of the local poultry industry as evidenced by higher prices of local products as compared to imports (Irvine's, 2012:22; ZPA, 2012). More so, poultry production in Zimbabwe has not been sufficient to meet the local demand. In this regard, the country has witnessed an increased importation of poultry products mainly from Brazil, South Africa and USA (Irvine's, 2012:22). Approximately more than 2,000 metric tonnes of poultry meat are being imported monthly in Zimbabwe. This has set the base price of poultry meat in the country (ZPA, 2012). These factors combine to create the ideal setting in which this study is conducted.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There has been increased international trade of products in the past few decades (Teo *et al.*, 2011:2805; Ranjbarian *et al.*, 2010:372). This has resulted in consumers all over the world to have increased access to a wide variety of products from other countries than ever before (Saffu & Walker, 2006a:168). This phenomenon has also been witnessed in the world poultry business (Jez *et al.*, 2011:105; WATT Executive Guide, 2011:12; McLeod *et al.*, 2009:191; Saha *et al.*, 2009:1250; Narrod *et al.*, 2008:1; Harlan, 2007:1; Constance, 2002:31). As a result, the global poultry meat industry has become very competitive (Vukasovič, 2009:65). It has become inevitable and a matter of survival for marketers to understand their target market in this highly competitive global marketing environment (Mangnale *et al.*, 2011:241). In view of this, much scholarly attention has been given to consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes toward foreign products for the past decades (Bandara & Miloslava, 2012:10; Teo *et al.*, 2011:2811; Ranjbarian *et al.*, 2010:372; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:260; Apil, 2006:28; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:375; Saffu & Walker, 2006a:167; Assael, 2004:216; Bawa, 2004:45; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004: 554; Wang & Chen, 2004:391; Arnould *et al.*, 2002:459; Solomon, 2002:527; Verbeke, 2000:524; Klein & Ettenson, 1999:6; Shimp & Sharma, 1987:280).

Despite the importance of consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, attitude and purchase behaviour, and the increased interest in consumer behaviour studies, the effect of consumer awareness on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported products is not documented in the extant literature. More so, the empirical evidence does not reveal the effect of consumer ethnocentric tendencies on the actual purchase behaviour of consumers. Instead, the focus among several scholars (Bandara & Miloslava, 2012:10; Teo *et al.*, 2011:2811; Saffu & Walker, 2006a:167; Shankarmahesh, 2006:161; Javalgi, Khare, Gross & Scherer, 2005:329; Bawa, 2004:45; Wang & Chen, 2004:391; Sharma, Shimp & Shin, 1995:28; De Ruyter, Van Birgelen & Wetzels 1998:190) has been on the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes and purchase intentions.

Although Rousseau and Venter (1996:26; 1995:18) studied consumer awareness in South Africa and Zimbabwe respectively, they did not make an attempt to relate consumer awareness to consumer attitudes and behaviour. Furthermore, there is still a dearth of consumer behaviour studies that have particularly focussed on international poultry consumers. More so, developing and emerging economies now present the next great opportunity for international business because developed countries now comprise an ever-shrinking part of the world's economy (Klein, Ettenson & Krishnan, 2006:305). Therefore, global managers are motivated to understand consumer attitudes toward foreign products in developing countries and emerging economies. However, most consumer behaviour studies have been concentrated in large industrialised countries where a range of domestic alternatives or brands are available, thus making the generalisability of findings to developing countries where there are no domestic brands or products in many product categories somewhat questionable (Opoku & Arkoli, 2009:350). Similarly, there are relatively few studies that have systematically investigated consumer behaviour and attitudes in developing countries especially in Sub-Saharan Africa and very little is known about consumer behaviour in this part of the world (Opoku & Arkoli, 2009:350).

Zimbabwe has witnessed an increased flow of imported poultry products mainly from Brazil, South Africa and USA since the adoption of the multi-currency system in 2009 (Irvine's, 2012:22). Zimbabwe's poultry producers are not happy with this situation as evidenced by their constant lobbying to the government to ban the imports. They argue that poultry imports undermine the local market (ZPA, 2012). However, the voice of the consumers has not been heard i.e. no formal study has dealt with consumers concerning their views with regards to imported poultry products. As such the way forward remains a fuzzy. Mangnale *et al.* (2011:241) recommend that, in order for organisations to survive in this highly competitive global marketing environment, marketers should understand every bit of their target markets. It is imperative to conduct a study that seeks to understand the behaviour of Zimbabwean poultry consumers in the global marketing environment.

The knowledge gap is thus described as an incomplete understanding of the effect of consumer awareness on attitudes and purchase behaviour, and the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the actual purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. The present study, therefore, intends to make a contribution to knowledge by investigating the effect of consumer awareness on attitudes and purchase behaviour, and the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the actual consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. Zimbabwe is used as point of reference.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of the study is to investigate the effects of consumer awareness and consumer ethnocentrism on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products using Zimbabwe as a point of reference. The secondary objectives of the study are as follows:-

- i. To establish if consumer awareness predicts consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products.
- ii. To determine if consumer attitude predicts purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.
- iii. To determine if consumer ethnocentrism predicts consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products.
- iv. To explore the critical decision factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question is:- do consumer awareness and consumer ethnocentrism predict consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products? The secondary research questions are as follows:-

- i. Does consumer awareness predict consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products?
- ii. Does consumer attitude predict consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products?
- iii. Does consumer ethnocentrism predict consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products?
- iv. Which are the critical decision factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products?

1.5 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

A conceptual framework was developed in order to aid the explanation of the relationships between the study constructs. Figure 1.1 illustrates the conceptual framework proposed for the present study and the associated hypotheses.

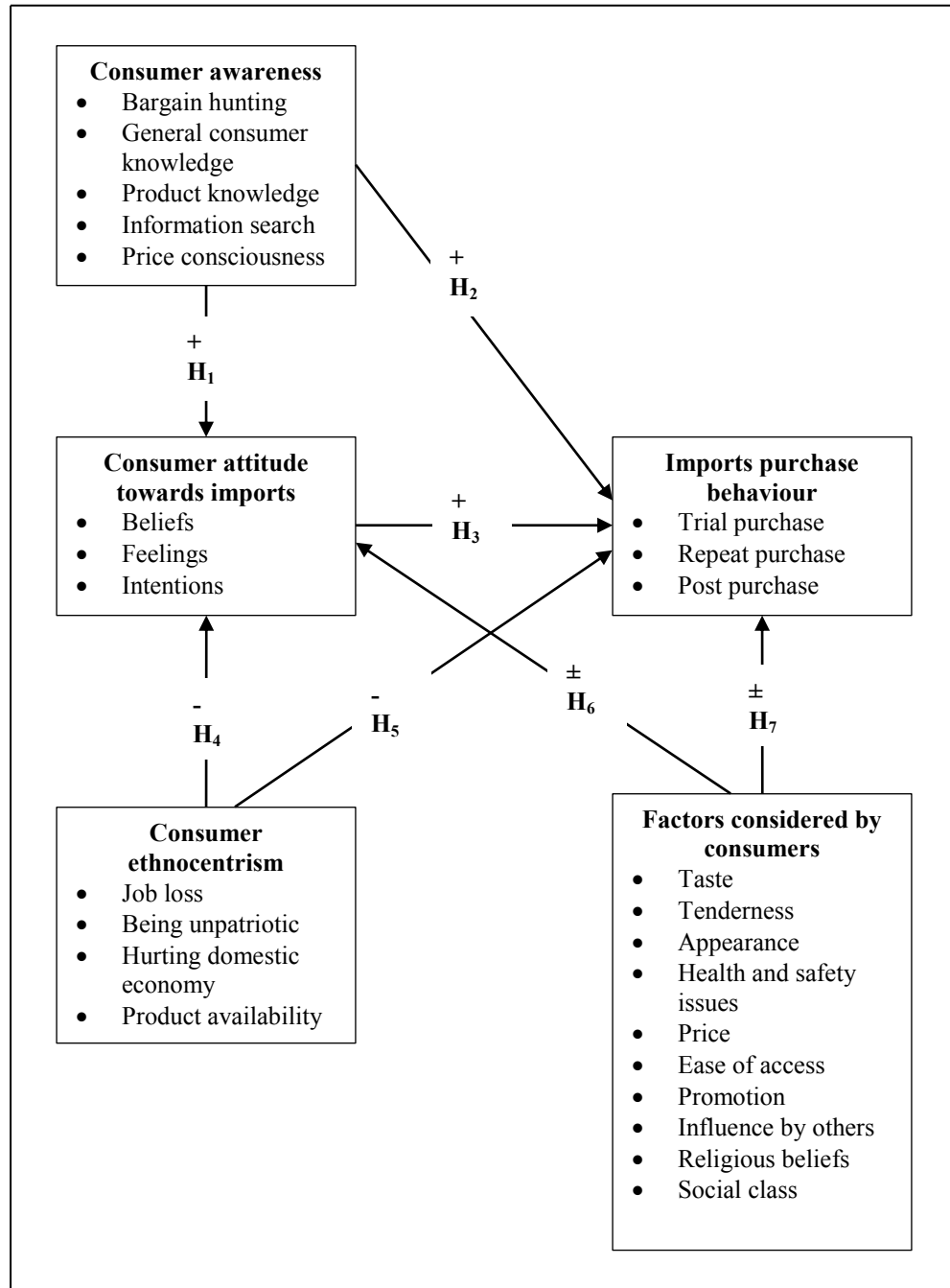


Figure 1.1 Conceptual framework of the study

Source: Derived from Literature Study

Based on the conceptual framework in Figure 1.1, the research hypotheses are as follows:

H₁ Consumer awareness positively predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.

- H₂** Consumer awareness positively predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.
- H₃** Consumer attitude positively predicts purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.
- H₄** Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.
- H₅** Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.
- H₆** Pertinent factors described (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.
- H₇** Pertinent factors described (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict the choice to purchase imported poultry products.

1.6 OVERVIEW OF THE METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

The method of investigation in this study is divided into two main sections, namely primary research and secondary research.

Secondary research involved the review of literature related to the study. A review of literature is presented in Chapter Two. Critical issues guiding the literature review include marketing, consumer behaviour, consumer decision making and purchase behaviour, consumer attitude, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer awareness, and international poultry production and marketing. The literature review enabled the researcher to identify the knowledge gap that the study sought to address. Similarly, the review of literature facilitated in the delimitation of the research problem. It also provided a framework for relating the present research findings to those of the previous studies. This improved the explorative discussion as presented in Chapter 5.

Empirical findings of this study were based on primary research. The research adopted a pragmatic philosophy as this permitted the researcher to employ both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. Based on the nature of the research problem as outlined in this chapter, a cross-sectional survey design was employed. The target population from which the sample was drawn comprised adult (18 years and above) poultry consumers in Harare and Bulawayo, i.e. consumers who could make own decisions when purchasing poultry products. Consumers were intercepted at supermarkets in Harare and Bulawayo as they purchased poultry products. Both quantitative and

qualitative data were collected using an interviewer-administered questionnaire. Quantitative data were collected using close-ended questions while qualitative data were collected using open-ended questions. The development of the research instrument was done after a wide consultation with literature. This was done in order to improve its reliability and validity. The instrument was pre-tested so as to improve its applicability. The instrument was divided into two major sections, namely quantitative and qualitative. However, the quantitative section formed the greater part of the instrument. To ensure that the research was ethical, informed consent was sought from the respondents. In addition to that, an ethical clearance was sought from the University of KwaZulu-Natal to ensure that the research was not going to compromise moral expectations. A due diligence process was also followed to ensure due care in the conduct of the research. This was done in order to avoid the researcher's bias in the research process. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were employed in the present study.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The present study sought to investigate the effects of consumer awareness and consumer ethnocentrism on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products using Zimbabwe as a point of reference. As such its scope falls within the marketing field, especially consumer behaviour and international marketing. The key variables of the study are consumer awareness, consumer attitude, consumer purchase behaviour, consumer ethnocentrism and factors considered by consumer when purchasing imported poultry products.

The research was conducted for a period of three years i.e. between 2012 and 2014 in Zimbabwe; a developing and transitional economy. This follows Opoku and Arkoli's (2009:350) observation that there is a dearth of consumer behaviour studies in developing countries, especially sub-Saharan Africa. More so, Zimbabwe has undergone major political and economic transformation since 2009. The country was once the breadbasket of the region, but now it is a net importer of food (Action Aid, 2012; International Fertilizer Development Center, 2012; Cooper, 2003:28) and a net importer of poultry products (ZPA, 2012). The ZPA (2010) noted that, although the Zimbabwe's poultry industry is showing signs of recovery, it has been struggling in recent decades mainly because of the more than a decade-long poor economic performance. This lack of competitiveness of the local poultry industry has attracted cheap imports into the country mainly from Brazil, South Africa and USA; worsening the plight of poultry producers in the country. This makes Zimbabwe a very interesting case to conduct the present research. On the other hand, the researcher is a resident of Zimbabwe, has access to information, and has local knowledge to facilitate interpretations and conclusions.

The target population comprised consumers in Harare and Bulawayo who were aged 18 years and above as these were adults who could make own purchase decisions and had the ability and willingness to buy imported poultry products. Harare and Bulawayo are the first and second largest cities, respectively, in Zimbabwe. Thus they have significant demand for products in the Zimbabwean economy.

The product category comprised imported poultry products. This choice was motivated by the fact that the global poultry production and consumption is gaining significance over other types of livestock enterprises (Evans, 2010; Narrod *et al.*, 2008:3). Moreover, the poultry industry in Zimbabwe is one of the sectors that have witnessed a surge in imported products since the introduction of the multi-currency system in 2009. The poultry sector falls under agriculture—the backbone of the Zimbabwean economy. As such it is a relevant sector to study consumers.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study makes a novel contribution to the current body of knowledge. It enhances an understanding of the effect of consumer awareness on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported products as well as the effect of consumer ethnocentric tendencies on the actual purchase behaviour of consumers. Presently, no such study has been undertaken. This understanding is likely to increase the success of marketers in the international market place of poultry products. The study also intends to benefit various stakeholders in the poultry industry, not only in Zimbabwe but the world over.

Understanding the behaviour of consumers with regards to imported poultry products is important in that it enables marketers to craft strategies that can effectively influence consumer behaviour. As noted by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:253) and Wilcock *et al.* (2004:56), consumer attitudes play a crucial role in the behaviour of consumers. Therefore, in order to have a profound understanding of the behaviour of consumers, one must also understand consumer attitudes. More so, an understanding of consumer attitudes and behaviour helps marketers to identify benefit segments, develop new products, and formulate and evaluate promotional strategies. Thus the knowledge of consumer attitudes is critical in that it enables marketers to predict consumer behaviour (Assael, 2004:222; Wilcock *et al.*, 2004:56).

Consumer ethnocentrism may act as a barrier to the success of the international marketing effort. It may be also useful in the development of international product-positioning strategies. In addition, it may explain consumers' bias toward domestic products. Therefore, it is imperative for international

marketers to understand consumer ethnocentric tendencies across international markets (Netemeyer *et al.*, 1991:321).

The knowledge of consumer awareness is critical to both marketers and consumers. Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:331) assert that an alertness of an individual consumer to his/her rights and responsibilities in the market place is critical in that it gives the consumer some sense of consciousness and direction when it comes to purchase decisions. Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:331) further argue that by being informed on product knowledge as well as on consumer rights, as a buyer the consumer is not only protected against exploitation but is also more likely to obtain maximum satisfaction of his/her household needs. An understanding of consumer awareness also plays a significant role in formulating or evaluating public policies. These policies ensure that products are labelled correctly, that consumers can understand important information presented in advertising, or that minority groups are not disadvantaged.

The dearth of such consumer behaviour studies in developing countries makes this study significant. Developing countries and emerging economies now present a big global business opportunity because economies of the developed world offer diminishing opportunities (Klein *et al.*, 2006:305). Therefore, global managers are spurred to understand the behaviour of consumers toward foreign products in developing countries and transition economies.

Marketers of poultry products, local and foreign, intend to benefit from the results of the present study. A clear understanding of the awareness, ethnocentrism, attitudes and purchase behaviour of Zimbabwean consumers would enable marketers to design successful strategies specifically for poultry products, not only in Zimbabwe, but also in other developing and emerging economies. On the other hand, it is hoped that policy makers in Zimbabwe and other developing and emerging economies would use the research findings to come up with appropriate policies concerning imported poultry products.

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Due to time and financial constraints, the present study focussed on a single product only. This implies that the generalisation of the study findings is limited only to the product category of imported poultry products. On the other hand, the study sample was drawn only from two major cities and yet there are other several cities in Zimbabwe. According to (ZIMSTAT, 2012a), in Zimbabwe there are more consumers living in rural areas than urban areas. However, rural consumers were not considered as part of the study sample. These limitations provide a fertile ground for further research. It is assumed that this study, as a new research, remains explorative at

best; localisation and culture preclude the generalisability of the findings to some extent, and thus, it needs to be evaluated by further confirmatory studies.

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The study comprises six chapters. Chapter One forms the introduction and overview of the study. It introduced and gave an overview of the whole study. The major areas covered in this chapter include the background to the research problem, problem statement, objectives of the study, research questions, conceptual framework and hypotheses, overview of the method of investigation, scope of the study, significance of the study, limitations of the study and the structure of the thesis.

Chapter Two is based on the literature study. Relevant theories and a comprehensive survey of previous research pertinent to the study are presented. The chapter is guided by seven major themes, namely marketing, consumer behaviour, consumer decision making and purchase behaviour, consumer attitude, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer awareness, and international poultry production and marketing. Finally, the knowledge gap is also identified. This gap in the current body of knowledge represents the point of departure for the present study.

Chapter Three is concerned with the research problem and methodology. The nature of the research problem dictates the research methodology. Therefore, this chapter begins by defining the research problem, and describing, in detail, the research objectives, questions, and hypotheses and conceptual framework. Then, an overview of the plan of data collection and the methods of data collection are explained and justified in this section. The major aspects of the research methodology presented in Chapter Three are philosophy, strategy, design, sampling, data collection methods, measurement and scales, design of the instrument, reliability, validity, sensitivity, data analysis and presentation methods, ethical considerations, and due diligence.

Chapter Four presents the research findings. The results are presented in two major sections, namely quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative section presents results from close ended questions and it forms the major part of this chapter. It focuses on the response rate analysis, socio-demographic profile of the respondents, reliability analysis, descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, testing of hypotheses and effects of socio-demographics on the study constructs. The qualitative section presents results from open ended questions and it focuses on the presentation of factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. Influences of socio-demographic factors on the factors considered by consumers are also covered in the qualitative section.

Chapter Five presents a discussion of findings presented in Chapter Four. The results of the present study are analysed in view of the findings in prior research. Thus the research findings will be discussed in light of the literature presented in Chapter Two. The main areas of discussion include research objectives and related hypotheses, study variables and influences of socio-demographic factors on the study variables.

Chapter Six comprises conclusions and recommendations. This is the final chapter of the thesis report. It provides conclusions of the present research. Research conclusions are based on the research questions or objectives and related hypotheses. The research conclusions are drawn from the findings and discussion as presented in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 respectively. The implications of the study findings to the current body of knowledge, policy and practice and research methodology are also provided. Finally, the research limitations are highlighted in view of recommendations for future research.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter focussed on introducing and giving an overview of the study. It described the background to the study and the statement of the problem. Research objectives, research questions, conceptual framework and hypotheses were also presented. The overview of the method of investigation, scope of the study, significance of the research and limitations of the study were presented. Finally, the structure of the thesis was presented. The next chapter focuses on the literature study.

CHAPTER 2.

LITERATURE STUDY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter introduced and gave an overview of the study. This chapter presents a review of literature pertinent to the present study. A good literature review forms the foundation of a good research i.e. it is unlikely to come up with a good research if the literature review is flawed (Boote & Beile, 2005:3). It also enables the researcher to identify the knowledge gap in what has been done before. Randolph (2009:2) concurs to this and asserts that a literature review facilitates to delimit the research problem. This results in the concept of generativity, which implies that any research must be based on prior research i.e. it has to be informed and developed from existing related literature. A good literature review also forms the basis for theory and methodology of the research. This improves the quality and usefulness of the subsequent research (Boote & Beile, 2005:3-4). Similarly, Randolph (2009:2) suggests that a literature review provides a framework for relating the present research findings to those of the previous studies. This improves the quality of the discussion section in the present thesis.

The review of literature is guided by seven major themes, namely marketing, consumer behaviour, consumer decision making and purchase behaviour, consumer attitude, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer awareness, and international poultry production and marketing. Literature on marketing is concerned with the definition and scope of marketing, historical development of marketing, marketing concepts as well as managing the marketing mix. Literature on consumer behaviour touches on the definition and scope of consumer behaviour, and the historical development of consumer behaviour. The section on consumer decision making and purchase behaviour covers literature on consumer decision making and purchase behaviour, views of consumer decision making, an overview model of the consumer decision making process, a framework of the consumer decision making towards meat, levels of consumer decision making and types of purchase behaviour, factors influencing decision making and purchase behaviour of consumers, and factors influencing the consumption of poultry products. The consumer attitude section comprises the definition and scope of consumer attitude, models of consumer attitudes, attitude formation, attitude changing strategies, the elaboration likelihood model, relationship between consumer attitude and behaviour, and general influences on consumer attitude. The consumer ethnocentrism section

consists of the definition and scope of consumer ethnocentrism, origin of consumer ethnocentrism, measurement and dimensionality of consumer ethnocentrism, influences on consumer ethnocentric tendencies, effect of consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes and purchase behaviour, and conceptual models of the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism and its effect on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour. Literature on consumer awareness is reviewed in terms of the definition, scope and origin of consumer awareness, consumer rights and responsibilities, measurement and dimensionality of consumer awareness, factors that influence consumer awareness, and consumerism in Zimbabwe. Finally, literature on international poultry production and marketing is reviewed based on the international marketing, stages of international marketing involvement, international marketing concepts, globalisation and development of global marketing, market entry strategies, the international poultry sector, global trends affecting the poultry sector, opportunities and challenges in the world poultry sector, and developments of poultry business in Zimbabwe. After the literature study, the knowledge gap is also identified. This gap represents the point of departure of the present study.

2.2 MARKETING

2.2.1 Definition and scope of marketing

In 2009 The Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM) of UK suggest that marketing, being a management process, is concerned with the identification, anticipation and satisfaction of customer requirements in a profitable way. The American Marketing Association (AMA) offered three views of marketing in 1935, 1985 and 2004 as identified by Wilkie and Moore (2006:226). In 1935, AMA submits that marketing is the performance of the activities of business. These activities are concerned with directing the movement of products from producers to consumers. In 1985 AMA viewed marketing as a process involved with planning and implementing the conception, pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, products in order to create exchanges that are designed to satisfy the objectives of individuals and organisations. In 2004 AMA described marketing as the function of an organisation that involves processes directed at the creation, communication and provision of value to customers. These processes also involve the management of customer relationships that are beneficial to the organisation and its stakeholders. Jack, Higgins, Ellis, Fitchett, Lim, Tadajewski and Saren (2010:15) noted the flaws associated with the AMA's 2004 view of marketing—which was regarded as the ultimate improvement since 1935. The first weakness of this definition was that it focused on marketing as an organisational activity which did not extend beyond the organisation. This excluded societal aspects of marketing. The other problem was that this view assumed that the individual organisation's activities would not be problematic in

the aggregate. More so, changes in the definition of marketing over time have become more managerial and failed to embrace the issue of the impact of marketing on the society (Jack *et al.*, 2010:15; Wilkie & Moore, 2006:15). Consequently, in 2007 AMA suggested that marketing comprises activities, set of institutions as well as processes that are directed at the creation, communication, provision and exchange of products that offer value to customers, clients, partners, and society at large (Jack *et al.*, 2010:15; Gundlach & Wilkie, 2009:262). Kotler and Keller (2006:6) provide a two-pronged alternative view of marketing. In the first approach marketing takes a managerial perspective which describes marketing as the art or science responsible for selecting target markets, enticing customers and sustaining the customer base by the creation, provision and communication of superior customer value. The second approach takes a societal perspective and argues that individuals and organisations should obtain what they require through a societal process which enables these individuals and organisations to participate in the process of creation, provision and free exchange of products of value with others.

2.2.2 Historical development of marketing

Before studying marketing, it is insightful to understand its history and the debates as well as controversies that have shaped the field (Jack *et al.*, 2010:13). Historically, marketing has not developed homogeneously across all markets or all products as claimed by US marketing scholars (Jack *et al.*, 2010:14; Brassington & Pettit, 2003:10). It could not transcend cultures and be uniformly applied due to differences in political, economic, technological and social environments. Marketing may be divided into two parts. The first part deals with the practice of marketing while the other is concerned with the academic discipline of marketing (Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006:369).

The basic idea of marketing as an exchange process dates back to ancient times. During these times, people engaged in various activities, especially the production of crops, for survival. Whenever there was a surplus people would trade them in the form of barter. This was done in order obtain other things that they wanted (Brassington & Pettit, 2003:10). The roots of marketing are in economics; it came to the fore as a form of applied economics (Jack *et al.*, 2010:16; Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006:369). In fact, marketing emerged as part of commerce and trade as the capitalist system grew in importance in Western Europe from the 12th century and beyond (Tamilia, 2009:350). Likewise, the practice of marketing—especially selling and advertising—has been in existence for as long as trade itself (Brassington & Pettit, 2003:11). Similarly, Lagrosen and Svensson (2006:370) admit that today many practices that are referred to as marketing have been used for centuries. For example, Madame Tussaud—a French artist who lived between 1761 and 1850—skilfully practised marketing in the form of advertising, public relations and market

segmentation in a way that gave her enduring status. However, it took a considerable time to initiate what is recognised as marketing today. It began with the industrial revolution, followed by the evolution of mass production methods and the ability to separate buyers and sellers. This view is supported by many authors (Domegan, 2011:496; Tamilia, 2011:508; Jack *et al.*, 2010:13; Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006:370; Shaw & Jones, 2005:240; Wilkie & Moore, 2003:116; Jones & Shaw, 2002:39) who argue that marketing has been there as a practice since time immemorial despite it being studied as an academic discipline for just over a century ago. Similarly, Tamilia (2009:350) argues that marketing has been in existence for as long as trade itself, for as long as it has been necessary for man to earn a living in order to satisfy one's economic needs through taking and trading.

In an attempt to explain the evolution of marketing, Jack *et al.* (2010:20) and Jones and Richardson (2007:15), illustrate that the practice of marketing went through three distinctive eras as classified by Robert Keith in 1960. The eras of increasingly sophisticated marketing are based on the practice of the Pillsbury Company in USA where Robert Keith was the executive vice president and director.

The first era of marketing is known as the production era. This era stretched from 1870 to 1930. During this period, there were shortages as demand exceeded supply. There was little or no competition and the business focus was the company, not the customer (Jones & Richardson, 2007:15). The thrust was on solving production problems and businesses produced what they could produce. Product lines were limited. Profit was a result of efficient production. Selling and marketing were unsophisticated processes. As such products could 'sell themselves' (Jack *et al.*, 2010:20; Jones & Richardson, 2007:19).

The production era was followed by the sales era which began in the 1930s and ended in the 1950s. In this era, supply exceeded demand. There was competition within the markets. Businesses became conscious of the requirements of the customers (Jack *et al.*, 2010:20; Jones & Richardson, 2007:19). As a result, some market research was done. The focus was on selling because businesses strived to dispose of the products. Just like in the production era, product lines were limited. Aggressive advertising backed hard selling. The focus was on sales volume and profit was a by-product (Jack *et al.*, 2010:21).

The marketing era came immediately after the sales era. It began in the 1950s onwards. In this period, supply also exceeded demand. Competition within product markets became intense (Jack *et al.*, 2010:21). The focus shifted to the satisfaction of customer's needs and wants. In other words,

customers dictated what products were made and businesses paid attention to marketing problems. Extensive product lines were the order of the day. Various marketing activities aimed at satisfying customers' needs. The focus of business was on profit rather than sales volume (Jack *et al.*, 2010:20; Jones & Richardson, 2007:19).

As acknowledged by Svensson and Lagrosen (2007:292), Shaw and Jones (2005:239) and Wilkie and Moore (2003:116), the practice of marketing is very old but the academic discipline of marketing formally began just after the 20th century and is now about hundred years old. Supporting this view, Jack *et al.* (2010:13) posit that marketing has been studied by scholars for just over a century ago despite it being practiced since time immemorial. The success of businesses operating in the market place was hinged on production efficiencies in the late 1940s. In the 1950s the focus of business shifted towards the customer. This fundamental approach became to be known as the marketing concept (Svensson & Lagrosen, 2007:292; Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006:369). The strong expansion of the discipline of marketing took place through the introduction of a practitioner-oriented and pedagogical approach of marketing (Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006:370). The approach was called the marketing mix—popularly known as the 4Ps. This dominated the academic discipline until the late 1970s and the early 1980s when complementary approaches of marketing came into being (Svensson & Lagrosen, 2007:292; Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006:370). The substantial development of the academic field of marketing has taken place from the 1980s to present. There has been a proliferation of marketing journals. Another notable development in this period has been the globalisation of business education that brought a new dimension of thinking into marketing the world over. The 'publish or perish' mentality has been the order of the day. Even today, the field of marketing continues to grow and evolve (Wilkie & Moore, 2012:58). However, it took some time before academic efforts of marketing influenced marketing activities of businesses. The main reason was that marketing was by then regarded as parasitic. As such trade was viewed to add costs instead of value to the products (Svensson & Lagrosen, 2007:292; Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006:370). The early work in marketing, therefore, aimed at correcting this perception (Svensson & Lagrosen, 2006:370).

2.2.3 Marketing concepts

The development of consumer behaviour parallels the evolution of marketing as evidenced by the interconnectedness of consumer behaviour and the marketing concept (Assael, 2004:6; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:10). Kotler, Armstrong, Agnihotri and Haque (2011:9) and Kotler and Armstrong (2010:23) propose five philosophies or concepts of marketing, namely production, product, selling, marketing and societal concepts.

2.2.3.1 Production concept

The main idea of the production concept is that consumers are concerned with the availability of products. They tend to go for those products that are easily available. Marketing should therefore respond to this consumer expectation by focusing on improving production efficiencies so as to produce cheap products. This should be backed by intensive distribution (Kotler & Keller, 2006:15). This is applicable where consumers are not concerned with the features of the product but where consumers are concerned with obtaining the product. In the early 1900s Henry Ford succeeded in selling his famous Model T for as little as US\$360. Producers dictated what was sold at that time and Henry Ford made his famous statement that, “you can get it in any colour as long as it is black” (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:17). Today, this concept is useful in developing countries and also in situations where a company may want to increase the market (Kotler & Keller, 2006:15; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:9). The production concept parallels the production era as suggested by Jack *et al.* (2010:20) and Jones and Richardson (2007:19).

2.2.3.2 Product concept

The product concept is believed to have its origins in the 1940s. It holds the view that innovative features, high quality and best performance are the critical features that consumers look for (Brassington & Pettit, 2003:12). Companies, therefore, constantly strive to provide for these features without finding out if customers really want these them (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:23; Kotler & Keller, 2006:15; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:9). This often leads to marketing myopia. Marketing myopia refers to a company’s concentration on improving the product while not paying attention to the requirements of the customer (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:23; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:10). However, argue Kotler and Armstrong (2010:24) and Kotler and Keller (2006:15), for a new product to be successful, it has to be designed with the customer at heart.

2.2.3.3 Selling concept

This philosophy is a natural evolution from production and product concepts (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:10). It holds that, naturally, customers will not adequately buy the products of the organisation. The organisation must therefore actively promote and sell its products. It is mostly suited for unsought products such as insurance, funeral plots, etc. (Kotler & Keller, 2006:15). The problem with the selling concept is that it does not recognise customer satisfaction. When consumers buy products that they don’t like, they will not only refrain from buying again but are also likely to dissuade potential customers by word of mouth (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:10). In addition, such aggressive selling can be risky because it seeks to score a sale in the short term at the

expense of developing long term customer relationships that are profitable (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:24). The selling concept parallels the selling era as proposed by Jack *et al.* (2010:20) and Jones and Richardson (2007:19).

2.2.3.4 *Marketing concept*

Consumer behaviour, as a field of study, emerged from the marketing concept that evolved in the late 1950s when businesses began to realise on the need to focus on the requirements of customers (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:10). To be successful, marketing firms must first determine the benefits that customers seek and then gear marketing strategies to satisfy the needs of the customers better than competition. This implies that companies must produce what they can sell rather than selling what they have produced (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:10; Assael, 2004:6). While the selling concept seeks to provide for the needs of the sellers—profits through sales volumes—and on those products already existing, the marketing philosophy seeks to achieve profits—through customer satisfaction—and the needs of the customer. Kotler and Keller (2006:16) sum it up by claiming that instead of ‘hunting’, marketing is ‘gardening’. The implication is that with the marketing concept, companies know what to produce for the customers unlike with the previous concepts where companies did not know what the customers want. In the development of the practice of marketing, the marketing philosophy parallels the marketing era as illustrated by Jack *et al.* (2010:20) and Jones and Richardson (2007:19).

The acceptance of the marketing philosophy in the early 1950s has motivated the study of consumer behaviour in the marketing context. One may then wonder why it didn’t come earlier. There are two major reasons as suggested by Assael (2004:6). First, the institutions that dealt with marketing were not yet fully developed prior to 1950 to accept the marketing philosophy. In fact, consumer research was in its infancy and advertising and distributive facilities were more suited to the mass production and mass marketing strategies of that time. Second, prior to 1950 the economic drive was not there. The purchasing power was still too little to drive an interest in the behaviour of consumers during the Depression. In addition, during and immediately after the World War II, there were scarcities due to limited production. As such there was no competitive pressure to discover consumers’ motives or to adjust product offerings in order to consider consumer needs. Assael (2004:7) goes further to explain that after the World War II there was increased production due to peaceful times and consumers had become more selective in their purchasing habits and were now reluctant buyers. Accordingly, there was a shift in the marketers’ approach to marketing. Marketers began to research on markets to understand consumers and marketers began talking in consumer behaviour

terms. This shift from a sales orientation to a consumer or behavioural orientation took some time to evolve and it's still evolving even today.

Kotler *et al.* (2011:10) and Kotler and Armstrong (2010:24; 2001:19) contrast the selling and marketing concepts based on four areas, namely starting point, focus, means and ends as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

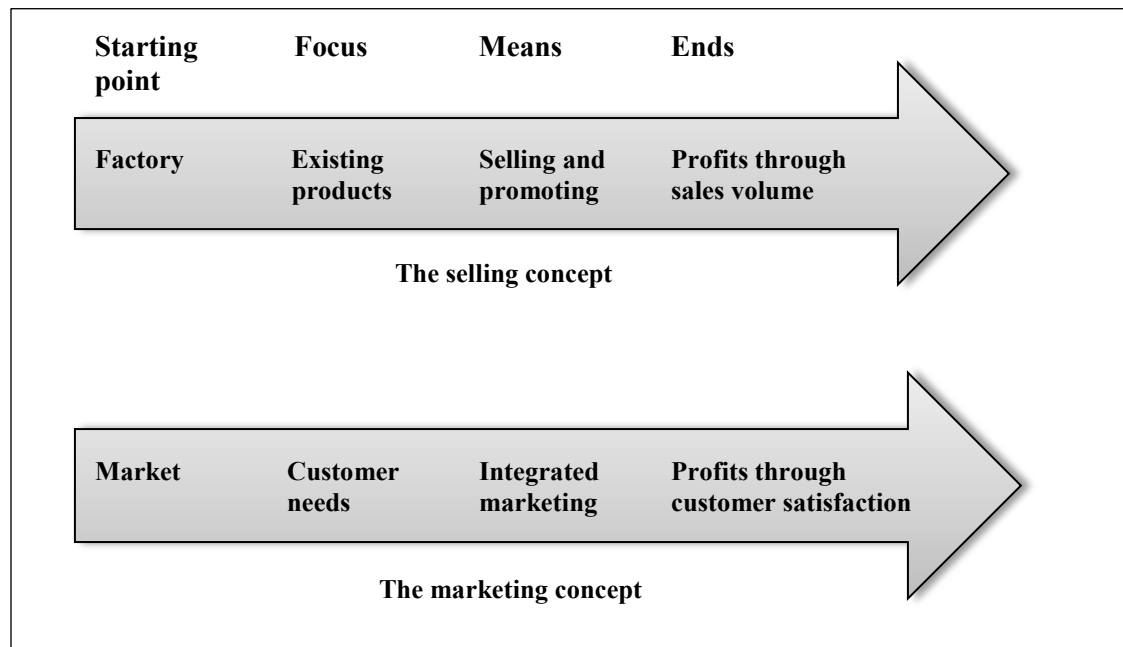


Figure 2.1 The selling and marketing concepts contrasted

Source: Adapted from Kotler *et al.* (2011:10)

The approach taken by the selling orientation is inside-out. Starting in the factory, it focuses on existing products. It uses selling and promotion as the means to achieve profits through sales volume. By contrast, the approach taken by marketing concept is outside-in. It starts at the market, focusing on the customer needs using integrated marketing as the means to achieve profits through customer satisfaction (Kotler *et al.*, 2011:10; Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:24). The marketing concept suggests that the marketing department is not important, but rather the organisation must have a customer department (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:25).

2.2.3.5 Societal marketing concept

The societal marketing philosophy takes the view that a firm's marketing decisions should take into account the requirements of consumers, and the long run interests of both consumers and the society

(Kotler *et al.*, 2011:11; Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:25). Figure 2.2 shows the three considerations underlying societal marketing concepts.

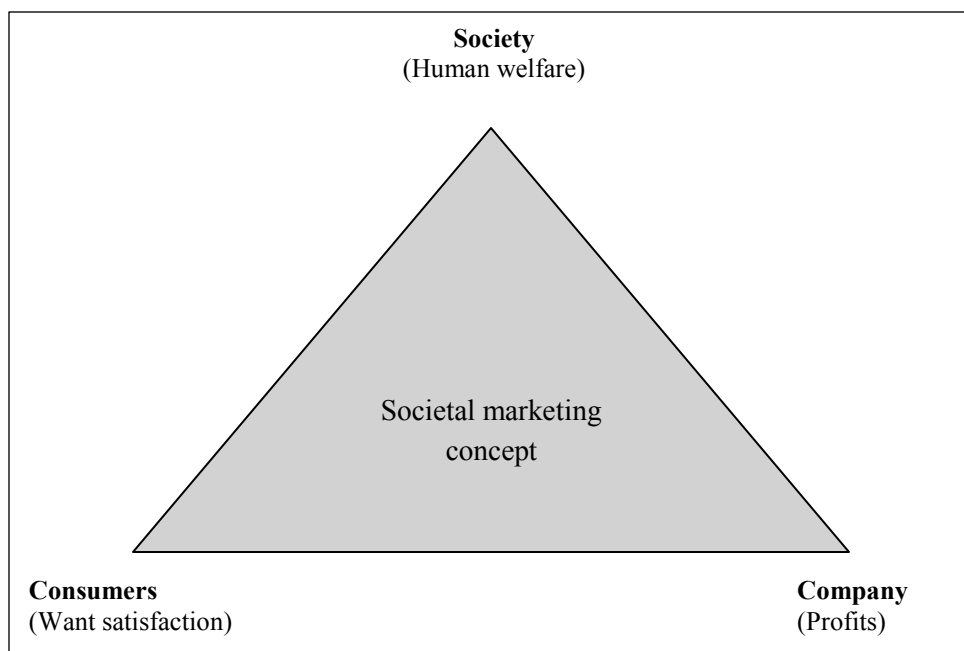


Figure 2.2 The considerations underlying the societal marketing concepts

Source: Adapted from Kotler *et al.* (2011:11)

According to the societal marketing philosophy, the firm's mandate is to concentrate on the target markets' requirements and also to deliver the sought-after satisfactions in a manner that is more effective and efficient than competitors while preserving or enhancing the well beings of consumers and the society (Kotler & Keller, 2006:22). Social and ethical considerations should be principally taken into account by marketers. This calls for a need to strike a balance and the manipulation of the profits of the company, satisfaction of customers as well as the interests of the public. These three issues are always conflicting (Kotler & Keller, 2006:22).

2.2.3.6 Customer orientation

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:20) propose a new marketing approach called customer orientation. This approach goes beyond the marketing concept. They argue that the customer orientation or centrality extends the focus of the marketing concept—focussing on how an organisation adapts to consumers—on to how all firms in the demand chain adapt to suit the shifting consumer lifestyles and behaviours. According to the customer centrality view, consumers influence many aspects in our everyday life. These aspects in the society include government, social programmes, health care,

among others (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:20). Solomon and Stuart (2003:46) do not see any difference between the marketing orientation and the consumer orientation. They argue that consumer orientation is the hallmark of the marketing concept. Similarly, Jobber and Fahy (2003:4) view the customer orientation as a part of the marketing concept. They argue that the customer orientation is one of the key components of the marketing concept.

2.2.4 Managing the marketing mix

The task of the marketer involves planning marketing activities and coming up with fully unified programmes that create, communicate and deliver value to the customers. These activities come in different forms. The marketing mix provides a traditional depiction of such activities. It refers to marketing tools that the firm should use in order to achieve its marketing objectives (Kotler & Keller, 2006:18). Jobber and Fahy (2003:11) illustrate that the hallmark of an effective management of the marketing mix involves matching customer needs, creating competitive advantage, matching corporate resources and creating the right blend of the mix variables.

The seminal works in marketing show that the marketing mix originated from a single P—price—of the macroeconomic theory. Several other Ps were added later to cope with the increasingly competitive environment (Goi, 2009:2). In 1965 Borden claimed to have been the first person to use the term “marketing mix”. He argued that this was suggested to him by an article written by Culliton in 1948. In 1948, Culliton described the business executive as a mixer of ingredients who should come up with a successful recipe. The marketing mix variables are therefore supposed to be mixed in a way that achieves business success (Goi, 2009:2). The early works of Borden offered twelve elements which he termed the marketing mix of the manufacturers, namely product planning, pricing, branding, channels of distribution, personal selling, advertising, promotions, packaging, display, servicing, physical handling, as well as fact finding and analysis (Borden, 1984:10). Borden also suggested that such forces as consumers’ buying behaviour, traders’ (wholesalers’ and retailers’) behaviour, competitor’s position and behaviour, and governmental behaviour (controls over marketing) acted upon the marketing mix. When these forces are taken together with the twelve mixing variables, the concept of the marketing mix becomes complete. In 1964 McCarthy refined Borden’s ideas and came up with a consolidated and shorter version of the marketing mix which he referred to as the 4Ps—price, product, place and promotion (Goi, 2009:2).

The offering of the marketing mix in the form of 4Ps sought to transform marketing planning into practice. The 4Ps as a concept of the marketing mix has been criticised by some scholars. However, the 4Ps have remained popular as a key feature of the marketing mix. Several other Ps have been

added by different scholars but the prominent ones were the 3Ps, namely people, processes and physical evidence that take into account the marketing of services (Goi, 2009:2). Similarly, Kotler, Keller, Brady, Goodman and Hansen (2009:17) observe that the marketing mix elements were expanded to 7Ps by Boden in order to have a more service focus and these include process (service process), physical evidence and people/participants as shown in Figure 2.3. Likewise, a study of UK academics highlighted the shortcomings of the 4 Ps as the concept of the marketing mix. They suggested that the use of service marketing mix should reflect the actual marketing environment (Kotler *et al.*, 2009:17). Concurring with this, Bhattacharjee (2010:395), Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler (2006:25) and Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:8) show that the 4 Ps are not adequate to address the demands of services marketing and thus there is a need for an extended marketing mix.

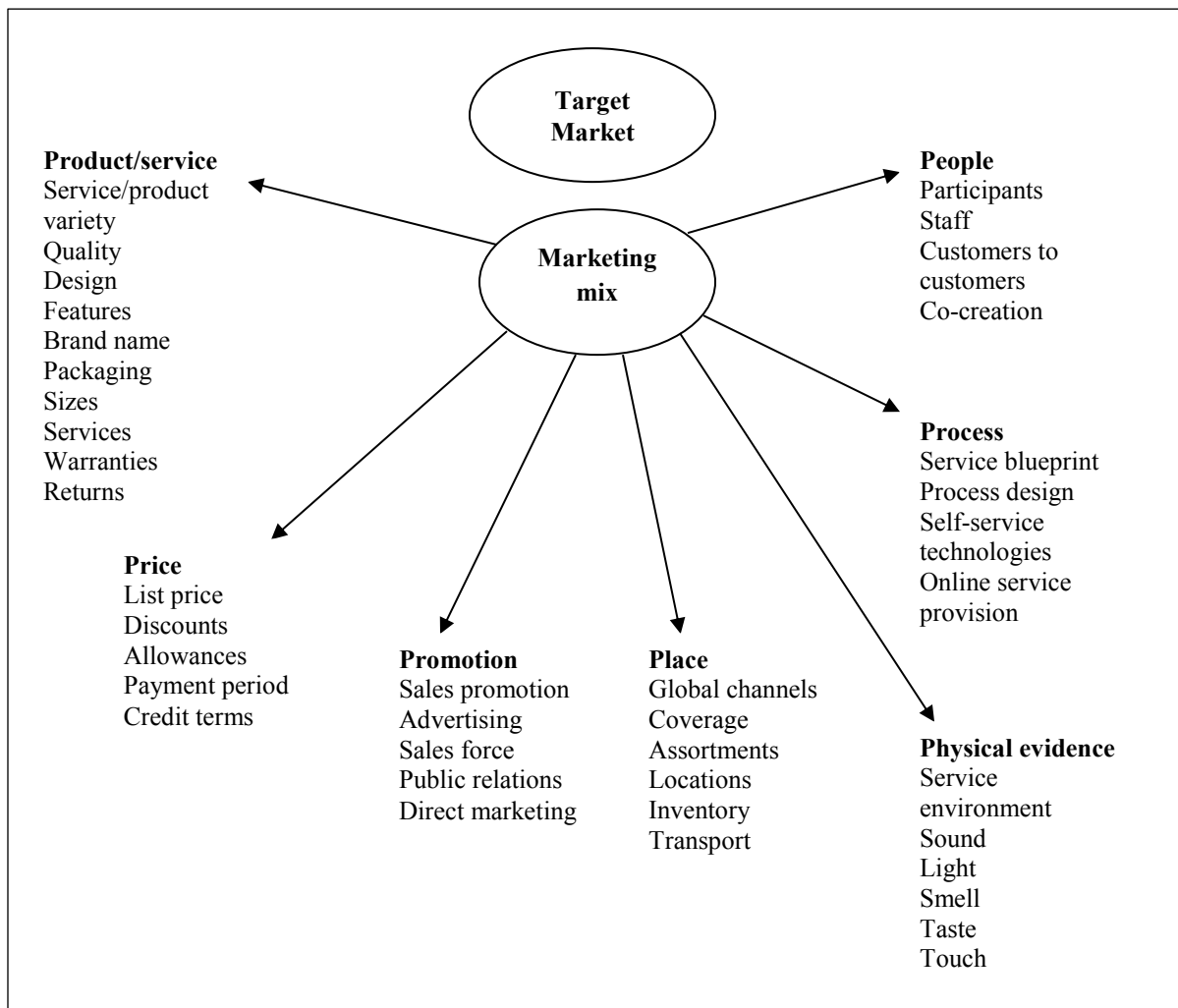


Figure 2.3 The 7Ps components of the marketing mix

Source: Adapted from Kotler *et al.* (2009:17)

Product means a combination of goods and services that are offered by the firm to the target market (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:67). The elements that make up the product include variety, quality, design, features, packaging, brand name, services and sizes. The firm must come up with a product that suits the needs and wants of the customer. There is no point in offering a product that the customer does not want i.e. the aspects of the product in terms of quality, for example, must be tailored to meet the requirements of the customer. The product must provide value for money to the customer (CIM, 2009:4; Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:67).

Price refers to the amount of money that a customer should pay so as to acquire a product. The elements of price include discounts, allowances, credit terms, payment period and list price (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:67). Price is the single element of the marketing mix that is responsible for generating income, everything else represents a cost to the company. The price of the product should be competitive i.e. the price should be reasonable and the product should provide value for money. The price should reflect the true worth of the product (CIM, 2009:4).

Place refers to those activities of the company that are directed at making the product available to the consumer (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:67). The elements considered for the place include channels, transport, assortments, inventory and locations. The distribution of the product must be convenient while maintaining efficiency. Products must be available to the customers at the right place, at the right time and in the right quantities (CIM, 2009:5).

Activities that a company uses to communicate what it does and the qualities of its product offerings and to persuade the target customers to buy its products are called promotion. The components of promotion include advertising, sales promotion, sales force, public relations and direct marketing (CIM, 2009:5; Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:68). Promotion must be appealing and attractive to the customer; it must capture the attention of the customer. It is not a one-way communication; feedback must also be obtained from the customers (CIM, 2009).

Lovelock and Wirtz (2011:44) argue that customers usually judge service quality based on the people that are providing that particular service. People are considered to constitute the most critical component of the marketing mix of services in that they have a much more direct effect on the output received by customers as compared to the other elements (Bhattacharjee, 2010:395; Palmer, 1998:8). The CIM (2009:6) argues that people are crucial because they come into contact with the customers of the organisation. They have the potential to destroy or build the clientele of the company. In this regard, employees of the organisation should be well trained and motivated and

the right attitude should be inculcated in them so that they serve the customer better than the competitors.

Process describes the way and order of action or events in which service operating systems work. In high contact services, the processes of serving customers are critical in that customers are easily affected by the manner in which the employees serve them and also by the amount of time they spend waiting during the production of the service (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2004:21). As suggested by Bhattacharjee (2010:422), the service process should be treated by the marketer as a tactical tool to achieve the strategic goals. Likewise, The CIM (2009:6) emphasise the importance of the service process and acknowledges that such issues as waiting time, information availed to the customers and the assistance given to customers by staff are critical in keeping the customers happy. Although critical, the processes represent an element that is usually overlooked by marketers and yet this could be a great source of competitive advantage to the firm (The CIM, 2009:7).

One of the key features of services is that they are intangible. This makes the marketing of services complicated. It becomes risky for the consumer to make a purchase decision because there are no tangible clues. Therefore, it is critical for the marketer to reduce this risk by providing the physical evidence (Zeithaml *et al.*, 2006:27; Palmer, 1998:10). The way buildings, staff members, landscaping and other visible cues appear give tangible evidence regarding the company's service quality (Bhattacharjee, 2010:418; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2004:22). The physical evidence helps customers to 'see' the intangible product before they can make a purchase decision. This helps to reduce the uncertainty inherent in the intangibility of the service (CIM, 2009:7).

Within the service sector, customer service can be described as the total customer perception of service quality. Managing service quality offered to customers should be strictly identified with the policy of the company on the related marketing mix variables of product design and personnel (Palmer, 1998:10). Once the company has chosen a target market, the marketing manager is faced with both short and long term decisions to make. These decisions must combine all the marketing mix decisions together so that the distribution suits the products and also to ensure that the service process is aligned to the pricing strategy, *inter alia*. The 7Ps of the marketing mix elements represent the company's standpoint of the tools of marketing available to influence buyers (Kotler *et al.*, 2009:17). From the point of view of the customer, each tool is supposed to deliver a benefit to the customer. The 7Ps correspond to the 7Cs (customer benefits) (Kotler *et al.*, 2011:48; Current Business Practice, 2010) i.e. product corresponds with customer solution, price corresponds with customer cost, place corresponds with convenience, promotion corresponds with communication,

people corresponds with caring, processes corresponds with coordinated, and physical evidence corresponds with confirmation.

The marketing mix is concerned with important decisions that are made by marketing managers when designing product offering that suit the requirements of customers. As such the marketing mix is not a scientific theory but an important tool of marketing (Goi, 2009:2). In this regard, Kotler and Keller (2006:20) suggest that successful companies are the ones that can satisfy the needs of the customers economically and conveniently with effective communication. This leads to the concept of integrated marketing. Two critical issues emerge from integrated marketing. The first one is that the majority of marketing activities aim at communicating and achieving value. The second one is that all marketing activities are synchronised in order to get the best out of their combined effects. In other words, no one marketing activity should be designed and implemented in isolation from other marketing activities (Kotler & Keller, 2006:20).

2.3 CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

2.3.1 Definition and scope of consumer behaviour

Consumer behaviour focuses on those processes that involve the selection, purchasing, using or disposing of products by individuals and organisations as they seek to satisfy their requirements (Solomon, 2002:5). Similarly, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:8) suggest that consumer behaviour is concerned with how consumers search, purchase, use, evaluate and dispose of products with the intention of getting satisfied. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:4) also view consumer behaviour as a field of study that focuses on consumer activities. They expand on this view to define consumer behaviour as those activities undertaken by people when they obtain, consume and dispose of products. In simpler terms, consumer behaviour has been understood as the study of the reasons why people buy as this makes it easier to craft strategies that influence consumers (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:4). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:8) agree with this view and posit that consumer behaviour is concerned with how consumers make decisions as they spend their resources to acquire consumption related items. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:9) identify two groups of consumers as individual consumers and organisational consumers. However, the main focus of consumer behaviour is on individual consumers who buy products for own personal or household use. They also assert that the end-use consumption is probably the most universal of all consumer behaviour types. The main reason for this is that end-use consumption concerns every individual as either a buyer or user.

Marketing is concerned with the orientation of products or services to the market. An important consideration of this orientation is the customers' buying behaviour in the target market. As such it

is imperative for the marketer to have a good understanding of how different consumer segments perceive the product offering. An understanding of the value needs and expectations of these consumer segments is also important (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:6). More so, there is a need to know the attitudes of consumers and how learning takes place. Therefore, a sound understanding of consumers and the processes involved when they consume products provides several benefits (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:3; Mowen & Minor, 2001:5).

The principle of consumer primacy is the central focus in the field of marketing (Mowen & Minor, 2001:5). According to this concept, consumers are the central focus of the marketing effort. In other words, in order to create successful marketing strategies, marketers must have a sound understanding of the factors that influence the needs and wants of the consumers. In view of this, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:8) argue that all marketing strategies are based on sound beliefs about customer behaviour. Thus, marketing strategy is concerned with, *inter alia*, identifying and selecting a target market for products and services, and providing superior customer value. Customers must be provided with products or services that will satisfy their needs. As the environment becomes increasingly competitive, organisations must be customer oriented. The marketing orientation suggests that the identification and satisfaction of customer needs leads to improved retention of customers (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:3).

Fundamental to the profound understanding of the behaviour of consumers is the development of public policy. As far as consumer behaviour is concerned, public policy considers the design of laws and regulations that deal with and also influence consumers in the market place (Mowen & Minor, 2001:5). The study of consumer misbehaviour is another aspect that falls into the public-policy domain of consumer behaviour. The concept of consumer misbehaviour is also known as the dark side of consumer behaviour. Consumer misbehaviour is concerned with the idea that consumers can act unethically, misuse products, and engage in behaviours that risk their financial resources and even place their lives in danger. A sound understanding of the causes of consumer misbehaviour is highly likely to enable public policy makers to implement laws and regulations that will benefit the society (Mowen & Minor, 2001:5).

Many problems that the society faces today are a result of the choices that consumers make. For example, drinking and driving, smoking, eating high-fat foods, taking drugs or using the services of prostitutes. This calls for the concept of altruistic marketing (Mowen & Minor, 2001:5). As stated in Mowen and Minor (2001:5), altruistic marketing seeks to understand how and why consumers engage in negligent behaviour. It seeks to provide treatment and prevention designed to thwart these

maladaptive consumer practices. Therefore, research in consumer behaviour can help in influencing people to act more responsibly in their consumption of such products.

A general understanding of the behaviour of consumers has personal value to consumers. Understanding the factors that influence consumers' own consumption activities makes them become better consumers; assists them in the buying process by providing information on some of the strategies companies use to market their products. It is also satisfying and is part of being a well-rounded, educated person (Mowen & Minor, 2001:6).

Consumer behaviour also has relevance to international marketing (Mowen & Minor, 2001:2). They argue that the study of cross-cultural processes and how people in different countries react to marketing efforts is fundamental to the field. To come up with winning strategies within the increasingly competitive international marketing environment, an adequate understanding of the behaviour of consumers is critical (Mowen & Minor, 2001:2).

The academic discipline of consumer behaviour is very young and is influenced by different perspectives as it grows (Solomon, 2002:28). Researchers from very diverse backgrounds can study consumer behaviour in different perspectives depending on their training and interests. In this regard, Mowen and Minor (2001:4) assert that consumer behaviour incorporates theories and concepts from all of the behavioural sciences. This implies that when one studies consumer behaviour, one studies several other behavioural science disciplines. Further to this, Blackwell *et al.* (2006: xxv), submit that consumer behaviour borrows from every discipline that makes a contribution to the understanding of consumers. The greatest strength of the field of consumer behaviour comes from its interdisciplinary nature as it serves to integrate existing knowledge from other disciplines concerning the behaviour of consumers (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:4). Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:4) also argue that when an individual studies consumer behaviour, he/she also explores several disciplines. This is because consumer behaviour borrows from such disciplines as anthropology, demography, economics, history, psychology, semiotics, social psychology and sociology (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006: xxv; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:19; Solomon, 2002:28; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:4; Mowen & Minor, 2001:4).

2.3.2 Historical development of consumer behaviour

A survey of the origin and development of consumer behaviour as a field of study is critical in that it provides a framework of reference for the discussion of consumer behaviour variables or factors subject to change. It also acts as a background to contemporary consumer behaviour theories (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:4). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:9) noted that consumer behaviour, as a field of

study, emerged from the marketing philosophy that came into being in the 1950s. In sync with Domegan (2011:496), Tamilia (2011:508), Jack *et al.* (2010:13) Lagrosen and Svensson (2006:370), Shaw and Jones (2005:240), Wilkie and Moore (2003:116) and Jones and Shaw (2002:39), Maclaran, Stern, Tadajewski and Saren (2009:52) point out that marketing itself did not exist as an independent academic endeavour until just over 100 years ago.

Economists viewed consumers as people who individually and collectively determined the demand for goods, and also as people who could reason and avoid risk (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:4). Systematic research on consumer behaviour only began in the early 20th century. During this period, consumer behaviour research was relatively unsophisticated and without theoretical basis until the 1930s (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:4).

After the Great Depression of the 1930s, a rise in demand for products brought about increased interest in consumer behaviour research (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:5). There were several social scientists who worked to influence the initial development of consumer behaviour in marketing thought (Shaw & Jones, 2005:261). One such important contribution from the psychologists of this era was Freud's psychoanalytic theory. This was followed by Neo-Freudian theories. Jung, Alder, Horney and Reisman are examples of personality theories of Neo-Freudians that were applied by researchers as bases for indicating that different personality types can be distinguished according to these types' choices of different product brands, in addition to buying and consumer habits they manifest (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:5).

An approach that focussed on the behaviour of consumers was taken in the 1950s, moving away from a macroeconomic orientation. The dominant research contributions in this period were motivation theories. Maslow in 1954 developed his motivation hierarchy of physical, emotional, and social needs to indicate that consumers follow certain behaviour patterns when purchasing products to fulfil their needs (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:5). This view is also held by Blackwell *et al.* (2006:19) that behavioural sciences in the form of motivation theories, especially Maslow's hierarchy of needs, were the dominant research contributions to consumer behaviour. The attitude of marketers towards consumers also changed from a sales orientation to a marketing orientation. Although price was once a dominant factor in the study of consumer behaviour by economists, contemporary marketers began to shift their attention onto other factors influencing consumer choice such as quality, convenience, image, and advertising; thereby resulting in organisations producing what consumers were likely to buy (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:19).

Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:5) assert that consumer behaviour emerged as a bona fide discipline during the 1960s when economists and marketers developed expertise in behavioural sciences. Consumer behaviour researchers concentrated more on other basic consumer sciences. Similarly, consumer behaviour, as a school of marketing thought, started to grow in the 1960s. Concepts were integrated into comprehensive models of buyer behaviour (Shaw & Jones, 2005:261). Multivariate statistical techniques were introduced and became the order of the day in analysing consumer behaviour. Experiments using psychological techniques such as multidimensional graphs were also introduced and increasingly used. This era also witnessed the first book on consumer behaviour—*Nicosia's Consumer decision processes: marketing and advertising implications*—appearing in 1966. Individual, sociocultural, and economic determinants of consumer behaviour were the agenda of publications (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:5). The first courses in consumer behaviour were introduced at universities in USA. More so, two professional journals were published, namely *Journal of Advertising Research* as well as *Journal of Marketing Research*. These publications provided the necessary latitude for reporting on research into consumer behaviour. This created a valuable platform for the exchange of information on consumer research (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:5). Shaw and Jones (2005:261) assert that from then on the popularity of consumer behaviour grew tremendously much to the extent that consumer behaviour commands to be studied as its own independent discipline separate from the parent discipline of marketing.

As noted by Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:5), in the 1970s researchers on consumer behaviour grew in expertise as they began developing and introducing concepts of consumer processes instead of borrowing concepts from other disciplines and applying them to consumer behaviour. It became evident to many researchers that the processes which led to purchasing decisions were more complex than what earlier attitude studies had indicated. The concept of information processing became fundamental when purchasing decisions research (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:5). Relatively complete models of consumer behaviour came to the fore. Early models such as that of Howard in 1963, which seemingly had little practical application value, were refined by Howard and Ostlund in 1973. Also adapted to keep pace with developments in consumer behaviour was the Engel-Blackwell model of 1968. In 1977 Howard modified the original Howard-Sheth model to provide for extended problem-solving situations and routinised buying behaviour (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:6). In this era, consumerism gained prominence and today most books on consumer behaviour contain increasingly more information on consumerism (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:6). Consumer behaviour continued to grow into a fully-fledged research discipline. The main objective of researchers has been to develop theories and concepts that can explain and predict consumer behaviour. Even today,

consumer behaviour is still evolving as a field of study (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:6; Shaw & Jones, 2005:261).

2.4 CONSUMER DECISION MAKING AND PURCHASE BEHAVIOUR

2.4.1 Consumer decision making and purchase behaviour

Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:260) refer to consumer decision making as an activity aimed at solving consumer problems. They content that the prime decision made by consumers is whether to purchase or not, to spend or save money when faced with a particular buying situation. Most of the early consumer behaviour theories relied much on the economic theory. These early theories assumed that the consumer is rational and as such makes rational decisions that are aimed at maximising the benefits that they derive from the purchase of products (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:19). However, researchers later discovered that consumers can also purchase products impulsively and that there are other factors that influence the behaviour of consumers. These factors include emotions, buying situation as well as family members and friends. When combined, these factors yield comprehensive models of consumer behaviour that explain such aspects as cognition and emotion in consumer decision making (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:19). From the consumer decision making perspective, purchase is a one of the stages in the consumer decision making process. In order to have a sound understanding of this stage, there is a need to examine preceding events. Such events in the consumer decision making are problem recognition, search and information processing, and evaluation of alternatives (Verbeke, 2000:524). These events form part of the stages of consumer decision making as proposed by Kotler (2002:98). Kotler (2002:98) suggest that the process of consumer decision making comprises five stages, namely problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision, and post-purchase behaviour. This demonstrates that the buying process begins prior to and extends beyond the actual purchase of the product.

2.4.2 Views of consumer decision making

Before presenting an overview or simplified model of consumer decision making, various schools of thought regarding how consumers make decisions need to be considered. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:550), the term 'models of consumers' is concerned with a general view on how and for what reasons consumers behave as they do. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:550) suggest four views of consumer decision making. These include economic, passive, cognitive and emotional views. These models have their roots in the traditional behavioural models for analysing

buyers—the Marshallian Economic Model; Veblenian Social-Psychological Model; Pavlovian Learning Model; and Freudian Psychoanalytical Model—as stipulated in Kotler (1965:37-45).

The economic view of the consumer decision making is based on the study of theoretical economics. This portrays the competitive world as perfect. In this perfect world, the consumer is usually portrayed as economic i.e. making rational decisions (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550). This model, also known as the economic man theory, has been criticised for a number of reasons. First, it is very rare for consumers to have sufficient or all of the required information to make decisions. More so, it is difficult for the consumer to have at least a sufficient degree of motivation or involvement, to make what is termed 'perfect decisions'. This is because the world in which consumers live is imperfect. Therefore, consumers do not necessarily make decisions based on maximising the benefits that they derive from the purchase and consumption of products (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550).

The passive view is diametrically opposed to the rational economic view. The tenets of the passive view argue that the consumer is passive; he/she always gives in to marketing promotions. Irrationality and impulsiveness are the characteristics of consumers hence consumers can readily succumb to the manoeuvres of marketers. This model is inapplicable because of its single-mindedness and failure to take into account the fact that consumers play a significant role when it comes to buying situations (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550).

The cognitive approach views the consumer as an individual who can think in order to solve own problems. As such consumers accept and deliberately search for information and products that fulfil their requirements. The idea is to enrich their own survival (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550). This model is focused on how consumers search for information and how they evaluate this information in order to make decisions about desired products. The consumer is regarded as an information processor. Information processing leads to favourable attitudes which also lead to the actual purchase (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550; Kotler, 2002:98; Verbeke, 2000:524). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:550) clarify that as far as this framework is concerned, the consumer often uses short cuts—heuristics—when making decisions. This implies that the consumer does not always need all the information in order to make purchase decisions but is likely to stop searching for information once he/she feels can make a satisfactory decision. This leads to the concept of information overload where the consumer can cope with too much information exposure by resorting to heuristics. This model places the consumer in between the economic and passive views of decision making (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:550) illustrate that consistent with the problem-solving view is the notion that consumer behaviour is largely goal-directed as

illustrated in Figure 2.4. Goal setting is specifically important when it comes to the adoption of new products because the greater the degree of newness, the more difficult it is for consumers to make product evaluations and relate it to his or her need because of lack of experience with the product (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550).

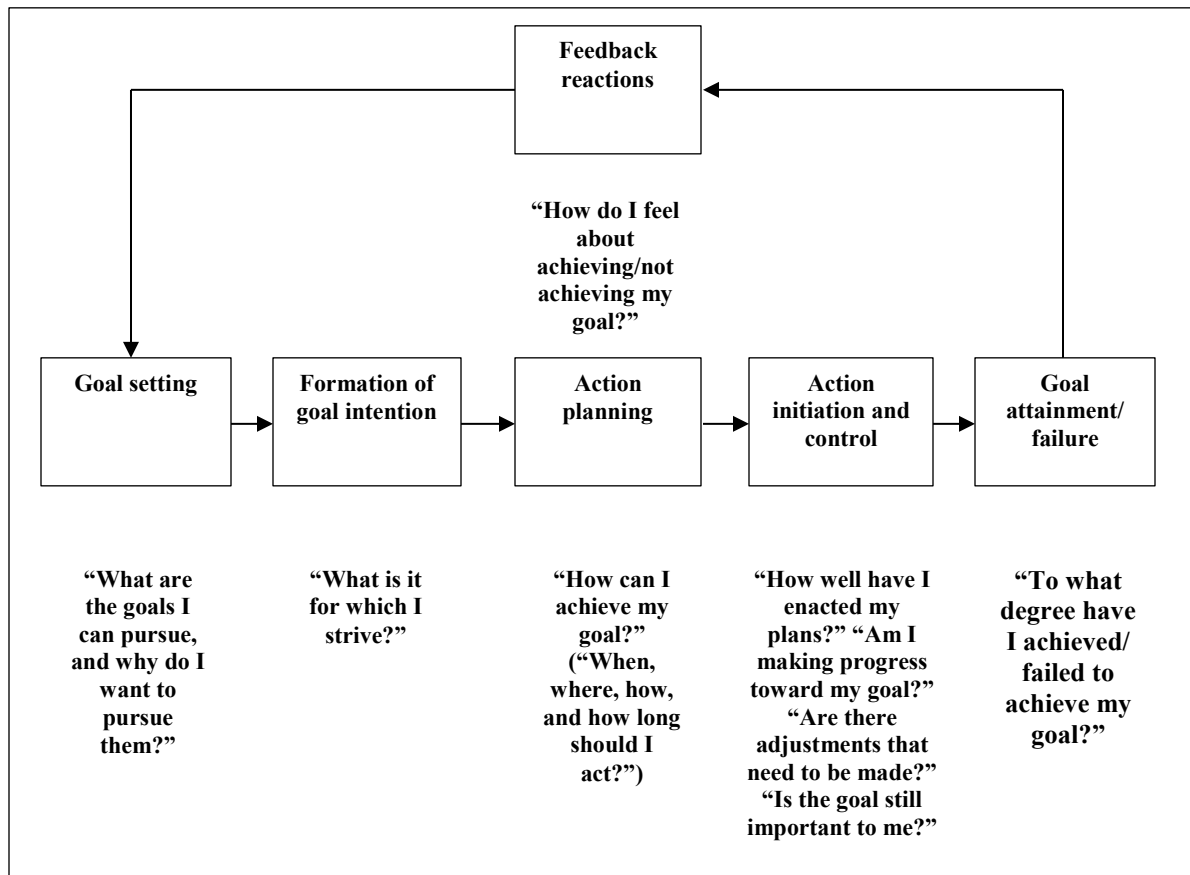


Figure 2.4 Goal setting and goal pursuit in consumer behaviour

Source: Adapted from Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:552)

Much of the behaviour of consumers is goal-directed as can be found in the marketing of goods and services (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:19). The same applies to organisational buyers who pursue specific goals when purchasing products or materials in their businesses. Goals share a focus on a particular outcome or outcomes that can be produced by consumption. This desired outcome enters and occupies the mind of the person making a decision. It forms specific kind of goal that is referred to as a 'mental image' or end point. Thus, buyers purchase goods and services in order to satisfy goals or to produce one or more end-state goals (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550; Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:19).

A goal directed behaviour begins with goal setting which involves decision making processes that figuratively address two major questions—“what are the goals I can pursue”, and “why do I want to pursue them?” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550). In this regard, Bagozzi and Dholakia (1999:20) add that goals are activated either internally or externally. When activated internally, the consumer chooses from self-generated alternatives or constructs a goal schema. When activated externally, the context imposes imperatives or presents opportunities. With sufficient strong desire to pursue a particular goal, the actual goal pursuit manifests in one of the three conditions (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:20).

First, in frequently performed consumption activities, the pursuit of a goal can be activated more or less automatically by responses to already learnt cues and little or less conscious processing is involved. This is known as habitual goal-directed behaviour. Second, there are impulsive acts which do not require prior planning but involve an awakening of a desire or need that suddenly becomes a goal that has to be satisfied through minimal goal-directed activities. Third, there are goals that are volitional in nature. These goals are initiated volitionally and are emphasised in most research. They result in goal intention (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:19). According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:552), this goal intention seeks to answer the question—“what is it for which I strive?” The goal intentions are directed at specific acts as end performances. For example, “I intend to lose two pounds by exercising vigorously with my ProForm treadmill during the next two weeks” (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:20). Studies have focused much on goal intentions directed at end performances with the theory of reasoned action. Goal intentions in this regard have been termed behavioural intentions. On the other hand, goal intentions directed at outcomes have also been studied with the theory of reasoned action. However, the theory is not applicable to outcome or end-state goals. One type of volition that has received much attention from consumer behaviour research is the implementation volition. It is concerned with an individual’s intention to perform a goal-directed behaviour given that future contingencies occur. For example, “I intend to do X when situation Y is encountered” (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:20-21).

The third stage in the goal-directed behaviour is called action planning (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:552). Bagozzi and Dholakia (1999:21) see this stage also as volitional. The general question to be answered at this stage is: - “how can I achieve my goal?” The specific questions are: - “when, where, how and how long should I act in this regard?” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:552; Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:21). Bagozzi and Dholakia (1999:21) assert that choosing the means represent a critical part of planning.

The fourth stage, as presented by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:21) and Bagozzi and Dholakia (1999:21), is called action initiation and control. In this stage, delayed intentions are enacted and goal-directed behaviours are guided. This stage addresses four basic questions—“am I making progress towards my goal?” “How well have I enacted my plans?” “Are there judgements that need to be made?” “Is the goal still important to me?” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:552; Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:21).

The fifth stage is referred to as goal attainment or goal failure (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:552). This stage is concerned with a final comparison between the final outcome achieved and a reference value or standard. It also involves the determination of whether to increase or maintain efforts at goal pursuit or abandoning further efforts (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:21). Some figurative questions are asked at this stage—“to what degree have I achieved or failed to achieve my ends?” “Should I continue with or terminate goal striving?” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:552).

The last stage comprises feedback reactions (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:552; Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:21). Feedback reactions represent the difference between the person’s goal and its achievements. An appraisal of this difference would generate emotional responses which include reactions of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, *inter alia*. The fundamental question here is: - “how do I feel about achieving or not achieving my goal?” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:552). There are emotional and rational reactions to the goal achievement or failure. These reactions eventually update an individual’s knowledge structure about goals, the desire to pursue goals, and other learning regarding planning, means and implementation (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999:21).

The last approach of consumer decision making as proposed by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:550) is called the emotional view. This view draws insights from the feedback reactions stage of the goal-directed behaviour framework illustrated by Bagozzi and Dholakia (1999:21) which generates emotional responses which include reactions of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, among others. According to the emotional view, consumers sometimes have emotions based on the purchase or possession of certain products. In most cases these deep feelings (emotions) are highly involving. Possessions play an important role with regards to the emotional view. They can preserve a sense of the past. When an individual’s future is uncertain, possessions may also provide some form of familiar transition (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550). A good example is that of soldiers who usually carry photographs of their loved ones back home because these memorabilia often serve as hopeful reminders that one day normal activities will resume. Within this framework, less emphasis is placed on pre-purchase search for information and decisions are based on the current mood (Schiffman & Kanuk, 552).

2.4.3 An overview model of consumer decision making process

The views of consumer decision making as proposed by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:550) show a shift from the early notion—based on economic theories—that consumers are rational beings who maximise their satisfaction through the purchase and consumption of products to the acceptance that there are other factors that influence the decisions of consumers that need to be considered. For instance, consumers may purchase impulsively. They may also be influenced by emotions, buying situations, mood, family members and friends when it comes to purchasing products. When combined, these factors result in comprehensive models of consumer behaviour that seek to explain such important aspects as cognition and emotion in the study of consumer behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:19). There are several models that explain the decision making of consumers. However, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554), present a simplified overview model of consumer decision making. In this model, consumer decision making is a process that comprises three major stages, namely input, process and output as illustrated in Figure 2.5.

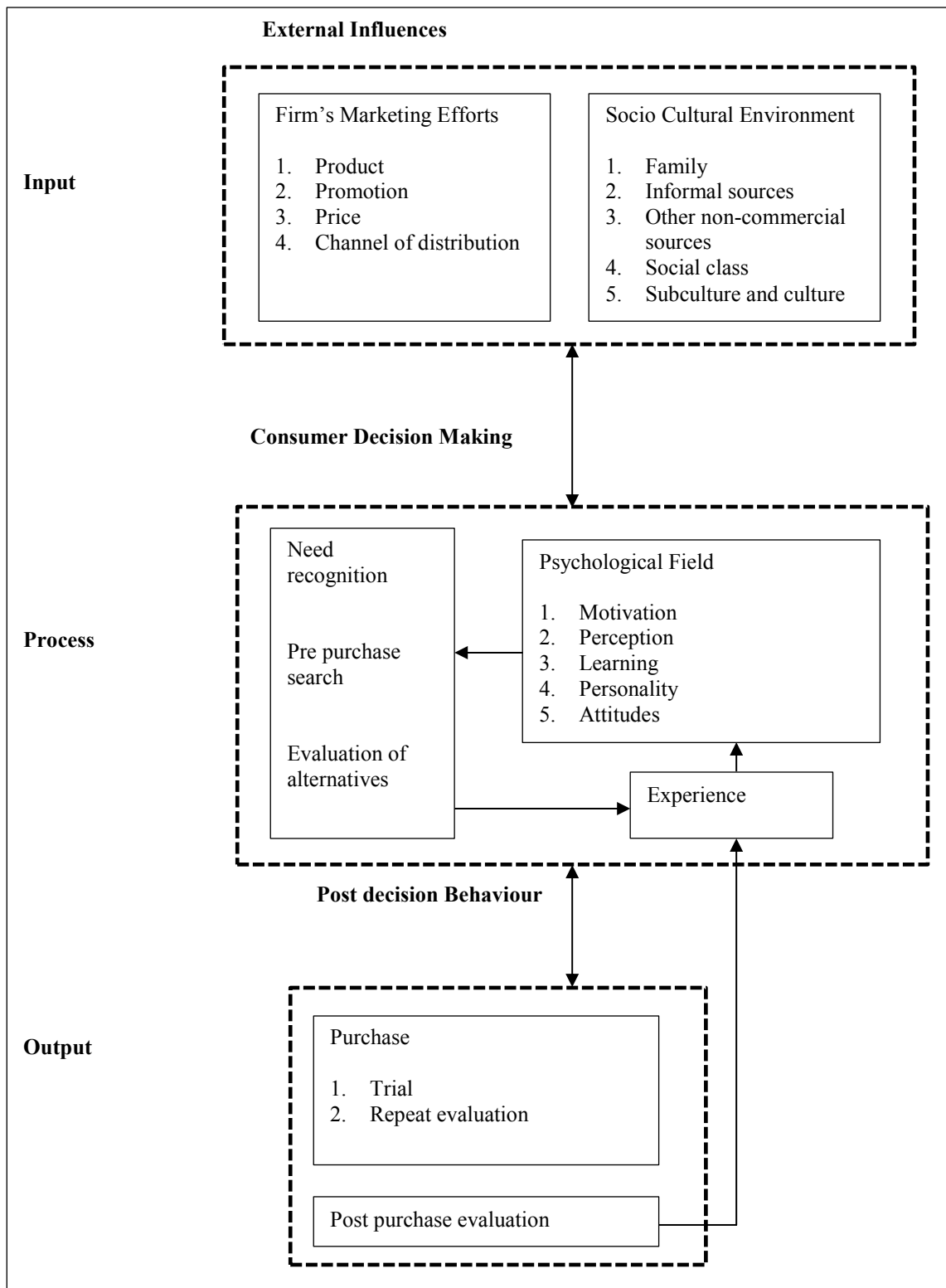


Figure 2.5 A simple model of consumer decision making

Source: Adapted from Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554)

Figure 2.5 represents an overview model of consumer decision making. This model reveals cognition (problem solving) emotion as the key aspects in the decision making of the consumer. The model combines and simplifies a number of concepts into one, making it easier to understand the process of consumer decision making (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:553).

The input stage concerns the acquisition of information concerning a product from external stimuli. The external stimuli act as an external source of information. The role of external stimuli is to influence values, attitudes and behaviour of consumers based on a particular product (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:75; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:553). In this regard, Kotler (2002:88) asserts marketing influences as well as environmental influences enter the buyer's consciousness and that certain decisions will follow as a result of the buyer's characteristics and decision process. The major input factors are the firm's marketing mix activities—which are marketer dominated—and the socio-cultural environment— which is non-marketer dominated. The double-headed arrow between the input and process shows that the firm's marketing efforts and the sociocultural environment can be directed to consumers, or can be actively sought by consumers (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:553).

Marketing inputs consist of the firm's marketing efforts. The activities or efforts are designed to reach and inform consumers and also to persuade them to buy and use the firm's products. These activities are mainly based on the marketing mix (product, price, place and promotion) of the firm (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:553). Similarly, Kotler (2002:88) identifies the 4Ps as the marketing stimuli. The impact of the organisation's marketing effort is largely influenced by the consumer's perception of these efforts. On the other hand, sociocultural factors exert a major influence on the consumer. The sociocultural environment consists of various non-commercial influences such as family, informal sources, social class, culture and subculture (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:554). Kotler (2002:88) refers to the socio-cultural environment simply as other stimuli which are made up of the economic, technological, political and cultural environments.

The process component of the model explains how consumers make decisions. The psychological field—motivation, perception, learning, personality, and attitudes—acts as the major influence of this process. Need recognition, pre-purchase search, and alternatives evaluation are the three distinct stages in the psychological component (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:555). Verbeke (2000:524) refers to these stages as events and identifies them as recognition of problem, search and information processing, and alternatives evaluation respectively. According to Verbeke (2000:524), these events precede purchasing in the process of consumer decision. To understand the purchase point of the process of consumer decision, there is a need to understand these events. Similarly, Kotler (2002:98) views these events or stages as a part of the process of decision making. He asserts that

problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision, and post-purchase behaviour are five stages in the process of consumer decision making. However, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554) identify need recognition, pre-purchase search, and evaluation of alternatives as the only stages in the consumer decision making process. They regard purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour as post-decision behaviour.

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:71), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:555) and Solomon (2002:259) concur that need recognition occurs when an individual is faced with a problem. In this case the problem refers to what the consumer views as an ideal situation compared to the current state of affairs. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:74) refer to information search as a receptivity of information that solves problems or needs rather than a search for a specific product. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:556) suggest that pre-purchase search involves a situation where the consumer perceives that the purchase or consumption of a particular product might result in satisfaction. Usually, before searching for information from the external sources, the consumer begins by searching his/her memory, herein referred to as the psychological field. Past experience—viewed as the internal source of information—also plays an active role. The greater the relevance of past experience, the less external information is needed to make a purchase decision. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:74) agree with Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:556) that in many purchase decisions, consumers use a combination of external sources and internal sources.

The evaluation of alternatives stage is concerned with the use of information concerning products in order to make evaluations about alternative products or brands. Normally, these products or brands are said to be in the choice set (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:195). The two major types of information used by consumer when evaluating alternatives include the evoked set as well as criteria used to make evaluations on each of the brands. A consumer has to make a selection from a list of available brands. This list is referred to as an evoked set (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:559). The evoked set is made up of those products in memory of the consumer—referred to as retrieval set—and those prominent in the retail environment. The consumer's evoked set is also known as the consideration set (Solomon, 2002:268). Kerin, Hartley and Rudelius (2009:117) view the consideration set as all those brands that the consumer considered acceptable in view of all other brands within the class of product the consumer is aware of. Jobber and Fahy (2003:53) refer to the consideration set as awareness set—a collection of those brands that are deemed to provide a solution to the problem of the consumer. It is distinguished from the consumer's inert and inept sets. Those alternatives that the consumer is aware of but would not consider represent the inert set. On the other hand, the inept set involves those alternatives that are 'not entering the game' or not considered at all. This implies

that the consumer is indifferent towards the inept set because it consists of products or brands that are perceived not to have any particular advantage (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:559). Product attributes influence the criteria used by consumers when evaluating available product alternatives (evoked sets). In case of frozen dinners (food), for example, such attributes taken into account include taste, price and preparation requirements (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:561).

The output component of the model depicts the post-decision behaviour. This suggests that the process of consumer decision making comprises the need recognition, pre-purchase search, and evaluation of alternatives stages only (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:554). Thus the output stage comprises the purchase behaviour and post purchase evaluation. These two stages are closely related and seek to increase the satisfaction of the consumer with the purchase of a product. The purchase behaviour comprises trial purchase and repeat evaluation (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:554). Verbeke (2000:524) refers to the need recognition, pre-purchase search and evaluation of alternatives stages as events that precede the purchase point in the process of consumer decision. Opposing the view of Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554), Kotler (2002:98) argues that the process of consumer decision making comprises five distinct stages, namely problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision, and post-purchase behaviour.

2.4.4 A framework of consumer decision making towards meat

The framework of consumer decision making towards meat comprise three main phases, namely influencing factors, information processing and decision making process (Verbeke, 2000:529) as shown in Figure 2.6.

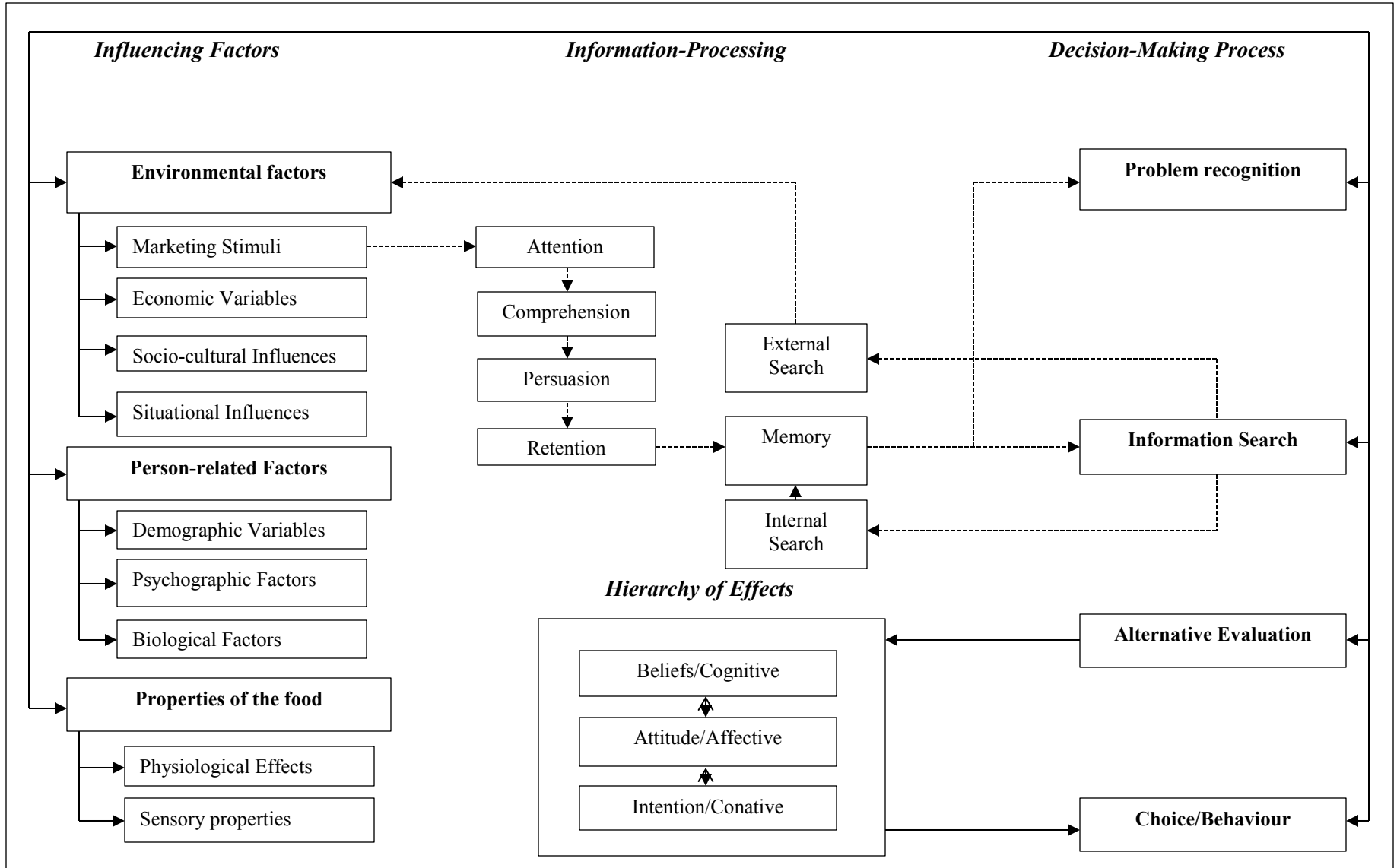


Figure 2.6 Conceptual framework for analysing consumer decision-making towards meat

Source: Adapted from Verbeke (2000:529)

Stimuli affect consumer judgements and choices throughout the decision making process or at any point in time (Verbeke, 2000:526). Similarly, Kotler (2002:88) observes that the stimuli that enter the buyer's consciousness comprise marketing and environmental stimuli. This is followed by certain purchase decisions as a result of the buyer's characteristics. Verbeke (2000:529) asserts that stimuli include the environment, internal processes as well as characteristics of the individual consumers. Literature is laden with varied classifications of stimuli. There are no clear cut boundaries between these classifications i.e. the factors can be exchanged mutually between different classifications. However, the generally acceptable classification has three types of influencing factors—environmental factors, person-related factors and properties of the food (Verbeke, 2000:529). In support of Verbeke's (2000:529) observation, Kotler's (2002:88) separation of marketing stimuli from environmental stimuli demonstrates unclear boundaries between the classifications of stimuli by marketing scholars.

Marketing communication results in significant influences on the decision making of consumers. As such marketers need to pay particular attention to this. In this regard, an information processing concept is included in the framework (Verbeke, 2000:526). This concept identifies the effects of marketing communication based on ordered stages. These ordered stages comprise “exposure and attention to marketing communication, comprehension, persuasion and retention of a new attitude”. In this context, persuasion refers to the attitude change. Also included in the information processing phase is the hierarchy of effects. The concept of the hierarchy of effects is concerned with the various stages in the consumer's mind as he/she responds to stimuli which can be marketing or non-marketing (Verbeke, 2000:526).

The framework for analysing consumer decision making towards meat suggests that there are four stages—problem recognition, information search, alternative evaluation and choice/behaviour— in the process of consumer decision making towards a meat product (Verbeke, 2000:526). This augurs well with Kotler's (2002:98) views on the process of consumer decision except that Kotler proposed five stages—problem recognition, information search, alternatives evaluation, purchase decision, and post-purchase behaviour. The first three stages (problem recognition, information search and alternatives evaluation) suggested by Verbeke (2000:526) correspond to the three stages (need recognition, pre-purchase search, and alternatives evaluation) proposed by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:524) describe these as the only stages in the process of consumer decision making. The actual purchase decision/behaviour and post-purchase behaviour are referred to as post-decision behaviour.

2.4.5 Levels of consumer decision making and types of purchase behaviour

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:549) and Solomon (2002:257) concur that consumer decision making situations differ. As such consumer decision making situations require different information search. Based on whether the effort of the consumer is high or low, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:549) recognise three levels of consumer decision making. Solomon (2002:257) refers to these levels as types of decision making. The three levels are extensive problem solving, limited problem solving, and routinised response behaviour.

Extensive problem solving occurs in a situation where consumers do not have an established criterion for evaluating products or certain brands in a product category. It also occurs when consumers have not yet specified the brands considered in a product category to a small, manageable subset (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:549). Solomon (2002:258) regards this as the extended problem solving. For consumers to come up with a set of criteria which will be used to evaluate brands there is a need for a lot of information. Similarly, more information regarding the specific brands is also needed (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:549).

Limited problem solving is ordinarily simple and straight forward. At this level consumers already have established a basic criterion that they use to evaluate products or brands in a particular product category. However, consumers do not have already established preferences concerning particular brands (Solomon, 2002:258). In this case, the search is aimed at 'fine-tuning' the information about the additional brands in order to discriminate among the various brands (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:549).

In the routinised response behaviour, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:549) assert that consumers have experience with the product category. They also have an established criterion that is used when evaluating the considered brands. In certain situations consumers are capable of making decisions based on limited information or a small amount of additional information. In other situations, consumers may just review what they already know. Solomon (2002:259) is also of the same view and suggests that at this level, decisions are made with little effort. In view of this, he refers to routinised response behaviour as habitual decision making.

Kotler (2002:96) provides a perspective of consumer decision making different from the one suggested by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:549) and Solomon (2002:257). He asserts that consumer decision making is largely influenced by the nature of the buying decision. Different products require different levels of decision making. This leads to four distinct types of consumer buying decisions/behaviour—complex buying behaviour, dissonance-reducing buying behaviour, habitual

buying behaviour and variety-seeking buying behaviour. These are based on the extent to which buyers are involved and the extent to which various brands are different.

The complex buying behaviour is applicable in a situation where such high-involvement products as personal computers are involved (Kotler, 2002:96). Consumers are not well-versed with the attributes they consider in these product categories, so they are involved in much information search. Similarly, Kotler and Armstrong (2013:174) submit that complex buying behaviour takes place in situations where the consumer involvement in the purchase of a product is high while the differences among brands are perceived to be high. In supporting this view, Nicholls, Harris, Morgan, Clark and Sims (1995:32) suggest that the complex buying behaviour is concerned with a situation that involves highly involved consumers who also perceive marked differences between the available brands. The role of the marketer is to educate the consumers about the attributes of the products, differentiate and describe the features of the brands, and motivate staff and others to influence the final brand choice (Kotler, 2002:96).

Cognitive dissonance is unpleasurable. As such, consumers seek to reduce it. It is a result of inconsistent cognition, which refers to an individual's concern with having taken the wrong decision (Wangenheim, 2005:68). Dissonance-reducing buyer behaviour is also applicable in a situation that involves high-involving products. High-involving products such as carpeting are expensive but consumers may consider a wide category of brands in a given price category to be the same. The consumer may notice disquieting features after the purchase and, thus, experience dissonance (Kotler, 2002:97). In this regard, Kotler and Armstrong (2013:175) describe dissonance-reducing buying behaviour as the buying behaviour situation facing consumers who are highly involved but perceiving few differences among the available brands. The role of the marketer is to reduce this dissonance. The marketer should provide beliefs and evaluations to the consumer so that he/she feels good about the choice of a particular brand (Kotler, 2002:97).

Low-involvement products such as salt are involved in habitual buying behaviour. Habit, instead of strong brand loyalty, drives the consumer to buy the same brand. The consumer is depicted as a passive recipient of marketing communication such as advertising (Kotler, 2002:97). In agreement, Lin and Chang (2003:96) submit that consumer habitual buying behaviour takes place when consumers are purchasing low-involving products. In this case, consumers spend minimal time and effort in seeking product information. Likewise, Kotler and Armstrong (2013:175) describe habitual buying behaviour as that buying situation where consumers are lowly involved and perceived different in the available brands are few. Solomon (2002:259), however, recognises no difference between habitual buying behaviour and routinised response behaviour suggested by Schiffman and

Kanuk (2004:549). Repetition of advertising yields brand familiarity instead of brand conviction. The role of the marketer is to lure new customers to try their products through price and sales promotions. Kotler (2002:97)

Variety-seeking buying behaviour occurs when consumers perceive brand differences. Therefore, consumers switch from one brand to the other, not because they are dissatisfied, but to have a taste of different brands (Kotler & Armstrong, 2013:175; Know & Walker, 2001:120). Similarly, Kotler (2002:97) posit that variety-seeking is also concerned with low-involvement products, for example, cookies. The desire for more variety makes the consumer to switch brands very often. The role of the market leader is to encourage habitual-buying behaviour. This can be done by making sure that the marketer's brands dominate most of the shelf space with sufficient stock levels. Running advertisements designed to remind the consumers can also be done. By contrast, the market challenger encourages variety-seeking behaviour. This can be achieved through offering lower prices than the market leader, providing free samples and running advertisements that offer strong reasons for trying something new (Kotler, 2002:97).

Kotler (2002:98) and Verbeke (2000:524) concur that consumer purchase is a stage in the process of consumer decision making. However, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:569) refer to the purchase behaviour as a post-decision behaviour. They go on to identify three different types of purchase—trial, repeat and long term commitment purchases.

The consumer may purchase a product or brand for the first time. This phase is referred to as a trial purchase and is regarded as exploratory in that the consumer evaluates products or brands through direct use. Through the use of promotions, the marketer can encourage consumers to try new products (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:569).

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:569) assert that, after a trial purchase, consumers can repeatedly purchase a particular product or brand if they find it more satisfying or better than other brands. Repeat purchase behaviour is closely associated with brand loyalty. Every marketer wishes to have customers who are loyal to his/her brands mainly because it fosters stability in the market place. Purchasing products or brands repeatedly is a good indicator that customers approve of these products or brands. It may also give an indication that, in future, customers will be willing to purchase or consume the products or brands in larger quantities (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:569; Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:197).

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:569) observe that trial purchase is not always feasible i.e. it is not applicable in certain situations. For example, in the purchase of durable products such as washing

machines, consumers tend to skip the trial purchase phase. From the evaluation stage consumers go to the long term commitment purchase stage. There is no time for the trial purchase because in most cases durable products are expensive (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:569).

The last stage in the process of consumer decision making is called post-purchase behaviour (Kotler, 2002:98; Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:197). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:569) view this stage as post-purchase evaluation and classify it as post-decision behaviour; implying that it is not a stage in the process of consumer decision making. Post-purchase behaviour describes the process in which consumers take further action after purchasing a product. This further action is based on the consumer's satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:197). Similarly, Kotler (2002:101) demonstrate that the subsequent behaviour of consumers is influenced by whether or not consumers are satisfied with the product after the purchase.

It is the norm that as consumers use products, especially during the trial period, they make product evaluations regarding performance in view of their own expectations. The possible outcomes are threefold. First, the actual performance may match expectations. This leads to a neutral feeling. Second, performance may exceed expectations. This results in positive disconfirmation of expectations. Positive disconfirmation gives rise to satisfaction. Third, performance may be below the consumer's expectations. This results in negative disconfirmation of expectations. Likewise, negative disconfirmation leads to dissatisfaction (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:569-570). Kotler (2002:101) elaborates that satisfied customers are likely to say good things about a particular product or brand to others. If customers are not satisfied, they may not buy the product again, they may tell their friends not to buy the product, or they may take such public action as taking their complaints to the government or to their lawyers. Marketers, therefore, should come up with post-purchase communications that are designed to minimise product returns and order cancellations.

Post-purchase behaviour is often associated with the uncertainty or doubt as to whether the consumer made the right decision or not. This uncertainty is a very critical stage of the post-purchase behaviour and is referred to as post-purchase dissonance (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:570). Similarly, Assael (2004:45) suggests that any negative information or feeling about the chosen product results in in post-purchase dissonance. In one way or the other, consumers attempt to reduce the post-purchase dissonance. They may do this in four different ways. First, consumers may try to rationalise their purchase decision as being wise. Second, they may seek advertisements or promotions that are in line with their choice, avoiding those advertisements or promotions of competing brands. Third, to confirm their choice as the best, consumers may also persuade or try to influence their friends and neighbours to purchase the same brand. Fourth, consumers may seek

reassurance from other consumers already satisfied by the same product or brand (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:570).

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:84) argue that there is another stage in the process of consumer decision making that comes after the post-purchase evaluation. This stage is called divestment. They submit that the last stage in the process of consumer decision making is called divestment. At this stage, consumers have several options, including outright disposal, recycling or remarketing. Remarketing involves choosing to sell or dispose of the product to another consumer. Kotler (2002:101) refers to the divestment stage as the post-purchase use and disposal stage. He encourages marketers to pay attention to how buyers use and dispose of products after the purchase. He also identifies several options available to consumers. If not very satisfied, consumers may store the product and never use it. In this case consumers are less likely to tell others about the product. Consumers may trade or sell the products. This is likely to depress the new-product sales. In some cases, consumers may find new uses for the products. In situations where consumers throw the products away—outright disposal according to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:84)—marketers need to take into account how the consumers dispose of the products particularly if it can damage the environment. Marketers should therefore educate consumers on how to dispose of the products without hurting the environment (Kotler, 2002:101).

2.4.6 An overview of factors influencing decision making and purchase behaviour of consumers

Both marketing and non-commercial or environmental stimuli enter the consciousness of the consumer. Consequently, the purchase decision is influenced by the characteristics of the consumer and the decision process. A sound understanding of what happens in the consumer's consciousness between the time the external stimuli is detected by the consumer and the time the consumer makes a purchase decision is imperative. Of paramount importance is for the marketer to understand the factors that influence the buying behaviour of consumers (Kotler, 2002:88). As Verbeke (2000:529) noted, there are as many classifications of these factors as there are scholars. More so, there are no clear cut boundaries between these classifications i.e. the factors can be mutually exchangeable between classifications.

Kotler (2002:88) classifies the factors as cultural, social, personal, and psychological influences. Solomon and Stuart (2003:201) classify the influences of consumer behaviour as internal, social and situational. Perception, motivation, learning, attitudes, personality, age groups and lifestyle constitute the internal influences. Social factors include culture, subculture, social class and group

membership while situational influences include the physical environment and time. Kerin *et al.* (2009:122) also suggest that the influences on the consumer purchase decision process come from both internal and external sources which are further classified as marketing mix influences, psychological influences, situational influences and socio-cultural influences. Marketing mix influences comprise product, price, promotion and place. The psychological factor comprises motivation, personality, perception, learning, lifestyle, and values, beliefs and attitudes. The socio-cultural factors include personal influence, reference groups, family, social class, and culture and subculture. Finally, Kerin *et al.* (2009:122) show that situational influences include purchase task, social surroundings, physical surroundings, temporary effects and antecedent states. Jobber and Fahy (2003:58) provide another classification of factors influencing consumer purchasing behaviour. These are buying situation, personal influences and social influences. The buying situation comprises extended problem solving, limited problem solving and habitual problem solving. Personal influences include such factors as information processing, motivation, beliefs and attitudes, personality, lifestyle and life cycle. The key aspects of information processing are perception and learning. Social influences consist of culture, social class and reference groups. A somewhat different classification is given by Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:261) who grouped the factors as individual influencing variables and environmental influences. According to Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:261), individual influencing variables include needs, motives, personality, perception, learning and attitudes while the environmental influences include cultural influences, social influences, reference groups, family influences, economic demand factors (potential purchasing power of consumers), and business and marketing influences (e.g. personal selling, sales promotion and advertising, and consumer past experience with the product).

2.4.6.1 Cultural factors

Culture and subculture as well as social class are principal factors that influence the buying behaviour of consumers (Kotler, 2002:88). Kotler and Armstrong (2010:148) and Kotler and Armstrong (2001:172) submit that culture is concerned with values, wants and behaviours that the members of a society learn. Similarly, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:408) posit that culture encompasses the entirety of learned beliefs, values and customs that shape the behaviours of members in a particular society. Beliefs and values involve the enduring feelings that individual consumers have concerning certain possessions. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:408) argue that values are also beliefs but slightly differ in that values are relatively limited in number; they are specific to certain objects; they are lasting and are generally accepted in a society. Values also guide the behaviour towards conformation with a particular culture. Consumers have mental images that

influence specific attitudes concerning objects. These mental images can broadly be represented by values and beliefs. The way an individual is likely to behave with respect to a particular situation is largely influenced by these specific attitudes. Customs specifically determine the behaviour that is culturally approved or in specific situations (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:408). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:408) brings to the fore the concept of 'cultural lenses' where each consumer perceives the world through his/her cultural lenses. They argue that the consumer views himself/herself in the context of his/her culture. Consequently, the consumer reacts to his/her environment in view of the framework of culture that he/she brings to that experience.

Subculture is a culture within the main culture. It comprises a distinct segment or group of people within a larger society. This group has value systems that are shared on such aspects as common experiences and situations. Members belonging to this segment have their own culture that makes them differ from the larger society (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:149; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:438; Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:172). However, these members are still governed by the most dominant culture of the larger society. An analysis of the subculture enables the marketer to concentrate on sizeable and natural market segments (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:438). Likewise, Kotler (2002:88) asserts that subcultures usually constitute important market segments that often lead marketers to tailor-make products to suit their needs.

Social class refers to the grouping of members of a particular society into classes. These classes are defined by status. Members of one class are different from the other classes in terms of status while members of the same class tend to have more or less the same status (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:372). Similarly, Kotler (2002:89) submits that social classes are reasonably homogeneous and lasting divisions in a society. Social classes present themselves in a particular hierarchy that depicts members having common values and interests as well as behaviour. Social class can be determined objectively by considering gender, age, income, occupation, and education (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:151; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:377; Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:176). However, Kotler (2002:89) clarifies that no single factor can determine the social class; but a cluster of factors is needed to do so. Marketers may focus on social classes as their target markets.

2.4.6.2 *Social factors*

The other factors that influence the behaviour of consumers are social. These include reference groups, family, and social roles and statuses (Kotler, 2002:89). Kerin *et al.* (2009:130) provide an alternative classification to this. They propose a socio-cultural group of factors that comprises

personal influence (opinion leadership and word of mouth), reference groups, family influence, social class, and culture and subculture.

Kotler (2002:89) posit that reference groups are all groups that directly or indirectly influence the attitudes or behaviour of individuals. Those groups that directly influence an individual are referred to as membership groups. Membership groups can be classified as primary and secondary groups. Primary membership groups are those that the individual interacts with continuously and rather informally. These include family, friends, neighbours, and workmates. With secondary membership groups, the interaction of members is formal and less continuous. Types of secondary membership groups are professional and trade union groups. Kotler (2002:89) further submit that the reference groups are particularly important in marketing because they can expose individuals to new lifestyles as well as behaviours. Consumer attitudes and self-concept can also be influenced by reference groups. This creates pressures for other consumers to conform. As a result, product and brand choices may be affected. Groups to which individuals do not belong can also influence the behaviour of consumers. Examples of these groups are aspirational and dissociative groups. Aspirational groups refer to those groups that an individual intends or wishes to join while dissociative groups are those groups whose values are rejected by an individual. To effectively influence the reference group, the marketer must first identify the opinion leader and then influence his/her behaviour so that the rest of the group members follow suit (Kotler, 2002:89).

A family refers to at least two people who are related by blood, marriage, or adoption who are staying together. It can be argued that the family is the most important group influencing human behaviour in general and consumer behaviour in particular (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:154; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:345; Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:178). Kotler (2002:89) identifies two types of families—family of orientation and family of procreation. An individual's parents and siblings constitute the family of orientation. From his/her parents an individual is oriented toward politics, religion, economics, personal ambitions, self-worth and love. The family of procreation comprises an individual's spouse and children. The family of procreation directly influences the everyday buying behaviour of adults. Important to the marketer are the roles played by husband, wife, and children and their relative influence in the purchase of various products (Kotler, 2002:89).

As an individual participates in certain groups, roles and status can define the individual's position in those groups in which the individual participates (Kotler, 2002:91). A role carries status. Roles describe a set of activities that an individual is expected to perform. Products are chosen based on status. Marketers, therefore, should pay particular attention to the potential of the status symbol of their products and brands (Kotler, 2002:91).

Kerin *et al.* (2009:130) observe that the consumer purchasing behaviour is often influenced by other people's views, opinions or behaviours. Opinion leadership and word of mouth are important aspects that influence the individual. Individuals who can directly or indirectly influence others in a society are called opinion leaders. Word of mouth refers to the influence of people during conversations (Kerin *et al.*, 2009:131). Word of mouth communication constitutes one of the most widely accepted notions in consumer behaviour. It has been argued that the word of mouth communication significantly impacts the consumer's decision to purchase food products or household goods (Brown & Reingen, 1987:350).

2.4.6.3 Personal factors

Kotler (2002:91) identifies personal factors that influence consumer buying behaviour as age, stage in the life cycle, occupation and economic circumstances, lifestyle, personality and self-concept. However, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554), classify personality as a psychological factor influencing consumer decision making. Jobber and Fahy (2003:58) provide a somewhat different classification of personal influences on the purchase behaviour of consumers as information processing (perception and learning), motivation, beliefs and attitudes, personality, lifestyle and life cycle.

Age and stage in the life cycle are critical in consumer buying behaviour (Kotler, 2002:91). Likewise, Solomon and Stuart (2003:206) show that age is an internal influence on consumer purchasing behaviour. They submit that the family life cycle is a way of describing consumers based on different stages that they go through as they grow older in a family set up. Tastes and preferences are affected by age while consumption behaviour is influenced by the family life cycle. The role of the marketer is to identify the various stages in the life cycle of consumers so as to come up with appropriate marketing strategies (Kotler, 2002:91).

Kotler (2002:92) asserts that occupation and economic circumstances are other personal factors that influence consumer buying behaviour. Occupation influences the nature of consumption by consumers. Usually, blue-collar employees tend to buy work suits while company executives are likely to buy expensive suits that are in line with their working conditions. The role of the marketer is to identify occupational classes that are interested in the firm's products. Economic circumstances also influence the choice of products by consumers. Disposable income, amount of savings and borrowing power are some of the economic factors that affect the choice of products. Marketers of income elastic products should have sufficient information concerning the disposable incomes of

consumers so that they can appropriately design product, pricing and repositioning strategies (Kotler, 2002:92).

Whether or not consumers have the culture and subculture or social class and occupation, it is possible for individual consumers to have diverse lifestyles (Kotler, 2002:93). Kotler (2002:93) views a lifestyle as the living pattern of an individual. Lifestyle is expressed in terms of activities, interests and opinions. He also argues that an individual's lifestyle depicts the complete person that is interacting with his or her environment. Solomon and Stuart (2003:207) refer to lifestyle as a living pattern which directs how consumers spend their resources in terms of, for example, time and money. They submit that the lifestyle depicts the values, tastes and preferences of consumers. There are various groups of lifestyles based on psychographics—the science of measuring and grouping of consumer lifestyles. Marketers must be able to match their product offerings with these lifestyle groups. For example, in a situation where the individuals who buy computers are achievement-oriented, the marketer should aim at branding his/her computer products based on the achiever lifestyle (Kotler, 2002:93).

Kotler (2002:93) identifies personality and self-concept as personal factors that influence the buying behaviour of consumers. However, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554), classify personality as a psychological factor influencing consumer decision making. He describes personality as a psychological factor that distinguishes one individual from the other. It gives rise to consistent and lasting environmental responses. Likewise, Solomon and Stuart (2003:205) add that personality is a consistent psychological trait that impacts the way an individual responds to environmental situations. Similarly, Kotler and Armstrong (2010:157) argue that it is unique and, as such, personality makes individuals unique. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:120) view personality to comprise inner psychological traits. These inner characteristics (e.g. qualities, attributes, traits, factors, and mannerisms) set apart one person from others. Personality plays a major part in influencing the person's choice of products and his/her response to the marketer's promotional efforts. It is therefore imperative for the marketer to study and identify personal characteristics that are associated with consumer behaviour because they are highly useful in the design of market segmentation strategies (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:1200).

It is observed that self-concept, also known as self-image, is related to personality. The role of the marketer is to develop brand images that correspond to the self-image of the target market (Kotler, 2002:93). However, in some cases, the person's actual self-image (how the person views oneself) differs from the person's ideal self-image (how the person would like to view oneself) and from others-self-image (how the person thinks that others see him/her). Therefore, it is difficult for the

marketer to be sure of which 'self' the consumer will try to satisfy when purchasing products. In view of this, the self-concept has received mixed reactions concerning its ability to predict consumer responses to brand images (Kotler, 2002:93).

2.4.6.4 Psychological factors

The role of psychological factors in influencing the behaviour of consumers is invaluable. Motivation, perception, learning, and beliefs and attitudes are the major psychological factors that influence consumer product choice (Kotler, 2002:93). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554) include personality as another psychological factor influencing consumer decision making. However, personality has been classified by Kotler (2002:91) as one of the personal factors that influence the buying behaviour of consumers. Jobber and Fahy (2003:58) classify perception and learning (which they referred to as information processing), motivation, beliefs and attitudes and personality as personal influences on consumer buying behaviour.

Solomon (2002:102) views motivation as processes that drive consumers to behave in a certain way. Similarly, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:87) see motivation as "a driving force within the individual". This driving force is a result of the tension of unfulfilled needs within the individual consumer. Consciously and subconsciously, individuals strive to reduce this tension through behaviour that is expected to fulfil their needs. According to Kotler (2002:93), a need becomes a motive when it is aroused to a sufficient level of intensity. When a need presses the person much to the extent of acting, it becomes a motive. Several theories of motivation have been developed by psychologists. The prominent contributors to motivation theories are Sigmund Freud (known for Freudian theories), Abraham Maslow (known for the theory of hierarchy of needs), and Frederick Herzberg (known for the two-factor theory). A marketer should therefore understand what motivates consumers. The marketer should view motivation as a force that drives the consumption of the firm's products (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:87).

Perception is defined by Blythe (2008:91) as "the process of converting sensory input into an understanding of how the world works". Consumer perception refers to the process that involves the individuals' selection, organisation and interpretation of stimuli in order to make sense of the environment. Reality is a completely personal phenomenon for each individual. It is based on the individuals' wants, needs, values and personal experiences (Assael, 2004:146; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:158; Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:186). In this regard, Kotler (2002:94) asserts that perception is largely dependent on the individual. That is, individuals can perceive the same object differently because of three processes. These are selective attention, selective distortion and selective retention.

Kotler (2002:94) reveals that consumers are exposed to various stimuli, for example, advertisements. Consumers screen most of these stimuli. This process of screening is referred to as selective attention. The role of the marketer is to attract the attention of the consumer. Research shows that the consumer is most likely to pay attention to stimuli that relate to his or her current needs. The consumer may also easily notice the stimuli that they anticipate. He or she is also likely to notice a large stimulus that is based on deviations that are big in relation to the normal size of the stimulus (Kotler, 2002:94). Sometimes consumers twist information or noticed stimuli into own personal meanings and make interpretations of information that suit their preconceptions. This is referred to as selective distortion. The marketer has very few avenues to manage selective distortion. Individuals learn a lot of things but tend to forget them, only retaining that information about the things that support their beliefs and attitudes. Marketers should therefore make use of such things as drama and repetition when developing messages to target audiences. (Kotler, 2002:94-95)

Perceived risk is an important aspect of perception that also influences the buying behaviour of the consumer. It refers to anxieties that the consumer feels because he/she cannot anticipate the purchase outcome but believes that they may be negative consequences (Kerin *et al.*, 2009:125). It affects the information search stage in that, as the perceived risk increases, the external search becomes more extensive. To deal with a higher perceived risk of the products, the marketer may employ successful strategies, for example, obtaining seals of approval, use of endorsements from those people with influence, offering free product trials, providing detailed usage instructions and the use of warranties and guarantees (Kerin *et al.*, 2009:126).

Kotler (2002:95) regards consumer learning as another psychological factor that influences consumer buying behaviour. Learning refers to behavioural changes that take place due to individual experiences (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:159). From a marketing standpoint, consumer learning is a process that involves the consumer acquisition of the knowledge and experience about purchase and consumption that affects future related behaviour. Learning is regarded as a process because it takes place continuously; changing and evolving as the consumer acquires new knowledge (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:207). Marketers are interested in how individuals learn for some reasons. Marketers may want to teach consumers about products and their attributes and potential. They may also want to teach consumers to prefer their brands. Lastly, marketers may want consumers to note, believe, remember and recall their promotions (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:206). Similarly, Kotler (2002:95) suggests that learning theories can be applied by way of associating them with strong drives, using motivating cues, and providing positive reinforcement in

order to achieve increased demand for a product. As such, he argues that the interplay between drives, stimuli, cues, responses, and reinforcement leads to learning. A drive refers to a strong internal stimulus that induces action. Trivial stimuli that explain when, where, and how an individual responds are called cues. If a consumer purchases a product and find the experience rewarding, the response to that product or brand will be positively reinforced. The next time the consumer would want to purchase a related product, they will assume that the brand is good. In this case, the consumer would have generalised his/her response to the stimuli. Contrary to generalisation is discrimination. Discrimination refers to a tendency when, the individual learns how to denote differences within classes of similar or related stimuli and adjust responses accordingly (Kotler, 2002:95).

Beliefs and attitudes are also important psychological factors that influence the buying behaviour of consumers (Kotler, 2002:95). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554) simply refer to attitudes as one of the psychological factors that influence consumer purchase decisions. They argue that beliefs are a component of attitudes. This view is also taken by Assael (2004: 216), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:256) and Solomon (2002:200) who assert that attitudes are made of three major components, namely cognitive (beliefs), affective (feelings) and conation (intentions). Kotler and Armstrong (2001:190) view an attitude as a favourable or unfavourable tendency, evaluation or feeling toward a particular object. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:253) suggest that attitudes are learned. As such, they describe attitude as learned tendency. Consistency in purchasing, recommendations of products or brands to others, beliefs, feelings and purchase intentions are all aspects related to attitudes. Attitudes play a very important role in consumer behaviour; so to understand consumer behaviour, there is a need to understand consumer attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:253).

2.4.6.5 Other factors

As explained by Solomon and Stuart (2003:208), the physical environment and time are situational factors that also influence the consumer buying behaviour. The moods and behaviours of consumers are strongly influenced by the physical surroundings. The physical surroundings in a shopping environment provide important cues that influence the consumer purchase decisions. The time of the day or year and how much time the consumer has affects his/her purchase decisions. Kerin *et al.* (2009:121) refer to the effects of time on purchasing behaviour as temporary effects. Current trends show that time is scarce. The marketer should therefore come up with marketing innovations that make it easier for consumers to purchase products (Solomon & Stuart, 2003:208). Kerin *et al.* (2009:121) show that situational influences include purchase task, social surroundings, physical surroundings, temporary effects and antecedent states. The purchase task represents the reasons why

the purchase is made in the first place. The nature of the purchase—for example, buying a gift or buying for personal use—determines the information searching and evaluation of alternatives. The social surroundings refer to the people who are around when the purchase is being made. Lastly, antecedent states are concerned with the consumer's mood or cash on hand. These can also influence the consumer purchasing decision (Kerin *et al.*, 2009:121).

2.4.7 Factors influencing the consumption of poultry products

Price, income, taste, safety, health and environmental factors all influence consumption behaviour towards meat. It has also been reported in some studies that issues to do with health, convenience and quality now influence the consumption of meat than price and income (McCarthy, O'Reilly, Cotter & de Boer, 2004:20). Other studies, however, have witnessed that shifting consumer preferences toward food safety—over taste—among European consumers have influenced meat consumption behaviour more than any other food determinants (McCarthy *et al.*, 2004:20). In Verbeke (2000:530), it is reported that quality, organoleptic and sensory properties of the food as well as food safety issues and human health are important factors that determine the consumption behaviour towards meat. Verbeke (2000:523) emphasise that these factors have received considerable attention particularly in the production and consumption of meat products.

Yang, Du, Li, Li, Zhang, Li and Jiang (2011:949-954), Northcutt (2009), Maltin, Balcerzak, Tilley and Delday (2003:337) and Groom (1990:205) refer to quality as a broad term that encompasses various elements that describe the characteristics of a meat product. Groom (1990:205) define meat quality as “the composition of those characteristics that differentiate individual units of a product and which have significance in determining the degree of accessibility of that unit to the user”. He added that price is sometimes the all-important feature i.e. if the product has no genuine appeal, price will certainly be the key feature (Groom, 1990:205). Maltin *et al.* (2003:337) view meat quality as a generic term that describes properties and perceptions of meat. Therefore, meat quality includes such attributes as eating quality of the meat and health issues. This view is also supported by Yang *et al.* (2011:949-954) who refer to meat quality as “a complex trait which consists of several meat quality indicators and affected by a series of indicators”. Similarly, Maltin *et al.* (2003:337) argue that meat quality is a function of the consumers' overall assessment. Hence the consumers' evaluation of eating quality is the major determinant of meat quality, with tenderness, juiciness and flavour of meat being the most important elements. Even though quality attributes of a food product in general (see Figure 2.7) consist of eating quality, convenience, stability, wholesomeness and nutritive value, Northcutt (2009) singled out eating quality—comprising

appearance (colour), texture (tenderness) and flavour—as the most important aspect of poultry meat.

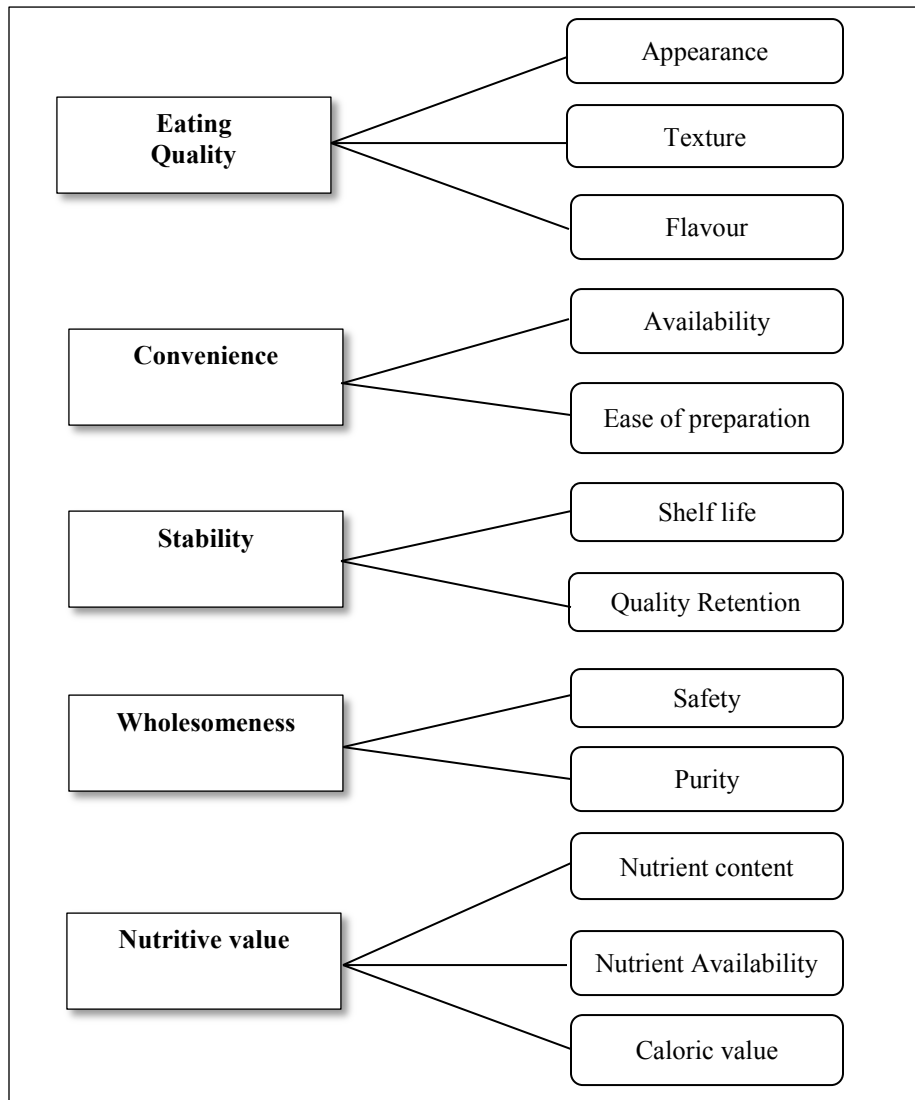


Figure 2.7 Quality attributes of a food product

Source: Adapted from Northcutt (2009)

Fletcher (2002:131) identifies the major poultry meat attributes as appearance, texture, juiciness, flavour, and functionality; with appearance and texture being the most important. Functional properties, such as water holding capacity of the meat, are critical for successful product formulation. The major component of appearance has been found to be colour—skin colour and meat colour. Very often consumers make meat purchase decisions based only on its appearance. This makes meat appearance as the most critical of all quality attributes for the selection of many

food commodities. However, Fletcher (2002:138) reveals that texture—toughness—is probably the single most critical quality factor that is associated with the consumers' ultimate satisfaction with a poultry meat product.

In agreement with Assael (2004: 216), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:256) and Solomon (2002:200), Bellows, Alcaraz and Hallman (2010:540) show that consumer attitudes are critical in influencing the consumption of meat products. They demonstrate that consumer attitudes influence the choice of a particular food which, in turn, is increasingly becoming a way of expressing the personality of a consumer.

Demographic factors have also been found to influence the consumption of meat products. There is overwhelming evidence that males and females have different preferences for certain types of food or attributes. It has been found that males and females have different eating habits—females eat healthier; and have higher knowledge of food nutrition and higher engagement in food-related activities than males (Bellows *et al.*, 2010:540). Research has not yet established the specific reasons behind gendered food preferences and practices. However, it is believed that there are two major reasons. First, females have an earlier involvement with food than males. This results in more direct and knowledgeable contact with food. Second, the traditional roles of motherhood and family care giving for which the provision of adequate food is needed to support family nutrition and harmonising food preferences also enhance gendered food differences (Bellows *et al.*, 2010:541). In an attempt to establish the factors that influence the consumption behaviour towards fresh meat (beef, pork and poultry), Verbeke (2000:530) found that the level of education does not influence the consumption behaviour of fresh meat. Attention to mass media publicity was found to have a significant negative effect on the consumption behaviour. Word of mouth personal communication through—butchers—was found to reassure consumers i.e. it positively influenced the consumption of fresh meat. However, advertising did not yield positive effects on consumption behaviour of fresh meat (Verbeke, 2000:536).

2.5 CONSUMER ATTITUDE

2.5.1 Definition and scope of consumer attitudes

Solomon (2002:527) describes an attitude as a lasting, general evaluation of an object. An object may refer to people (including oneself) or issues. Arnould *et al.* (2002:459) submit that an attitude is simply “a summary of consumer thoughts, feelings and actions”. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:375) view an attitude as a global evaluative judgement of products or brands—a favourable attitude towards a product denotes that the person likes the product or brand while an unfavourable attitude

denotes that the person does not like it. In the context of consumer behaviour, Assael (2004:216) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:253) view an attitude as a favourable or unfavourable tendency that directs the behaviour of consumers towards certain objects. In the consumer-oriented definition, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:253) assert that the word object refers to something specific in consumer behaviour such as a product, product category, brand, and an advertisement. Thus marketers tend to be object-specific when conducting marketing research. In that case, it is difficult to observe attitudes directly. Therefore, attitudes must be inferred from the actions of the consumers or from what they say (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004: 253).

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:253) identify three characteristics of attitudes that emerge from the definitions of attitudes. First, attitudes are a learned disposition. The implication of this is that attitudes are learned. Consumer attitude towards a product are formed as a result of the consumer's direct experience with the product, exposure to the marketer's communications and word-of-mouth information. An element of motivation is present in attitudes i.e. consumer attitudes may propel or repel the consumer from a particular product (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:253). Second, attitudes are relatively consistent with the behaviour that they reflect. However, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:253) argue that this does not mean that attitudes are permanent. Attitudes may change with time. Third, attitudes occur within a situation. It is possible for an individual to have various attitudes toward a product or brand based on different situations. Therefore, when measuring attitudes, the marketer should pay particular attention to the situation in which behaviour is taking place, otherwise a misinterpretation of the relationship between attitudes and behaviour may result (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:255).

The concept of consumer attitude has been given wide attention in marketing literature. An understanding of consumer attitudes is important in that it enables marketers to influence how consumers behave toward products or brands (Argyriou & Melewar, 2011:431). More so, attitudes play an important part in developing marketing strategy. Attitudes help marketers to identify benefit segments, develop new products, and formulate and evaluate promotional strategies (Assael, 2004:222). Similarly, Wilcock *et al.* (2004:56) submit that the knowledge of consumer attitudes is critical in that it enables marketers to predict consumer behaviour.

2.5.2 Models of consumer attitudes

The desire to understand consumer attitudes and their relationship with consumer buying behaviour has motivated psychologists to come up with models or theories that capture the underlying dimensions of attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:256). As noted by Arnould *et al.* (2002:459),

attitude models explain how a consumer processes information that influence the choice processes. Included in the consumer information process are cognitions and emotions. The consumer attitude models or theories discussed in this section include the tri-component attitude model, hierarchy of effects model, attitude toward object model, attitude toward behaviour model, theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour. These models provide different perspectives on the attitude components and how these components are related (Blythe, 2008:146-147; Assael, 2004:216-218; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:260; Arnould *et al.*, 2002:462-464; Solomon, 2002:200; Verbeke, 2000:526; Conner & Armitage, 1998:1429).

2.5.2.1 Tri-component attitude model

The tri-component attitude model stipulates that attitudes consist of three major components, namely cognition, affect and conation (Assael, 2004: 216; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:256; Solomon, 2002:200) as illustrated in Figure 2.8. Arnould *et al.* (2002:462) and Solomon (2002:200) concur and propose that these components can be described as the ABC model of attitudes, denoting the rearranged components—*affect, beliefs and conation*.

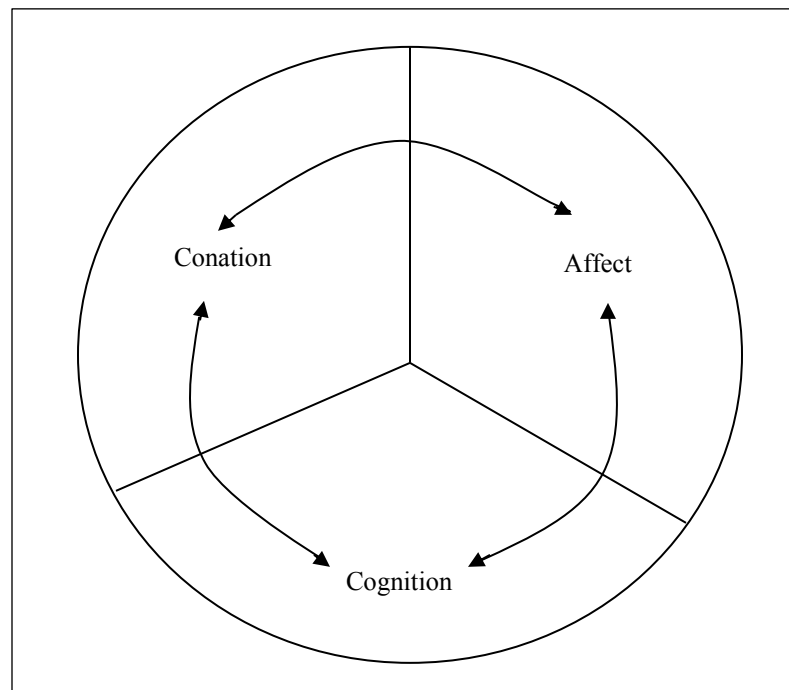


Figure 2.8 The tri-component attitude model

Source: Adapted from Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:256)

A person's cognitions represent the first part of the tri-component attitude model. Cognitions refer to the knowledge and perceptions that are acquired by consumers by way of a combination of direct experience with the attitude object as well as related information from various sources (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:256). Assael (2004:216) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:256) agree that the consumer hold beliefs about products or brands. For example, they may believe that the product or brand has certain attributes. They may also believe that specific behaviour will result in a particular outcome. Because of this, the cognitive component is understood to consist of consumer beliefs. Consumer beliefs represent "subjective judgements about the relationship between two or more things". That is, consumer beliefs about a particular product are the characteristics that they ascribe to it (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:375). The role of the marketer is to develop a vocabulary of product attributes and benefits and then use it to develop questions used to solicit consumer data that will lead to a sound understanding of the beliefs of consumers (Assael, 2004:217).

Assael (2004:217), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:257) and Solomon (2002:200) concur that the affective component is described as the feelings or emotions of consumers about a particular product or brand. They also view this component as the overall brand evaluation i.e. of the three components, only the affective component—brand evaluation—is central to the study of attitudes because it summarises the consumer's predisposition. They argue that beliefs are relevant only to the extent that they influence brand evaluations, which are the primary determinants of intended behaviour. While the consumer's beliefs about a particular product or brand are multi-dimensional because they represent the brand attributes consumers perceive, the affective component is one-dimensional. Therefore, the overall consumer brand or product evaluation can be measured by rating the brand from 'poor' to 'excellent', from 'prefer least' to 'prefer most', from 'good' to 'bad', or from 'favourable' to 'unfavourable' (Assael, 2004:217; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:257). Brand evaluations are a product of brand beliefs i.e. affect-laden experiences manifest themselves in the form of emotionally charged states such as surprise or happiness, etc. (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:257).

The conative component is concerned with the intention to buy, which is also known as behavioural intention (Assael, 2004:217-218; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:258). The conative component is the consumer's tendency to act toward a particular product or brand. In some interpretations, conation may refer to the behaviour itself (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:257). However, Assael (2004:218) opposes this view. He argues that sometimes beliefs and evaluations of a particular product do not have to change for consumers to establish an intention to buy particularly if the economic inducement is large enough, for example, a sharp reduction in price. It is important to measure the

behavioural intention when developing marketing strategy. The behavioural intention can be used by marketers as the closest substitute of the actual buying behaviour (Assael, 2004:218).

2.5.2.2 Hierarchy of effects model

The model describes the relationship between the three components of attitudes—cognition, affect and conation. The three components are important. However, their importance varies depending upon a consumer's level of motivation with regards to the product (Solomon, 2002:200). Similarly, Assael (2004:218) demonstrates that researchers have developed the concept of the hierarchy of effects with intention to provide an explanation to the relative importance of the three components—described as the relationship between the components. Verbeke (2000:526) views the hierarchy of effects as different mental stages through which consumers go when buying and responding to marketing or non-marketing communications. Arnould *et al.* (2002:464) refer to the model as the three hierarchy effects model. The three different hierarchies identified by Arnould *et al.* (2002:464) are the standard learning, low involvement, and experiential. They refer to these hierarchies as different models. Solomon (2002:201) also classifies the three hierarchies of effects as same but views them as a single model. Figure 2.9 presents the hierarchy of effects model.

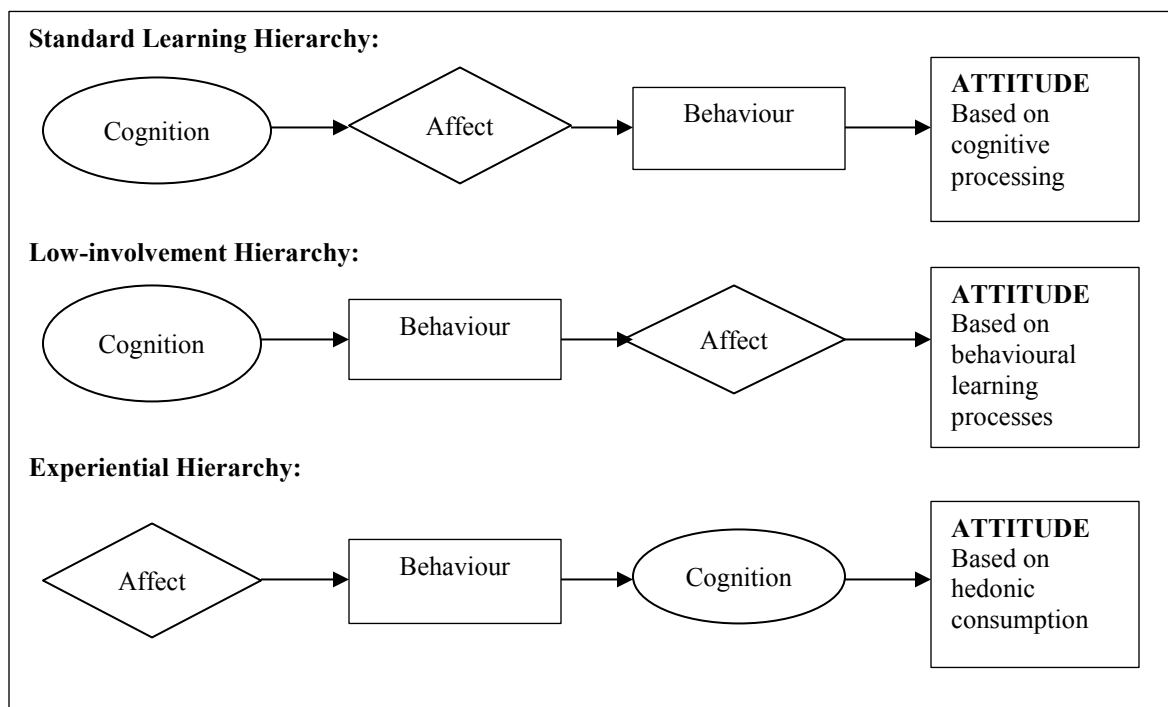


Figure 2.9 Hierarchy of effects

Source: Adapted from Solomon (2002:201)

The standard learning hierarchy views the consumers' responses to come in the cognition-affect-behaviour order i.e. cognition influences affect, and then the affect influences behaviour (Arnould *et al.*, 2002:463). Assael (2004:218) describes this as a "high-involvement hierarchy" because consumers first develop beliefs about a product as a result of active information search. This represents a 'think before you act' process. In this regard, consumers evaluate the product and then develop definite attitude and a purchase decision accordingly (Assael, 2004:218; Solomon, 2000:201). This careful choice often results in loyalty (Solomon, 2002:200).

In low-involvement hierarchy, consumers form beliefs passively. This represents an 'act before you think' process. Thus, Assael (2004:218) and Solomon (2002:201) go on to concur that consumers may decide to purchase based on limited information because it is not necessary to engage in active information search and processing. Brand evaluations are formed after the purchase act and are likely to be weak. The low-involvement hierarchy is therefore associated with low-involvement products i.e. consumers usually purchase low-involvement products without forming definite attitudes (Assael, 2004:218). However, Solomon (2002:201) argues that the attitude is likely to come about as a result of behavioural learning in which the choice of the consumer is reinforced by good or bad experiences with the product after purchase.

The experiential hierarchy shows that the consumer acts mainly on the emotional response to a particular product (Solomon, 2002:202). In view of this, Assael (2004:219) observes that the consumer first evaluates the product on an overall basis based on feelings, emotions and fantasies. The consumer therefore acts on this basis. Beliefs about the product in terms of its attributes and characteristics may be formed after the purchase behaviour. Thus consumers sometimes buy products simply because they like them. In this case, consumers are highly involved but do not follow the standard procedure depicted in the standard hierarchy (Arnould *et al.*, 2002:466). Of paramount importance to the consumer is to enjoy the product or brand; the projected performance of the product is secondary. This shows that when a product is perceived as hedonic, pleasurable or expressive, cognitive processes do not have to be central. As a result, marketers can directly appeal to the brand evaluations without necessarily influencing beliefs. This can be done by using symbols and imagery to evoke positive feelings and emotions of the product or brand (Assael, 2004:219).

2.5.2.3 *Attitude toward object model*

The attitude toward object model is particularly concerned with the measurement of consumer attitude towards a product, a product category or specific brands. The attitude of the consumer towards a specific product is therefore, a function of the beliefs that consumers hold concerning a

particular product or its attributes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:259). Generally, consumers have positive attitudes toward products whose attributes they like, and have negative attitudes toward products whose attributes they do not like. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:401) elaborate that consumer attitude towards a particular product is determined by beliefs, affect and the number of attributes that the consumer regards as important. In this regard, they propose that the model's formula be expressed as follows:-

$$A_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i e_i$$

where,

A_0 = the attitude toward the object.

b_i = the strength of the belief that the object has attribute i , i.e. the consumer's belief.

e_i = the evaluation of attribute i , i.e. weight or importance of the attribute.

n = the number of salient or important attributes.

Based on this formula, Blackwell *et al.* (2006:401) argue that the attitude toward object model specifically views the attitude toward a product as based on the summed set of beliefs about the product's attributes weighted by the evaluation of these attributes.

2.5.2.4 Attitude towards behaviour model

The attitude toward behaviour model is concerned with the consumer's attitude toward behaving or acting regarding a product instead of the attitude towards the product itself. Thus the model is closely associated with the actual behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:260). This makes sense because there are some instances where the consumer might have a positive attitude toward an expensive product but a negative attitude toward the prospect of purchasing such an expensive item (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:260).

2.5.2.5 Theory of reasoned action

The theory of reasoned action—Ajzen and Fishbein 1980—shows that the consumer earnestly evaluates the consequences of alternative behaviours. Then, he/she chooses the behaviour that will lead to the most favourable consequences. Thus individuals perform a logical procedure of evaluation in order to make purchase decisions, based on the attitude towards the behaviour, which in turn is derived from the attitude towards the product (Blythe, 2008:146). Solomon (2002:215) views the TRA as an improvement from the original Fishbein's model. Sparks and Shepherd (1992:388) observe that the TRA is a theory of attitude behaviour relationships which links

attitudes, subjective norms (similar to perceived social pressure), behavioural intentions, and behaviour in a fixed causal sequence as illustrated in Figure 2.10. Sparks and Shepherd (1992:388) explain that behaviour is postulated to result from behavioural intention, which in turn is theorised to arise out of a combination of people's attitude toward performing the behaviour in question and their perceptions of the social pressure put on them to perform that behaviour (subjective norm). Therefore, attitudes are premised to be a product of two factors, namely people's beliefs about behavioural outcomes and their evaluations of those outcomes (Sparks & Shepherd, 1992:388).

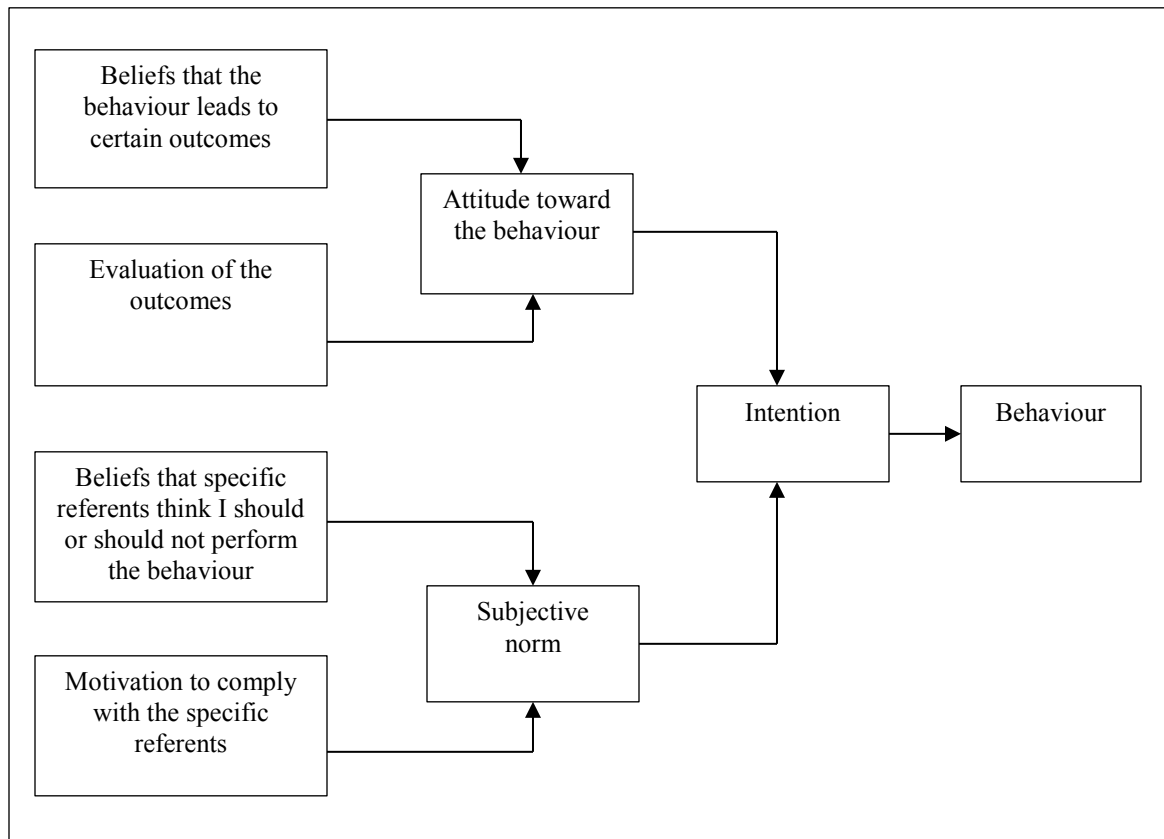


Figure 2.10 A simplified version of the theory of reasoned action

Source: Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:261)

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:261) weigh in to assert that there is a need, also, to determine the subjective norms that influence an individual's intention to act. The subjective norm can be determined directly through an assessment of the consumer's feelings (about what the relevant others would think of the action being contemplated) and the motivation to comply with the relevant others. Examples of the relevant others or referents are family members, friends, workmates and roommates. Blythe (2008:146) has similar views concerning the TRA. He asserts that the model comprises four major components, namely behaviour, intention to behave, attitudes toward the

behaviour, and the subjective norm. The subjective norm is concerned with the social pressures that the consumer feels to perform or not perform the behaviour being contemplated. An attitude about the behaviour is result of the consumer's beliefs about the behaviour and the evaluations of the possible outcomes. The subjective norm about the contemplated behaviour is a result of the consumer's beliefs about what other people might think and also the extent to which the consumer cares about what other people might think (Blythe, 2008:146). Contrary to Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:261), Blythe (2008:147) adds another stage called 'relevant weighting for importance' between the attitude toward behaviour and subjective norm, and the intention to perform the behaviour. He argues that the consumer will have to weigh the relative importance of the attitude and the norm before forming an intention to perform the behaviour. Solomon (2002:215) argues that, even though this model is still not perfect, its ability to predict behaviour has improved a great deal.

2.5.2.6 Theory of planned behaviour

Blythe (2008:147) observes that the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) by Ajzen and Madden in 1986 and Ajzen in 1988 is an extension of the TRA. It makes the assumption that the consumer also considers the ease or difficulty of performing the planned behaviour i.e. how much control the consumer has over the behaviour and its outcomes (see Figure 2.11). This depends partly on past experience and partly on the anticipation of future obstacles. Similarly, Kotler *et al.* (2009:256) and Conner and Armitage (1998:1429) view the TPB as an extension of the TRA. They agree with Blythe (2008:147) that behaviour performed is predicated by intentions to perform the behaviour and also by the actual behaviour control. Blythe (2008:148) refers to the actual behaviour control as a composite variable that comprises lack of need, lack of finance, difficulty in finding, change in circumstances and motivation.

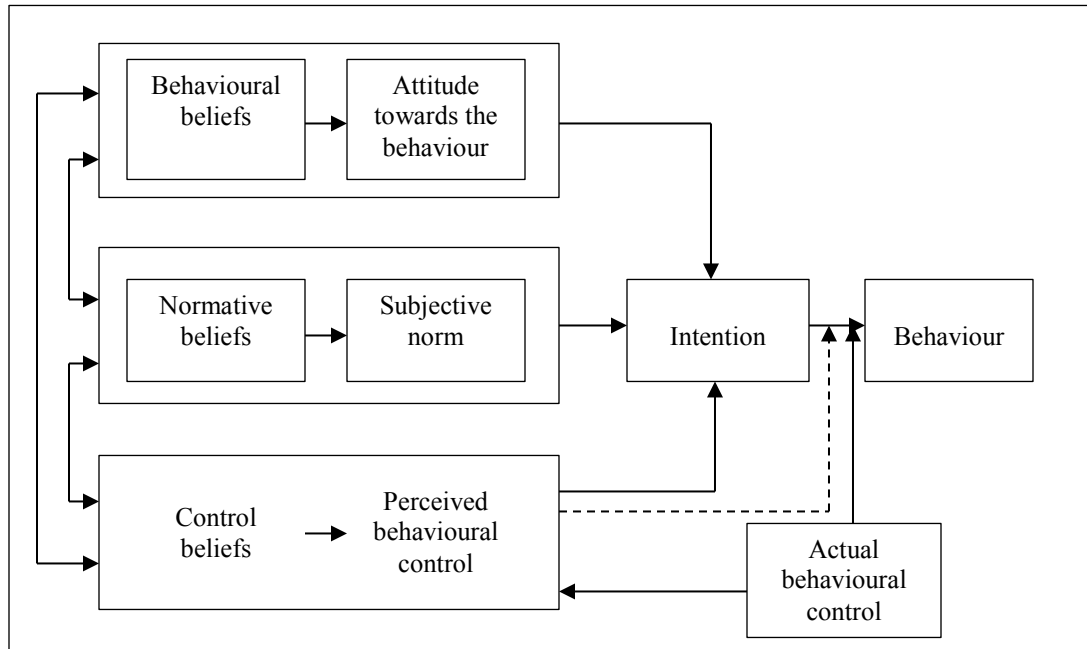


Figure 2.11 Theory of planned behaviour

Source: Adapted from Kotler *et al.* (2009:256)

Intentions to perform are influenced by attitudes towards the behaviour, the subjective norm as well as the perceived behavioural control. Attitudes toward the behaviour are influenced by behavioural beliefs while the subjective norm is influenced by normative beliefs (Kotler *et al.*, 2009:256). Blythe (2008:148) refers to normative beliefs as referent beliefs such as family and friends. Kotler *et al.* (2009:256) go on to observe that the perceived behaviour control is influenced by the control beliefs i.e. beliefs about the presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of the behaviour. For instance, a consumer may be keen to go to a very popular concert yet, knowing that it will be difficult to get tickets, he/she may give up the intention without even trying to realise it.

2.5.3 Attitude formation

Individuals are not born with attitudes; attitudes are formed as people interact with their environment. They can form in a number of ways based on the hierarchy of effects or how attitudes are learned. Attitude formation is concerned with a shift from a state of having no attitude toward a particular product to having an attitude—positive or negative—towards a specific product (Solomon, 2002:204). The formation of attitudes can be categorised into three areas i.e. how attitudes are learned, sources of influence on attitudes, and the impact of personality on attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:265). Arnould *et al.* (2002:467) agree that attitudes are formed through a number of processes. They observe that attitudes can be formed through learning (classical

conditioning and operant conditioning), and also through such related processes as compliance, identification and internalisation.

2.5.3.1 How attitudes are learned

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:265) and Arnould *et al.* (2002:467) agree that attitude formation is a result of learning. As far as marketing is concerned, learning is a process which involves the acquisition of knowledge and experience about purchasing and consumption. Consumers make use of the knowledge and experience in future related behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:206). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:206) and Solomon (2002:72) also concur that learning is an on-going process because it continually evolves and changes due to newly acquired knowledge or actual experience. Solomon (2002:72) views learning as a change in behaviour that is relatively permanent. Learning is influenced by experience. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:265) observe that in some instances, attitudes are formed after the purchase of a product. In this case it is possible for a consumer to purchase a particular product without necessarily having an attitude towards it. Usually this takes place when it is the only product on offer. The same applies to individuals who try new products in which they have little personal involvement. In that regard, a favourable attitude is likely to result due to satisfaction, and dissatisfaction is likely to result in an unfavourable attitude. Thus attitude formation is dependent on the information available to consumers. As more product information is available to consumers, consumers are likely to form attitudes (positive or negative) about that particular product (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:265).

There are four basic elements that should be present for learning to take place, namely motivation, cues, response, and reinforcement. Motivation depends on needs and goals (motives) and it directs learning (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:207). While motives stimulate learning, cues represent stimuli that direct these motives. In the market place, typical cues include price, styling, packaging, advertising and store displays. These help the consumer to fulfil his/her needs in product-specific ways. Response refers to how the consumer reacts to a drive or cue, and how the consumer behaves. Lastly, reinforcement ensures that a certain response will take place in future due to particular cues or stimuli. Learning takes place as a result of positive reinforcement. Positive reinforcement ensures that next time the consumer is likely to associate with the specific product or brand. If the product fails to satisfy the customer (absence of reinforcement), it is unlikely that he/she would purchase that product again (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:207-209). Whereas Arnould *et al.* (2002:467) identify classical conditioning and operant conditioning as the only learning theories applicable to consumer attitude formation, Assael (2004:58), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:206) and Foxall and

Goldsmith (1994:72) suggest two major approaches to learning, namely behavioural and cognitive theories.

Behavioural learning theories are based on the notion that learning takes place as individuals observe responses that are specific to external stimuli. By observing these responses, one can tell whether or not learning has taken place (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:209). Learning happens when a consumer responds or acts in a way that is consistent with a known stimulus. Thus behavioural theories are not concerned with what actual happens during learning—the learning process— but are concerned with the learning inputs and outcomes. In this case, learning inputs are concerned with what an individual consumer selects from the environment while learning outputs are concerned with observable behaviour that results (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:210). Solomon (2002:72) is also of the same view. He confirms that psychologists, who ascribe to the view that learning is a result of individual responses to external events, approach the mind as a ‘black box’ and emphasise those aspects of behaviour that are observable. The aspects of behaviour that are observable involve things, stimuli, events or processes from the outside world that enter the box as well as things, responses, stimuli or reactions that come out of the box. Thus consumers’ experiences are influenced by the feedback they receive as they pass through their everyday life (Solomon, 2002:72). Many scholars agree that classical conditioning and instrumental (operant) conditioning are the major behaviour learning theories of relevance to marketing (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:210; Arnould *et al.*, 2002:467; Solomon, 2002:73; Foxall & Goldsmith, 1994:72). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:210) and Solomon (2002:73) observe that classical conditioning occurs when a particular stimulus that results in a particular type of response is combined with another stimulus which on its own is not capable of eliciting a response. With the passage of time, the second stimuli will also produce a similar response because it is associated with the first stimulus. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:221) and Solomon (2002:77) also agree that instrumental or operant conditioning takes place when individuals learn to act in a way that leads to positive outcomes or favourable outcomes and avoid those actions that yield negative outcomes or unfavourable outcomes. Closely associated with operant conditioning are the processes of compliance and identification suggested by Arnould *et al.* (2002:468). Compliance refers to the formation of attitudes with the motive of avoiding punishment or gaining reward. This suggests that consumers shape their behaviour in view of rewards and punishments in the market place. The process of identification involves attitudes that are formed in order to allow the person to be part of a group or to be like others (Arnould *et al.*, 2002:468).

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:226) and Solomon (2002:80) are of the view that cognitive learning theories emphasise the importance of internal, complex mental processing of information. They view consumers as individuals who seek to solve problems. To do this, they intentionally seek for information from their environments. Arnould *et al.* (2002:468) argue that when consumers learn attitudes through a complex process—cognitive learning process—than simply a conditioning process, the process is called internalisation. Attitudes learned through this process become part of a person's value system. Similarly, whereas behavioural learning theories emphasise repetition and how a particular response is judged by the associated reward, cognitive learning theories emphasise that motivation and mental processes are key in producing the preferred response (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:226). In this regard, Foxall and Goldsmith (1994:72) suggest three cognitive learning theories as vicarious (observational) learning, rote (verbal) learning and information processing. It is observed by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:224), Solomon (2002:81) and Foxall and Goldsmith (1994:73) that substantial amount of learning can take place even without direct (positive or negative) reinforcement. When this happens, the process is called vicarious learning. It is also known as modelling or observational learning. According to Solomon (2002:81) vicarious learning is the process of imitating (modelling) which takes place when people or consumers watch the actions of others and the associated reinforcements. Thus consumers learn behaviour through the observation of the behaviour of others and the consequences of such behaviour. According to Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:100), rote learning—also known as iconic rote or verbal learning—involves the association between two or more concepts in the absence of conditioning. Basically, it is low-involvement learning. In other words, individuals are not necessarily much interested in the product, and the product is not of any significance to the user. A simple message repeated frequently will result in the message being learned, even though at a weak level. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:226) posit that information processing is concerned with the processing of information that the human mind receives as input just like how a computer processes information received as input. Various factors influence this information processing by the consumer. These include the consumer's cognitive ability, complexity of the information to be processed, and the individual's past experience.

2.5.3.2 Sources of influence on attitude formation

Attitude formation strongly depends on personal experience, the influence of family and friends, direct marketing and mass media (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:267). Blythe (2008:142) has a different view to attitude formation. He proposes that the formation of consumer attitudes depends

on situational factors surrounding the product or brand. Assael (2004:220) observes that attitudes are influenced by family, peer-groups, information and experience, and personality.

As noted by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:267), the key means through which consumer attitudes are formed is through the consumer's direct experience when trying and evaluating products. Assael (2004:220) argues that experience should be viewed in conjunction with information. He asserts that past experience and information about products or brands condition consumers' future behaviour. To stimulate the trial of new products, marketers offer promotions such as free samples. This ensures that consumers can develop positive attitudes toward the product if they like it (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:267). The family as well as friends (peer groups) can also influence consumers to form attitudes that influence their lives (Assael, 2004:220; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:267). Direct marketing is concerned with communicating with specific customers in order to solicit quick response and lasting customer relationships (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:617). Direct marketing communication is carefully designed to target specific individuals; addressing an individual's needs and wants. This specificity of direct marketing greatly influences the consumer's attitude formation process (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:267). On the other hand, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:267) assert that mass media provide a very important information source that significantly influences the formation of consumer attitudes. The implication is that emotional appeals are most effective with consumers who lack product experience.

Situational factors surrounding the product or brand also influence the consumer attitude formation process. Environmental conditions such as the location of the store and the appearance of the sales person can positively or negatively affect the way consumers perceive the products or brands (Blythe, 2008:142). Apart from the consumer's exposure to the advertisement stimuli, the consumer's needs are also important. More so, pre-existing consumer attitudes are also critical in influencing the attitude formation about a particular situation. Attitude formation is also influenced immensely by salient beliefs. The mind can only handle a small number of facts at a time. Therefore, consumers use those fewer prominent beliefs about a product to make product judgements (Blythe, 2008:142).

2.5.3.3 The impact of personality on attitude formation

Assael (2004:220) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:268) agree that the role of personality in attitude formation is quite significant. For example, consumers with high cognition levels—those individuals that actively seek information and derive enjoyment from thinking—tend to respond positively to such promotions that are detailed in terms of product related information. By contrast,

individuals with low 'need for cognition' tend to be fascinated with those advertisements that feature popular celebrities. Similarly, consumer attitudes toward the consumption and possession of new products are normally influenced by the personal characteristics of the individual consumer (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:269). Such traits as aggression, extroversion, submissiveness or authoritarianism also influence consumer attitudes toward products or brands. A typical example is that of an aggressive individual who is likely to be involved in competitive sports and thus purchases the most expensive sports equipment in order to excel. In this case, the attitude of the consumer towards sports equipment is a function of personality (Assael, 2004:220).

2.5.4 Attitude changing strategies

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:269) observe that marketers strive to alter consumer attitudes as one of the key considerations in developing marketing strategies. Most competitors take aim at challenging market leaders by developing strategies whose main objective is to lure the competitors' customers. Market leaders also strive to ensure that their customers are not enticed by competitors. They achieve this by fortifying the positive attitudes of their customers (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:269). Similarly Foxall and Goldsmith (1994:106) assert that much of the marketing effort is directed at forming or changing attitudes through communications. They posit that consumer attitudes can be changed by persuasion—an important goal of marketing. Persuasion is associated with the elaboration likelihood model as stipulated by Kotler and Keller (2006:200) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:280). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:269) also noted that attitude changes are learned in the same way attitudes are formed. In this regard, attitude formation is influenced by personal experience, other sources of information and personality. Personality determines both receptivity and the speed at which attitude change takes place (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:269). Based on the factors that affect attitude formation, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:269) go on to propose five specific strategies that can be used by marketers to change attitudes, namely changing the consumer's basic motivational function, associating the product with an admired group or event, resolving two conflicting attitudes, altering components of the multi-attribute model, and changing consumer beliefs about competitors. Blythe (2008:157) suggests four strategies that can be used to change consumer attitudes as adding a new salient belief, changing the strength of a salient belief, changing the evaluation of an existing belief, and making an existing belief more salient. Assael (2004:237) also proposes two different approaches to changing consumer attitudes, namely changing attitudes of existing users and changing attitudes of non-users.

2.5.4.1 Changing the basic motivation function

According to the function theory of attitudes—initially developed by the psychologist, Daniel Katz—attitudes exist to serve some function for an individual. Assael (2004:220), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:269) and Solomon (2002:198) concur and that before changing attitudes there is a need to know these functions. Attitudes toward a product can effectively be changed by making particular needs or functions prominent. Changing these functions or needs makes the functional approach one of the ways that can be used to change attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:269). According to the functions approach, attitudes can be classified in terms of four functions, namely utilitarian, ego-defensive, value-expressive, and knowledge.

Solomon (2002:199) submits that the utilitarian function is related to the basic principle of reward and punishment. Consumers hold certain attitudes toward a product based on the usefulness or utility of that particular product. In this regard, if a product has been useful in the past, the consumer is likely to have positive attitude towards that particular product. Therefore, marketers can change the attitudes of consumers toward a product by highlighting the usefulness of the product that they may not have considered before (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:269). Solomon (2002:199) views the ego-defensive function as attitudes that are formed to protect an individual consumer from internal threats or internal feelings. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:269) assert that very often consumers have doubts, feel insecure and uncertain. As such they seek to protect their self-images by seeking certainty, sense of security and self-confidence. Marketing promotions should therefore offer reassurance to the consumer's self-concept (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:270). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:271) and Solomon (2002:199) agree that the value-expressive function supports the notion that attitudes express or reflect outlook, lifestyle, general values or self-concept of the consumer. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:271) illustrate that if a particular consumer segment has favourable attitudes toward the latest product, then it is highly likely that their orientations will follow suit. Thus it is easier to anticipate through promotional efforts the outlook, lifestyles or even values of consumers if marketers have a profound understanding of the attitudes of consumers (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:272). The knowledge function is concerned with the need to know. Therefore, Solomon (2002:199) asserts that some consumer attitudes are formed as a result of a need for order, structure, or meaning. Generally, consumers have a 'need to know' that directs their understanding of the people and things that they encounter. This 'need to know' can be described as a cognitive need. It particularly matters when it comes to product positioning. To ensure positive consumer attitudes toward the product, the marketer should emphasise the superiority of the brand over its competitor (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:273). Finally, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:273) suggest that

several functions can be combined in an attempt to change consumer attitudes. The reasoning behind this is that different individuals may like or dislike the same product due to various reasons. For example, three consumers may have positive attitudes toward a particular product but they may be responding to different functions. Therefore, a functional framework is very useful when examining consumer attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:273).

2.5.4.2 Associating the product with a specific group

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:273) show that attitudes are related, at least in part, to certain groups, social events, or causes. Attitudes toward products or brands can be changed by revealing their relationship or association with a particular social group, event or cause. The role of the marketer is to inform consumers about the civic and public acts that they are involved in so that the consumers or public may know the good things that the company is involved in (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:273).

2.5.4.3 Resolving two conflicting attitudes

Sometimes changing consumer attitudes involves resolving two conflicting attitudes or potentially conflicting attitudes. It is necessary to inform the consumer that his/her positive attitude toward a product is not necessarily conflicting with another attitude (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:273). This is likely to induce the consumer to change his/her attitude i.e. moving from an unfavourable attitude to a favourable one. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:273) give an illustration of ‘a consumer who wants to buy a film camera with a bigger negative to work with, but the camera will soon be phased out due to the introduction of digital cameras. An appeal is made to this consumer with a digital camera that also does larger negatives’.

2.5.4.4 Altering components of the multi-attribute model

Assael (2004:204) define multi-attribute models as those “models that measure attitudes on a multidimensional basis by determining how consumers evaluate brands across product attributes”. The consumer’s attitude towards a product is thus represented by the sum of these ratings weighted by the value placed on each attribute. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:275) suggest four strategies to change components of the multi-attribute model. These are changing the relative evaluation of attributes, changing brand beliefs, adding an attribute, and changing the overall brand rating.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:276) submit that changing the relative evaluation of attributes involves a situation where it is possible to have two diametrically opposed product features or benefits that are appealing to consumers. Marketers may intend to persuade consumers to ‘cross-over’ from one

version of the product to the other i.e. persuading the consumers to change their favourable attitudes toward another version of the product. Changing brand beliefs is a cognitive-oriented strategy used to change consumer attitudes toward products or brands. It is concerned with altering the beliefs or perceptions of consumers toward products. This is arguably the commonest form advertising appeal that seeks to communicate the message that the marketer's products are better than those of competitors. To be effective, there is a need to make the message compelling and to expose the consumers to the message over and over again. Repetition is designed to overcome the resistance due to already established attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:276). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:276) submit that attribute addition involves the emphasis of an attribute that consumers usually ignored in the past or emphasising an attribute that represents an improvement. The strategy of changing the overall brand rating is concerned with an attempt to change the overall evaluation of the consumer towards a product without altering his/her evaluation of any single attributes of the product. The claims used attempt to set the product or brand apart from the rest, for example, "this is the largest selling brand" (Schiffman & Kanuk, 278).

2.5.4.5 Changing consumer beliefs about competitors

This strategy makes an attempt to change consumers' beliefs about the attributes of products of the competitor. Caution should be taken when using this strategy because comparative advertising can be detrimental to the firm as it boomerangs; thereby making competing brands visible to the consumers (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:279).

2.5.4.6 Blythe's (2004) four strategies

Closely related to altering components of the multi-attribute model proposed by Assael (2004:204), Blythe (2008:157) suggests four strategies that can be used to change consumer attitudes. These include adding a new salient belief, changing the strength of a salient belief, changing the evaluation of an existing belief, and making an existing belief more salient.

Blythe (2008:157) assert that adding a new salient belief is concerned with informing consumers about an extraordinary attribute that is easily noticeable. For example, a restaurant might point out to consumers that it has an excellent musician every Saturday night. Changing the strength of a salient belief is concerned with playing down a negative attitude or enhancing a positive attitude. If the belief about a particular product is negative, it can be played down. If it is positive, it can be given more importance. For example, if the restaurant customer has negative belief about the cleanliness of the cutlery, the restaurant has to acknowledge this point by emphasising that the cutlery is particularly checked before it reaches the consumer (Blythe, 2008:157). Changing the

evaluation of an existing belief is applicable where the consumer may have a low evaluation of a particular attribute, for example, price at a particular restaurant. The consumer may particularly be more interested in enjoying his/her stay at the restaurant than cheap meals. The role of the marketer is to increase the evaluation of the price by informing the consumer that low prices would enable him/her to come often to the restaurant to enjoy the stay without incurring much cost (Blythe, 2008:158). Lastly, making an existing belief more salient is concerned with making the already existing attribute noticeable to the consumer. For example, the consumer may not be interested in the friendliness of the waiters. The marketer has to emphasise to the customer that the consumer can enjoy more of the evening if the waiters are friendly (Blythe, 2008:158).

Assael (2004:237) identifies two different approaches to changing consumer attitudes, namely changing attitudes of existing users and changing attitudes of non-users.

2.5.4.7 Changing attitudes of existing users

Marketers faced with a downward demand trend often strive to change the attitudes of existing users. This can be achieved by repositioning their offerings to existing customers. Usually this strategy is approached at industry level through cooperative advertising (Assael, 2004:237).

2.5.4.8 Changing attitudes of non-users

Changing attitudes of non-users is concerned with appealing to new segments of the market. The motive is to change attitudes of the non-users i.e. unfavourable to favourable ones. The desire is to witness future growth in the company's sales (Assael, 2004:237).

2.5.5 The elaboration likelihood model

Lien (2001:301) refers to the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) of persuasion as “a theory about the processes responsible for yielding to a persuasive communication and the strength of the attitudes that result from those processes”. In the context of consumer behaviour, persuasion is defined by Goldsmith (1994:106) as “the use of communication to change attitudes in order to change behaviour”. Similarly, Arnould *et al.* (2002:475) describe persuasion as an intended course of action directed at changing the attitude of an individual. The ELM attempts to explain the process of persuasion. The circumstances in which consumers make buying decisions are two-fold i.e. low-involvement and high-involvement circumstances (Kotler & Keller, 2006:200). Compared to the various specific strategies of attitude change that have been reviewed already, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:280) argue that the ELM proposes a more global view that the attitudes of consumers can be altered by two distinctly different ‘routes to persuasion’, namely the central route and the peripheral

route (see Figure 2.12). Likewise, Arnould *et al.* (2002:475) suggest that information passes through two different routes as it is processed by the consumer; with each route being determined by the extent to which the consumer considers that information as relevant. The central route is dominant when the consumer is highly involved and this represents the traditional or standard hierarchy of effects. Similarly, the central route is particularly relevant in changing consumer attitude when the consumer is actively involved in seeking product related information (Kotler & Keller, 2006:200; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:280). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:280) posit that learning takes place via the central route in a situation where consumers are eager to seek for and evaluate information about a product.

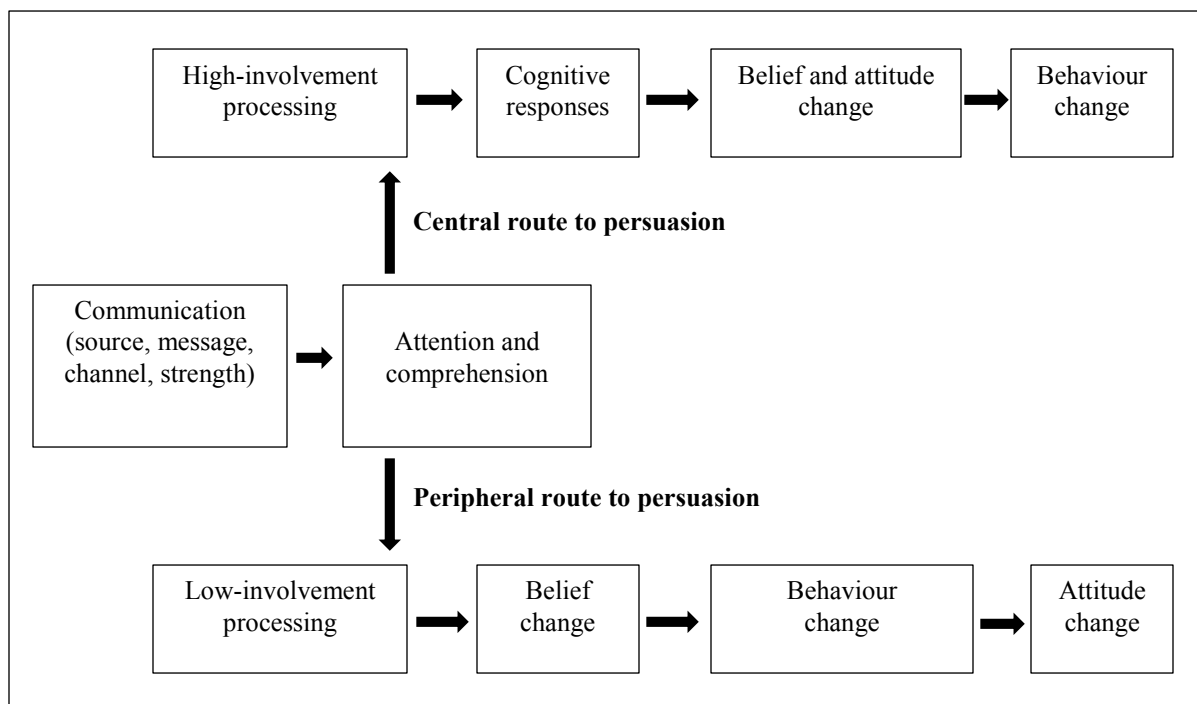


Figure 2.12 Elaboration likelihood model of persuasion

Source: Adapted from Arnould *et al.* (2002:476)

By contrast, the peripheral route to persuasion is dominant when the consumer is exposed to new information under low-involving conditions. In this case, the consumer is not motivated to think about the major arguments; he/she relies on other cues to evaluate the message (Arnould *et al.*, 2002:476). Likewise, Kotler and Keller (2006:200) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:279) concur that in low involvement situations, the processes of learning and attitude change take place via the peripheral route without the consumer paying particular attention to the product related information. In that case, changes in consumer attitudes are a result of such secondary inducements as great

packaging, beautiful background scenery, cents-off coupons, free samples, or celebrity encouragement (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:279). Research has shown that the central inducements seem to have more persistence over time even in low involvement situations where both central and secondary (peripheral) are initially equal in their capacities to evoke similar attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:280).

2.5.6 Relationship between consumer attitude and purchase behaviour

The relationship between consumer attitudes and behaviour has received much attention in consumer behaviour research. However, there have been inconsistent findings (Vida & Damjan, 2001:113). In a study to examine the factors that influence the attitudes of consumers toward social media marketing using university students, Akar and Topçu (2011:43) found out that the better the attitude an individual has toward a product or brand, the more likely he/she will use it. By contrast, the negative the attitude of the consumer toward the product or the brand, the less likely he/she will use it. Similarly, Argyriou and Melewar (2011:431) emphasise that consumer attitudes are known to positively influence the behaviour of consumers toward a particular object such as a product or a brand.

Wilcock *et al.* (2004:56) argue that although consumer attitudes have been reported to influence and predict consumer behaviour, it is not always the case. Sometimes consumer behaviour can also influence attitudes. This view is also supported by Assael (2004:227) who demonstrate that, not only do attitudes influence behaviour, but behaviour sometimes influences attitudes. They propose three situations that are likely to result in behaviour influencing attitudes, namely cognitive dissonance, passive dissonance and disconfirmation of expectations. The theories of cognitive dissonance, passive learning and disconfirmation of expectations have decreased the importance attached to attitudes in explaining behaviour in that a change in attitude is no longer a prerequisite for purchasing behaviour (Assael, 2004:227). Solomon (2002:204) substantiates this view by acknowledging that attitudes can form in a number of ways that depend on the hierarchy of effects or how attitudes are learned.

2.5.6.1 Cognitive dissonance theory

Kotler and Armstrong (2001:197) define cognitive dissonance as “buyer discomfort caused by post-purchase conflict”. They assert that dissonance or discomfort occurs when a consumer has conflicting thoughts concerning a particular product. It can occur after the purchase. In this case, cognitive dissonance is called post-purchase dissonance. Post-purchase behaviour is often associated with the uncertainty or doubt as to whether the consumer made the right decision or not

(Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:570). Assael (2004:45) views dissonance as any negative information or feeling about the chosen product. According to the dissonance theory, consumer attitudes are formed after the purchase behaviour i.e. in some instances, consumer attitudes change to align with previous behaviour. This reduces post-purchase dissonance (Assael, 2004:227).

2.5.6.2 Passive learning theory

The passive learning theory also downplays the relevance of consumer attitudes in determining consumer behaviour. This theory is applicable under low-involvement conditions where an attitude change does not necessarily influence a behaviour change. A new product may attract consumers to purchase it and consumer attitudes will form after the consumers have used the product (Assael, 2004:228).

2.5.6.3 Disconfirmation of expectations theory

Assael (2004:228) suggests that disconfirmation of expectations refers to a situation where expectations about product performance are not met. These may result in increased unfavourable attitudes toward the product. In elaborating this theory, Assael (2004:228) mentions the relevance of assimilation/contrast theories. The assimilations/contrast theories suggest that in situations where consumers are only slightly disappointed, the attitudes of consumers adjust to expectations because the experience is accepted and disconfirmed. However, when consumers are very disappointed a negative attitude change is likely to occur after the purchase. This attitude change is often exaggerated by consumers. Therefore, promotions may promote disconfirmation of expectations through overselling products or brands. Frequent positive claims such as 'the best value' may lead to consumers feeling that the claims were not met (Assael, 2004:228). This theory seems to undermine the strategy of changing the overall brand rating as proposed by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:278). The strategy of changing the brand rating involves an attempt to change the overall evaluation of the consumer towards a product without altering his or her evaluation of any single attributes of the product. The claims used in this strategy, for example, 'this is the largest selling brand' attempt to set the product apart from other products (Assael, 2004:228; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:278).

2.5.7 General influences on consumer attitudes

Akar and Topçu (2011:52) examined factors influencing consumer attitudes toward social media marketing using university students aged between 18 and 24. They found that income was positively associated with consumer attitudes while there were no significant differences due to

gender of the respondents. In a study to investigate consumer attitudes and behaviour toward organic products in Greece, Tsakiridou, Boutsouki, Zotos and Mattas (2008:164) concluded that gender does not significantly influence consumer attitudes, while education, income and age were found to positively influence consumer attitudes. In studying foreign product perceptions and country of origin across the Black Sea, Apil (2006:32) found that education is positively correlated with consumer attitudes toward foreign products while younger consumers were reported to have more favourable attitudes than older consumers toward foreign products. Females were reported to have more positive attitudes than males toward foreign products. No significant differences in consumer attitudes toward online and mobile banking in terms of the level of education were observed in China (Laforet & Li, 2005:371). Juric and Worsley (1998:437) examined the attitudes of consumers toward imported food products in New Zealand. They found that younger respondents, better educated respondents and those with higher income levels had more favourable attitudes than their counterparts. Culture affects behavioural intentions. Cultural differences can therefore lead to misleading expectations with regards to buying intentions (Arnould *et al.*, 2002:479).

2.6 CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM

2.6.1 Definition and scope of consumer ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism is described as a trait that shapes the personality of an individual. A trait is relatively enduring and it distinguishes one individual from the other (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:126). Shimp and Sharma (1987:280) are the pioneer users of the term consumer ethnocentrism. They used it to explain beliefs held by American people on whether or not it is appropriate or moral to purchase foreign products. To highly ethnocentric consumers, purchasing products made from other countries is not appropriate because it has negative consequences to the domestic economy and it may also lead to citizens to lose their jobs. More so, it is unpatriotic. On the other hand, consumers who are non-ethnocentric evaluate foreign made products objectively i.e. based on merit. They may reach the extent to evaluate foreign made products favourably simply because the products are made out of country. Similarly, Klein and Ettenson (1999:6) describe consumer ethnocentrism as beliefs held by consumers concerning the appropriateness or morality of purchasing products from other countries. They suggest that, to highly ethnocentric consumers, purchasing foreign products can damage the domestic economy, result in job losses and it is unpatriotic. Shimp and Sharma (1987:280) submit that, in functional terms, consumer ethnocentrism yields three things to an individual. First, it results in a sense of identity. Second, it instils as sense of belongingness. Third, it ensures that individuals appreciate a purchase behaviour

that is acceptable or unacceptable within the group. Apil (2006:28) describes consumer ethnocentrism as a phenomenon concerned with preference for domestic products and bias against foreign made products. Consumers fear the harmful effects caused by foreign products on the domestic economy and the society. This fear results in consumers shunning foreign made products and also encouraging their counterparts not to buy these products (Apil, 2006:28).

2.6.2 Origin of consumer ethnocentrism

Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004:80) acknowledge the seminal works of Schooler in 1965 and 1971 that sought to address one of the enduring issues affecting marketers. Marketers have, for over the years, been concerned with whether or not the “foreignness” of a product can impact how consumers in different countries prefer products from other countries. Subsequently, Shimp and Sharma (1987:280) responded by introducing the term consumer ethnocentrism, adapting it from the general concept of ethnocentrism which was introduced by Sumner in 1906. As a general concept, ethnocentrism refers to the tendency of people to view the behaviour of their group as the benchmark. Group members treat their behaviour as universal and that everyone else must follow suit. Consequently, members who belong to different cultures are rejected out rightly while those belonging to groups with similar cultures are blindly accepted (Shimp & Sharma, 1987:280). Nijssen, Douglas and Bressers (1999) acknowledge that there has been extensive research on foreign products focusing on the construct of consumer ethnocentrism. Wu *et al.* (2010:2262) concur that ethnocentrism was originally a sociological concept which was latter applied in consumer behaviour research by Shimp and Sharma in 1987. Orth and Firbasová (2003:140) also confirm that consumer ethnocentrism is originally a sociological construct which is based on the tendency of consumers to have bias in the superiority of their groups and inferiority of other groups. Likewise, consumer ethnocentrism draws much from the social identity theory (Orth & Firbasová, 2003:140; Supphellen & Rittenburg, 2001:910). The social identity theory explains relationships between in-groups and out-groups. According to this theory, individuals gain positive identity by aligning themselves with those groups that are positively valued (in-groups) while dissociating themselves from those groups that are negatively valued (out-groups). Individuals within in-groups consider themselves as superior to members in out-groups. In the context of consumer behaviour and international marketing, domestic producers are associated with the in-group while foreign producers are associated with the out-group. Thus ethnocentric consumers tend to evaluate domestic products (in-groups) favourably and foreign products (out-groups) unfavourably (Supphellen & Rittenburg, 2001:910).

2.6.3 Measurement and dimensionality of consumer ethnocentrism

Shimp and Sharma (1987:281) recognised the then existing ethnocentrism scales developed by Warr, Faust and Harrison in 1967 and Chang and Ritter in 1976. However, they argued that these scales were not relevant in the study of consumer behaviour. Therefore, Shimp and Sharma (1987) developed and validated an original 17-item scale to measure consumer ethnocentric tendencies based on 7-point Likert type items. They used American consumers. The scale was named CETSCALE i.e. consumer ethnocentric tendencies scale (see Appendix 2). The CETSCALE came to be popular among marketing researchers in the field of consumer behaviour. Shorter versions were introduced later. Haws, Bearden and Netemeyer (2010:90) and Bawa (2004:45) reveal that a 10-item version of the CETSCALE was used by Shimp and Sharma (1987), Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1988) and Douglas and Nijssen (2003). Lindquist, Vida, Plank and Fairhurst (2001:505) applied the 10-item CETSCALE in the Poland, Hungary and Czech Republic. They found out that the 10-item single-factor model—as suggested by Shimp and Sharma in 1987—could not display a universally ‘good fit’ solution. Subsequently, they proposed a revised 5-item scale for Hungary, a 6-item scale for Poland and a 7-item scale for the Czech Republic (Lindquist *et al.* (2001:512).

Shimp and Sharma (1987) did not make an attempt to classify the items of the CETSCALE; making the assumption that consumer ethnocentrism is a uni-dimensional construct. However, there are mixed findings from further studies concerning the factors underling the CETSCALE. In a study to validate the measurement of consumer ethnocentrism, Bawa (2004:54) found that the concept of consumer ethnocentrism predominant in India is not conceptually equivalent to that prevailing in USA and other countries where it was reported to be uni-dimensional. According to Bawa (2004:54), consumer ethnocentrism had more nuances in India than in USA and some other countries. As noted by Bawa (2004:45), the 17 items of the CETSCALE are based on four underlying concepts, namely “is tied to product availability, results in loss of jobs, it hurts the domestic economy and is unpatriotic”. Saffu and Walker (2006a:167) also assessed the CETSCALE in a developing country (Ghana). They found that the CETSCALE is valid and reliable. Unlike in previous studies, consumer ethnocentrism was found to be two-dimensional (Saffu and Walker, 2006a:175). Teo *et al.* (2011:2811) tested the dimensionality of consumer ethnocentrism; they concluded that both uni-dimensional and two-dimensional measures of the CETSCALE were valid and reliable. However, they proposed that the one-dimensional measure is the best when measuring consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Bandara and Miloslava (2012:10) conducted a study on consumer ethnocentrism in Czech Republic. They concluded that the concept of consumer

ethnocentrism was based on four distinct factors, namely “xenophobia, patriotism, product availability, and the feeling of bad economic and employment impact”.

Teo *et al.* (2011:2806) reveal that consumer ethnocentrism has been measured in several countries using students and general populations. They observed that general populations tend to have higher ethnocentric tendencies (CETSCORES between 28.7 and 85.07) than student populations (CETSCORES between 32.02 and 62.50) based on the 7 point Likert scale. The highest score (85.07) was recorded in Korea and the lowest score (28.70) was recorded in Belgium.

As noted in Thelen, Ford and Honeycutt Jr. (2006:688), the explanatory power of the CETSCALE is influenced by the product. Likewise, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004:89) substantiate that the use of specific products in determining consumer ethnocentric tendencies brings out more informative results than an aggregated analysis of unspecified products from different countries. The CETSCALE predicts preferences for products reliably and validly (Thelen *et al.*, 2006:691). Bawa (2004:45) also reported that, different subsets of the items of the CETSCALE work significantly in different countries. In view of this, Douglas and Nijssen (2003:625) note that since the inception of the CETSCALE, it has been modified and translated to make it appropriate in various countries and outside the US. Taking into account the inconsistent findings, Douglas and Nijssen (2003:632) recommend that caution must be exercised when using scales particularly sensitive to cultural and economic conditions.

2.6.4 Influences on consumer ethnocentrism

There are various factors that influence consumer ethnocentrism. Based on the literature, the major influences on consumer ethnocentrism can be classified in terms of the availability of product, nature of product, level of market development, country of origin, cultural similarity, demographic factors, socio-psychological factors, economic factors and political factors (Jain & Jain, 2013:4; Mangnale *et al.*, 2011:241; Teo *et al.*, 2011:2806; Apil, 2006:30; Shankarmahesh, 2006:149; Javalgi *et al.*, 2005:329; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004:80; Bawa, 2004:46; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:136; Wang & Chen, 2004:392; Orth & Firbasová, 2003:140; Kaynak & Kara, 2002:933; Kamaruddin, Mokhlis & Othman, 2002:558; Supphellen & Ritterburg, 2001:910; Vida & Damjan, 2001:116; De Ruyter *et al.*, 1998:190; Sharma *et al.*, 1995:27).

2.6.4.1 Availability of product

Apil (2006:30) states that ethnocentric tendencies tend to be lower where there are no domestic product alternatives. Thus where there are no domestic products, ethnocentric consumers do not

have a choice but to purchase imported products. Similarly, Huddleston, Good and Stoel (2000:178) claim that, in situations where there are no domestic alternatives, consumer ethnocentrism tends to be low because foreign products would be the only products available. In agreement, Nijssen *et al.* (1999) posit that consumer ethnocentric tendencies are also impacted by the perceived availability of domestic alternatives. For instance, consumers in a developing or small economy where the domestic industry cannot support the local market will have no choice but to buy foreign made products. In this regard, these ethnocentric consumers may not have negative attitudes toward foreign products.

2.6.4.2 *Nature of product*

Thelen *et al.* (2006:688) assert that the explanatory power of the CETSCALE varies across products. In support of this view, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004:89) submit that an analysis of consumer ethnocentrism based on a specific product is more informative than an aggregated analysis of unspecified products from other countries. Likewise, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:136) and Kaynak and Kara (2002:933) concur that consumer ethnocentrism varies by product. Moreover, according to Wang and Chen (2004:392), consumers' intention to purchase products, domestic or foreign, is likely to be influenced by perceived quality. The perception of quality is regarded as a multi-dimensional construct. It includes a number of attributes such as design, durability, appearance, colour, fashion, prestige, functionality, reliability, value for money, technical advancement and workmanship. In this respect, Huddleston *et al.* (2000:178) assert that, in situations where domestic products are inferior to foreign made products, ethnocentric tendencies tend to be low because foreign products would be the only products worth spending money on. Supphellen and Ritterburg (2001:910) support this view. Sometimes foreign brands may be better than domestic brands. In this situation, consumers will try to compromise and reduce the gap between the superiority of foreign brands and inferiority of domestic brands. Instead of downgrading foreign products, consumers are more likely to upgrade domestic products or brands. Two possible explanations are available. First, exhibiting a negative non-conforming attitude towards foreign products would obviously be the norm of members of a particular group that foreign products are superior. Doing this is likely to result in significant personal and social costs. Second, the need to account for ethnocentric tendencies may direct consumers to focus on familiar domestic brands rather than foreign made ones. Consequently, ethnocentric consumers are likely to upgrade renowned domestic brands as a result of being patriotic and the need to account for ethnocentric tendencies. They do so while accepting the fact that foreign brands are superior in order to conform to the in-group and social identity (Supphellen & Ritterburg, 2001:911). This

explanation conforms to the idea that consumer ethnocentrism, as a concept, borrows heavily from the social identity theory (Supphellen & Rittenburg, 2001:910). Orth and Firbasová (2003:140) share the same sentiments and confirm that consumer ethnocentrism is originally a sociological construct which is concerned with the bias consumers have that one's group is superior while others' groups are inferior.

2.6.4.3 Level of market development and economic factors

It is widely agreed that consumers in developing countries generally perceive the quality of domestic products as inferior to imported products while consumers in developed countries tend to have a higher quality perception of domestic products than foreign made products (Apil, 2006:31). Similarly, Bawa (2004:51) observed that there is a common belief among scholars that consumer ethnocentrism is a construct of developed nations; with overwhelming evidence suggesting that consumers from developing countries have higher preferences for foreign made products. Concurring, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:136) and Kaynak and Kara (2002:933) assert that consumer ethnocentrism varies from country to country. In agreement, Nijssen *et al.* (1999) posit that consumer ethnocentric tendencies are also impacted by the perceived availability of domestic alternatives. For instance, consumers in a developing or small economy where the domestic industry cannot support the local market will have no choice but to buy foreign made products. In this regard, these consumers are not likely to have negative attitudes toward foreign products. According to Shankarmahesh (2006:164), capitalism has been found to be negatively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism. Generally, troubled economies, those economies not performing well, or developing economies are associated with low consumer ethnocentric tendencies while developed economies are associated with high ethnocentric tendencies.

2.6.4.4 Country of origin

Bandyopadhyay, Wongtada and Rice (2011:212) assert that country-of-origin (COO) effects represent country-specific attitudes that are used by consumers to judge the quality of foreign made products. The concept of COO was first developed by Schooler in 1965. The country of origin effect (COOE) is "the potential or ability of consumers in a country to have bias for or against foreign firms and or their products" (Hill, 2005:593). Consumer ethnocentrism is influenced both by specific COO and specific product category (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004:80). However, Apil (2006:29) accepts that COO is important in influencing consumer ethnocentrism. However, he argues that the social appropriateness of the act that drives the product decision, rather than the COO *per se* is the most important influence on consumer ethnocentrism. This makes consumer

ethnocentrism a universal concept that is associated with every aspect of inter-group relations (Apil, 2006:28).

2.6.4.5 *Cultural similarity*

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:136) and Kaynak and Kara (2002:933) agree that consumer ethnocentrism varies from country to country and by culture. Of great importance when evaluating foreign products against domestic ones is the cultural similarity (Kamaruddin, Mokhlis & Othman, 2002:558). Kamaruddin *et al.* (2002:558) argue that consumers tend to have less ethnocentric tendencies toward products from countries that are culturally similar. Similarly, Apil (2006:30) submits that consumers regard countries with similar cultures as in-group countries while those with dissimilar cultures as out-group countries. This conforms the social identify theory. As such consumers tend to prefer products from in-group countries while rejecting those products that come from out-group countries.

2.6.4.6 *Demographic characteristics*

Generally, research evidence suggests that demographic variables influence consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Teo *et al.* (2011:2806) observed that consumer ethnocentrism has been measured in numerous countries and differences were noted in terms of the population used for data collection. Samples were drawn mainly from general populations and from student populations. General populations tended to have higher ethnocentric tendencies (CETSCORES between 28.7 and 85.07) than student populations (CETSCORES between 32.02 and 62.50). In a study of Polish consumers, age was found to positively correlate with consumer ethnocentrism while income was found to negatively correlate with consumer ethnocentrism. There was no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and gender (Supphellen & Rittenburg, 2001:917). Orth and Firasová (2003:140) also reported that consumer age has repeatedly been found to significantly correlate with ethnocentrism, i.e. older consumers were found to be much more ethnocentric than younger ones. However, age and gender's influences on consumer ethnocentrism were found to be product specific among Russian consumers; and neither education nor income levels were significant in determining consumer ethnocentrism (Thelen *et al.*, 2006:696). In Kamaruddin *et al.* (2002:561), females were reported to be more ethnocentric than males. They also concluded that higher income consumers have low ethnocentric tendencies. In Bawa (2004:46) it was observed that older people are more ethnocentric than the younger. Higher education levels were associated with lower consumer ethnocentric tendencies while women were observed to be more ethnocentric than men. Another study was conducted in Ethiopia by Mangnale *et al.* (2011:241). They found that women

were more ethnocentric than men. No significant relationships were established between ethnocentrism and, age, income and educational levels. De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:195) identified demographics as an antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism. They found that age was positively associated with consumer ethnocentrism; education negatively influenced consumer ethnocentrism; while no significant differences on consumer ethnocentrism were reported due to gender, income and the professional sector in which the individual works. A study by Vida and Damjan (2001:116) in Slovenia concluded that income and gender were not significant influences on consumer ethnocentrism. However, Javalgi *et al.* (2005:337) concluded that gender and age significantly influenced consumer ethnocentrism while education and income did not. Women were found to be more ethnocentric than men while older consumers were found to be more ethnocentric. Jain and Jain (2013:12) conducted a study on consumer ethnocentrism in India. Age was found to be positively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism while no significant differences were found on consumer ethnocentrism attributable to gender, education and income.

2.6.4.7 Socio-psychological factors

Many authors (Jain & Jain, 2013:4; Shankarmahesh, 2006:149; Javalgi *et al.*, 2005:329; Vida & Damjan, 2001:116; De Ruyter *et al.*, 1998:185; Sharma *et al.*, 1995:27) agree that socio-psychological factors influence consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Although the authors differ in the number of psychological factors identified, the common socio-psychological factors include cultural openness, world mindedness, patriotism, conservatism, collectivism/individualism, animosity, materialism, list of values, salience, dogmatism and ethnic pride.

Cultural openness is referred to as a state of being aware of, understanding and accepting other people's cultures (Javalgi *et al.*, 2005:331). Cultural openness is concerned with the extent to which the local citizens are willing to interact with foreigners and also to experience their artefacts. Research has established that cultural openness is negatively associated with consumer ethnocentrism (Shankarmahesh, 2006:149). Likewise, Jain and Jain (2013:11) confirm that openness to foreign cultures negatively influences consumer ethnocentrism. De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:195) also reported a negative correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and openness to foreign cultures.

World mindedness is described by Shankarmahesh (2006:149) as a state of mind which highly regards humankind/humanity when referring to a group rather than nationality. Thus consumers have a 'world view' to humanity problems. Research evidence suggests a negative relationship between world mindedness and consumer ethnocentrism while in other studies there were no

established significant relationships. No significant relationship between world mindedness and consumer ethnocentrism was reported by Jain and Jain (2013:11).

Javalgi *et al.* (2005:331) regard patriotism as pride in one's own country. Shankarmahesh (2006:149) refers to patriotism as the love for one's country. Patriotism is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism (Jain & Jain, 2013:11; Shankarmahesh, 2006:149). Similarly, De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:195) reported that patriotism is positively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism.

Shankarmahesh (2006:162) argues that conservative consumers cherish their traditions and long-surviving social institutions so much that the consumers would be reluctant to introduce change. Research suggests that conservatism has a positive effect on consumer ethnocentrism (Jain & Jain, 2013:11; Shankarmahesh, 2006:162). Similarly, De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:195) reported that conservatism is positively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism.

Collectivism is concerned with the effect of individual actions on the society at large. Collectivism is known to be positively correlated to consumer ethnocentrism (Shankarmahesh, 2006:162). Similarly, Jain and Jain (2013:11) assert that collectivism positively influences consumer theocentric tendencies. According to De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:195), collectivism is positively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism while individualism is negatively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism.

Shankarmahesh (2006:162) posit that animosity is targeted towards specific countries and it is influenced by past or current economic, political or military events. According to Jain and Jain (2013:11), animosity tends to increase consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

Arnould *et al.* (2002:151) define materialism as "the importance a consumer attaches to worldly possessions" or as "a consumption-based orientation to happiness seeking". It extends to become a combination of other value orientations such as non-generosity, possessiveness, envy and preservation. Preservation refers to a tendency to hold on to things. Shankarmahesh (2006:162) maintain that materialism is concerned with material possessions. Thus materialism can be a source of satisfaction. Materialism is believed to positively influence consumer ethnocentrism.

Values are defined by Arnould *et al.* (2002:142) as "enduring beliefs about desirable outcomes that transcend specific situations and shape one's behaviour". Values refer to a preferred mode of conduct in an individual's life. Values are known to positively influence consumer ethnocentrism (Shankarmahesh, 2006:163).

Arnould *et al.* (2002:444) suggest that marketing managers usually strive to make product-relevant information salient or noticeable to consumer. The information that stands out as unique or important—salient—tends to be more accessible than other information. In the context of consumer ethnocentrism, Shankarmahesh (2006:163) describes salience as the perceived threat that foreign products present to the domestic economy. Empirical evidence shows that salience positively influences consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Jain and Jain (2013:11) support this view and conclude that salience is positively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism.

Dogmatism is described by Arnould *et al.* (2002:256) as “an individual’s tendency to be more or less resistant to new ideas and change”. Dogmatic consumers tend to be more resistant to new marketing practices. Shankarmahesh (2006:163) suggests that dogmatism is a characteristic of personality that views the world in ‘black and white’. Research evidence shows that dogmatism is positively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism

2.6.4.8 *Political environment*

Political propaganda directed at raising the threats of foreign made products by the political leadership is likely to result in consumer ethnocentric tendencies. On the other hand, long histories of oppression, in Poland for example, often lead to consumer ethnocentric tendencies (Shankarmahesh, 2006:164).

2.6.5 **Effect of consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes and purchase behaviour**

Shimp and Sharma (1987:281) assert that consumer ethnocentrism is concerned with consumer tendencies rather than attitudes. Consumer attitudes suggest a greater degree of object specificity than consumer ethnocentric tendencies. In this regard, the term ‘attitude’ is more appropriately applied to refer to the feelings of the consumer toward a specific product or brand while the term ‘tendency’ is a general notion concerned with how consumers are disposed to behave in a consistent manner toward foreign products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987:281). In view of this, Watson and Wright (1999:1151) state that consumer ethnocentric tendencies may precede attitudes. However, consumer ethnocentrism is not the equivalence of attitudes because attitudes are object-specific.

As noted by Supphellen and Ritterburg (2001:908), ethnocentric tendencies tend to be negatively correlated with attitudes towards imported products and significantly correlated with attitudes towards domestic products among American consumers. Ranjbarian *et al.* (2010:372) submit that consumer ethnocentrism highly influences consumer purchase decisions concerning domestic or foreign products. They describe consumer ethnocentrism as “potential handicap” for those

marketers contemplating venturing into international markets. In this regard, Netemeyer *et al.* (1991:321) assert that consumers with ethnocentric tendencies pride in in-group aspects such as group members, symbols and values while being contemptuous of similar objects in out-groups. This may result in a bias towards domestic products. From a marketing point of view, a sound understanding of consumer ethnocentric tendencies is important because it helps marketers to design international product positioning strategies and also to explain the bias towards domestic products (Huddleston *et al.*, 2000:171; Netemeyer *et al.*, 1991:321). Bandyopadhyay *et al.*, (2011:211) agree with Moon (2004:668) that consumer ethnocentrism is highly likely to lead to consumer attitudes toward imported products. Kaynak and Kara (2002:933) submit that an understanding of consumer ethnocentrism is critical to the marketer because it helps him/her appreciate how consumers (individual and corporate) make comparisons between domestic and products from other countries. In a South African study, Pentz's (2011:231) concluded that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively correlated with attitudes toward importing foreign products. The same view is given by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:126) that ethnocentric tendencies are negatively correlated with attitudes toward foreign products and significantly positively correlated with attitudes towards domestic products. Generally, consumer ethnocentrism has been found to lead to negative consumer attitudes (Shankarmahesh, 2006:166).

2.6.6 Conceptual models of the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism and its effect on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour

In an attempt to explain the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism and its effect on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour, various conceptual models have been proposed by different authors (Jain & Jain, 2013:4; Shankarmahesh, 2006:161; Javalgi *et al.*, 2005:329; Vida & Damjan, 2001:116; De Ruyter *et al.*, 1998:190; Sharma *et al.*, 1995:28).

2.6.6.1 Conceptual model proposed by Sharma et al. (1995:28)

The conceptual model of the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism proposed by Sharma *et al.* (1995:28) is illustrated in Figure 2.13.

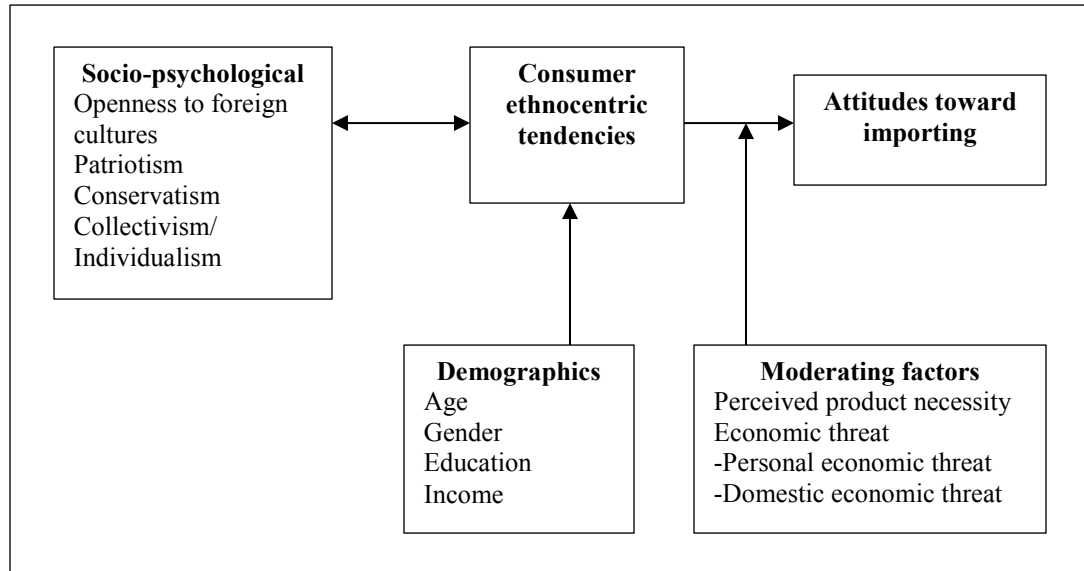


Figure 2.13 Conceptual model proposed by Sharma *et al.* (1995:28)

Source: Adapted from Sharma *et al.* (1995:28)

As shown in Figure 2.13, Sharma *et al.* (1995:28) classify the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism into two major categories, namely socio-psychological factors and demographic factors. According to the model, “socio-psychological factors comprise openness to foreign cultures, patriotism, conservatism and collectivism/individualism” while demographic factors include gender, age, level of income and level of education. Consumer ethnocentrism affects consumer attitudes toward importing products. However, the perceived product necessity and economic threat (personal economic threat and domestic economic threat) moderate the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes toward importing (Sharma *et al.*, 1995:30).

2.6.6.2 Conceptual model proposed by De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:190)

Du Ruyter *et al.* (1998:190) proposed a conceptual model of the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism for services. The model is illustrated in Figure 2.14.

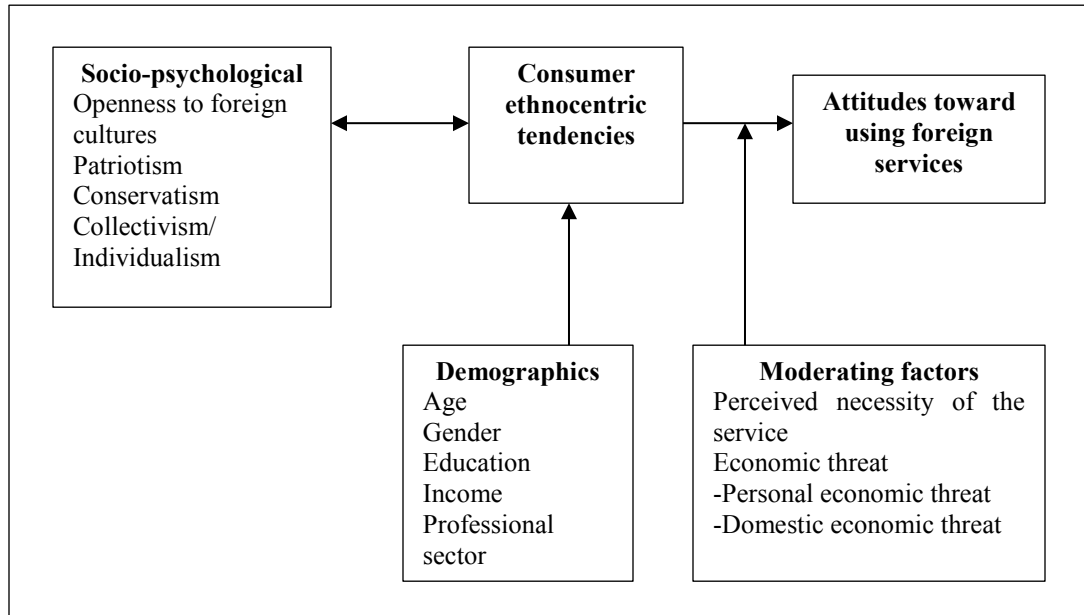


Figure 2.14 Conceptual model proposed by De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:190)

Source: Adapted from De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:190)

This model shares many similarities with Sharma *et al.*'s (1995:28) model. The model also classifies the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism into two broad categories, namely socio-psychological factors and demographic variables. De Ruyter *et al.* (1995:28) suggest that socio-psychological variables consist of collectivism/individualism, conservatism, openness to foreign cultures, and patriotism just like in Sharma *et al.* (1995:28). However, for the demographic variables (age, education, gender and income), an addition variable (professional sector of the consumer) is included. This model also depicts consumer ethnocentrism as an antecedent of consumer attitudes toward using foreign services; with the perceived necessity of the service and economic threat (personal economic threat and domestic economic threat) as moderating variables.

2.6.6.3 Conceptual model proposed by Vida and Damjan (2001:116)

Vida and Damjan (2001:116) proposed another model of the antecedents and effects of consumer ethnocentric attitudes. The model is illustrated in Figure 2.15.

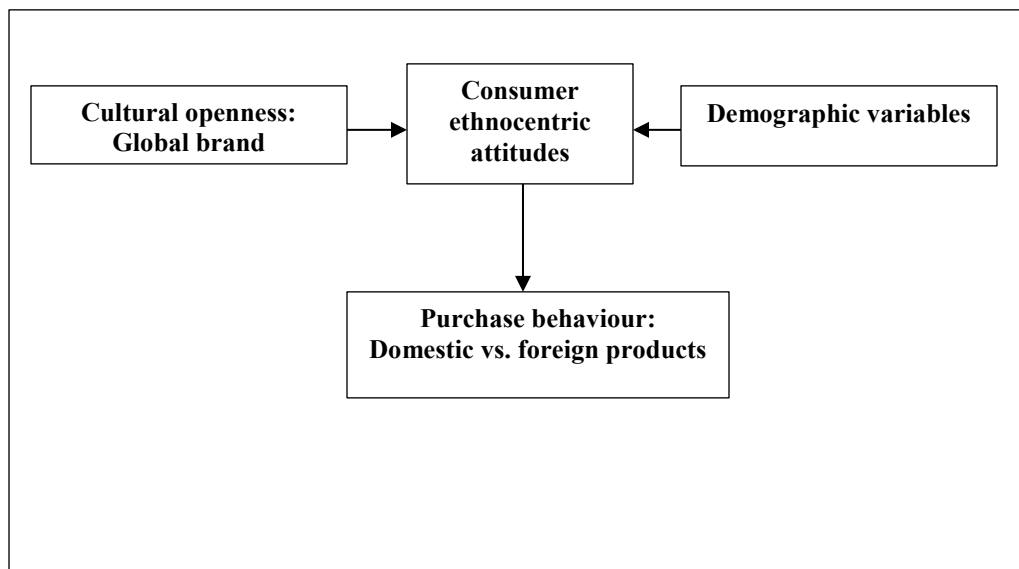


Figure 2.15 Conceptual model proposed by Vida and Damjan (2001:116)

Source: Adapted from Vida and Damjan (2001:116)

Vida and Damjan (2001:1160) posit that cultural openness and demographic variables are the antecedents of consumer ethnocentric attitudes. Consumer ethnocentric attitudes lead to purchase behaviour of domestic versus foreign products. This model differs with Sharma *et al.*'s (1995:28) and De Ruyter *et al.*'s (1998:190) models in that it considers consumer ethnocentric attitudes instead of consumer ethnocentric tendencies. The model also illustrates that the consumer ethnocentric attitudes are influenced by demographic variables and only one socio-psychological variable (cultural openness in terms of global awareness). It also shows that consumer ethnocentric attitudes predict consumer purchase behaviour in terms of domestic versus foreign products. However, Shimp and Sharma (1987:281) and Watson and Wright (1999:1151) provide insights that are contradictory to Vida and Damjan's (2001:116) model. Shimp and Sharma (1987:281) demonstrate that, consumer ethnocentrism is concerned with consumer tendencies rather than attitudes. Consumer attitudes suggest a greater degree of object specificity than consumer ethnocentric tendencies. In this regard, the term 'attitude' is more appropriate when used to describe the feelings of the consumer about a particular product. By contrast, the term 'tendency' describes the general notion of how consumers are disposed to behave in a consistent manner (Shimp & Sharma, 1987:281). Watson and Wright (1999:1151) weigh in and state that, consumer ethnocentric tendencies may precede attitudes. However, consumer ethnocentrism is not equivalent to attitudes because attitudes are object-specific.

2.6.6.4 Conceptual model proposed by Javalgi *et al.* (2005:329)

Javalgi *et al.* (2005:329) also proposed a model of the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism as illustrated in Figure 2.16.

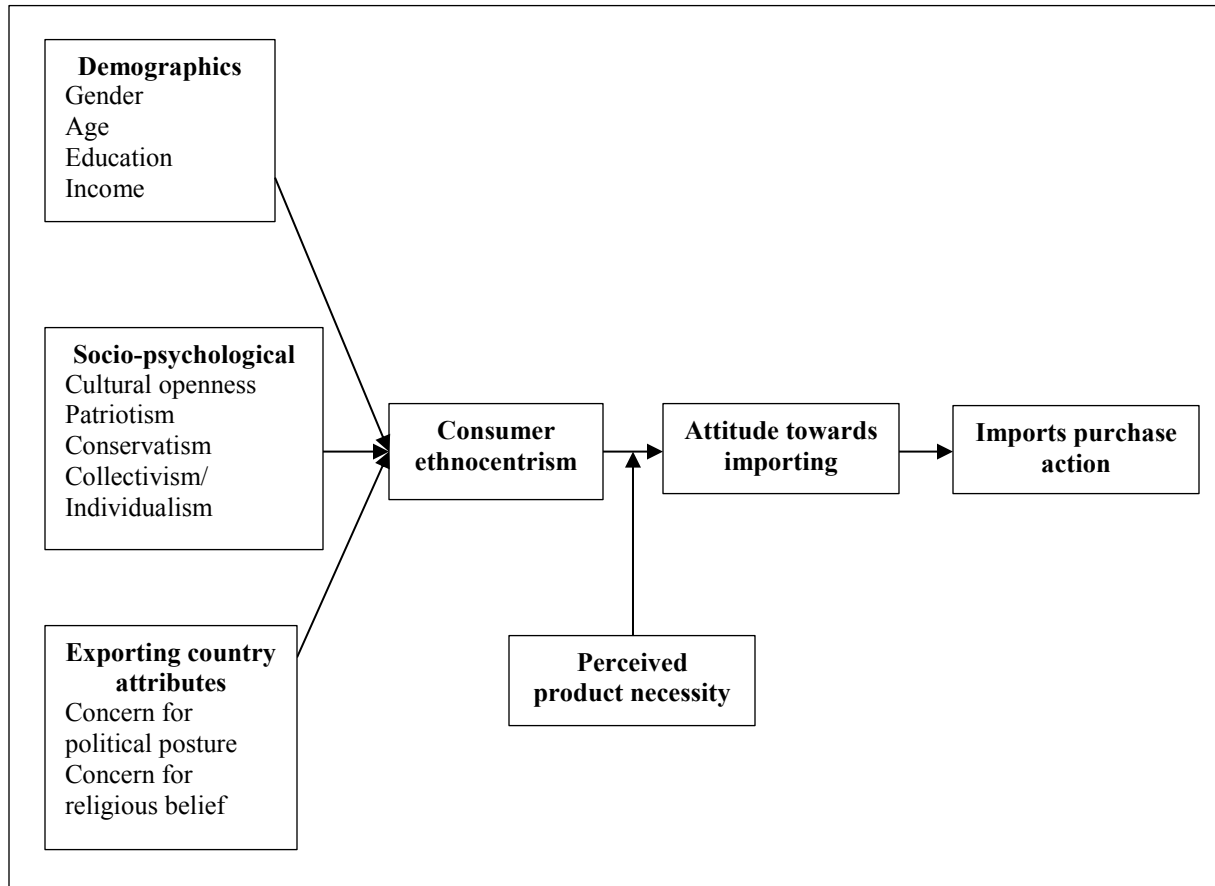


Figure 2.16 Conceptual model proposed by Javalgi *et al.* (2005:329)

Source: Adapted from Javalgi *et al.* (2005:329)

Javalgi *et al.*'s (2005:329) model shows similarities with the earlier models of Sharma *et al.* (1995:28) and De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:190). However, this model adds exporting country attributes (which comprise concern for political posture and concern for religious belief) as another category of antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism to the previously identified two categories, namely demographic factors and socio-psychological factors. Also included under demographic factors are gender, age, education and income. The socio-psychological factors also include cultural openness, patriotism, conservatism and collectivism/individualism. Consumer ethnocentrism also predicts consumer attitudes toward importing; with perceived product necessity as the only moderating

variable. Javalgi *et al.*'s (2005:329) model also shows that consumer attitudes toward importing predict consumer purchase intentions toward importing.

2.6.6.5 Conceptual model proposed by Shankarmahesh (2006:161)

A more complex model of the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism was proposed by Shankarmahesh (2006:161). The model is illustrated in Figure 2.17.

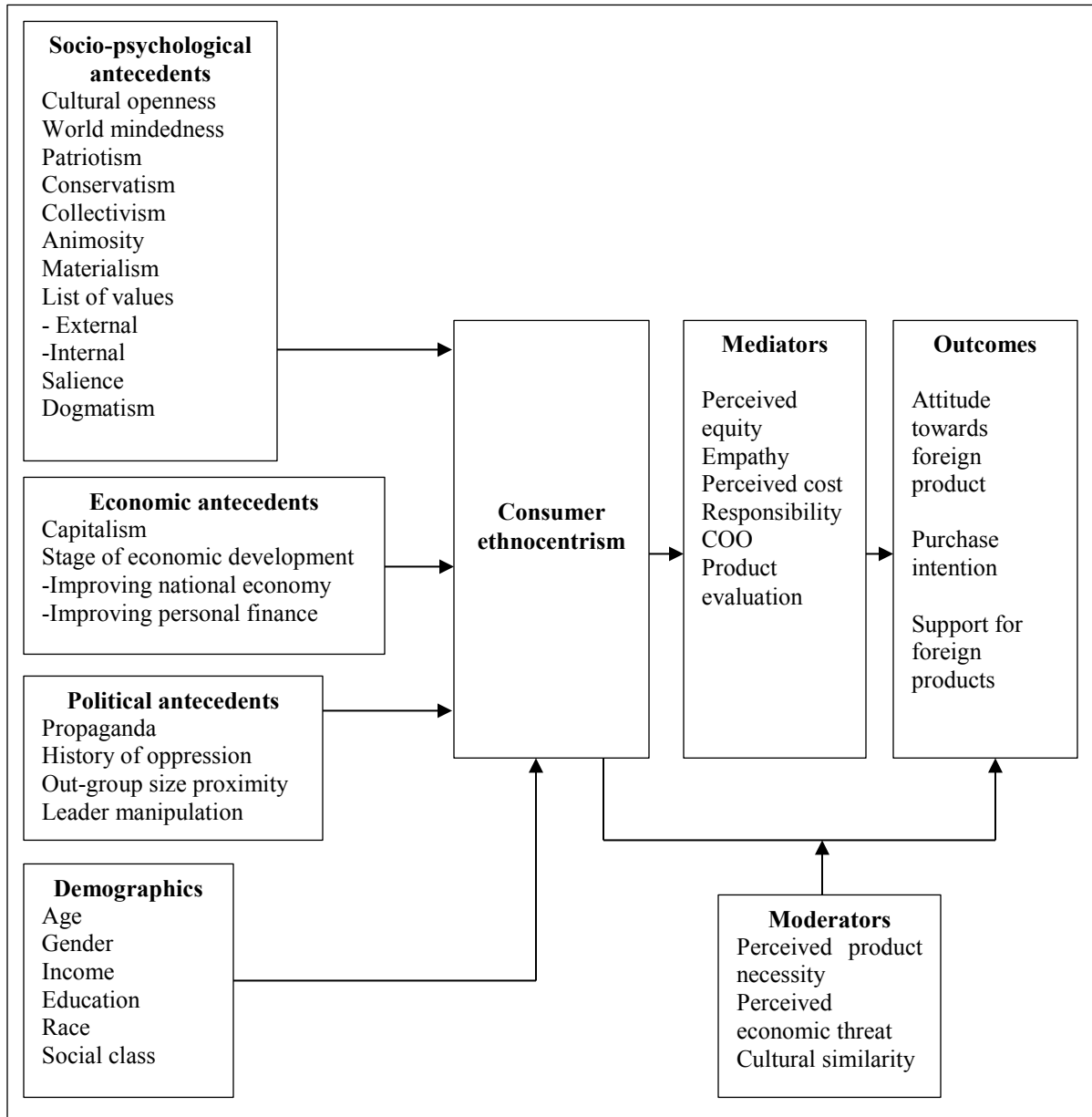


Figure 2.17 Conceptual model proposed by Shankarmahesh (2006:161)

Source: Adapted from Shankarmahesh (2006:161)

Shankarmahesh's (2006:161) model is similar to the previous models proposed by Sharma *et al.* (1995:28), De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:190) and Javalgi *et al.* (2005:329). However, this model identifies four broad categories of antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism, namely socio-psychological antecedents, economic antecedents, political antecedents and demographic antecedents. Unlike the previous models which included fewer socio-psychological variables, Shankarmahesh's (2006:161) model includes ten variables, namely animosity, collectivism, conservatism, cultural openness, dogmatism, materialism, patriotism, salience, values (external and internal) and world mindedness. The model also adds economic antecedents and political antecedents. Economic antecedents include capitalism and stage of economic development in terms of improving national economy and improving personal finance. Political antecedents include history of oppression, leader manipulation, out-group size proximity and propaganda. This model adds race and social class to the list of demographic variables previously considered by Sharma *et al.* (1995:28), De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:190) and Javalgi *et al.* (2005:329). Consumer ethnocentrism leads to three outcomes, namely attitudes toward foreign products, purchase intention and support for foreign products. However, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the three outcomes is mediated by COO, empathy, perceived cost, perceived equity, product evaluation and responsibility. The effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the outcomes is also moderated by perceived product necessity, perceived economic threat and cultural similarity (Shankarmahesh, 2006:161).

2.6.6.6 Conceptual model proposed by Jain and Jain (2013:4)

Jain and Jain (2013:4) proposed a simple model of the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism. The model is illustrated in Figure 2.18.

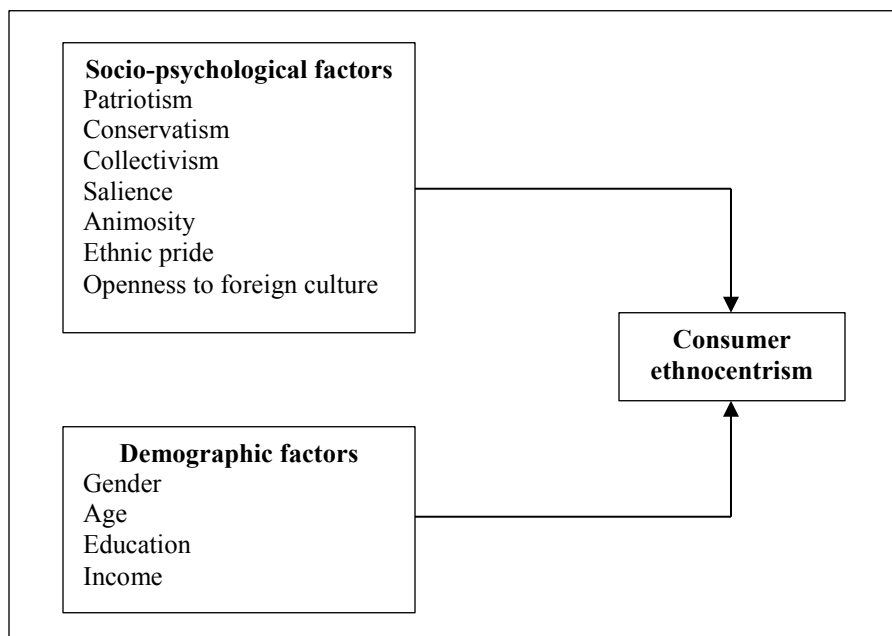


Figure 2.18 Conceptual model proposed by Jain and Jain (2013:4)

Source: Adapted from Jain and Jain (2013:4)

Jain and Jain's (2013:4) model differs slightly with the previous models proposed by Sharma *et al.* (1995:28), De Ruyter *et al.* (1998:190), Javalgi *et al.* (2005:329) and Shankarmahesh (2006:161). The model does not consider the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer attitudes and purchase behaviour but only considers its antecedents. Just like Sharma *et al.*'s (1995:28) and De Ruyter *et al.*'s (1998:190) models, Jain and Jain's (2013:4) model identifies two broad categories of antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism, namely socio-psychological and demographic factors. According to the model, socio-psychological factors include patriotism, conservatism, collectivism, saliency, animosity, ethnic pride and openness to foreign culture while demographic variables include gender, age, education and income.

2.7 CONSUMER AWARENESS

2.7.1 Definition, scope and origin of consumer awareness

Rousseau and Venter (1995:18) define consumer awareness as "the extent or alertness of individual consumers of their rights and responsibilities in the market place". Consumer awareness, as a construct, is a subset of consumerism. Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:331) do not recognise any difference between consumer awareness and consumerism. As a result, they refer to consumerism as consumer 'awareness' movement. Rousseau and Venter (1995:18) observe that the construct of consumer awareness evolved from literature on consumerism, consumer rights and protection which

originated in the United States. Similarly, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:6) noted that consumer awareness is a part of consumerism which came to the fore as the discipline of consumer behaviour improved. They argue that consumerism gained prominence as the discipline of consumer behaviour grew into a fully-fledged research discipline around the 1970s. They also claim that even today most books on consumer behaviour contain increasingly more information on consumerism (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:6). The prime concern of consumerism is to protect the rights of consumers in the process of exchange (Assael, 2004:564). Consumerism deals with the rights and privileges in the market place. It is directly and indirectly concerned with consumers as they make purchase decisions (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:6). According to Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:354), consumerism is “the activities of consumer organisations, government and business agencies which promote the rights of the consumer”. They, however, observed that the majority of consumers do not exercise their rights to protect themselves against unprincipled business practices due to ignorance (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:361). Kotler *et al.* (2009:172) regard consumerism as a consumerist movement and define it as “an organised movement of citizens and government designed to strengthen the rights and powers of buyers in relationship to sellers”. Consumerism has also been known as consumer movement. However, Assael (2004:564) points out that the term consumer movement is somewhat misleading since there is no actual organisation of consumers but, instead, a composite of groups with different concerns. As a result, the activities of these groups in the consumer interest have also been referred to as consumerism (Assael, 2004:564).

Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:331) assert that an alertness of an individual consumer to his/her rights and responsibilities in the market place is critical in that it gives the consumer some sense of consciousness and direction when it comes to purchase decisions. That is, the knowledge of consumerism can help the consumer to show discretion in his/her buying habits as it provides him/her with information regarding his/her rights and privileges in the market place. Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:331) further argue that by being informed on product knowledge as well as on consumer rights, as a buyer the consumer is not only protected against exploitation but is also more likely to obtain maximum satisfaction of his/her household needs. Solomon (2002:21) maintains that the knowledge of consumerism is also important to researchers. Researchers play a significant role in formulating or evaluating public policies. These policies ensure that products are labelled correctly, that consumers can understand important information presented in advertising, or that minority groups are not disadvantaged. Typical minority groups concerns include ensuring that children are not exploited by programs masquerading as television shows but seeking to coerce them. Similarly, Kumar and Ali (2011:4) highlight the importance of consumer awareness and knowledge specific to

organic foods as critical factors that influence the attitude and behaviour of consumers toward organic foods. Consequently, consumer awareness and knowledge drive growth in the food markets.

Assael (2004:564) suggest that there are three basic organisations that exist to serve as vehicles for consumer protection. These are government (government agencies), consumers (consumer oriented agencies) and business organisations. Consumers play an important role in consumerism. Consumers have made their complaints heard through activists, organisation and boycotts. Consumer activists have been the outstanding forces in consumerism. Through boycotts, consumers and their associated organisations or agencies have been able to pressure business organisations to comply with their demands (Assael, 2004:565). Farah and Newman (2010:347) observe that consumer boycotts refer to attempts by a party or various parties to urge other people to desist from purchasing certain products in order to achieve certain objectives. In an effort to pressure firms to be ethical in their practices, pressure groups influence consumers not to buy products from certain companies from certain countries. For example, in 1988 many consumers participated in the resume of a lapsed six-year boycott of Nestle S. A. for violating World Health Organisation Standards on marketing infant formula to developing nations (Assael, 2004:566). Stolle, Hooghe and Micheletti (2005:246) claim that boycott campaigns have gained prominence for the past few years. They are targeted at government actions or policies and practices. In agreement to this, Farah and Newman (2010:347) submit that boycotting is increasingly gaining importance among consumers as they seek to urge companies to adopt ethical practices. As such, consumer boycotts have become an “economic means” of voting.

Assael (2004:566) observe that the government also plays an active role in consumerism. He posits that it is the responsibility of the government to protect consumer interests. The government does this through legislation and regulation i.e. through the actions of regulatory agencies. The USA government has taken the lead in consumerism. For example, its legislation has focussed on deceptive packaging, deceptive advertising, warning labels on cigarettes, mandated full disclosure of all finance charges in consumer credit agreements, advertising to children, prohibition of the sale of unsafe products to children, environmental protection, and full disclosure of health claims and ingredients for food products (Assael, 2004:567). A number of protection laws have been passed since 1966 in USA. These include Fur Packaging and Labelling Act in 1966, Federal Cigarette Labelling Act in 1967, Truth-in-Landing Act in 1968, Children Protection Act in 1969, Consumer Product Safety Commission Act 1972, Nutritional Labelling and Education Act in 1990, Clean Air Act in 1990, and Children’s Television Act in 1990 (Assael, 2004:567). Regulation also plays play a significant role in ensuring consumer rights. In the US, such regulatory agencies as the Federal

Trade Commission as well as the Food and Drug Administration, Product Safety Commission and Environmental Protection Agency play a critical role as watchdogs to ensure business compliance (Assael, 2004:566).

Mowen and Minor (2001:340) acknowledge the role of businesses in consumerism. They observe that several companies today spend significant amount of resources in order to portray themselves as good corporate citizens who act in a responsible manner. This practice is known as corporate social responsibility. They also argue that corporate social responsibility is necessary for companies in that they will succeed in the long run as they acquire a positive public image (Mowen & Minor, 2001:340). Assael (2004:590) elaborates on this. He shows that the social responsibility of marketing organisations as they seek to protect consumers comes in two ways, namely self-regulation and social marketing.

Self-regulation involves the ability of organisations to impose restraints on their own actions. For over the years, companies have been moving toward more responsible self-regulation. For example, organisations have engaged in charity sponsorships, efforts to reduce pollution and education of consumers (Assael, 2004:590).

On the other hand, social marketing is concerned with the use of marketing tools by organisations with the intention of changing negative consumer behaviour. This is generally done on *pro bono*, i.e. at no cost for such services. Such negative behaviour—not in the best interest of the consumer—include, inter alia, taking drugs, drinking and driving, smoking excessively, and refusing to recognise ‘safe sex’ as a precaution against AIDS (Assael, 2004:590-591). Mowen and Minor (2001:5) refers to such negative consumer behaviour as consumer misbehaviour. They also reveal that the concept of consumer misbehaviour, also known as the dark side of consumer behaviour, is concerned with the idea that consumers can act unethically, misuse products, and engage in behaviours that risk their financial resources and even place their lives in danger.

One organisation that has spent significant amounts of resources on consumerism is the partnership for Drug Free America. The organisation has spent significant amount of funds in donated advertising to craft messages to young people, discouraging them to use drugs (Solomon, 2002:22-23). However, Assael (2004:567) contends that organisations have been both reactive and proactive in protecting the rights of consumer. They have reacted to government regulations by conforming to legislation. They also have reacted to government agencies by conforming to guidelines established by these agencies. Assael (2004:568) submits that a pro-active business response to consumerism involves self-regulation. For example, businesses may adopt comprehensive antipollution policies,

straightforward labelling practices, and new channels for customers to exercise their rights. However, the public is often sceptical of such efforts; regarding them as self-serving rather than motivated by a true interest in environmental protection of consumer rights (Assael, 2004:568). Likewise, Kotler *et al.* (2009:172) posit that recently marketers have been pressured by new laws that seek to protect the rights of consumers. Moreover, a number of pressure groups have increasingly restrained the activities of marketers. As a result, pro-active organisations have responded by establishing consumer affairs departments that handle consumer-related issues that include policy formulation and resolving and responding to customer complaints. Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:341) concur with this by arguing that the marketer has a social responsibility in the form of protecting the rights of the consumer. As such, many organisations in South Africa, for example, have accepted this responsibility by moving toward self-regulation, with various industries setting quality and performance standards. The firms have chosen to protect or enhance the natural environment, though such practices as recycling, in their everyday business activities (Du Plessis *et al.*, 1994:341). Solomon (2002:21) views this practice as green marketing.

2.7.2 Consumer rights and responsibilities

Consumerism is concerned with the protection of the rights of individual consumers in the process of exchange (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:354; Assael, 2004:564) while consumer awareness is concerned with the alertness of consumers to their rights and responsibilities in the process of exchange (Rousseau & Venter, 1995:18). In this regard, the Consumer Council of Zimbabwe (2012), referred to as CCZ, reiterates that consumers have rights which must be protected. Likewise, consumer must access their rights by taking responsibility. As such, Kotler *et al.* (2009:172), Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:354) and Assael (2004:564) acknowledge the overwhelming understanding that the fundamental concern of consumerism is to protect consumers through safeguarding their rights in the process of exchange. Consumers International (2012) observes that consumerism has developed for over the years based on the four fundamental consumer rights proposed by President Kennedy on 15 March 1962, namely the right to safety, the right to be informed, the right to choose and the right to be heard. These basic rights were later expanded to eight by the addition of the right to satisfaction of basic needs (the right to basic needs), the right to redress, the right to consumer education, and the right to a healthy environment. Accordingly, a set of eight basic consumer rights now define and inspire much of the work of Consumers International—the world’s consumer umbrella body—and its members the world over. However, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:355), suggest that there is the ninth right called the right to privacy.

The right to satisfaction of basic needs is also known as the right to basic needs. This refers to the right to basic goods and services such as food, adequate shelter, proper health care, sound education and adequate water and sanitation (Consumers International, 2012; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:355). The right to basic food is tantamount to the right to survive. All consumers should be guaranteed of these basic necessities (Consumers International, 2012).

The right to safety is concerned with the protection of the consumer against products and production methods that are deemed harmful to human health. It extends to include the consumer's long term as well as short term requirements (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:357). However, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:355) noted that the right to safety is not absolute and that it must be applied with reasons. For example, a car can be fitted with all practical safety requirements but this may impact its selling price which may be out of reach of most consumers. It becomes difficult to determine the optimum point that balances the cost of the car and the safety (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:357).

The right to be informed is concerned with the right to be given sufficient information that enables the consumer to make informed choices or decisions. Consumers must be protected against dishonest or misleading practices on, for example, advertising and labelling (Consumers International, 2012; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:356).

The right to choose involves the right to be able to select from a range of products that are of dependable quality being availed at competitive prices. This right seeks to protect the consumer from exploitation and bad business practices such as monopolies, artificial shortages, failure to disclose information, inflated pricing and profiteering (Consumers International, 2012; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:356).

The right to be heard calls for the right to have the interests of the consumers taken care of in making and executing government policies in the development of goods and services (Consumers International, 2012). In this regard, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:356), suggest that consumers should be represented in the government and other policy-making bodies when it comes to decision making. They should also be represented when it comes to the development of goods and services before they are produced.

The right to redress is concerned with the right to receive an unprejudiced settlement of just claims. It includes compensation for unsatisfactory or faulty products as well as misrepresentation. The government or policy makers should ensure that there are channels to be used by consumers to file their complaints. The media and local consumer bodies can also play an active role as mediators in

some situations (Consumers International, 2012). Proactive businesses encourage their consumers to directly report to them whenever the consumers are not satisfied with their products or services (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:356).

The right to consumer education is concerned with the right to acquire knowledge and skills that enable the consumer to make informed choices concerning the purchase and consumption of products while at the same time being cognisant of and being knowledgeable of, not only the fundamental rights, but responsibilities of the consumer (CCZ, 2012; Consumers International, 2012). Similarly, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:357) posit that this right entails the right to the acquisition of knowledge and skills so that the consumer can be an informed individual throughout his/her life.

The right to a healthy environment refers to “the right to live and work in an environment that is not threatening to the welfare of the present and future generations” (Consumers International, 2012). Likewise, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:357) posit that this right refers to the right to a physical environment that enhances the quality of life of the individual. It extends to include the protection against the environmental dangers over which the individual consumer does not have control. It calls for sustainable development—environmental protection and improvement for present and future generations (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:357).

The right to privacy is concerned with the right of an individual consumer to isolate his/her private life in terms of personal facts, time, circumstances, values and interests from the knowledge of others. It also concerns the consumer’s right to control what is withheld from others and also to have freedom from wicked interference on the individual’s private life (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:357). Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:357) suggest that everyone has the right to privacy. This includes the right not to have their person, home, property, possessions, privacy of their communications searched or seized.

Consumer awareness entails both the rights and responsibilities of consumers. Based on this view, Rousseau and Venter (1995:18) describe consumer awareness as the alertness of consumers to their rights and responsibilities in the marketplace. Consumer responsibilities are concerned with the ability to form independent opinions with regards to an individual’s own consumption behaviour which can be argued for and acted upon (Rousseau & Venter, 1995:18). Consumer responsibilities were introduced after the then Consumers International President—Anwar Fazal—actively called for their introduction in the 1980s. The consumer responsibilities were designed to complement the already existing consumer rights (Consumers International, 2012). Likewise, Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:339) reveal that, not only do consumers have rights, but they also have responsibilities in

exercising these rights. They refer to consumers' responsibility as "the acquisition of the necessary knowledge and skills to make independent and rational consumption choice in relation to society and the environment". This implies acquiring knowledge and skills to make responsible choices which will benefit both the individual consumer and society. It also involves an awareness of perceived risks, such as financial risk, associated with purchase decisions. The CCZ (2012) identifies the responsibilities of consumers as critical awareness, action, environmental awareness, social concern and solidarity.

Critical awareness is concerned with the responsibility of being inquisitive and questioning about product issues related to price, quality and availability. Consumption decisions should not be self-centred, but rational and sensible (CCZ, 2012). Similarly, the Consumers International (2012) submits that it is the responsibility of consumers to inquire more about the quality of products. To do this, consumers need to be awakened.

Action is concerned with the responsibility of consumers to assert themselves so that they get a fair deal in the market place. Passive consumers will always be exploited by firms (CCZ, 2012). The Consumers International (2012) concurs and refers to action as involvement.

The actions of and consumption of products by consumers have environmental impacts. Environmentally aware consumers understand the consequences of their actions and consumption of products. Accordingly, consumers should recognise that, individually and collectively, they are responsible for safeguarding the environment for the benefit of present and future generations (CCZ, 2012). The Consumers International (2012) views this as the ecological responsibility. The board appeals to consumers to be sensitive about the impacts of their actions on the physical environment. Key to this is the promotion of conservation that seeks to improve the quality of life for both the short and long run (Consumers International, 2012).

Social concern refers to the responsibility of being alert to the impact of one's consumption actions on other people particularly those that are powerless and disadvantaged ranging from one's locality to the international level (CCZ, 2012). The Consumers International (2012) views this as the social responsibility in which consumers must demonstrate responsibility in their actions that impact fellow citizens, particularly the disadvantaged ones in the community, with regards to the economic and social realities prevailing.

The CCZ (2012) describes solidarity as the responsibility of consumers to organise themselves into influential groups and develop the strength and power to protect and promote their interests.

Similarly, the Consumers International (2012), posit that the best and most effective consumer actions are through cooperative efforts. Cooperative efforts can be achieved by forming consumer groups or citizen groups that, when working together, can have the power of influence in order to ensure that consumers are given adequate attention.

2.7.3 Measurement and dimensionality of consumer awareness

Rousseau and Venter (1995; 1996) conducted two studies to measure consumer awareness in Zimbabwe and South Africa respectively. They concluded that consumer awareness can be effectively measured using five distinguishable characteristics called “bargain hunting, general consumer knowledge, product knowledge, information search and price consciousness”. As such Rousseau and Venter (1995:18) developed a model of consumer awareness based on these factors. This model has been empirically tested and confirmed to be an effective measure of consumer awareness. The original 25-item scale (see Appendix 3) was used in South Africa and Zimbabwe, and the 18-item scale was used in Bophuthatswana due to a different interpretation and association of the questionnaire by respondents (Rousseau & Venter, 1996:29; Rousseau & Venter, 1995:18).

2.7.4 Factors that influence consumer awareness

Rousseau and Venter (1996:24) and Rousseau and Venter (1995:24) report that socio-demographics have been found to be the major factors influencing consumer awareness. They also report that the influence of socio-demographic variables was found to vary depending on the dimension of consumer awareness, namely “bargain hunting, general consumer knowledge, product knowledge, information search and price consciousness”. In their study to measure consumer awareness in Zimbabwe, Rousseau and Venter (1995:24) reported that demographic factors significantly influenced consumer awareness. Consumers with tertiary education and those with higher incomes obtained higher scores on general consumer knowledge and product knowledge. Consumers living in Harare were also found to have higher product knowledge than those in Bulawayo probably due to higher levels of literacy amongst upper income consumers in Harare, the main centre of the CCZ (Rousseau & Venter, 1995:24). In another study based on the measurement and comparison of different levels of consumer awareness carried out in South Africa, Rousseau and Venter (1996:24) reported that older consumers were less aware than younger consumers in terms of bargain hunting and information search. Significant differences in consumer awareness levels attributable to the urban centre were found. Bargain hunting, information search and price consciousness were higher in Johannesburg than all other cities. The highest levels of general consumer knowledge and product knowledge were reported in Cape Town. The lowest ratings on general consumer

knowledge, product knowledge and information search were recorded in Bloemfontein. Lastly, consumers in Durban scored lowest in terms of price consciousness and bargain hunting (Rousseau & Venter, 1996:31).

Kumar and Ali (2011:2) conducted a study to analyse the factors that affect consumer awareness specifically on organic foods in India. According to Kumar and Ali (2011:6-9), socio-demographic factors significantly influence consumer awareness on organic foods. Males were found to be more aware on organic foods than females. Age was found to be negatively correlated to the level of consumer awareness on organic foods, while education and income were both positively correlated to consumer awareness on organic foods. Respondents with science and medical backgrounds were reported to be more aware of organic food products than their counterparts. Occupation and location were also found to significantly affect the level of consumer awareness on organic foods. Respondents belonging to the service class had higher levels of awareness on organic foods than respondents belonging to other classes, namely house wife, student, business or trade, and the retired. Lastly, respondents from Delhi, the capital city, were found to be more aware than respondents from the other city, Lucknow of Uttar Pradesh (Kumar & Ali, 2011:7). Kumar and Ali (2011:4) go on to explain that the level of consumer awareness varies with the level of development of a particular country. They observed that, arguably, consumer awareness and knowledge specific to organic products are significantly higher in developed countries as compared to developing countries.

2.7.5 Consumerism in Zimbabwe

The only organisation that deals with consumer issues in Zimbabwe is CCZ. The Council is a quasi-government organisation whose principal objective is to be a watchdog for the consumers (CCZ, 2012). The CCZ (2012) reveals that a vigilance committee was formed in 1955 with the mandate of meeting protective needs of consumers and to produce better understanding between producers and consumers. This vigilant committee was merged in 1975 to form the present day CCZ. Consumers International (2012), reports that CCZ has been a registered member of Consumers International—the world's consumer umbrella organisation—since March 1981. The mandate of CCZ includes protection of consumers, protection of manufacturing standards, improvement of consumer awareness through education and settling of disputes between consumers and suppliers. The board also recognises the rights of the consumers and ensures that these rights are respected. These rights form the backbone of the work of the organisation. In that regard, CCZ strives to educate consumers to understand their rights. The motive behind the education of consumers is to ensure that consumers have self-protection and that they can influence the government, policy makers or law

makers to make policies and laws that take into account the interests of the consumers. The organisation also strives to monitor prices and standards of products for the benefit of the consumers. Lastly, the Council provides, inter alia, research services and general information (CCZ, 2012).

There is no consumer protection law in Zimbabwe. Against this backdrop, CCZ has successfully conducted surveys on various goods and services. This enabled the provision of research based information and also to unearth the malpractices of business in Zimbabwe. More so, the Council has successfully monitored price trends and conducted monthly shopping baskets which are availed to its members (CCZ, 2012). Moreover, the Council successfully lobbied for specific consumer legislation aimed at safeguarding the rights of consumers. These acts include the Small Claims Court of 1992, Consumer Contract Act of 1994, Patients Charter, Competition Act of 1996 and Class Action Act, Chapter 8:17. The Small Claims Act is mostly accessible to low income and middle income earners who cannot afford legal representation while the Consumer Contract Act seeks to protect consumers against unfair contracts. The Patients Charter creates an environment of mutual understanding, participation and humane treatment of patients. Concerned with the encouragement and promotion of fair competition in all Zimbabwean sectors of the economy is the Competition Act. Finally, the Class Action Act provides for consumers to jointly seek legal redress (CCZ, 2012).

2.8 INTERNATIONAL POULTRY PRODUCTION AND MARKETING

2.8.1 International marketing

Nakata and Huang (2003:64) refer to international marketing as marketing activities pertinent the movement of products, directly or indirectly, across national boundaries. Czinkota, Ronkainen and Zvobgo (2007:3) describe international marketing as the process that involves planning and conducting transactions that span across national boundaries. These activities are designed to create exchanges that are beneficial to both individuals and organisations. Cateora, Gilly and Graham (2009:9) view international marketing as the process that involves performing business activities concerned with planning, pricing, promoting and distributing the organisation's products to customers in more than one country at a profit. International marketing retains the basic marketing principles but it is complex in that transactions take place across national boundaries (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:9; Albaum, Duerr and Strandkov, 2005:3; Czinkota & Ronkainen, 2002:3). Jeannet and Hennessey (2004:7) substantiate this by acknowledging that international marketing management is "the performance of marketing activities across two or more countries". Keegan (2009:28) also

acknowledges the universality of international marketing. He, however, observes that the practice of international marketing is designed to suit the uniqueness of a particular market. Apart from meeting the challenges posed by the local or domestic market's uncontrollable environment—competition, politics, laws, consumer behaviour and level of technology—the international marketer is also faced with a unique uncontrollable environment in each of the foreign market that he/she enters. This makes the task of the international marketer much more difficult than the domestic marketer (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:10; Jeannet & Hennessey, 2004:7; Czinkota & Ronkainen, 2002:3).

2.8.2 Stages of international marketing involvement

Firms that are involved in international marketing go through five phases, namely “no direct foreign marketing, infrequent foreign marketing, regular foreign marketing, international marketing and global marketing” (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:17). Hollensen (2011:74) reveals that the Uppsala internationalisation model agrees that the internationalisation of firms is a process that involves companies beginning their international involvement/commitment at lower levels and increasing to higher levels over time. Related to the stages proposed by Cateora *et al.*, 2009:17), there are four successive stages of internationalisation suggested by Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul in 1975, namely no regular activities (sporadic export), export via independent representatives (export modes), establishment of foreign sales subsidiary, and foreign production/manufacturing. According to the Uppsala internationalisation model, firms begin their international operations by venturing into nearby markets and gradually penetrating other distant markets. More so, firms begin their international ventures through exporting. Majority or wholly owned operations would be established after many years of exporting to the same market (Hollensen (2011:74). Cateora *et al.* (2009:17) argue that although the presentation of the stages of international marketing involvement is done in a linear form, it does not necessarily mean that a firm has to progress from one stage to another in that sequence. It is possible for a firm to begin its international involvement at any one stage. The firm also operates at more than one stage simultaneously. Contrary to this, Hollensen (2011:74) sees the internationalisation of firms as a step-by-step process.

A company at the no direct foreign marketing stage does not seek to serve customers outside its domestic market. However, products of this company may be found in foreign markets because some foreign customers may buy from the company directly, or domestic wholesalers/distributors may export the company's products on their own without the consent of the producer (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:18).

Cateora *et al.* (2009:18) submit that infrequent foreign marketing is concerned with infrequent exporting. Thus, temporary surpluses in the level of production may result in infrequent exporting. Overseas marketing is therefore just temporary as the firm is not geared to maintain continuous presence in foreign markets. Therefore, the change in the organisation's production and marketing processes to suit the requirements of foreign markets is minimal or even non-existent (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:18). According to the Uppsala internationalisation model, no direct foreign marketing and infrequent foreign marketing stages can be classified as the 'no regular export activities' stage (Hollensen, 2011:74).

Cateora *et al.* (2009:19) maintain that, at the regular foreign marketing level, a company has permanent production capacity designed to produce goods and services for targeted foreign markets on a continuous basis. This can be done through foreign/domestic overseas middleman, or through sales personnel/sales subsidiaries in specific foreign markets. The firm's main objective is to service the domestic market. However, if foreign markets prove to be successful, the commitment to serve foreign markets increases as evidenced by the adjustment of the marketing mix to suit consumer expectations in target markets (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:19). Based on the Uppsala internationalisation model, the regular foreign marketing stage can be likened to the two stages, namely 'export via independent representatives' and 'establishment of foreign sales subsidiary' (Hollensen, 2011:74).

The international marketing stage entails full commitment and involvement. At this stage, firms seek markets the world over and sell goods and services that are specifically designed and produced for those markets in various countries. Apart from marketing, the firm also produces outside the home country. At this juncture, the company becomes international or multinational (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:19).

Global marketing is the final stage in the development of international marketing (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:20; Jeannet & Hennessey, 2004:5). Cateora *et al.* (2009:20) submit that there is a great deal of change in the company's orientation in terms of planning for foreign markets. Companies at the global marketing stage of international marketing involvement treat the world as a single market, including the home country market. Markets are no longer defined by national borders but by factors that critically determine the success of an international marketing firm, for example, income and usage patterns. These factors are frequently universal in most parts of the world. The transition from international marketing to global marketing is motivated by a situation where a company finds more than half its sales revenue coming from abroad. At this stage, the whole organisation takes a global perspective. Cateora *et al.* (2009:21) further suggest global marketing is stimulated by

increased competitiveness that is brought by several factors. First, there is globalisation of markets. Second, the interdependence of the world economies also contributes to the increased international competitiveness. Third, rival firms from all corners of the world are vying for the global market. The frequently used terms to describe production and marketing operations at this stage include global companies and global marketing (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:21). The Uppsala internationalisation model regards both international marketing and global marketing stages as the 'foreign production/manufacturing units' stage (Hollensen, 2011:74).

Related to these stages in international marketing involvement are the international marketing concepts (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:22).

2.8.3 International marketing concepts

Tan and Lui (2002:799) observe that foreign markets are becoming increasingly important to multinational companies. This has led to a shift in the organisation and philosophy of international research companies. Cateora *et al.* (2009:22) present the three relatively distinctive approaches that are proven to dominate strategic thinking when it comes to firms involved in international marketing as domestic market extension concept, multi-domestic market extension concept and global marketing concept. Hill (2005:628) views these three types of marketing concepts as staffing policies or management orientations in international business.

Cateora *et al.* (2009:22) assert that the domestic market extension concept depicts a company whose main objective is to serve the domestic market. International activities are deemed secondary. Thus the firm seeks to extend its sales from the domestic market into the foreign market. Hollensen (2011:19) agrees to this and asserts that the domestic market is regarded as superior to the foreign market. Cateora *et al.* (2009:22) clarify that the focus of this orientation is to market excess domestic production to foreign markets. Priority is given to the domestic market. However, foreign markets may still be pursued seriously. There are limited or no efforts at all to adapt the firm's marketing mix to suit foreign markets. As such, a typical firm will serve only those foreign markets whose demand characteristics are similar to the home market. Firms with this marketing approach are described as ethnocentric (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:22).

A company's orientation may change from a domestic market orientation toward a multi-domestic market concept upon the realisation that foreign markets are important. This philosophy recognises the uniqueness of foreign markets. Firms oriented toward the multi-domestic market extension concept therefore design marketing strategies specific for each identifiable market segment, locally or abroad, i.e. the marketing mix is adapted to suit a particular foreign market (Cateora *et al.*,

2009:22). Hollensen (2011:19) holds the same belief and posits that a multi-domestic oriented firm adapts its marketing mix to suit different target markets in order to maximise profits. Cateora *et al.* (2009:22) insist that firms pursuing this approach do not look for similarities among the marketing mix elements that might respond to standardisation. Rather, they consider the differences or uniqueness; aiming for adaptation to suit specific local country markets. Polycentric is the term used to describe firms based on this approach (Hollensen, 2011:19; Cateora *et al.*, 2009:22).

A company that is based on the global marketing philosophy is called a global one. It treats its market as the world. Its marketing activities can best be described as global (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:22). The provision of standardised products of dependable quality that can be sold at reasonable prices the world over ensures that the company can achieve efficiencies its production. As such, a global market refers to the same country market set throughout the world, including the home market. A global company views the world as a single market. Therefore, it designs a suitable global marketing strategy. Firms pursuing this approach are said to be regio-centric or geo-centric (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:23). Similarly, Hollensen (2011:19) concurs to this and submits that regio-centric and geo-centric orientations lead to global marketing. A region-centric firm makes an attempt to integrate its marketing activities within regions but not across them while a geo-centric firm thinks globally and acts locally. The hallmark of the global marketing philosophy is that the marketing mix is standardised for the whole market except where there are differences requiring adaptation for acceptance in the local market (Hollensen, 2011:19). In this regard, Cateora *et al.* (2009:23) suggest that, “to be global is a mind-set, a way of looking at the market for commonalities that can be standardised across regions or country market sets”.

Cateora *et al.* (2009:23) argue that the most effective orientation for many firms involved in international marketing is to adopt the global marketing concept as competition becomes more and more internationalised. However, they argue that other orientations may be more useful depending on the product and market i.e. a composite of the other orientations may be useful to cater for the complexity of the global market (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:23). Jeannet and Hennessey (2004:9) also submit that from the point of view of the international marketing manager, the most cost-effective approach to market goods and services the world over is to use the same marketing programme in every country, as long as the environment favours such an approach. However, Jeannet and Hennessey (2004:9) recognise that differences in local market conditions do exist and that this calls for the adaptation of the marketing mix to suit the local conditions. This poses a challenge to the marketing manager because he/she has to determine the extent to which a standardised approach may be used for a particular market. Therefore, the international marketer must be acquainted of the

factors that limit standardisation. Such factors include market characteristics, industry conditions, marketing institutions, and legal restrictions (Jeannet & Hennessey, 2004:9).

2.8.4 Globalisation and development of global marketing

Jeannet and Hennessey (2004:2) observe that the term global marketing has not been in use until the early 1980s when it became pervasive in 1983 with the seminal article, 'Globalisation of markets', by Professor Ted Levitt. Before that the buzz word was international marketing (or multinational marketing) which was often used to describe international marketing activities. However, as already explained, it should be noted that global marketing is a sub-category of international marketing with special relevance in the present world (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:22; Jeannet & Hennessey, 2004:2). Cateora *et al.* (2009:309) maintain that, previously, the debate was on global marketing management versus international marketing management i.e. on standardisation versus adaptation. However, in the 21st century, standardisation versus adaptation is simply not the right question to ask, but of more significance to ask is "what are the most efficient ways to segment markets?" Cognisant of the view that global marketing is a sub-category of international marketing with special relevance to the present world (Jeannet & Hennessey, 2004:2) and Cateora *et al.* (2009:310) shed some light on the benefits a global marketing orientation. These benefits include economies of scale, ease of transfer of marketing knowledge, skills and experience across national boundaries, and increased financial benefits. Marketing globally also ensures that marketers can access sophisticated consumers who demand quality products. As a result, the firm is spurred to produce quality products commensurate with international standards. For example, the Japanese customers demand high quality products and this explains the high quality products emanating from Japan. To compete for the Japanese customers, there is a need to come up with high quality products (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:310). Cateora *et al.* (2009:310) argue that serving diversified markets also has financial benefits in that it leads to stable revenues and operations as a result of spreading of the portfolio of markets served globally.

International business activities to support the global marketing function are motivated by increased international competitiveness due to globalisation. Globalisation manifests in several ways. First, there is globalisation of markets. Second, the world's economies are converging. Third, an increased number of firms from all over the world are vying for the global markets (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:21). Similarly, Hill (2005:4) observes that the world is fast moving towards a situation where barriers to international trade and investment are decreasing, improved technology in transport and telecommunications are taking centre stage, material culture is converging and national economies are integrating into a single interdependent global economic system. He refers to the process by

which this is occurring as globalisation. Likewise, Theodosiou and Leonidou (2002:142), observe that there has been increased globalisation of businesses due to a number of factors. These factors include, inter alia, the increased slackening of tight trade policies, improved monetary transactions, increased regional economic integrations, smooth flow of goods across national boundaries due to relatively peaceful world conditions, and radical advances in transportation, communication, and information technologies.

Gereffi, Humphrey, Kaplinsky and Sturgeon (2001:1) observe that globalisation is much more recent than internationalisation because it implies functional integration between internationally dispersal activities. However, Chisenga, Entsua-Mensah and Sam (2007:2) argue that, although the term globalisation is relatively new and became popular in the late 1980s to the early 1990s, the process of globalisation has been there for quite some time i.e. it has a very long history which is associated with trade and exchange of goods and services. Ismail (2002:2) submit that globalisation has increased over the past two decades. Similarly, it is noted that globalisation has accelerated since the 1970s because of advances in technology. Technological advances have reduced the costs of trade while increasing communication and information flow across the world (Chisenga *et al.*, 2007:2).

Chisenga *et al.* (2007:1) confirm that there is no universal accepted definition of globalisation. They argue that globalisation is multi-faceted. They also observe that in most cases globalisation is thought of only being concerned with the economic dimension such as liberalisation of trade, foreign direct investment and the growing worldwide integration of markets for goods and services, and labour and capital. However, Chisenga *et al.* (2007:2) contend that other facets of globalisation include social, political, environmental, technological, cultural and religious dimensions. Similarly, Hill (2005:6) refers to globalisation as a movement towards a unified and interdependent world economy. He argues that globalisation has many facets that include the globalisation of markets and globalisation of production. Globalisation of markets takes place when different market segments in the world combine to form a huge global market segment. This has been motivated by tumbling barriers to cross-border trade. The global market has been facilitated by increasing similarities in tastes and preferences of consumers the world over. Hill (2005:7) also submits that the globalisation of production is concerned with global sourcing of products the world over in order to exploit national differences in terms of cost and quality of the factors of production. The motives behind globalisation of production are to reduce the overall production costs. More so, globalisation of production seeks to improve the quality of the firm's products.

2.8.5 Market entry strategies

Cateora *et al.* (2009:318) observe that the company should make a decision to go international based on how it has analysed the market potential, its capabilities and the extent to which it is involved and committed. There are several modes of entry as identified by various authors (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:319; Hill, 2005:487; Jeannet & Hennessey, 2004:311). However, Cateora *et al.* (2009:319) propose the most simplified approach to the study of the modes of entry into foreign markets. They identify exporting, contractual agreements, strategic international alliances and direct foreign investment as alternative entry strategies. Depending on what the firm seeks to achieve and also on the characteristics of the market, any one of the approaches can be profitable (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:319).

Hill (2005:487) observes that exporting is usually the starting point for a firm that intends to venture into foreign markets before considering other modes. Exporting activities can be direct or indirect (Jeannet & Hennessey, 2004:291). The commonest form of entry is direct exporting. It is employed as the first international step because of minimal financial risks. Direct exporting involves selling to a customer in another country (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:320). Cateora *et al.* (2009:320) observe that indirect exporting usually means that the firm sells to somebody in the home country who, in turn, also sells abroad. Such customers include large retailers, wholesalers and trucking companies. These customers in the home country buy in order to supply customers abroad. Cateora *et al.* (2009:320) suggest that the initial goal of exporting is to get premium prices and to gain more income that can cushion the firm from its overhead costs. They also identify the Internet and direct sales as other forms of exporting. Cateora *et al.* (2009:320) refer to the Internet as a form of exporting that is increasingly gaining prominence as a market entry strategy because a large number of companies are doing business with customers in other countries via the Internet. This has led to the concept of International Internet Marketing. More so, direct sales are very useful especially for high-technology and big ticket industrial products. The firm usually makes use of a direct sales force in a foreign market. One way of achieving this is through the establishment of an office with local and or expatriate personnel. This decision is influenced by the revenue potential of the particular foreign market (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:321).

Contractual agreements are usually long term in nature. They represent non-equity associations between one company and another in a foreign market. The hallmark of contractual agreements is the transfer of human skills, trademarks or processes. Forms of contractual agreements include licensing and franchising (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:321).

Keegan (2009:271) refers to licensing as an arrangement between one company (the licensor) and the other (the licensee). The licensor makes an asset available to the licensee in exchange for royalties, fees or some other forms of compensation. Keegan (2009:271) concurs with Czinkota and Ronkainen (2002:293) that the asset, also known as the property, includes various properties such as technology, specific skill, patents and trademarks. Cateora *et al.* (2009:321) submit that when a firm wants to enter foreign markets with limited financial resources it may use licensing. Even though it may be the least profitable way of foreign entry, it has fewer risks than direct investments. However, licence funding, supervising and inspiring can be burdensome (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:321).

Cateora *et al.* (2009:321), Hollensen (2007:335) and Hill (2005:492) agree that franchising is a form of licensing that is increasingly gaining importance. In franchising, a standard package of products, processes or business concept is provided by the franchisor while the franchisee provides knowledge, capital as well as personnel involvement in management. Franchising has flexibility in dealing with local markets. It also permits the parent company a reasonable degree of control. Cateora *et al.* (2009:322) argue that franchising can be regarded as a vertical form of market integration. Even though franchising requires minimum capital, the issue of cultural differences in different foreign markets can create problems (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:322).

Cateora *et al.* (2009:324) suggest that a strategic international alliance is a business establishment formed by at least two companies. They do so through a mutual understanding and also to share risk as they aim to achieve their set business goals. Strategic alliances have gained prominence for the past few decades. They have been used as a strategic tool to fight competition in global marketing management. Cateora *et al.* (2009:324) identifies joint ventures and consortia as forms of strategic international alliances.

Hill (2008:493) and Jeannet and Hennessey (2004:300) agree that a joint venture is a firm that is jointly owned by two or more otherwise independent firms. Cateora *et al.* (2009:325) refers to joint ventures as international ventures or international joint ventures. They observe that the major characteristic of a joint venture that sets it apart from other alliances or collaborations is that it involves the coming together of at least companies that create a separate legal entity. Joint ventures have increased immensely over the past three decades. A joint venture acts as a means of lessening political and economic risks by the amount of the partner's contribution to the venture. It also provides an avenue to enter foreign markets that pose legal and cultural barriers that is less risky than acquisition of an existing company (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:326).

Consortia represent some form of strategic international alliance (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:327). Generally, consortia and joint ventures are similar. In this regard, consortia can also be referred to as joint ventures. However, this should be done with caution as there are some slight differences between consortia and joint ventures. First, consortia involve several participants. In most cases consortia carry out their activities in a country or market in which none of the partners is currently active. Huge construction projects provide a good example. One firm usually provides the lead or guidance, or the newly formed corporate may be run on its own independent of its parent companies (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:327).

Hill (2005:494) posits that direct foreign investment entails investing within a foreign country. This can be done by manufacturing in another country in order to capitalise on low-cost inputs. Apart from being a means of gaining market access, direct foreign investment helps the firm to avoid high import taxes and to gain access to raw materials (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:328). Hill (2005:494) observes that direct foreign investment represents a wholly owned subsidiary. He argues that the firm owns 100 per cent of the stock. The firm can achieve this by either setting up new operations in that country (green field venture) or acquiring an established firm in the host nation and using that firm to promote its products.

2.8.6 The international poultry sector

Teo *et al.* (2011:2805) and Ranjbarian *et al.* (2010:372) observe that there has been increased international trade of products in the past few decades. This has resulted in consumers all over the world to have increased access to a wide variety of products from other countries than ever before (Saffu & Walker, 2006a:168). This phenomenon has also been witnessed in the world poultry business. As such, many authors observe a general increase in both production and consumption of poultry meat in the world in recent years (WATT Executive Guide, 2011:12; Jez *et al.*, 2011:105; McLeod *et al.*, 2009:191; Saha *et al.*, 2009:1250; Narrod *et al.*, 2008:1; Harlan, 2007:1; Constance, 2002:31). Table 2.1 illustrates the world poultry meat production and consumption by region, 1990-1992, 2003-2005 and 2030 projections.

Table 2.1 World poultry meat production and consumption by region, 1990-1992, 2003-2005 and 2030 projections

POULTRY MEAT PRODUCTION						POULTRY MEAT CONSUMPTION				
Region	1990-1992		2003-2005		2030 projected	1990-1992		2003-2005		2030 projected
	(million tonnes)	(% of world production)	(million tonnes)	(% of world production)	(% of world production)	(million tonnes)	(% of world consumption)	(million tonnes)	(% of world consumption)	(% of world consumption)
China	4.5	10.0	14.2	18.0	23.0	3.3	10.0	10.3	16.0	26.0
India	0.4	1.0	1.8	2.0	4.0	0.4	1.0	1.7	3.0	3.0
Other East Asia	1.8	4.0	1.9	2.0	0.0	0.4	1.0	0.5	1.0	1.0
Other South Asia	0.8	2.0	1.8	2.0	1.0	0.3	1.0	0.6	1.0	2.0
Southeast Asia	1.2	3.0	5.2	6.0	7.0	2.1	6.0	4.2	6.0	7.0
Latin America	5.9	14.0	15.9	20.0	21.0	5.4	16.0	13.3	20.0	17.0
of which Brazil	2.7	6.0	8.5	11.0	10.0	2.3	7.0	6.1	9.0	7.0
W.Asia & N.Africa	1.5	3.0	2.9	4.0	6.0	2.2	7.0	4.4	7.0	7.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	1.3	3.0	1.8	2.0	2.0	0.7	2.0	1.2	2.0	4.0
Developing World	18.2	42.0	45.8	57.0	65.0	14.3	43.0	35.4	54.0	67.0
Developed World	25.2	58.0	35.1	43.0	35.0	18.8	57.0	29.9	46.0	33.0
World	43.5	100.0	80.9	100.0	100.0	33.1	100.0	65.3	100.0	100.0

Key: W.Asia = West Asia N.Africa = North Africa

Source: Adapted from Narrod *et al.* (2008:3)

As illustrated in Table 2.1, the increase in poultry meat consumption has been most evident in East and South East Asian countries, and Latin America, particularly in China and Brazil respectively. In developing countries, the world's poultry meat consumed rose from 43 to 54 per cent between 1990 and 2005, while the proportion of the world's poultry meat produced in developing countries rose from 42 to 57 per cent over this period. It is estimated that production and consumption of poultry meat in developing countries will increase by 3.6 per cent and 3.5 per cent per annum from 2005 to 2030 respectively because of rising income, diversification of diets and expanding markets particularly in Brazil and China (Narro *et al.* (2008:1).

2.8.7 Global trends affecting the poultry sector

Narro *et al.* (2008:2) observe that the growth of the global poultry industry has been driven by both demand and supply. Demand side factors are causing the demand curve to shift outward. Solomon and Stuart (2003:385) describe a shift in the demand curve as a non-price increase in demand i.e. any increase in demand that is not caused by a change in price. They argue that that a demand shift or an increase in demand without reducing the price is the best situation for the marketer because he/she can sell more products without reducing the price and earn more income without increasing the price. Narro *et al.* (2008:3) identify demand side factors as increases in real per capita incomes, increases in the price of poultry substitutes such as pork or beef, increase in the preference for poultry (especially white meat), decrease in the price of poultry complements, and growth in the world population and urbanisation. According to WATT Executive Guide (2011:12), the world population is expected to reach 7.5 billion by 2020. This provides a good opportunity in terms of demand for poultry products. The major influence on supply side factors has been the rapid technological change in the world's poultry industry (Narro *et al.*, 2008:5). This has led to increased poultry production efficiency through the introduction of modern intensive production methods, genetic improvements, improved preventative disease control and bio-security. Similarly, Saha *et al.* (2009:1250) reveal that the unmatched growth of the poultry sector for the past few years can be attributed to poultry having relatively low production costs, high nutritional values, rapid growth rates, and many further-processed products. On the other hand, the increase in demand for poultry products has been compelled by such factors as urbanisation, population growth, trade and high expenditure elasticities for chicken (McLeod *et al.*, 2009:192; Narro *et al.*, 2008:5). Browne, Ortmann and Hendriks (2007:567) describe expenditure elasticity as a measure of the responsiveness of the consumption of a product due to a real change in income. They elaborate that if a product has high estimated expenditure elasticity, additional income to the consumers will result in increased consumption or demand of the product. Narro *et al.* (2008:1) observe that the world poultry sector has undergone major structural changes during the past two decades. These changes have been necessitated by the introduction of modern intensive production techniques,

improvements in genetics, improvements in preventative disease control and bio-security measures, rising income and human population, and urbanisation. McLeod *et al.* (2009:191) maintain that the major structural changes that have taken centre stage in the production and marketing of poultry for the past few decades have been spurred by the increasing consumer need for cheap animal protein. This has resulted in a strong and internationally integrated poultry sector that makes use of economies of scale and advancement in technology (McLeod *et al.*, 2009:191). On the other hand, McLeod *et al.* (2009:192) observe an increased spatial concentration of the poultry sector. This has been motivated by the need to be in the proximity of the market. A combination of this concentration of the world poultry sector and the increasing requirements to satisfy animal health, food safety and quality standards has made it difficult for smallholder products and small scale producers to take part meaningfully in expanding markets.

2.8.8 Opportunities and challenges in the world poultry sector

The world poultry production is expected to grow especially in developing regions and other regions of the world where the cost of production is low. It is also expected to stagnate in higher-cost producing developed regions. Short-term trade interruptions are expected to continue due to sanitary concerns (Harlan, 2007:1). However, as tariffs decline, such countries with plentiful grain production as Brazil are poised for growth in poultry production because they offer a favourable value proposition to global customers. However, the world poultry industry needs to start considering environmental issues such as global warming and use of feed stocks (Harlan, 2007:2).

The WATT Executive Guide (2011:12) noted that chicken and egg per-person consumption is expected to continue to grow in the coming decades. Figure 2.19 shows sustained increases in world poultry per capita consumption of chicken and eggs since 1960 and projections to 2040.

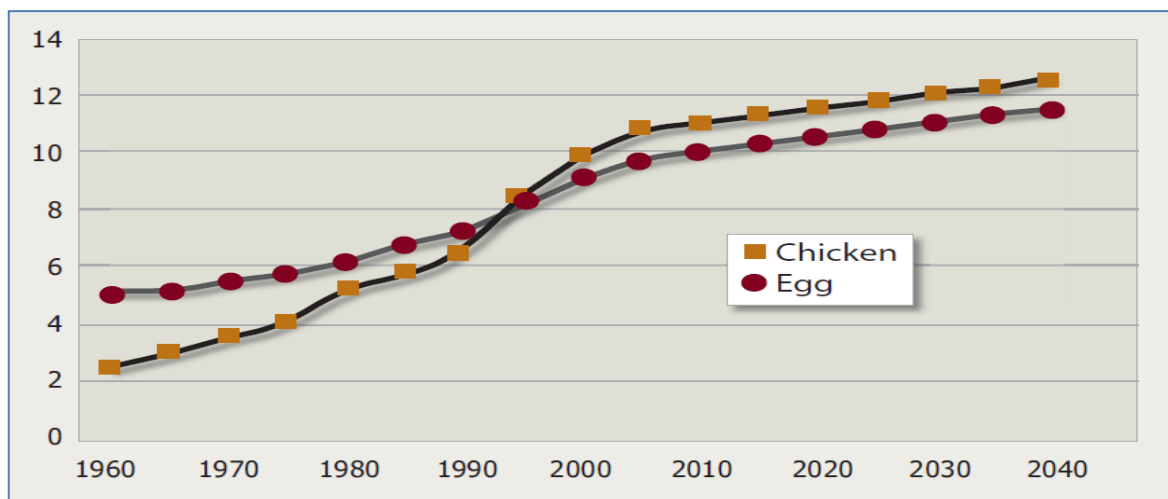


Figure 2.19 Projected rises in world consumption of chicken and eggs (kg/ person per year)

Source: Adapted from WATT Executive Guide (2011:12)

More so, the global market composition is projected to change so that chicken competes with pork as the world's popular meat. The WATT Executive Guide (2011:12) further observes that amongst all livestock sectors, the poultry sector is possibly the world's fastest growing and most flexible (see Figure 2.20). In this regard, Harlan (2007:1) clarifies that the vast majority of the global demand for poultry products will be in the form of chicken meat.

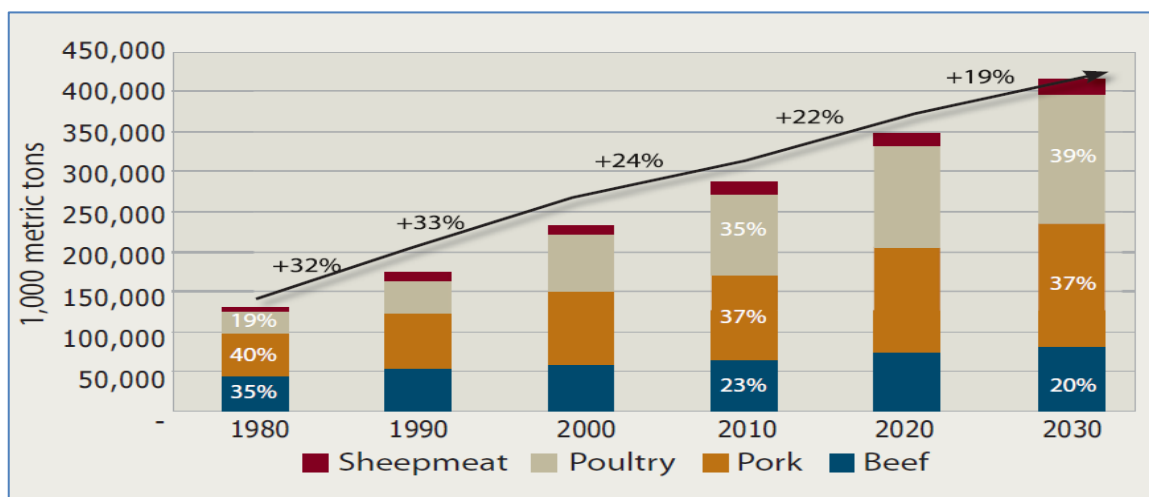


Figure 2.20 Growth in global meat markets to 2030

Source: Adapted from WATT Executive Guide (2011:12)

McLeod *et al.* (2009:191) noted that for the past decades the world poultry sector has managed to expand, consolidate and globalise. This has been spurred predominantly by very strong demand. Narrod *et al.* (2008:1) view this growth in the world poultry business as a tremendous opportunity for poultry producers.

Poultry meat demand increases as consumer incomes increase. This provides increased demand in today's increasing income levels (WATT Executive, 2011:42). Figure 2.21 shows the world GDP growth rate and per cent annual change in global chicken meat demand.

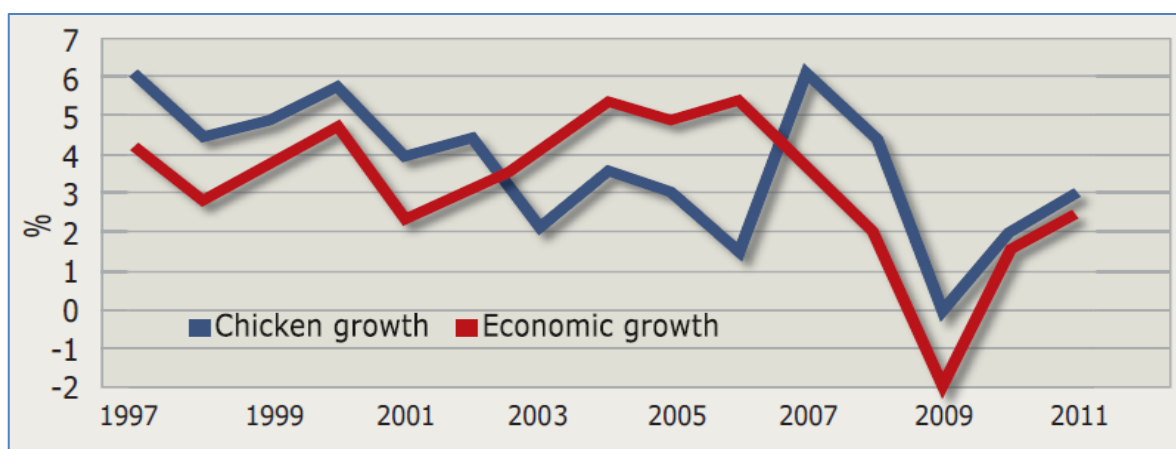


Figure 2.21 World GDP growth rate and percent annual change in global chicken meat

Source: Adapted from WATT Executive Guide (2011:42) and Aho (2010)

As noted by WATT Executive Guide (2011:42), Figure 2.21 shows a positive association between the world GDP growth rate and chicken demand growth i.e. the demand for chicken increases as the general income levels increase. More so, poultry products have withstood the downward pressure of the 2007 and 2008 financial crisis better than other food items. Similarly, the demand for chicken has favoured the growth patterns of global, regional and national economies as measured by their GDP. The relationship broke down in 2006 because of avian influenza but it has since been re-established (WATT Executive Guide, 2011:42; Aho, 2010). Recovery from the global financial crisis of 2007 and 2008 has been slower than expected in many countries. This has had a direct effect on personal incomes and, therefore, on demand for all animal products (WATT Executive Guide, 2011:42).

Apart from the opportunities, McLeod *et al.* (2009:191) content that the world poultry sector is also confronted with substantial and various challenges. These include the scarcity and high cost of inputs, and increased concerns about public health. Public health concerns require that players in the global poultry sector be flexible and entrepreneurial in their quest to succeed in the present dynamic market. Moreover, in most developing countries, poultry business is done by smallholders in less intensive systems. These producers are facing external pressures to comply with social, economic and environmental factors to intensify their production (McLeod *et al.*, 2009:191). Moreover, the International Poultry Council (2012) and WATT Executive Guide (2011:56) noted that the world poultry industry is facing increasing cost of production due to significant increases in the cost of ingredients (e.g. the cost of wheat, corn, soya beans

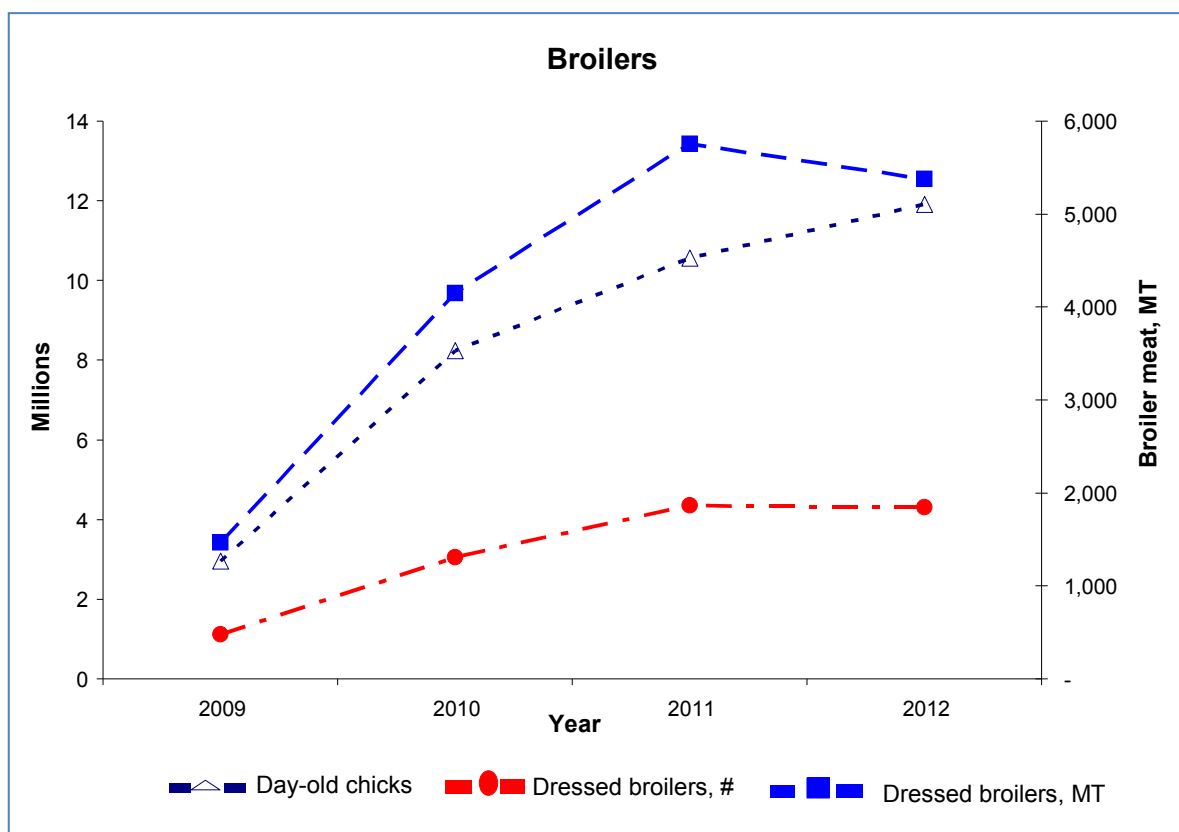
and other grains). This inevitably leads to higher prices of poultry meat in the global market place. Similarly, the United States Department of Agriculture (2012) reported that rising feed costs, diseases (e.g. avian influenza) and on-going trade disputes are expected to slow the growth rate of world meat production in the short-term. Narrod *et al.* (2008:14) observe that increased long-distance trade due to globalisation and heightened international trade have resulted, also, in increased concerns about the safety of poultry products. Therefore, there is a need for compliance with standards and regulations to ensure food quality and safety.

2.8.9 Developments of poultry business in Zimbabwe

Cooper (2003:28) observes that agriculture was the mainstay of the Zimbabwean economy until the beginning of the challenged land reform in 2000. One of the severest impacts of the land reform has been the disruption of crop production, which negatively impacted local stock feed manufacturing. In that regard, ZPA (2010) noted that the poultry industry in the country has been struggling for almost a decade following the country's economic meltdown. The industry almost collapsed towards the end of 2008 and recovered at the beginning of 2009 with the adoption of the United States dollar in the economy. Irvine's (2010:1) speculates that the poultry industry is going to expand to achieve its past glory. The WATT Executive Guide (2011:47) clarifies that some two-thirds of the local output in Zimbabwe's poultry sector is from informal traders while the other is from formal producers.

2.8.9.1 Production trends

There has been increased production of both poultry meat and eggs in Zimbabwe in the year 2011. This upward trend for both broiler and table egg production in Zimbabwe's poultry industry has continued in 2012 (WATT Executive Guide, 2011:47). Figure 2.22 shows a comparison of first-quarter returns of broiler day-old chick placements, and number and weight of dressed broilers from 2009 to 2012.



= number, MT = metric ton

Figure 2.22 Comparison of first-quarter returns of broiler day-old chick placements and number and weight of dressed broilers, 2009 to 2012

Source: Adapted from ZPA Newsletter (2012)

The general trend from Figure 2.22 is an increased broiler production since 2009. Day-old broiler chick production was actually 13 percent higher in the first quarter of 2012, with production being supplemented by imports of fertile eggs. Production of broiler meat from the formal sector was marginally (1 percent) lower in the first quarter of 2012 (ZPA, 2012).

Figure 2.23 shows a comparison of first-quarter returns of layer day-old chick placements, growing and laying birds, and table-egg production from 2009 to 2012.

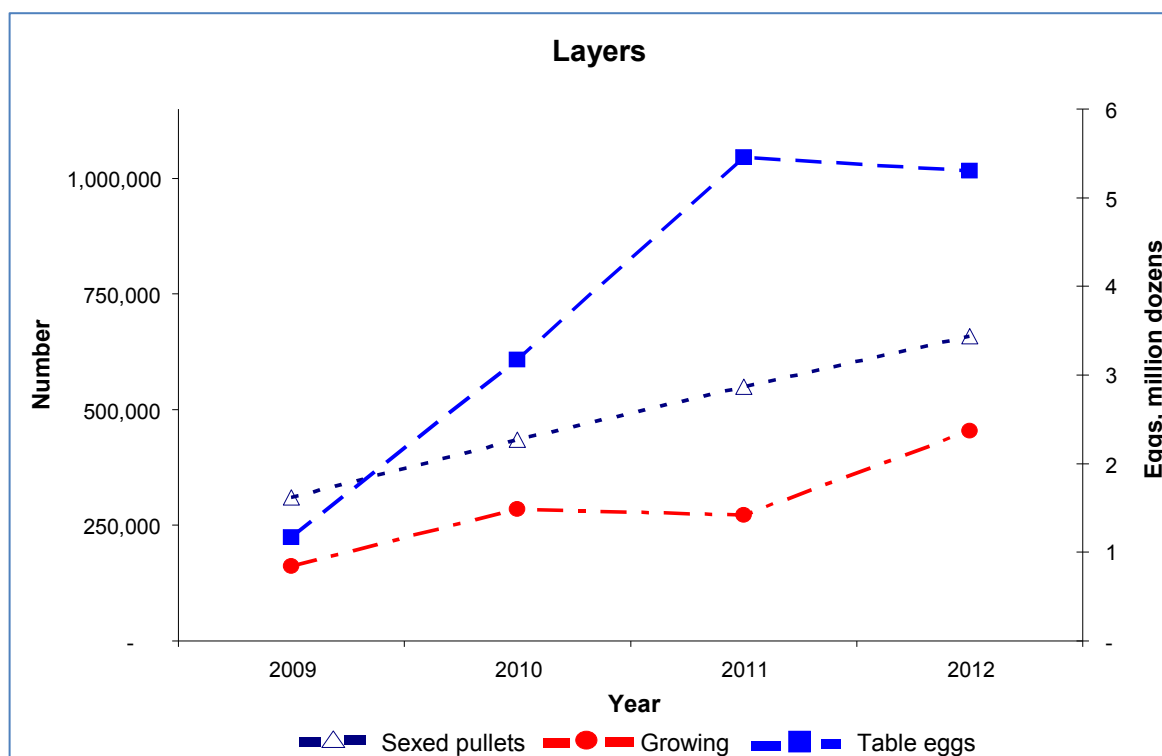


Figure 2.23 Comparison of first-quarter returns of layer day-old chick placements, growing and laying birds, and table-egg production from 2009 to 2012

Source: Adapted from ZPA Newsletter (2012)

Figure 2.23 shows that, generally, table egg production has increased since 2009. While formal table-egg production was down by 3 percent, growing layers has increased by 67 percent projecting a continued increase in table-egg production for the second quarter. The placement of sexed pullets (female birds separated from males) had increased by 20 percent (ZPA, 2012).

2.8.9.2 Opportunities and challenges

Evans (2010) and Narrod *et al.* (2008:3) observe that chicken consumption is rising in Africa, including Zimbabwe, owing to increasing population and rising incomes. Africa's human population rose from 0.8195 billion to 1,033 billion between 2000 and 2007 and is projected to rise to 1.153 billion by 2015 (see Table 2.2). Between 2000 and 2007, the per capita uptake of poultry meat in Africa rose by 13 percent from 4.0 kg to 4.5 kg per annum, against the global average which rose by 16 percent from a little under 11kg to some 12.6kg (Evans, 2010). Similarly, Zimbabwe's population rose from 12.5 million in 2000 to 12.6 million in 2007 and is projected to reach 14 million by 2015. Between 2000 and 2007, the uptake of poultry meat in Zimbabwe rose from 2.0 kg to 4.6 kg/person per annum, against Africa's per capita consumption which rose from 4.0 to 4.5 within the same period (Evans, 2010).

Table 2.2 Human population of Zimbabwe and Africa and poultry meat consumption

	Human population (millions)			Poultry consumption (kg/person/year)	
	2000	2010	2015	2000	2007
Zimbabwe	12.5	12.6	14.0	2.0	4.6
Africa	819.5	1,033.0	1,153.0	4.0	4.5

Source: Adapted from Evans (2010)

The cost of commercial poultry production in Zimbabwe is generally higher as compared to other countries (Irvine's, 2010:1). Shortages of feed ingredients (e.g. maize, soya bean and wheat bran), duty on soya meal, and value-added tax on soya bean are the main drivers of costs of production. This, in turn, reduces the competitiveness of the local industry (ZPA, 2012; Irvine's, 2012:22); due to higher prices of local products as compared to imports. Cooper (2003:28) is of the view that the shortage of grain as a raw material for stock feed manufacturing has been triggered by low farm productivity since the beginning of the controversial land reform in 2000.

Zimbabwe's poultry producers are not happy with the importation of poultry into the country as evidenced by their constant lobbying to the government to ban the imports. They argue that poultry imports undermine the local market (Irvine's, 2012:22). Likewise, ZPA (2012) observed that the local producers are concerned about the presence of cheap imported poultry products (both eggs and meat) on the informal market. The local poultry production has not been sufficient to meet the local demand and this has resulted in the importation of poultry products mainly from Brazil, South Africa and USA. It is believed that more than 2,000 metric tonnes of cheap poultry meat are being imported monthly; setting the base price of meat in Zimbabwe. Similarly, the ZPA (2010) noted that, although the Zimbabwe's poultry industry is showing signs of recovery, it has been struggling in recent decades mainly because of the more than a decade-long poor economic performance. This lack of competitiveness of the local poultry industry has attracted cheap imports into the country. However, the ZPA (2012) observes that imported poultry products are not readily seen in the formal markets, suggesting that they are finding their way to consumers, mainly through the informal channels which, according to WATT Executive Guide (2011:47), command two thirds of the local market.

2.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY AND THE KNOWLEDGE GAP

The review of literature in this chapter was based mainly on areas that include marketing, consumer behaviour, consumer decision making and purchase behaviour, consumer attitude, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer awareness, and international poultry production and marketing.

Marketing is concerned with the provision of customer satisfaction efficiently and effectively (Jack *et al.*, 2010:15; AMA, 2009; Gundlach & Wilkie, 2009:262; Kotler & Keller, 2006:6). The focus of marketing is based on the principle of consumer primacy. According to this principle, the consumer should be the central focus of the marketing effort (Mowen & Minor, 2001:5). Similarly, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:8) argue that all marketing strategies are based on sound beliefs about customer behaviour. Consumer behaviour, therefore, is concerned with the behaviour that consumers display before, during and when purchasing products (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:4; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:8; Solomon, 2002:5). The task of the marketer involves planning marketing activities and coming up with fully unified programmes that create, communicate and deliver value to the customers. These activities come in different forms. The marketing mix provides a traditional depiction of such activities. It refers to tools the firm makes use of so as to achieve its marketing objectives (Kotler & Keller, 2006:18). Jobber and Fahy (2003:11) illustrate that the hallmark of an effective management of the marketing mix involves matching customer needs, creating competitive advantage, matching corporate resources and creating the right blend of the mix variables.

The practice of marketing dates back to time immemorial when people used to produce more crops than they wanted. People would then trade this surplus in the form of barter in order to get other things they wanted (Brassington & Pettit, 2003:10). As a discipline, marketing emerged from the discipline of economics. It came to the fore as a form of applied economics (Jack *et al.*, 2010:16; Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006:369). The evolution of marketing is best described by the three distinctive eras through which it passed, namely production, sales and marketing eras (Jack *et al.*, 2010:20; Jones & Richardson, 2007:15). On the other hand, the development of consumer behaviour parallels the evolution of marketing as evidenced by the interconnectedness of consumer behaviour and the marketing concept (Assael, 2004:6; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:10). As such, five marketing concepts were identified, namely production, product, selling, marketing and societal concepts (Kotler *et al.*, 2011:9; Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:23).

Consumer behaviour has been understood as the study of the reasons why people buy. This makes it easier for marketers to craft strategies that influence consumers (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:4). Economists viewed consumers as people who individually and collectively determined the demand for goods, and also as people who could reason and avoid risk (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:4). Systematic research on consumer behaviour only began in the early 20th century. During this period, consumer behaviour research was relatively unsophisticated and without theoretical basis until the 1930s (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:4). After the Great Depression of the 1930s, a rise in demand for products brought about increased interest in consumer behaviour research (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:5). An approach that focussed on the behaviour of consumers was taken in the 1950s, moving away from a macroeconomic orientation. Du Plessis *et al.*

(2007:5) assert that consumer behaviour emerged as a bona fide discipline during the 1960s when economists and marketers developed expertise in behavioural sciences. As noted by Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:5), in the 1970s researchers on consumer behaviour grew in expertise as they began developing and introducing concepts of consumer processes instead of borrowing concepts from other disciplines and applying them to consumer behaviour. In this era, consumerism gained prominence and today most books on consumer behaviour contain increasingly more information on consumerism (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:6). Consumer behaviour continued to grow into a fully-fledged research discipline. The main objective of researchers has been to develop theories and concepts that can explain and predict consumer behaviour. Even today, consumer behaviour is still evolving as a field of study (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:6; Shaw & Jones, 2005:261).

Consumers decide on whether or not to purchase products, to spend or save money when faced with a particular buying situation. It is the role of the marketer to understand how consumers make purchase decisions in order to devise winning strategies. Consumer purchase behaviour or action has been identified as an important stage in the consumer decisions making process (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:260, Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:19). Of great importance to the marketer is to understand the factors that influence the buying behaviour of consumers. As Verbeke (2000:529) noted, there are as many classifications of these factors as there are scholars. There are no clear cut boundaries between these classifications i.e. the factors can be mutually exchangeable between classifications.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:549) and Solomon (2002:257) concur that consumer decision making situations differ. As such consumer decision making situations require different information search. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:549) identify three levels of consumer decision making that range from very low effort to very high effort. The three levels are extensive problem solving, limited problem solving, and routinised response behaviour.

Kotler (2002:98) and Verbeke (2000:524) concur that consumer purchase is a stage in the consumer decision making process. However, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:569) refer to the purchase behaviour as a post-decision behaviour. They go on to identify three different types of purchase as trial purchase, repeat purchase, and long term commitment purchase.

Consumer attitude is concerned with the consumer's predisposition to behave favourably or unfavourably towards a particular product or brand. It comprises three major components namely, beliefs, feelings and intentions (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:375; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004: 253; Arnould *et al.*, 2002:459; Solomon, 2002:527). The concept of consumer attitude has been given wide attention in marketing literature. An understanding of consumer attitudes is important in that it enables marketers to influence how consumers behave toward products or

brands (Argyriou & Melewar, 2011:431). More so, attitudes play an important part in developing marketing strategy. Attitudes help marketers to identify benefit segments, develop new products, and formulate and evaluate promotional strategies (Assael, 2004:222). Similarly, Wilcock *et al.* (2004:56) observe that the knowledge of consumer attitudes is critical in that it enables marketers to predict consumer behaviour. In other words, consumer attitudes play an important role in influencing consumer behaviour (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:4; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:253; Wilcock *et al.*, 2004:56) and yet, consumer behaviour can also influence attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:265).

The desire to understand consumer attitudes and their relationship with consumer buying behaviour has motivated psychologists to come up with models or theories that capture the underlying dimensions of attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:256). As noted by Arnould *et al.* (2002:459), attitude models attempt to explain how consumers process information in order to make decisions. Cognitions and emotions are also part of the consumer decision making process. Consumer attitude models discussed in this chapter include the tri-component attitude model, hierarchy of effects model, attitude toward object model, attitude toward behaviour model, theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour. These models provide different perspectives on the attitude components and how these components are related (Blythe, 2008:146-147; Assael, 2004:216-218; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:260; Arnould *et al.*, 2002:462-464; Solomon, 2002:200; Verbeke, 2000:526; Conner & Armitage, 1998:1429).

Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004:80) acknowledge the seminal works of Schooler in 1965 and 1971 that sought to address one of the enduring issues affecting marketers. Marketers have, for over the years, been concerned with whether the foreignness of a product can impact how consumers in different countries prefer products from other countries. Subsequently, Shimp and Sharma (1987:280) responded by introducing the term consumer ethnocentrism, adapting it from the general concept of ethnocentrism which was introduced by Sumner in 1906. As a general concept, ethnocentrism refers to the tendency of people to view the behaviour of their group as the benchmark. Group members treat their behaviour as universal and that everyone else must follow suit. Consequently, members who belong to different cultures are rejected out rightly while those belonging to groups with similar cultures are blindly accepted (Shimp & Sharma, 1987:280). Consumer ethnocentrism is a trait that shapes the personality of an individual. It is enduring. It is concerned with the appropriateness and or morality of purchasing products made from other countries (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:126; Shimp & Sharma, 1987:280). From a marketing perspective, a good understanding of consumer ethnocentrism is important in that it enables marketers to develop effective international product positioning strategies and also in explaining the bias towards domestic products (Huddleston *et al.*, 2000:171; Netemeyer *et al.*, 1991:321). Generally, consumer ethnocentrism tends to be

negatively correlated with attitudes toward foreign products and significantly correlated with attitudes toward domestic products (Pentz's, 2011:231; Bandyopadhyay *et al.*, 2011:211; Ranjbarian *et al.*, 2010:372; Shankarmahesh, 2006:166; Moon, 2004:668; Supphellen & Ritterburg, 2001:908; Netemeyer *et al.*, 1991:321).

Consumer awareness is concerned with the extent or alertness of individual consumers of their rights and responsibilities in the market place (Rousseau & Venter, 1995:18). It is regarded as a subset of consumerism (Rousseau & Venter, 1995:18; Du Plessis *et al.*, 1994:331). Consumerism deals with the protection of the rights of consumers in the market place (Kotler *et al.*, 2009:172; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:354). An alertness of an individual consumer to his/her rights and responsibilities in the market place is critical in that it gives the consumer some sense of consciousness and direction when it comes to purchase decisions. That is, the knowledge of consumerism can help the consumer to show discretion in his/her buying habits as it provides him/her with information regarding his/her rights and privileges in the market place (Du Plessis *et al.*, 1994:331). Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:331) further argue that, by being informed on product knowledge as well as on consumer rights, as a buyer the consumer is not only protected against exploitation but is also more likely to obtain maximum satisfaction of his/her household needs. Knowledge of consumerism is also important to researchers in the formulation or evaluation of public policies (Solomon, 2002:21). Kumar and Ali (2011:4) highlight the importance of consumer awareness and knowledge specific to organic foods as critical factors that influence the attitude and behaviour of consumers toward organic foods. Consequently, consumer awareness and knowledge drive the growth in the food markets.

Consumers International (2012) observe that consumerism has developed for over the years based on the four fundamental consumer rights proposed by President Kennedy on 15 March 1962, namely the right to safety, the right to be informed, the right to choose and the right to be heard. These basic rights were later expanded to eight by the addition of the right to satisfaction of basic needs (the right to basic needs), the right to redress, the right to consumer education, and the right to a healthy environment. Accordingly, today there are eight basic consumer rights that direct much of the work of Consumers International—the world's consumer umbrella board—and its members the world over. However, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:355), suggest that there is the ninth right called the right to privacy.

Consumer responsibilities are concerned with the ability to form independent opinions with regards to an individual's own consumption behaviour which can be argued for and acted upon (Rousseau & Venter, 1995:18). Consumer responsibilities were introduced after the then Consumers International President—Anwar Fazal—actively called for their introduction in the 1980s. The consumer responsibilities were designed to complement the already existing

consumer rights (Consumers International, 2012). Likewise, Du Plessis *et al.* (1994:339) reveal that, not only do consumers have rights, but they also have responsibilities in exercising these rights. They refer to consumers' responsibility as "the acquisition of the necessary knowledge and skills to make independent and rational consumption choice in relation to society and the environment". This implies acquiring knowledge and skills to make responsible choices which will benefit both the individual consumer and society. It also involves an awareness of perceived risks, such as financial risk, associated with purchase decisions. The CCZ (2012) identifies the responsibilities of consumers as critical awareness, action, environmental awareness, social concern and solidarity.

International marketing entails marketing processes or activities taking place in more than one country. According to Cateora *et al.* (2009:9), Albaum *et al.* (2005:3) and Czinkota and Ronkainen (2002:3), international marketing retains the basic marketing principles but it is complex in that transactions take place across national boundaries. This makes it much more difficult than domestic marketing (Cateora *et al.*, 2009:9; Keegan, 2009:28). Teo *et al.* (2011:2805) and Ranjbarian *et al.* (2010:372) observe that there has been increased international trade of products in the past few decades. This has resulted in consumers all over the world to have increased access to a wide variety of products from other countries than ever before (Saffu & Walker, 2006a:168). This phenomenon has also been witnessed in the world poultry business (Jez *et al.*, 2011:105; WATT Executive Guide, 2011:12; McLeod *et al.*, 2009:191; Saha *et al.*, 2009:1250; Narrod *et al.*, 2008:1; Harlan, 2007:1; Constance, 2002:31).

The global poultry production and consumption is increasing owing to increasing population and rising incomes (Evans, 2010; Narrod *et al.*, 2008:3). More so, the global market composition is projected to change so that chicken competes with pork as the world's popular meat. The WATT Executive Guide (2011:12) further observes that, of all livestock sectors, the world poultry sector is possibly the most flexible sector. It is also recording the highest growth rate. Thus, Harlan (2007:1) clarifies that the vast majority of the global demand for poultry products will be in the form of chicken meat. Coupled with globalisation and these increasing opportunities in the world poultry sector, there has been increased movement of poultry products across international boundaries. This has increased competition among international poultry players (Jez *et al.*, 2011:105; WATT Executive Guide, 2011:12; Saha *et al.*, 2009:1250; McLeod *et al.*, 2009:191; Narrod *et al.*, 2008:1; Harlan, 2007:1; Constance, 2002:31). The ZPA (2010) noted that, although the Zimbabwe's poultry industry is showing signs of recovery, it has been struggling in recent decades mainly because of the more than a decade-long poor economic performance. This lack of competitiveness of the local poultry industry has attracted cheap imports into the country mainly from Brazil, South Africa and USA, worsening the plight of poultry producers in the country. As such, Zimbabwe's poultry producers are not happy with

poultry imports into the country as evidenced by their constant lobbying to the government to ban the imports. They argue that poultry imports kick them out of business (Irvine's, 2012:22).

Mangnale *et al.* (2011:241) observe that marketers are trying to understand their target market in this highly competitive global marketing environment. As a result, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitudes toward foreign products have received a great deal of attention in consumer behaviour and international marketing research for over the years (Bandara & Miloslava, 2012:10; Teo *et al.*, 2011:2811; Ranjbarian *et al.*, 2010:372; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:260; Apil, 2006:28; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:375; Saffu & Walker, 2006a:167; Assael, 2004:216; Bawa, 2004:45; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004: 554; Wang & Chen, 2004:391; Arnould *et al.*, 2002:459; Solomon, 2002:527; Verbeke, 2000:524; Klein & Ettenson, 1999:6; Shimp & Sharma, 1987:280). The extant literature does not explain the effect of consumer awareness on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported products. More so, the empirical evidence does not reveal the effect of consumer ethnocentric tendencies on the actual purchase behaviour of consumers. In addition, there is still a lack of consumer behaviour studies that have specifically focused on international poultry consumers. The consumer behaviour literature is also biased towards developed countries as noted by Opoku and Arkoli (2009:350). This has taken place despite the call by Klein *et al.* (2006:305) that developing and emerging countries now offer more opportunities for global business than developed nations whose economies are witnessing stunted growth. Moreover, Opoku and Arkoli (2009:350) observe that, there is a dearth of studies that have systematically investigated consumer behaviour and attitudes in developing countries especially in Sub-Saharan Africa and very little is known about consumer behaviour in this part of the world. This makes the generalisability of findings to small developing countries where there are limited domestic brands and range of products somewhat questionable.

Conclusively, the knowledge gap is thus described as an incomplete understanding of the effect of consumer awareness on attitudes and purchase behaviour, and the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the actual purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. This gap in the current body of knowledge forms the point of departure of the study. Therefore, the next chapter focuses on the research problem and methodology.

CHAPTER 3.

RESEARCH PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

A review of literature was done in the previous chapter. Subsequently, the gap in the current body of knowledge was identified. This chapter focuses on the description of the research problem and methodology. The nature of the research problem dictates the research methodology i.e. there is a need to clearly define the research problem prior to the presentation of research methods. Therefore, the first port of call in this section is to define the research problem. The research objectives, questions, hypotheses and conceptual framework are the key aspects of the research problem. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007:602) describe research methodology as the theoretical and philosophical assumptions that determine how research is conducted. Research methodology also addresses how the methods chosen impact a particular research. The purpose of research methodology is to show the stages, processes, and approaches for collecting and analysing data in this research. The major aspects of the research methodology presented in this chapter are philosophy, strategy, design, sampling, data collection methods, measurement and scales, design of the instrument, reliability, validity, sensitivity, data analysis and presentation methods, ethical considerations, and due diligence.

3.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

At the heart of defining the research problem is the requirement of adding to the current body of knowledge. Therefore, identifying the knowledge gap, and a possible contribution towards it, embodies the first step in the research process. In view of this, Malhotra and Peterson (2006:33) describe a research problem as a statement that describes the nature of the problem a particular research is addressing. Similarly, Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Giffin (2010:108) assert that formally defining the problem to be addressed by developing decision statements (written expressions of key questions that the research user wishes to answer) and translating them into actionable research objectives must be done well or else the rest of the research process is misdirected.

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:4) observe that consumer behaviour deals with how and why individuals buy and dispose of products. Understanding how and when consumers purchase products would enable marketers to craft strategies that can effectively influence consumers to buy the products. Similarly, consumers decide on whether to purchase or not, to spend or save money when faced with a particular buying situation. Consumer purchase behaviour has been identified as a critical

stage in the consumer decision making process (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:260, Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:19). Of great importance to the marketer is to understand the factors that influence the buying behaviour of consumers or how consumers make purchase decisions because it enables the marketer to create winning strategies.

Consumer attitudes play a crucial role in consumer behaviour. Therefore, in order to have an adequate understanding of consumer behaviour, one must also understand consumer attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:253; Wilcock *et al.*, 2004:56). In the context of consumer behaviour, Assael (2004:216) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004: 253) view an attitude as a favourable or unfavourable tendency that directs the behaviour of consumers towards certain objects. Consumer attitudes are thought to influence consumer behaviour (Balckwell *et al.*, 2006:4; Wilcock *et al.*, 2004:56). On the other hand, consumer behaviour is believed to influence consumer attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:265). In order to succeed in the international market place, marketers need to consider the attitudes of consumers toward foreign products (Juric & Worsely, 1998:431). As noted by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:269), changing the attitudes of consumers is a fundamental strategy consideration for most marketers. Likewise, most competitors aim to overtake market leaders when developing their marketing strategies. To achieve this, the competitors aim at altering the attitudes of the market leaders' consumers so that they can also have favourable attitudes toward the competitors' products or brands. Market leaders also try to reinforce the positive attitudes of consumers towards their products or brands; the motive being to prevent these consumers from being enticed by the offerings of competitors (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:269).

Wu, Zhu and Dai (2010:2262) assert that consumer ethnocentrism is a concept which has received much attention in the study of consumer behaviour and attitudes toward foreign products. As noted by Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004:80), one of the issues of great concern to marketers is whether the "foreignness" of a product determines the preference of a particular product in a particular country. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:126) and Shimp and Sharma (1987:280) refer to consumer ethnocentrism as "a trait that shapes an individual's personality and attitude toward foreign products". Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:136) and Kaynak and Kara (2002:933) observe that consumer ethnocentrism varies from one country to another and also from one product to another. Netemeyer *et al.* (1991:321) reveal that, from the standpoint of the international marketer, it is of paramount importance to determine consumer ethnocentric tendencies across countries for three major reasons. First, consumer ethnocentrism may act as a barrier to the success of the marketing effort in foreign markets. Second, knowledge of consumer ethnocentrism enables international marketers to develop international product-positioning strategies. Third, consumer bias towards domestic products may also be explained by consumer ethnocentrism. Generally, consumer ethnocentrism has been reported to

negatively influence consumer attitudes toward foreign products while positively influencing consumer attitudes toward domestic products (Pentz's, 2011:231; Wongtada & Rice, 2011:211; Ranjbarian *et al.*, 2010:372; Shankarmahesh, 2006:166; Moon, 2004:668; Supphellen & Ritterburg, 2001:908; Netemeyer *et al.*, 1991:321).

Rousseau and Venter (1995:18) describe consumer awareness as “the extent or alertness of individual consumers of their rights and responsibilities in the market place”. Being informed about product knowledge and consumer rights gives the consumer some sense of consciousness and direction when it comes to purchase decisions. That is, it helps the consumer to show discretion in his or her buying habits by providing information regarding the rights and privileges in the market place. More so, the consumer is protected against exploitation and is also more likely to obtain maximum satisfaction of his or her household needs (Du Plessis *et al.*, 1994:331).

There has been increased international trade of products in the past few decades (Teo *et al.*, 2011:2805; Ranjbarian *et al.*, 2010:372). This has resulted in consumers all over the world to have increased access to a wide variety of products from other countries than ever before (Saffu & Walker, 2006a:168). This phenomenon has also been witnessed in the world poultry business (Jez *et al.*, 2011:105; WATT Executive Guide, 2011:12; McLeod *et al.*, 2009:191; Saha *et al.*, 2009:1250; Narrod *et al.*, 2008:1; Harlan, 2007:1; Constance, 2002:31). As a result, the global poultry meat industry has become very competitive (Vukasovič, 2009:65). It has become inevitable and a matter of survival for marketers to understand their target market in this highly competitive global marketing environment (Mangnale *et al.*, 2011:241). In view of this, much scholarly attention has been given to consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes toward foreign products for the past decades (Bandara & Miloslava, 2012:10; Teo *et al.*, 2011:2811; Ranjbarian *et al.*, 2010:372; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:260; Apil, 2006:28; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:375; Saffu & Walker, 2006a:167; Assael, 2004:216; Bawa, 2004:45; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004: 554; Wang & Chen, 2004:391; Arnould *et al.*, 2002:459; Solomon, 2002:527; Verbeke, 2000:524; Klein & Ettenson, 1999:6; Shimp & Sharma, 1987:280).

Despite the importance of consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, attitude and purchase behaviour, and the increased interest in consumer behaviour studies, the effect of consumer awareness on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported products is not documented in extant literature. More so, the empirical evidence does not reveal the effect of consumer ethnocentric tendencies on the actual purchase behaviour of consumers. Instead, the focus among several scholars (Bandara & Miloslava, 2012:10; Teo *et al.*, 2011:2811; Saffu & Walker, 2006a:167; Shankarmahesh, 2006:161; Javalgi *et al.*, 2005:329; Bawa, 2004:45; Wang & Chen, 2004:391; Sharma *et al.*, 1995:28; De Ruyter *et al.*, 1998:190) has been on the effect of

consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes and purchase intentions. Although Rousseau and Venter (1996:26; 1995:18) studied consumer awareness in South Africa and Zimbabwe respectively, they did not make an attempt to relate consumer awareness to consumer attitudes and behaviour. Furthermore, there is still a dearth of consumer behaviour studies that have particularly focussed on international poultry consumers. More so, developing and emerging economies now present the next great opportunity for global business because developed nations' economies are ever-shrinking (Klein *et al.*, 2006:305). Therefore, an understanding of consumer attitudes toward foreign products is of great importance. However, the bulk of research on consumer behaviour has been conducted in developed nations where there is a wide range of products and product categories. To generalise these findings in developing and emerging markets that are characterised by limited domestic brands or products in many product categories is somewhat questionable (Opoku & Arkoli, 2009:350). Similarly, there are relatively few studies that have systematically investigated consumer behaviour and attitudes in developing countries especially in Sub-Saharan Africa and very little is known about consumer behaviour in this part of the world (Opoku & Arkoli, 2009:350). The present study, therefore, seeks to make a novel contribution to knowledge by investigating the effect of consumer awareness on attitudes and purchase behaviour, and the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the actual consumer purchase behaviour toward foreign products.

Taking into account the observation by Opoku and Arkoli (2009:350) that there is a dearth of consumer behaviour studies in developing countries, especially sub-Saharan Africa, the study was conducted in Zimbabwe, a developing economy. Zimbabwe has been undergoing a major political and economic transformation since 2009. The country was once the breadbasket of the region, but now it is a net importer of food (Action Aid, 2012; IFDC, 2012; Cooper, 2003:28) and a net importer of poultry products (ZPA, 2012). The ZPA (2010) noted that, although the Zimbabwe's poultry industry is showing signs of recovery, it has been struggling in recent decades mainly because of the more than a decade-long poor economic performance. This lack of competitiveness of the local poultry industry has attracted cheap imports into the country mainly from Brazil, South Africa and USA, worsening the plight of poultry producers. As such, Zimbabwe's poultry producers are not happy with poultry imports into the country as evidenced by their constant lobbying to the government to ban the imports. They argue that poultry imports kick them out of business (Irvine's, 2012:22). The voice of the consumers has not been heard i.e. no formal study has dealt with consumers concerning their views with regards to imported poultry products. This makes Zimbabwe a very interesting case to conduct the present research as an understanding of consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, attitudes and purchase behaviour is likely to, apart from knowledge creation, provide a lead to the strategic moves that can be taken by marketers of poultry products in Zimbabwe and other developing and emerging

economies. On the other hand, the researcher is a resident of Zimbabwe, has access to information, and has local knowledge to facilitate interpretations and conclusions.

The choice of poultry meat products was based on the premise that the global poultry production and consumption is increasing owing to increasing population and rising incomes (Evans, 2010; Narrod *et al.*, 2008:3). More so, the global market composition is projected to change so that chicken competes with pork as the world's popular meat. The WATT Executive Guide (2011:12) further observes that, of all livestock sectors, the world poultry sector is possibly the most flexible and fastest growing. Thus, Harlan (2007:1) clarifies that the vast majority of the global demand for poultry products will be in the form of chicken meat. Coupled with globalisation and increasing opportunities in the world poultry sector, there has been increased movement of poultry products across international boundaries. This has increased competition among international poultry players (Jez *et al.*, 2011:105; WATT Executive Guide, 2011:12; Saha *et al.*, 2009:1250; McLeod *et al.*, 2009:191; Narrod *et al.*, 2008:1; Harlan, 2007:1; Constance, 2002:31). And yet there is a dearth of consumer behaviour studies focusing on this area. Again, this makes it an interesting area of study.

It is assumed that this study, as a new research, remains explorative at best; localisation and culture preclude the generalisability of the findings to some extent, and thus, it needs to be evaluated by further studies.

3.2.1 Research objectives and questions

Saunders *et al.*, (2007:610) view research objectives as the well-spelt out statements that describe what the researcher seeks to achieve by carrying out the research. Aaker, Kumar and Day (2004:51) refer to a research objective as a "statement, in as precise terminology as possible, of what information is needed". This implies that a good framework of research objectives would make it possible to obtain information that satisfies the purpose of the research.

The primary objective of the study is to investigate the effects of consumer awareness and consumer ethnocentrism on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products using Zimbabwe as a point of reference. The secondary objectives of the study are as follows:

- i. To establish if consumer awareness predicts consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products.
- ii. To determine if consumer attitude predicts purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.

- iii. To determine if consumer ethnocentrism predicts consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products.
- iv. To explore the critical decision factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products.

Therefore, the main research question is: do consumer awareness and consumer ethnocentrism predict consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products? The secondary research questions are as follows:

- i. Does consumer awareness predict consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products?
- ii. Does consumer attitude predict consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products?
- iii. Does consumer ethnocentrism predict consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products?
- iv. Which are the critical decision factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products?

3.2.2 Research hypotheses and conceptual framework

Saunders *et al.* (2007:599) define a research hypothesis as “a testable proposition about the relationship between two or more events”. It is an unproven statement given by the researcher to try to explain the relationship between constructs (Malhotra & Peterson, 2006:51). Aaker *et al.* (2004:52) argues that a research hypothesis provides a possible answer to the research question. Therefore, a research hypothesis is important in that it guides the researcher in bringing a considerable degree of specificity to the research problem. Hair Jr., Wolfinbarger, Ortinau and Bush (2008:50) describe a conceptual framework as a diagram that shows variables and hypothesised or proposed relationships between variables. It acts as a guide to the study (Baxter & Jack, 2008:533), i.e. the framework acts as a mind map that gives direction and basis of the formulation of hypotheses to the research questions. The research hypotheses and their relationship with research questions, and the conceptual framework of the research are presented as follows:-

Research question i: Does consumer awareness predict consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products?

Consumer awareness has been defined as the extent or alertness of individual consumers of their rights and responsibilities in the market place (Rousseau & Venter, 1996:18). Consumer awareness and knowledge specific to organic foods were considered as important factors in influencing consumer attitudes and behaviour toward organic foods (Kumar & Ali, 2011:4).

However, the consumer awareness referred to in Kumar and Ali (2011:4) was limited in scope in that it was specific to the knowledge of the specific characteristics of organic foods. The general consumer awareness referring to the alertness of individual consumers of their rights and responsibilities in the market place was not considered. Thus the effect of consumer awareness on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour cannot be generalised. It is, therefore, hypothesised that:

- H₁** Consumer awareness positively predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.
- H₂** Consumer awareness positively predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.

Research question ii: Does consumer attitude predict consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products?

Evidence from literature shows that consumer attitudes influence and predict consumer behaviour (Argyriou & Melewar, 2011:431; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:4; Assael, 2004:222; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:253). Wilcock *et al.* (2004:56) argue that although consumer attitudes have been reported to influence and predict consumer behaviour, it is not always the case. Consumer behaviour can also influence consumer attitudes. This view is also supported by Assael (2004:227) who submits that, not only do attitudes influence behaviour, but behaviour sometimes influences attitudes. Similarly, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:265) contend that consumer behaviour also influences consumer attitudes. More so, Vida and Damjan (2001:113) suggest that the relationship between consumer attitudes and actual purchasing behaviour has received much attention in consumer behaviour research. However, there have been inconsistent findings. In a study to examine the factors that determine the attitudes of consumers toward social media marketing using university students, Akar and Topçu (2011:43) found that the better the attitude an individual has toward a product or brand, the more likely he/she will use it. Likewise, Argyriou and Melewar (2011:431) emphasise that consumer attitudes are known to positively influence the behaviour of consumers toward a particular object such as a product or a brand. Therefore:

- H₃** Consumer attitude positively predicts purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.

Research question iii: Does consumer ethnocentrism predict consumer attitude and behaviour toward imported poultry products?

It is widely agreed that the study of consumer attitudes toward foreign products cannot be comprehensive if the construct of consumer ethnocentrism is not part of it (Wu *et al.*,

2010:2262; Nijssen *et al.*, 1999). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:126) and Shimp and Sharma (1987:280) regard consumer ethnocentrism as a trait that shapes an individual's personality and attitude toward foreign products. From the perspective of international marketers, determining consumer ethnocentric tendencies across countries helps to explain the bias toward domestic products (Netemeyer *et al.*, 1991:321). Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001:908) noted that consumer ethnocentric tendencies tend to be negatively correlated with attitudes toward foreign products and significantly correlated with attitudes toward domestic products. Ranjbarian *et al.* (2010:372) observe that consumer ethnocentrism is one of the critical factors that impact the decisions of consumers when buying foreign products. They regard consumer ethnocentrism as a serious threat to firms that intend to enter overseas markets. In this regard, Netemeyer *et al.* (1991:321) assert that highly ethnocentric individuals have a bias towards domestic products. Wongtada and Rice (2011:211) agree with Moon (2004:668) that consumer ethnocentrism usually negatively influences the attitudes of consumers toward foreign made products. In a South African study, Pentz (2011:231) concluded that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively correlated with attitudes toward importing foreign products. The same view is given by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:126) that ethnocentric tendencies are negatively correlated with attitudes toward foreign products and positively correlated with attitudes towards domestic products. In general, consumer ethnocentrism has been found to lead to negative consumer attitudes (Shankarmahesh, 2006:166). Therefore:

- H₄** Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.
- H₅** Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.

Research question iv: Which are the critical decision factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products?

Kotler (2002:88) suggests that both marketing and non-commercial or environmental stimuli enter the consciousness of the consumer. As a result, consumer buying decisions are a result of the characteristics of the consumer as well as the decision process. It is critical for marketers to understand the factors that influence the buying behaviour of consumers. Verbeke (2000:529) noted that, apart from the many factors that affect the buying behaviour of consumers, there are also various classifications of these factors. This implies that the factors are mutually exchangeable between classifications. Various factors that significantly influence the consumption behaviour of consumers toward poultry products have been identified by a number of scholars. The major factors include taste, health and safety issues, tenderness, appearance, price, ease of access, promotions, influence by others members, cultural factors and social class

(Yang *et al.*, 2011:949; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:75; McCarthy *et al.*, 2004:20; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:553; Maltin *et al.*, 2003:337; Fletcher, 2002:131; Kotler, 2002:88; Verbeke, 2000:530; Groom, 1990:205). Therefore:

- H₆** Pertinent factors described (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.
- H₇** Pertinent factors described (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict the choice to purchase imported poultry products.

The critical variables of and the hypotheses developed for the study have been summarised and illustrated in the conceptual framework as illustrated in Figure 3.1.

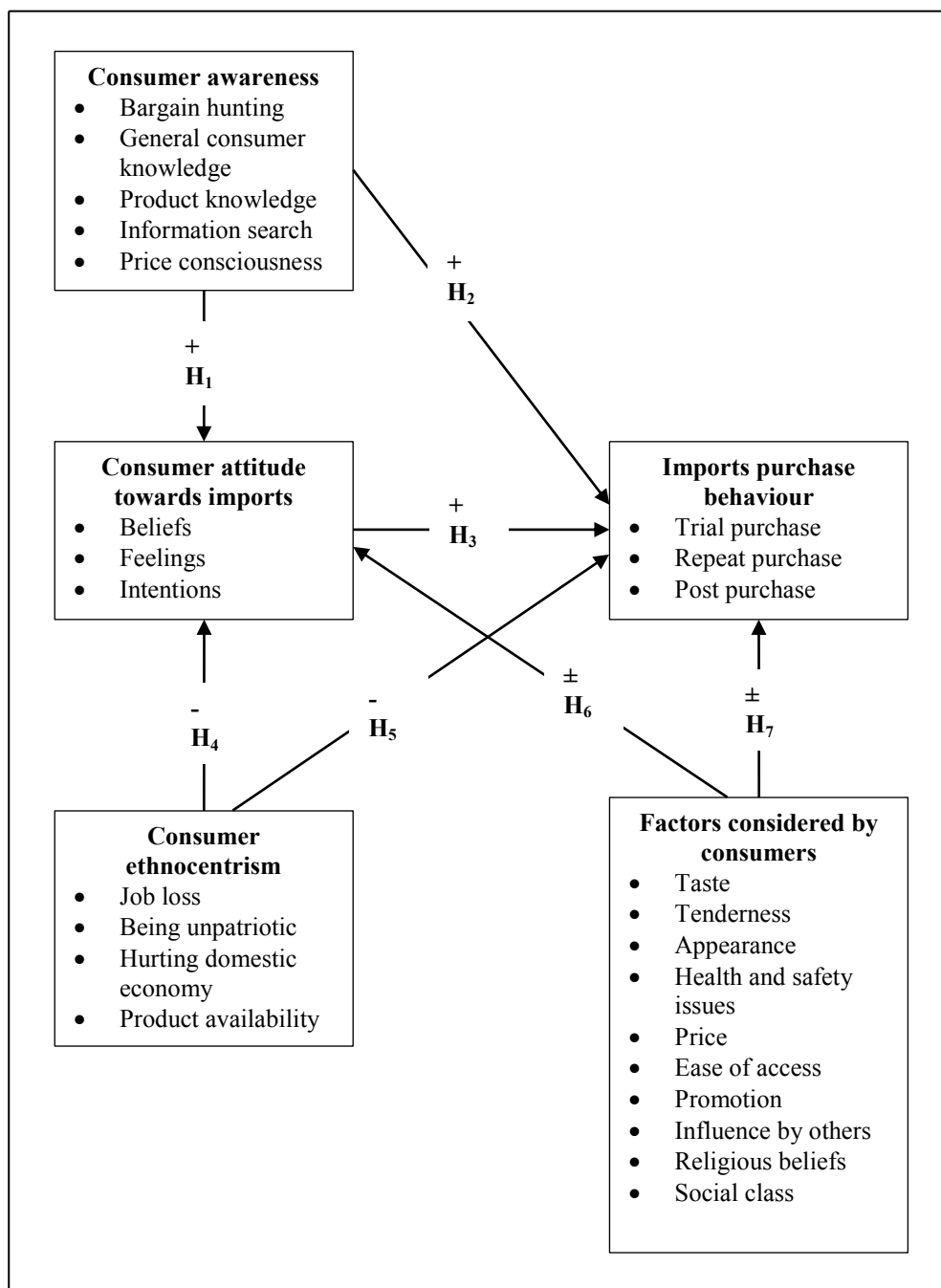


Figure 3.1 Conceptual framework of the study

Source: Derived from Literature Study

Having articulated on the research problem, there is a need to consider the research philosophy adopted for the present study.

3.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

A research philosophy is concerned with how knowledge is developed. It specifies the nature of the knowledge with regards to the research (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009:107). The other term often used to refer to research philosophy is research paradigm (Schiffman & Kanuk,

2004:47). However, the term paradigm may mean different things to different researchers. The adoption of a philosophy for a particular study is based on the assumptions about the manner in which the researcher views the world. These assumptions determine the research strategy and the method considerations. No one research philosophy is better than the other; it depends on the nature of the questions that the researcher is seeking to answer. In reality, it is rare for a particular research question to fit properly into only one philosophy (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:109). The critical issue, therefore, is that the research philosophy be suitable for a particular research problem.

Saunders *et al.* (2009:119) identifies four research philosophies: positivism, realism, interpretivism and pragmatism. A summary of the four research philosophies is given in Table 3.1 based on five dimensions, namely general description, ontology, epistemology, axiology, and data collection techniques. Ontology is a branch of philosophy that deals with the study of the nature of reality or being. It is concerned about the assumptions that people make about the way in which the world works. Ontology comprises two aspects, namely objectivism and subjectivism. Objectivism is concerned with the existence of social entities independent of social actors. Subjectivism is concerned with an understanding of the meanings attached to social phenomena by individuals (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:597; Bryman, 2008:18). Subjectivism is often associated with the term constructionism/constructivism which suggests that reality is socially constructed. Various interpretations are placed by such social actors as customers on situations that they find themselves in (Saunders, 2009:111). Epistemology is the branch of philosophy that describes the nature of knowledge and what determines acceptable knowledge in a discipline (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:587; Bryman, 2008:13). Saunders *et al.* (2009:587) refer to axiology as a branch of philosophy that studies judgments about the role of values.

Table 3.1 Comparison of four research philosophies in management research

	POSITIVISM	REALISM	INTERPRETIVISM	PRAGMATISM
General description	It is a form of epistemology. Its tenets promote that natural science methods must be applied to the study of social reality and beyond	It is a form of epistemology similar to positivism. It also promotes that, to create knowledge, scientific approaches or methods should be used. The existence of objects takes place independent of the knowledge of their existence—there is a reality that is separate from our descriptions of it. Thus, there is reality which exists on its own, not dependent on the mind. This makes it directly opposed to idealism. Idealism explains that the mind and its contents are the only things that exist. This implies that the truth is defined by what our senses show us.	It is a form of epistemology. It usually denotes a contrasting epistemology to positivism (anti-positivism). Its key assumption is that the researcher needs to understand how humans differ as they play their role as social actors.	It is a form of epistemology. It poses the argument that the research question is the fundamental determinant of the choice of research philosophy. Thus it is possible to work within both positivism and interpretivism, depending on the nature of the research question.
Ontology: Objectivism versus subjectivism	Reality or nature of being is external, objective and does not depend on social factors. Researcher does not interfere with the subjects of the research nor is he/she affected by those subjects. Researcher and the resources of the research cannot change the facts about the phenomena being observed	There is objectivity. It argues that reality or the nature of being exists independent of the knowledge of their existence (realist). But reality is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist)	It is socially constructed and subjective, it may change, and it is multiple. Two major anti-positivist traditions are: phenomenology and symbolic interactionism. Phenomenology is concerned with how individuals make sense of the world around them and how in particular should the philosopher bracket out preconceptions in his or her grasp of the world. In symbolic interactionism humans continuously interpret the world around them. As they do so, they interpret the actions of others. These actions of others help individuals to adjust their own meanings and actions.	Reality is external and multiple. The view taken should provide the best answer to a research question.

	POSITIVISM	REALISM	INTERPRETIVISM	PRAGMATISM
Epistemology	The only phenomena that the researcher can observe will lead to the production of credible data. It focuses on causality and generalisations (that are described as law-like). It simplifies phenomena.	When phenomena are observable, credible data and facts are provided. When data are not adequate, it leads to inaccuracies in sensations (direct realism). Direct/empirical or naïve realism is believed to be consistent with the definition of realism. Alternatively, critical realism may result. This involves the creation of sensations that can be misinterpreted. Very often humans are deceived by their senses. Critical realists thus argue that humans do not experience things directly, but mere sensations and images of the things in the real world.	It is subjective i.e. meanings and social phenomena are subjective. The focus is on the details of situation i.e. a description of the reality behind these details. Actions are directed by subjective meanings.	It depends on the research i.e. both observable (objective) and subjective phenomena can provide knowledge that is accepted depending on the research question. Applied research is the major focus. Different perspectives are combined in order to interpret data meaningfully.
Axiology	Values are not allowed to interfere with data interpretation. Thus the researcher is objective. The researcher is independent of data.	There is some form of bias in the interpretation of data. Hence, research is value laden. The bias is influenced by world views and cultural forces.	It is highly subjective because it is value-bound. It is difficult to separate the researcher from the research; they are part and parcel. Everyday social roles are interpreted based on meanings given to these roles. Interpretation of others' social roles is done based on our own set of meanings.	It is both objective and subjective because values also influence the interpretation of data.
Data collection methods most often used	They are structured, quantitative, but can be qualitative. Large samples are typical. Research strategy makes use of existing theory to develop hypotheses that are tested, leading to further theory which may also be tested by further research.	Methods chosen must be suitable for the subject matter under consideration. It can be quantitative or qualitative.	Small samples, in-depth investigations and qualitative methods are typical.	It proposes the best possible approach depending on what is being researched. The approach is practical and thus may combine different methods (quantitative and qualitative methods).

Source: Adapted from Saunders *et al.* (2009:109-119; Bryman, 2008:13-15)

Among the four research philosophies identified by Saunders *et al.* (2009:119), pragmatism has been adopted for the present study. The choice of the pragmatic approach has been largely informed by the recommendations of Saunders *et al.* (2009:109) and Bryman (2008:13). They emphasise that pragmatism is practical and has a balanced view. Thus in the present study, the instrument used for data collection is structured and quantitative in nature in order to maintain objectivity, and yet there was a need for the researcher to understand the factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. Hence the instrument is also qualitative i.e. contains open ended questions. This conforms to the key feature of pragmatism that the research question determines the most the research philosophy. More so, pragmatism allows the researcher to interact with the respondents, i.e. the researcher may encourage the respondents to answer the questions without necessarily influencing their responses. Also important is that pragmatism is instinctively appealing mainly because it allows the researcher to study only issues that are of interest and of value to him/her. It also enables the researcher to study the phenomena in different ways in which the researcher deems appropriate. Pragmatism also permits the use of research results in various ways in order to have a better understanding of the phenomena (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:109). Finally, pragmatism emphasises practical applied research. In this regard, it integrates different perspectives so as to improve data interpretation. Therefore, mixed or multiple methods—a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods—of data collection can be adopted (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:109; Bryman, 2008:13). The choice of the research strategy is explained in detail in the next section.

3.4 RESEARCH STRATEGY: QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Bryman (2008:22) refers to a research strategy as a general orientation that determines how the research is to be conducted. The research approach is usually informed by the nature of the research problem. Three types of research strategies as identified by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:27) and Bryman (2008:21) are quantitative, qualitative and mixed-methods. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:27), a mixed-methods approach is a combination of quantitative and qualitative research approaches. Bryman (2008:607) noted that mixed methods approaches comprise triangulation, facilitation and complementarity. In the present study, the facilitation approach was adopted. Facilitation is “a form of mixed methods approach that arises when one strategy is employed in order to aid research using the other strategy” (Bryman, 2008:607). Therefore, the quantitative approach was adopted as the main strategy being facilitated by the qualitative approach.

This study subscribes to the research strategy recommendations on similar studies by Lewis and Soureli (2006:20) and Mostert (2002:279) who adopted a mixed-methods approach. These researchers consider the mixed-method approach as the most suitable in studies of this nature.

To a greater extent, there was a need to measure the relationship between variables and to test hypotheses in this study. This was done through statistical (quantitative) analysis. To a lesser extent, there was also a need to explore the factors considered and to understand the reasons why consumers consider those factors when purchasing imported poultry products. This was done through a qualitative approach. The qualitative dimension was also inevitable as it allowed for speculative discussion in the discussion chapter. In support of this, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:27) maintain that quantitative and qualitative approaches are complementary in nature. Quantitative research makes prediction possible while qualitative research provides a better understanding of the phenomena. Thus a combination of quantitative and qualitative research results a richer and more robust profile of consumer behaviour than either research approach used alone. Combined findings make it possible for marketers to design more meaningful and effective marketing strategies (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:28).

3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

Zikmund and Babin (2007:75) describe a research design as a general plan that guides how the research is to be conducted. According to Malhotra and Peterson (2006:71) a research design provides a framework that directs the procedures to be followed when collecting data relevant for a particular research. In other words, a research design is the overall plan or framework in which the study is conducted. It is a logical structure of enquiry (De Vaus, 2001:9). Bryman (2008:31) noted that the choice of research design is largely influenced by the research problem.

Bryman (2008:35) identifies five major types of research designs, namely experimental, cross-sectional (survey), longitudinal, case study and comparative research designs. Considering the nature of the research problem already outlined in this chapter, the present study adopted the cross-sectional survey design. This is because, in studies of this nature, the cross-sectional design has been widely adopted by various researchers (Jusoh & Ling, 2012:225; Richardson Jr., 2012:15; Zakersalehi & Zakersalehi, 2012:2; Durukan & Bozaci, 2011:215; Kumar & Ali, 2011:5; Mangnale *et al.*, 2011:245; Pentz, 2011:146; Brewer & Rojas, 2008:4; Krystallis, Chryssochoidis & Scholderer, 2007:57; Lewis & Soureli, 2006:21; Kimenju, De Groote, Karugia, Mbogoh & Poland, 2005:1067; Chiou, 2004:689; Tsang, Ho & Liang, 2004:69; Juric & Worsely, 1998:435) due to a number of factors. It permits researchers to employ large samples and investigate far more than two cases because the researchers will be interested in variation. This variation can be in respect of people, families, organisations, and so forth. More so, the cross-sectional survey design involves measuring a phenomenon at a point in time; hence it is just like a picture that tells the story as it takes place at a specific time. In the present study, the respondents were asked to respond to the questions at a point in time. As Pentz (2011:146) noted, a cross-sectional survey design permits the use of structured questions and a variety of

questions as shown in the research instrument (see Appendix 1). When using the cross-sectional survey design, it is also possible to examine relationships only between variables because there is no time ordering to the variables since the data on them are collected more or less simultaneously (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:44). This conforms to the nature of the data collected for this research which are mainly quantitative. Moreover, the cross-sectional design is cost-effective and time-conscious; again making it possible to complete this research project within the prescribed time.

3.6 SAMPLING

Sampling is the process of surveying on a part of the population to make inferences about the population (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2007:760). It involves using part or a portion of the population so that conclusions can be drawn from the whole population. Its purpose is estimate the true picture of a particular population. A sample is, therefore, a subset or some part of a population. Saunders *et al.* (2009:212) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:378) provide the rationale behind sampling as accurate and reliable results, destruction of test units as well as pragmatic reasons. Pragmatic reasons are concerned with the fact that marketing research may cost a lot of money and may take a long time to accomplish and some cases or elements of the population may not be accessible. These constraints give rise to the need for sampling. In this case, sampling reduces costs, reduces manpower requirements, and saves time. In some cases, sampling gives more accurate and reliable results than censuses. This is because errors may increase in a census due to large volumes of work involved. It is easier to supervise a smaller group working in a sample than a larger group working on the whole population. In most cases, researches in quality control require to destroy items or cases (destruction of test units) after testing. The same applies to customers if there is a finite population and every customer in the population takes part in the research and cannot be replaced, there would be no prospects to contact after the research.

Once the decision to make use of sampling has been made, there is a need to define the target population. Properly defining the population ensures that proper sources from which data are to be collected can be identified. The total number of people who stay in Harare and Bulawayo was reported as 1,468,767 and 655,675 respectively (ZIMSTAT, 2012a:9). As recommended by Brewer and Rojas (2008:4), the target population was made up of the adult (18 years and above) poultry consumers in Harare and Bulawayo, i.e. consumers who could make own decisions when purchasing poultry products. However, the number of people who consume poultry products could not be established because there were no poultry consumer lists in Harare and Bulawayo. To arrive at the sample size, representativeness of the population, time constraints and cost were considered following the recommendations of Saunders *et al.*

(2009:218), Aaker *et al.* (2007:410) and Kothari (2004:56). In addition to these factors, the sample size decision was informed by several international studies in the field of consumer behaviour.

In their study to investigate consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards foreign beer brands in the Czech Republic (Zlin Region), Bandara and Miloslava (2012:8) used a sample of 155 adult consumers based on convenient sampling. Jusoh *et al.* (2012:225) investigated the factors influencing consumer' attitudes toward e-commerce purchases through online shopping in Malaysia. Faced with the unavailability of the list of online shoppers, they used a sample of 100 respondents based on convenient sampling. To analyse consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards domestic and foreign products in South Africa, Pentz (2011:156) considered consumers older than 18 years with an average income of R5,000. He argued that these consumers are adults who are self-earning and can make decisions to purchase products on their own. Shafiq, Raza and Zia-ur-Rehman (2011:10579) analysed the factors affecting customers' purchase intention, specifically looking at the mediating role of perceived value, in Pakistan. They used a sample of 220 consumers who were self-earning and self-spending. In a study to investigate consumer-perceived quality in 'traditional' food chains in Greece, Krystallis *et al.* (2007:57) only considered those participants who had been food shoppers in the households alone or shared the responsibility with their partners. They used a sample of 268 consumers. Chiou (2004:689) investigated the antecedents of consumers' loyalty toward Internet service providers in Taiwan and used a sample of 209 consumers. In measuring consumer awareness in Zimbabwe, Rousseau and Venter (1995:20) considered only Harare and Bulawayo, the two major cities, and used a sample size of 256. In several other similar studies, the sample size varied between 100 and 650, for example, Zakersalehi and Zakersalehi (2012:2) used a sample of 134 respondents, Durukan and Bozaci (2011:215) used a sample of 350 consumers, Kumar and Ali (2011:5) used a sample of 200 respondents, Brewer and Rojas (2008:4) used 450 consumers, and Kimenju *et al.* (2005:1067) used 604 participants.

Considering all the determinants of the sample size already highlighted in Saunders *et al.* (2009:218), Aaker *et al.* (2007:410) and Kothari (2004:56), and gaining insight from these international studies that are related to the present study, a sample size of 400 respondents was used, i.e. 200 respondents were drawn from Harare and 200 from Bulawayo. This was also based on convenience since the list of poultry shoppers was not available in Zimbabwe (Bandara & Miloslava, 2012:8; Jusoh & Ling, 2012:225). The sample size of 400 was also justified following the recommendations in Field (2005:633) that a minimum sample size of 200 is required to permit such statistical analyses as factor extraction which was done in this study. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) was performed and the sample was found to be statistically significant for each of the construct under investigation in the study

(see Chapter Four). Only adult (18 years and above) consumers were considered for the sample because these respondents could make own purchase decisions (Bandara & Miloslava, 2012:8; Pentz, 2011:156; Shafiq *et al.*, 2011:10579). Having determined the sample size, there was a need to identify the suitable sampling method for the present study.

A sampling method refers to the way the sample elements are to be selected. According to Saunders *et al.* (2009:213) and Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin (2010:395), the main sampling plans may be grouped into two categories: probability techniques (simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling and multistage area sampling) and non-probability techniques (convenience, judgment/purposive, quota and snowball techniques). The appropriateness of a sample design is largely influenced by the degree of accuracy, the availability of resources, time and the advance knowledge of the population under consideration (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:393).

In the present study, a convenience sampling method was adopted. This follows the recommendations from similar studies (Bandara & Miloslava, 2012:8; Jusoh *et al.*, 2012:225) that convenience sampling can be used where there is no population list. In support of this sampling technique Zikmund *et al.* (2010:400), Zikmund and Babin (2007:395) and Kothari (2004:65) point out that the convenience sampling technique is extensively used because of its very low costs. However, it is noted that convenience sampling may be unrepresentative of the population (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:400; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:395; Kothari, 2004:65). To ensure a fair representation of the population, the respondents were intercepted in major supermarkets as they purchased the poultry products. This ensured that only those consumers who purchase or have at least purchased poultry products were considered. This follows the recommendations from other studies of this nature (Zakersalehi & Zakersalehi, 2012:2; Krystallis *et al.*, 2007:57; Kimenju *et al.*, 2005:1067). In order to make inference to the wider population, a large sample size (400 consumers) was used. In this regard, Wilson (2010:202) recommends that the sample size should consist of at least 30 cases so as to make inferences to the wider population.

3.7 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Data collection entails the process of collecting or gathering information (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:78). There are many methods that can be used in data collection. This also results in a wide range of classification of data collection methods. The three major classifications of data collection methods that can be identified from literature are quantitative and qualitative methods, primary and secondary methods, and obtrusive and unobtrusive methods (Aaker *et al.*, 2007:109-274; Hair Jr., *et al.*, 2008:60-120; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:78). The methods of data

collection used in the present study can be classified as quantitative, qualitative, primary, secondary and obtrusive.

Quantitative and qualitative data collection methods have already been explained under the section of research strategy. Zikmund and Babin (2007:78) observe that when the researcher interacts with respondent or participant during the data collection process, the methods used in data collection are said to be obtrusive. The interaction may involve, for example, filling out the questionnaire or a mere interaction between the researcher (interviewer) and the respondent. In this study, the researcher interacted with the respondents in that he recorded their responses using the structured interview guide (interviewer administered questionnaire). This will be discussed in detail later in this section.

Secondary sources were used in the form of the literature that made the background information to this research. A literature review was conducted in the previous chapter. The knowledge gap that this research sought to address was identified from the literature review. This formed the basis of the research problem, objectives, conceptual model and hypotheses already identified in this chapter. The use of secondary data has been precipitated due to a number of reasons. Secondary sources are used as valuable data sources where new ideas can be explored later through primary research. This is because research projects often begin with secondary data. They are usually historical and ready (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:166). By examining available secondary data before collecting primary data, the researcher was able to define the problem. More so, the researcher managed to formulate research hypotheses about its solution. An examination of the methods and techniques that are employed by researchers to conduct similar research studies helped in planning the present research especially in methodological issues. More so, secondary sources of data—mainly in the form of literature—acted as a reference base against which to validate the research findings (Kumar, 2000:89).

Empirical findings of this study were based on primary research. After taking into account the nature of the objectives and questions, the conceptual framework and hypotheses already presented in this chapter; and also having considered the attributes of various primary sources of data (observations, interviews and questionnaires) as identified by Saunders *et al.* (2009:288), an interviewer-administered questionnaire (structured interview guide) was identified as the most suitable instrument because it has been widely adopted in similar studies (Kumar & Ali, 2011:5; Krystallis *et al.*, 2007:57; Kimenju *et al.*, 2005:1067; Rousseau & Venter, 1995:20). Similarly, Saunders *et al.* (2009:364) agrees that a structured interview guide can be used for any population that is selected in the street, by name or organisation. They also acknowledge that the response rate of a structured interview guide is high; specifying that 50 to 70% response rate is reasonable. Despite it being relatively expensive, the interviewer administered

questionnaire has relatively high response rate (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:364). The confidence that the right person will respond is also high. The interviewer-administered questionnaire can also be administered to any population, including those respondents with low literacy. More so, some questions were structured and required the interviewer to clarify issues to the respondents when they faced problems. Lastly, the choice of the interviewer administered questionnaire enhanced participation of the respondents. The respondents were also guided through the questionnaire; and their queries were also attended to (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:320-364).

To minimise costs, the mall intercept survey method was used to administer the questionnaire. The method involved intercepting and interviewing consumers when they come for shopping in supermarkets or shopping malls in Harare and Bulawayo. The consumers were intercepted and interviewed in major shopping malls when purchasing poultry products. Their responses were recorded. One striking feature of the mall intercept technique is that there are plenty of respondents; thus interviewers don't travel and this lowers costs (Aaker *et al.*, 2007:247). The use of the mall intercept is not new in studies of this nature. It has been successfully adopted in similar studies by other researchers (Zakersalehi & Zakersalehi, 2012:2; Krystallis *et al.*, 2007:57; Kimenju *et al.*, 2005:1067). As already indicated, the selection of the participants was done conveniently, again, thus lowering costs. Supermarkets from which the respondents were targeted were selected at random at different times of the day to try to make the sample representative.

The researcher was in charge of the data collection process. However, one research assistant was employed to conduct the interviews and to assist in clerical activities. The research assistant was chosen on the basis of having marketing and research background as well as fluency in English, Shona and Ndebele. The basic language in the questionnaire was English. However, where the participants had problems in understanding English, the interviewer would translate the questions into vernacular (Shona and Ndebele). Rousseau and Venter (1995:20)'s study has been insightful in this regard. The interviewer would record the answers from the respondents and this minimised the time it took to interview the respondent.

3.8 MEASUREMENT AND SCALES

Measurement refers to the assignment of numbers to objects. The numbers serve the purpose of quantifying the attributes (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:346). The assignment of numbers is done following certain rules (Aaker *et al.*, 2007:758). According to Zikmund and Babin (2007:297), the researcher has to base his/her decision of which concepts to measure on corresponding research questions and hypotheses in a particular research. Before deciding on how to measure something, the researcher must know what to measure. This problem definition process should clearly indicate the study concepts to be measured (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:298). Issues that

are commonly addressed in the study of measurement include concepts, operationalisation, variables, constructs and types of scales.

A concept can be defined as an idea that is often generalised to represent something. Some concepts, for example, age, gender and level of education are relatively concrete properties; they are easily measured and defined. By contrast, such concepts as customer satisfaction, loyalty, channel power, personality, value trust, corporate culture, etc., are more difficult to define and to measure (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:298). According to Zikmund & Babin (2007:299), to measure concepts researchers use a process known as operationalisation. This involves identifying scales that can describe the changes in the concept. Scales provide correspondence rules that indicate that a value on a scale depicts the actual value of a concept. A detailed explanation of scales will be given later in this section (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:299).

A variable represents an attribute on which data have been collected (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:603). Variables capture different concept values. In other words, scales capture variance in concepts and, in that way, they also provide the research's variables. In practice, when the research is underway, the difference between a variable and a concept is negligible (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:299). In some cases a single variable may not be able to capture a concept alone. This requires that multiple variables be employed to measure a concept. Multiple variables also better explain a concept than a single variable (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:300). A construct, therefore, refers to "concepts that are measured with multiple variables". Thus a construct is an unobservable concept which can only be measured by a multiple related variables (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:50). For example, when measuring customer orientation of a sales person, a number of variables may be used and these may be captured on a scale of 1-5 (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:300).

Zikmund and Babin (2007:300) identify four types or levels of scale measurement, namely nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio level scales. A nominal scale refers to a scale or question structures that ask the respondent to provide only a descriptor as the response. In this case, the response does not contain any level of intensity (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:347). Nominal scales are a basic form of measurement. A value is assigned to an object so that identification or classification can be done. A nominal scale is a descriptive tool because it does not represent quantities. Another striking feature of the nominal scale is that it is arbitrary because each label on the scale can be assigned to any of the categories without error problems (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:301).

With ordinal scales, there is both assignment and order in the properties of the scale. The respondent is asked to rate the differences in the magnitude based on the responses to a question (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:349). Apart from having nominal properties, it also allows things to be

arranged in a particular order that explain magnitude of the concept. An ordinal scale can also be referred to as a ranking scale because participants can be asked to rank things based on preference, for example, from most preferred to least preferred or vice versa (Zikmund & Babin, 2008:302). In this case, ordinal scales are rather arbitrary just like a nominal scale. This is because a rank of 1-5 representing 'least preferred' to 'most preferred' can be reversed to represent most preferred to least preferred without loss of meaning. In marketing, typical ordinal scales ask respondents to rate phenomena using, for example, excellent-good-fair-poor scale. Even though the researchers know that excellent is higher than good, they do not know by how much (Zikmund & Babin, 2008:302).

Hair Jr. *et al.* (2008:345) describe an interval scale as an improvement from the ordinal scale by introducing the distance property. All scale responses have a recognised absolute difference between each of the other scale points or responses. Apart from having both nominal and ordinal properties, interval scales can explain differences in a concept (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:303). For example, assigning marks using a numbering system ranging from 1-50 shows that a student with a mark of 30 outperformed a student with a mark of 10; the scale also shows by how much the student with a mark of 30 outperformed the one with 10.

Hair Jr. *et al.* (2008:351) describe a ratio scale as improved interval scale in that it allows responses to be compared between the respondents. In other words, the ability to represent absolute quantities is the feature of a ratio scale that sets it apart from an interval scale. As such the ratio scale is often referred to as the highest form of measurement i.e. relative meaning is determined by an interval scale while absolute meaning is determined by a ratio scale. As such, a ratio scale is said to provide iconic measurement. The fundamental difference between a ratio scale and an interval scale is the absolute zero which has a meaning in ratio scales in that it represents absence of some concept. Assigning prices to products (objects) is an example of a ratio scale (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:303).

There are other types of scales apart from the aforementioned. These include scales to measure attitudes and behaviours, and comparative and non-comparative rating scales. Scales used to measure attitudes and behaviours in marketing research include Likert scales, semantic differential scales and behavioural intention scales (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:155).

A Likert scale is a form of ordinal scale. With the Likert scale, respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with statement(s) concerning a particular object (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:155). The original scale had five scale descriptors although the number of alternatives could range from three to five. The Likert scale is very popular among marketing researchers (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:155; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:319).

A semantic differential scale is a bipolar form of ordinal scale. It is designed to measure the attitudes or feelings of an individual with regards to a given object. It is unique in that it uses bipolar adjectives as endpoints of a continuum, for example, good/bad, like/dislike, clean/dirt, modern/old-fashioned, dependable/undependable, competitive/uncompetitive. Labelling is done only on the endpoints of the scale (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:155). Normally, an object is described using a battery of attributes. Each attribute has its own set of bipolar adjectives. These scales usually use either five or seven points. The means of the attributes can be calculated and mapped on a diagram with the various attributes listed to create a perceptual image profile of the object. Comparisons between different brands, products or companies can also be done using perceptual image profiles (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:156; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:321). A variation of the semantic differential scale is called a staple scale.

A staple scale is a form of semantic differential scale that has been modified. There is a symmetry of scale points with a set of plus (+) and minus (-) domains (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:354). The scale therefore modifies the semantic differential scale by asking the respondent to rate how a given adjective (descriptor) is close to describing a given concept in a particular direction (positive or negative) (Aaker *et al.*, 2007:761). The staple scale does not require bipolar adjectives and this is why the scale is said to be unipolar.

A behavioural intention scale is designed to measure how likely people will behave in some way regarding a product or service. It can be described as a special form of rating scale (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:157). Behavioural intention scales are among the prominent scales used in marketing research. They are also easy to construct. With behavioural intention scales, consumers are asked about their likelihood of purchasing a particular product or taking a specified action. Typical examples of a descriptor that can be used include “definitely will, probably will, not sure, probably will not and definitely will not” (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:158).

A non-comparative rating scale is the one with a format that solicits judgment without necessarily referring to another person, object or concept. It is used when the intention of the researcher is to have participants express their feelings or behaviour toward an object without referring to the other objects or one another (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:159).

On the other extreme of the non-comparative rating scale is the comparative rating scale. It requires participants to make judgements that are based on comparisons of people, objects or concepts against one another on a scale. Examples of comparative rating scales include graphic rating scales, rank order scales and constant sum scales (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:159).

A graphic rating scale refers to a scale format that makes use of graphics or pictures. The respondents are given a set of possible questions/responses that correspond with the graphics on

a continuum (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:159). The popular types of descriptors in graphic rating scales include smiling faces, usage or quantity descriptors, and a ladder. The smiling faces can depict a very happy face that varies to a very sad face. With usage descriptors, these can vary from never use to use all the time on a scale of 0 to 100 respectively. The rungs of a ladder can be numbered, for example, from 0 to 10; with 0 indicating the worst and 10 indicating the best (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:159; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:325).

With the rank order scale, respondents are allowed to indicate the order of preference from first to last. It is easy to use provided there are no too many questions. It can be problematic if the respondents' preferred objects or attributes are not listed (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:160).

Hair Jr. *et al.* (2008:160) refers to a constant sum scale as the one that requires the respondent to assign some scores or points, usually with a total of 100, to a set of attributes. This is done based on the relative importance that the respondent attaches to the attributes or features of a particular object.

Hair Jr. *et al.* (2008:155) observe that well designed scales result in better measurement of market place phenomena and thus provide more accurate information to decision makers. They also assert that different scales are useful in different situations. This implies that the use of a particular scale depends on a particular situation i.e. the nature of the research questions in a particular research. Having dealt with measurement and scaling, it is high time that we look at the design of the instrument, the questionnaire in particular.

3.9 DESIGNING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The need for an appropriate questionnaire cannot be overemphasised. Aaker *et al.* (2007:316) observe that a good questionnaire accomplishes the objectives of the research. The design of a questionnaire should be done cognisant of a particular research. As such Hair Jr. *et al.* (2008:170) and Aaker *et al.* (2007:316) propose certain steps that should be followed so as to come up with a good questionnaire. The five steps to be followed when designing the questionnaire are as follows: - planning what to measure; formulating questions that collect research data; deciding on the order and wording of questions as well as the layout of the questionnaire; pre-testing the questionnaire; and making corrections.

Although the presentation of the development of the questionnaire for this research did not follow these stages *per se*, the steps have been very useful in guiding the researcher in coming up with an appropriate questionnaire for this study.

The questionnaire intended to collect data relevant to this research. It is imperative for researchers to consult literature in order to make it easier to conceptualise constructs and to

specify domains (Churchill Jr., 1979:67). Therefore, based on literature already reviewed, and the research questions, conceptual model, and hypotheses already presented in this chapter, 15 concepts were identified as pertinent to the design of the questionnaire. These are gender, age, marital status, city where the respondent stays, residential area, education, income, ethnic grouping, number of household members, religion, consumer awareness, consumer attitude, purchase behaviour, consumer ethnocentrism, and factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products.

The formulation of questions on the questionnaire was based on the need to measure these concepts/constructs (see Appendix 1). A thorough literature study plus logic guided the development of the questionnaire. The instrument was divided into major sections that cover the main themes of the research, namely consumer awareness, consumer attitudes, consumer purchase behaviour, consumer ethnocentrism, factors influencing purchasing behaviour, and socio-demographics in that particular order. Less sensitive questions were placed at the beginning of the instrument and more sensitive questions (e.g. questions on demographic information) were placed at the end. It was believed that this would increase the success rate of data collection because by the time respondents answered sensitive questions, they would have developed some trust and confidence in the research instrument (Aaker *et al.*, 2007:330).

To measure consumer awareness, the consumer awareness scale developed and applied by Rousseau and Venter (1995; 1996) in Zimbabwe and South Africa respectively was used. According to Rousseau and Venter (1995:18), consumer awareness can be measured based on five distinguishable characteristics, namely “bargain hunting, general consumer knowledge, product knowledge, information search and price consciousness” (see Appendix 3). Each of these five characteristics can be measured using five variables/items. Thus the consumer awareness scale had 25 items. Variables or items A1-A5 measured bargain hunting; A6-A10 measured general consumer knowledge; A11-A15 measured product knowledge; A16-A20 measured information search; and A21-25 measured price consciousness (see Table 3.2).

Slight modifications of the original scale were done in order to make it applicable to the environment in Zimbabwe (see Table 3.2). On the 1st item on the scale (A1) the word ‘newspaper’ was replaced with ‘media’; on the second item on the scale (A2) the word ‘radio’ was replaced with the phrase ‘the other media’; on the 8th item on the scale (A8) the phrase ‘online and electronic sources’ was added at the end of the statement; and on the 20th item on the scale (A20) the phrase ‘read newspaper advertisements’ was replaced with ‘consider advertisements’. These modifications enabled the scale to be applicable in the prevailing Zimbabwean environment.

A 7 point ordinal Likert scale was used. The structured questions in the scale enabled the researcher to collect quantitative data; it was also easy to collect data because responses were recorded based on each respondent's answers. Table 3.2 shows the consumer awareness scale with the number of variables and associated codes for the variables/items.

Table 3.2 Scale to measure consumer awareness

<i>Question:</i> Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following suggestions.	Variable number	Code
I check the newspaper each week for bargains.	A1	AWNS1
When I see a 'special' advertised on TV or radio I always follow it up.	A2	AWNS2
I always shop at more than one store to compare prices and take advantage of the lowest priced item.	A3	AWNS3
I like searching for bargains at seasonal sales auctions.	A4	AWNS4
I always try to obtain the best deal.	A5	AWNS5
Consumers in Zimbabwe are not aware of their legitimate rights when it comes to doing business or engage in shopping.	A6	AWNS6
More attention should be paid to consumer awareness programmes in school education.	A7	AWNS7
Too few consumers in Zimbabwe read consumer articles in newspapers and magazines.	A8	AWNS8
Zimbabwe consumers are not aware of the laws available to protect their consumer rights.	A9	AWNS9
Consumer organisations in Zimbabwe deserve better support from consumers.	A10	AWNS10
Checking expiring dates on perishable food items is essential for ensuring fresh produce.	A11	AWNS11
I always look for a guarantee on expensive products before deciding on the purchase.	A12	AWNS12
It is important to share product information with friends and relatives.	A13	AWNS13
Product knowledge is one's best guardian against exploitation.	A14	AWNS14
I keep a watch on the media for new products and services that may be useful to me.	A15	AWNS15
I always consult brochures and pamphlets for information before buying durable goods.	A16	AWNS16
Seeking information from relatives prior to make a final choice is always a good idea.	A17	AWNS17
Sales staff can be an important source of product information.	A18	AWNS18
Before purchasing a particular product I usually compare various brands to choose the best.	A19	AWNS19
I usually read newspaper advertisements for obtaining product information prior to purchase.	A20	AWNS20
Choosing 'no-name brands' is a good way to beat inflation.	A21	AWNS21
Price is the most important factor to me in choosing an item.	A22	AWNS22
When a product is offered at a discount price I am more tempted to buy it.	A23	AWNS23
Before deciding where to go shopping, I usually try to find out whether any specials are being offered.	A24	AWNS24
I always compare prices of similar products on display in the store.	A25	AWNS25

Source: Adapted from Rousseau and Venter (1995:21)

Evidence from Bruner II, Hensel and James (2005:4-139) suggest that there are as many scales to measure consumer attitudes as there are scholars. As such, there is no a universally accepted scale to measure consumer attitudes. Consequently, a new scale was developed to measure the three components of attitudes specified in the tri-component attitude model. The model specifies

the three components of attitudes, namely beliefs, feelings and intentions to buy (Assael, 2004:216; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:256; Solomon, 2002:200). Several scales and insights from various authors (Northcutt, 2009; Brewer & Rojas, 2008:5; Bruner II *et al.*, 2005:4-139; Assael, 2004:218; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:259; Groom, 1990:205) were considered in order to come up with a holistic scale that measured the three components of consumer attitude. A new 15 item/variable scale was developed i.e. each of the three components had 5 items/variables (see Table 3.3). A 7 point ordinal Likert scale was used to measure the three components i.e. items B1-B5 measured consumer beliefs, items B6-B10 measured consumer feelings, and items B11-B15 measured consumer intentions).

Marketing research enables marketers to develop a vocabulary of attributes and benefits of a product. Using this vocabulary, marketing researchers can then construct a questionnaire used in a consumer survey (Assael, 2004:217). In the present study, vocabulary used to develop the scale items to measure consumer beliefs was based on the work of Northcutt (2009), Brewer and Rojas (2008:5), Bruner II *et al.* (2005:88; 131), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:257) and Groom (1990:205) (see Figure 2.7, Appendix 4, Appendix 5, Appendix 6, Appendix 7 and Appendix 8). Measurement of consumer feelings about imported poultry products was based on the work of Bruner II *et al.* (2005:4; 44; 45; 47; 72; 90) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:258) (see Appendix 9, Appendix 10, Appendix 11, Appendix 12, Appendix 13, Appendix 14 and Appendix 15). To measure consumer intentions to purchase imported poultry products, the recommendations of Bruner II *et al.* (2005:125; 127) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:259) were followed (see Appendix 16, Appendix 17 and Appendix 18).

All questions in the scale were structured. This enabled the researcher to collect quantitative data. It was also easy to collect data using this scale because responses were recorded based on each respondent's answers. Table 3.3 shows the scale used to measure consumer attitudes with the number of variables and associated codes for the variables/items.

Table 3.3 Scale to measure consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products

<i>Question</i>	Variable number	Code
Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following suggestions.		
Imported poultry products taste good.	B1	ATTI1
Imported poultry products are healthy food.	B2	ATTI2
Imported poultry products have good quality.	B3	ATTI3
Imported poultry products are safe to consume.	B4	ATTI4
Imported poultry products provide value for money.	B5	ATTI5
Imported poultry products are good.	B6	ATTI6
Imported poultry products are appealing.	B7	ATTI7
Imported poultry products are excellent.	B8	ATTI8
Imported poultry products are favourable.	B9	ATTI9
Imported poultry products are preferred most	B10	ATTI10
I will definitely buy poultry imports the next time I buy poultry products.	B11	ATTI11
I will spend more on imported poultry products the next time I buy poultry products.	B12	ATTI12
I will recommend others to buy imported poultry products.	B13	ATTI13
I would not mind to buy imported poultry products next time.	B14	ATTI14
I intend to buy imported poultry products when I make the next purchase.	B15	ATTI15

Source: Adapted from Northcutt (2009); Brewer and Rojas (2008:5), Assael (2004:218); Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:258-9); McCarthy *et al.* (2004:20); Maltin *et al.* (2003:337); Solomon (2002:200); Groom (1990:205).

The scale items to measure trial purchase behaviour, repeat purchase behaviour and post-purchase behaviour were based on the work of Bruner II *et al.* (2005:125; 127), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554) and Kotler and Armstrong (2001:197) (see Appendix 16, Appendix 17 and Figure 2.5). Variables C1-C5 measured the trial purchase; C6-C10 measured repeat purchase; and C11-C15 measured post purchase behaviour.

A 7 point ordinal Likert scale was used because of its simplicity (see Table 3.4). The scale had 15 variables/items. The structured nature of the questions enabled the researcher to collect quantitative data. Collecting data using this scale was also easy because responses were recorded based on the respondents' answers. Table 3.4 shows the scale used to measure consumer purchase behaviour with the number of variables and associated codes for the variables/items.

Table 3.4 Scale to measure imports purchase behaviour

<i>Question:</i> Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following suggestions.	Variable number	Code
I bought imported poultry products for the first time.	C1	BHVR1
I bought small quantities of imported poultry products as a trial.	C2	BHVR2
I have evaluated imported poultry products through consuming them for the first time.	C3	BHVR3
I have been encouraged to try imported poultry products and I did.	C4	BHVR4
I have tried new imported poultry products through promotions.	C5	BHVR5
I approve imported poultry products.	C6	BHVR6
I am willing to buy imported poultry products again.	C7	BHVR7
I always buy imported poultry products.	C8	BHVR8
I often buy imported poultry products in larger quantities.	C9	BHVR9
I repeatedly spend more on imported poultry products than local products.	C10	BHVR10
I am satisfied with imported poultry products.	C11	BHVR11
I no longer have doubts in purchasing imported poultry products.	C12	BHVR12
Consuming imported poultry products is a rational and a wise decision.	C13	BHVR13
I seek promotions that support my choice for imported poultry products compared to local competitive brands.	C14	BHVR14
I always try to persuade others also to buy imported poultry products.	C15	BHVR15

Source: Adapted from Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:569); Kotler and Armstrong (2001:197)

A CETSCALE (consumer ethnocentric tendencies scale) originally developed and tested by Shimp and Sharma (1987) in USA was adopted with slight modifications (see Appendix 2). The CETSCALE is a widely accepted measure of consumer ethnocentrism in marketing research. The word ‘American’ was replaced with the word ‘Zimbabwean’ and the name of the product was ‘imported poultry product or poultry imports’. These modifications enabled the scale to be applicable to Zimbabwe specifically for this research.

The CETSCALE had 17 items, i.e. 17 questions/variables (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). A 7 point ordinal Likert scale was used. These structured questions in this scale enabled the researcher to collect quantitative data. It was also easy to collect data because responses were recorded based on each respondent’s answers. Table 3.5 shows a CETSCALE with the number of variables and associated codes for variables/items.

Table 3.5 Scale to measure consumer ethnocentric tendencies

Question: Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following suggestions.	Variable Number	Code
Zimbabwean people should always buy Zimbabwean-made poultry products instead of imports.	D1	ETHN1
Only those poultry products that are unavailable in Zimbabwe should be imported.	D2	ETHN2
Buy Zimbabwean-produced poultry products; keep Zimbabwe working.	D3	ETHN3
Zimbabwean poultry products first, last and foremost.	D4	ETHN4
Purchasing imported poultry products is un-Zimbabwean.	D5	ETHN5
It is not right to purchase imported poultry products because it puts Zimbabweans out of jobs.	D6	ETHN6
A real Zimbabwean should always buy Zimbabwean-produced poultry products.	D7	ETHN7
We should purchase poultry products made in Zimbabwe instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	D8	ETHN8
It is always best to purchase Zimbabwean poultry products.	D9	ETHN9
There should be very little trading or purchasing of poultry products from other countries unless out of necessity.	D10	ETHN10
Zimbabweans should not buy imported poultry products because this hurts Zimbabwean business and causes unemployment.	D11	ETHN11
Curbs should be put on all imported poultry products.	D12	ETHN12
It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Zimbabwean poultry products.	D13	ETHN13
Foreigners should not be allowed to put their poultry products on our markets.	D14	ETHN14
Imported poultry products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Zimbabwe.	D15	ETHN15
We should buy from foreign countries only those poultry products that we cannot obtain within our country.	D16	ETHN16
Zimbabwean consumers who purchase poultry products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Zimbabweans out of work.	D17	ETHN17

Source: Adapted from Shimp and Sharma (1987:282)

Data on factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products were collected using both structured (quantitative) questions and open ended (qualitative) questions. Structured questions on the factors that consumers consider when buying imported poultry products were based on the factors identified by several authors (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:154; Northcutt, 2009; Brewer & Rojas, 2008:5; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:75; McCarthy *et al.*, 2004:20; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:554; Fletcher, 2002:131; Groom, 1990:205), namely taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, ease of access, promotions, influence by others, cultural/religious factors and social status (see Figure 2.5 and Figure 2.7).

A 7 point ordinal Likert scale was used for the structured questions. These structured questions enabled the researcher to collect quantitative data. It was also easy to collect data because responses were recorded based on each respondent's answers. Table 3.6 shows items/questions used to identify the factors considered by consumers when deciding to purchase imported poultry products—these factors were prescribed to the consumers based on literature. The prescribed factors and their variable numbers were taste (F1), tenderness (F2), appearance (F3), health and safety issues (F4), price (F5), ease of access (F6), promotions (F7), influence by

others (F8), religious factors (F9) and social status (F10). The letter 'E' was not used to denote the alphanumeric numbering of the variables because it is usually associated with the error code.

Table 3.6 Scale to identify factors considered by consumers

Please indicate your responses to the suggestion that you consider the following factors when purchasing imported poultry products.	Variable number	Code
Taste	F1	Consider 1
Tenderness	F2	Consider 2
Appearance	F3	Consider 3
Health and safety issues	F4	Consider 4
Price	F5	Consider 5
Ease of access/availability	F6	Consider 6
Motivated by promotions	F7	Consider 7
Influence from family members, friends and workmates	F8	Consider 8
Religious beliefs	F9	Consider 9
Social class or status	F10	Consider 10

Source: Adapted from Kotler and Armstrong (2010:154); Northcutt (2009); Blackwell *et al.* (2006:75); McCarthy *et al.* (2004:20); Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554); Fletcher (2002:131); Groom (1990:205)

Qualitative data were also collected using open ended questions. Respondents were asked to describe the factors that they consider when purchasing imported poultry products, and also to explain why they think such factors are important. This was done to ensure that the respondents could openly express their views; the intention being to facilitate results from the structured ten-item scale. As already indicated in this chapter under research strategy, quantitative and qualitative approaches are complementary in nature. The prediction made possible by quantitative research and the understanding provided by qualitative research work together to bring out a richer and more robust profile of consumer behaviour than either research approach used alone (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:27).

The identification of the variables to consider under demographic characteristics was based on a wide range of literature already reviewed in Chapter 2. The following variables were considered:- gender (G1), age (G2), marital status (G3), name of city (G4), residential area (G5), education (G6), income (G7), ethnic grouping (G8), number of household members (G9) and religion (G10). Each factor had one item/question and all the responses to the questions were categorical, i.e. structured. This made it easy to collect data. Data collected were quantitative. Table 3.7 shows the relevant demographic variables and associated codes.

Table 3.7 Demographic variables

Question: Please provide the following information about yourself	Variable number	Code
Gender	G1	Gender
Age	G2	Age
Marital status	G3	Marital status
Name of city where you stay	G4	Name of city where you stay
Residential area	G5	Residential area
Highest level of education	G6	Highest level of education
Monthly gross income (USD)	G7	Monthly gross income
Ethnic grouping	G8	Ethnic grouping
Number of household members	G9	Number of household members
Religion	G10	Religion

Source: Adapted from Literature study

Having designed the instrument, there was a need to pre-test it.

3.10 PRETESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Pretesting is usually conducted as a pilot run. Hair Jr. *et al.* (2008:350) refer to pretesting as a simulation of the process of data collection. The instrument is administered to a small group of the respondents that is representative of the population. Respondents are asked to point out any areas in the instrument that are difficult to follow. Pretesting ensures the practicality of the questionnaire, i.e. it ensures that the researcher's expectations are met in terms of collecting data that are needed for the research. Interviewers are also tested where data collection is through interviews. The experiences of interviewers should be taken into account and their suggestions to improve the process of data collection should be considered. Any problem areas should be corrected. Sometimes a re-test may be done until the instrument is appropriate (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:180; Aaker *et al.*, 2007:335). Similar studies have used between 20 and 40 individuals for a pilot study (Shafiq *et al.*, 2011:10579; Tsang *et al.*, 2004:70). Similarly, 38 individuals were considered for the pilot run in the present study. These individuals were selected conveniently in order to minimise costs and to save time. The main issues taken into account from the pilot study include time taken to complete the questionnaire, clarity or ambiguity of questions and the ability of the respondents to handle the questions. The questionnaire was, therefore, improved based on the experience from the pilot study.

3.11 RELIABILITY

Bryman (2008:148) describe reliability as the consistency of a measure of a concept. It is a measure of internal consistency (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:308). An instrument is said to be reliable when it is possible to achieve more or less the same results after different attempts of measuring phenomenon (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:305). Internal consistency, according to Zikmund

et al. (2010:306) represents a measure's homogeneity. This implies the convergence of an indicator of a particular construct on some common meaning. An attempt to measure a construct such as customer satisfaction requires that a set of questions be asked. These questions should be similar but not identical. They also form a multi-item scale/measure whose internal consistency can be determined by the correlation of the scores on subsections of the scale (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:308). Reliability can be checked using the split-half method. This involves taking half of the items from a scale and comparing them with the other half. For example, odd numbers can be compared with even numbers. These halves should not only correlate highly but should also produce a similar score (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:308). Saunders *et al.* (2009:373) submit that reliability can also be achieved by comparing research data with other data collected from other studies. In addition to this, Saunders *et al.* (2009:373) suggest three approaches that can be used to determine reliability. These are test-retest, alternative form and internal consistency.

The test-re test approach advocates for the administering of a scale to a group of respondents twice at different times. The tests should be done under more or less the same environments. This approach tests for stability i.e. to ensure that the measure does not fluctuate with time (Bryman, 2008:149; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:309). Thus test-re test reliability signifies a measure's repeatability (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:309). Test-re test measures of reliability present two major challenges associated with longitudinal studies. First, respondents may be sensitised by the first participation and this is likely to influence subsequent measures. Second, if the other measure is taken after a considerable time, there may be a change of attitudes/variables being measured or maturation of the subjects. In this case, a low reliability may be explained by an attitude change not necessarily by lack of reliability (Bryman, 2008:150; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:309).

The alternative form is concerned with comparing responses of the same questions. When these questions are included, questionnaires are typical long and the questions are usually referred to as 'check questions' (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:374). However, check questions are not usually recommended due to various reasons. First, it may be a challenge to ensure that the questions are significantly equivalent. Second, long questionnaires are tiring. Third, the respondents may notice similar questions and will just revert back to the previous answer (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:374).

There are several methods used to calculate internal consistency but the most frequently used is Cronbach's alpha (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:374; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:308). Thus, Cronbach's alpha (α) was used to test for internal reliability of the questionnaire (refer to Table 4.7 in Chapter 4). The coefficient α denotes internal consistency. It computes the average of all

possible split-half reliabilities for a set of questions (scale). The coefficient α tells us if different items are converging or not. It should be clarified that the coefficient α does not address validity, even though many researchers make this mistake (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:309). The computed α coefficient ranges between zero (0) and one (1). The value of zero denotes that there is no reliability while one denotes that there is perfect reliability. The typical acceptable level of internal reliability is 0.80. However, in many researches slightly lower values have been accepted (Bryman, 2008:151). In view of this, Zikmund *et al.* (2010:306) propose that scales with α coefficient that ranges between 0.80 and 0.95, between 0.70 and 0.80, between 0.60 and 0.70, and below 0.60 are considered to have very good reliability, good reliability, fair reliability and poor reliability respectively.

3.12 VALIDITY

The terms reliability and validity often seem to have the same meaning. However, they mean different things when it comes to the evaluation of measures (Bryman, 2008:149). It is necessary for a measure to be reliable even though this does not guarantee that the measure is valid. Validity goes beyond reliability (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:309). Precision and accuracy are the key features of a good measure. In this case reliability denotes precision while validity denotes accuracy of a measure. Thus, validity refers to the accuracy of a measure or the ability to which a score or instrument truthfully represents a concept, i.e. measures what the researcher intends it to measure (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:372; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:309). There are many ways of assessing validity. Zikmund and Babin (2007:310) present the three major approaches of assessing validity as face (content) validity, criterion validity and construct validity.

Face (content) validity is an agreement among experts that a particular scale measures a particular concept, hence face validity is said to be subjective (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:373; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:310). Aaker *et al.* (2007:307) refer to face validity as consensus validity possibly because common sense is used in determining validity.

In criterion validity, the typical question addressed is, "Does my measure correlate with measures of the similar concepts or known quantities?" Concurrent validity and predictive validity are the two major classifications of criterion validity. One condition is necessary for concurrent validity to take place. Both the new and criterion measures should be taken at the same time and should be valid. In concurrent validity, a criterion that can be used to measure job satisfaction can be absenteeism. The intention would be to see if satisfied employees are less likely to absent themselves from work. If there is a lack of correspondence e.g. there being no difference in the levels of job satisfaction among frequent absentees, it can be doubted if the measure really addresses job satisfaction (Bryman, 2008:152; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:310). When a new measure predicts the future, then it has predictive validity. With predictive validity,

for example, the researcher would take future levels of absenteeism as the criterion against which the validity of a new measure of job satisfaction would be examined. This differs with concurrent validity in that the future rather than a simultaneous criterion measure is employed (Bryman, 2008:152; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:310).

Construct validity takes place when a scale is able to give a measure that actually represent a specific concept. There are various forms of construct validity but the major ones include face (content) validity, convergent validity, criterion validity and discriminant validity (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:310). The implication of this is that the definition of construct validity is consistent with the definition of validity in general. Content validity and criterion validity have already been explained.

In some cases, a measure's validity has to be evaluated by making comparisons with measures of the same concept developed through other methods, for example, comparing the results of a questionnaire with those from an observation measuring the same concept (Bryman, 2008:152). This is concerned with convergent validity; an alternative way of expressing internal consistency/reliability. Highly reliable scores contain convergent validity (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:310). The implication is that the estimation of internal reliability would also result in the estimation of convergent validity (see the section under reliability).

Discriminant validity refers to how distinct or unique a measure is. The basic requirement for discriminant validity to occur is that the correlation between two different measures should not be too high if the measures are really different (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:311). The general guideline is that the correlation of two scales or measures should not exceed 0.75.

To ensure content validity, a thorough literature study was conducted to guide the development of the instrument. The instrument was also sent to experts for their input. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2009:327), when well-validated measures are used, there is no need to establish their validity again for the study. However, the reliability of the items can be tested.

3.13 SENSITIVITY

Another important measurement or property of a scale is its sensitivity. An instrument is said to be sensitive if has high ability to measure variability within a concept (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:311). According to Aaker *et al.* (2007:308), sensitivity is the ability to discriminate among meaningful differences in attitudes; implying that sensitivity is often used in attitude measurement. Aaker *et al.*'s definition of sensitivity brings to the fore the term discriminatory power which is hereby defined by Hair Jr. *et al.* (2008:152) as the scale's ability to differentiate between the magnitude of the response categories or points. Thus, the more the scale points, the greater the discriminatory power.

Usually a dichotomous response category (e.g. yes/no or disagree/agree) does not permit the observation of subtle variance in phenomena. This type of scale is said to be less sensitive. Increasing the number of response categories (e.g. strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree) increases the sensitivity of a scale. The sensitivity of a scale that is based on one item/question can also be increased by increasing the number of items/questions. That is, the sensitivity of a scale can be increased either by adding more responses or adding more scale items (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:311). However, the more the scale categories there are, the lower the reliability. The reason is that very coarse response categories such as dichotomous scale categories can absorb a great deal of response variability before a change can be noted with test-re test method. By contrast, too many response categories when there are only a few distinct response positions would result in considerable but unwarranted amount of random fluctuation (Aaker *et al.*, 2007:309).

Hair Jr. *et al.* (2008:152) suggest that the researcher has to make a decision the number of categories or response points that explain variance in a particular measure. And yet there are no concrete rules that govern the number of response categories or points that can be used in a scale. However, the general recommendation is that scale points should not be more than 10. This is especially true for respondents with lower levels of education and less experience in responding to scales. With more educated respondents, a 10-point scale can still work (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:152). In this study, the 7-point response categories were used. This has been arrived at after a careful consideration. A 7-point level scale was considered to meet sensitivity and reliability issues.

3.14 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION PROCEDURE

As already indicated, both quantitative and qualitative analyses were employed in the present study. To a greater extent, quantitative analysis was done since the main research data were quantitative. Qualitative analysis was done on data concerning the factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products.

3.14.1 Quantitative analysis

The quality of results from statistical techniques and the interpretation thereof largely depends on the quality of the data from which the analysis was done. Thus, raw data from the questionnaires should be prepared before they can be analysed using statistical techniques. For quantitative analysis in this research, the researcher followed a three stage technique proposed by Aaker *et al.*, 2007:432), namely data editing, coding and, if required, statistical adjustment of data.

Data editing is concerned with checking for mistakes within data (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:224). This involved scanning each completed questionnaire or structured interview guide for various areas of concern, for example, correct recording of the responses and verification of the eligibility of the respondents. After editing, data were coded.

The process of grouping and assigning values to responses to questions in an instrument is called data coding. Each individual response or point is given a number that explains the variance of the measure (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:224). Codes were assigned to each item or variable (see the section under designing the questionnaire). Numerical values were also assigned to each response under each response category. Coding enabled the process of data entry into the SPSS file.

Data entry is the process of entering data into a computer file. This file will then be retrieved in future in order to analyse data. Thus data entered into a computer file should be retrieved and manipulated later so as to make sense out of data (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2008:231). SPSS Version 21 was used to create the data file. After capturing data into the computer, data analysis was done.

Data need to be statistically adjusted in order to enhance their quality for data analysis. There are several techniques of statistically adjusting data in order to improve its quality (Aaker *et al.*, 2007:435). In this research, factor analysis was used. Factor analysis will be discussed later in this section.

Various statistical techniques were executed to analyse data using SPSS Version 21. These include frequency distributions, measures of central tendency and dispersion, cross tabulations, reliability analysis, factor analysis, multiple linear regression analysis, independent *t*-tests, and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Reliability analysis has already been discussed in this section.

Frequency distributions organise and summarise data. This was achieved through the use of frequency tables and figures. Measures of central tendency and dispersion summarise frequency distributions of data. Measures of central tendency involve the basic statistics that are generated when analysing research data. They consist of the mean, mode and the median (Hair *et al.*, 2008:154; Zikmund & Babin, 2007:404). Measures of dispersion describe how data are dispersed around a central value. They represent sample statistics that can be used by the researcher to analyse variability of data collected from scale measurements. Measures of dispersion comprise range, variance and standard deviation (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:407). In this study, the mean and standard deviations were used.

Bryman (2008:161) observes that factor analysis is used in relation to multi-item scales in order to ascertain whether items used to measure construct(s) can bunch together in clusters that are widely referred to as factors. The main objective is to reduce the number of variables which the

researcher is to deal with. Data should conform to the parsimonious rule. This rule stipulates that explaining a concept using fewer items or components is better than using more items. Data reduction also simplifies decision making in that it identifies variables among many which might be important in some analysis (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:564; Field, 2005:620). The clusters revealed by a factor analysis need to be given names (Bryman, 2008:161). The factors that result out of factor analysis are not measured but are identified by forming a variate using measured variables (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:562).

Zikmund and Babin (2007:562) identify two major types of factor analysis, namely exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). EFA is performed when the researcher does not have a clue about the factors that exist within certain items/variables. On the other hand, CFA is executed when the researcher has a clue with regards to structure of the factors before performing an analysis (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:562). EFA was used in the present study because of its simplicity as well as the uncertainty regarding the number of factors existing among a set of variables.

There are two major results of factor analysis, namely factor loading and eigenvalue. A factor loading indicates the extent to which a variable load on a factor. In other words, it represents how strongly correlated a factor is with a measured variable. For a good interpretation, EFA depends on loadings. A latent construct can only be measured indirectly using variables. This is because the pattern of loadings and content of the variables are the two things necessary to interpret a latent construct. Interpretation is easy when a clear pattern of loadings emerges (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:563). Determining the number of factors that exist among many variables is also an important component of factor analysis. This is usually based on eigenvalues for a factor solution. According to Zikmund and Babin (2007:565), eigenvalues represent a measure of how much variance is explained by each factor. The commonest rule is suggested by Kaiser in 1960 which bases the number of factors on the number of eigenvalues greater than 1 (Field, 2005:633). However, in 1972 and 1986 Jullie recommended retaining all factors with eigenvalues greater than 0.7 in some researches (Field, 2005:633). In the present study, eigenvalues greater than 1 were used as suggested by Field (2005:633).

Factor results can be used to create composite scales. When a clear pattern of loadings exists a new factor can be created by simply adding the variables with high loadings and creating a summated scale that represents the new factor. This can be done for a number of new factors. By computing the α coefficient the researcher can test for reliability of each summated scale (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:564).

Another important concept in factor analysis that was used in this study is the total variance explained. In addition to factor loadings, the percent total variance explained by factors is very

useful. The total variance is interpreted in much the same way as R^2 in multiple regression analysis (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:565).

There was need to simplify factor results. The mathematical way of simplifying results is called factor rotation (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:565). Two methods of rotation are orthogonal and oblique. There is a need to choose the right rotation method. Communality for each variable remains unchanged regardless of the rotation used but eigenvalues change (Kothari, 2004:323). The process called Varimax, a type of orthogonal rotation, was used because it makes interpretation easier (Field, 2005:625).

After data reduction through factor analysis, multiple linear regression analysis was executed to determine the relationships between variables i.e. to test the research hypotheses. Hair *et al.* (2008:296) define multiple regression as “a statistical technique which analyses the linear relationship between a dependent variable and multiple independent variables by estimating coefficients for the equation of a straight line”. Thus multiple regression enabled the researcher to determine the relationship between a dependent variable (e.g. consumer attitude) and more than one independent variables (e.g. consumer awareness and consumer ethnocentrism).

Independent *t*-Tests and ANOVA were also executed to determine the effects of socio-demographic variables on the study constructs. Hair Jr. *et al.* (2008:258) recommend Independent *t*-Test to test for statistical difference between two group means, and ANOVA to determine statistical difference between three or more group means. Other techniques that include cross-tabulations, Cramer's V (V_c) and Spearman's rank coefficient (r_s) were also used to test the statistical significance of the associations between variables or constructs.

3.14.2 Qualitative analysis

Qualitative analysis was done on data collected using open ended questions. Open ended questions were used to collect data on the factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. According to Wilson (2010:254), qualitative data are very much explanatory in nature and are usually bulky. In view of this, Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:1) observe that there is no single or best way to analyse qualitative data; the analysis will depend on the questions to be answered, the needs of those people who are to use information, and the availability of the resources. The approach adopted in the present study is the one recommended by Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:1) which consists of the following stages:

Stage 1: Getting to know your data

Before starting any analysis, there is a need to consider the quality of data. Satisfied with the quality of data, the researcher should have a thorough understanding of the data. This can be

achieved by reading and re-reading the text in the case of narrative or textual data, or listening to data several times in the case of tape recordings.

Stage 2: Focusing the analysis

Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:2) emphasise that the researcher needs to review the purpose of the evaluation and what he/she wants to find out. This focus of the analysis is largely dependent on the aim of the evaluation and how the results will be used.

Stage 3: Categorising information

As observed by Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:3), this is the crux of qualitative data analysis. It involves reading and re-reading the textual data. Then, the researcher should identify themes or patterns and organise them into coherent categories that summarise and bring meaning to the text. In view of this, the actual qualitative data analysis in the present study was done at three levels, namely thematic analysis, content analysis and discourse analysis. Themes or patterns represent ideas, incidents, concepts, interactions, behaviours, phrases, or terminology used. Themes and sub themes are essentially recurring motifs in the text that are then applied to the data. They are a product of thorough reading of the transcripts or field notes that make up the data (Bryman, 2008:554). Content refers to sub-themes or specific issues explaining the major themes. Discourse is concerned with the conversation i.e. how people talk about an idea, how they express themselves, their emotions, etc.

Stage 4: Identifying patterns and connections within and between categories

The process of organising data into categories will yield patterns and connections within and also between categories. It is important to assess the relative importance and relationships of different themes. Categories, including larger categories known as super categories, may also be assessed (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003:5). The relative importance of themes and sub themes was determined using frequencies or the number of times the theme or sub theme was identified.

Stage 5: Interpretation

Regarded by Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:5) as bringing it all together, the interpretation stage requires the researcher to use themes and connections to explain the findings. There is a need to attach meaning and significance to the analysis.

After a thorough analysis of data (quantitative and qualitative), the results were presented in the finest manner for clear view in the form of tables and figures in the case of quantitative data, and in words that explain phenomena in the case of qualitative data. Thus, qualitative data on

the factors considered by consumers to purchase imported poultry products were presented based on themes, content and discourse analysis.

3.15 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Aaker *et al.* (2007:20) submit that ethical issues are an important consideration in any research because they impact clients, respondents and the research profession itself. In other words, the conduct of researchers should be ethical. Ethics refers to values or moral principles. It usually shapes how the individual conducts himself/herself (Aaker *et al.*, 2007:20). Saunders *et al.* (2009:185) suggest that seven ethical issues be taken into account when conducting research. These include: - privacy, voluntary participation, consent and deception, confidentiality, the manner in which the researcher collects data, the use or general management of data collected from the respondents, and the researcher's behaviour and objectivity. In view of these issues, respondents were asked to sign an informed-consent form (see Appendix 1). Zikmund *et al.* (2010:90) refer to informed consent as a means of ascertaining that the individual understands what the researcher wants him or her to do and consents to the research study. The informed consent form specified the nature and aim of the research, sought voluntary participation of the respondents, stated that responses would be treated in confidence, stated that anonymity would be ensured, and specified that participants were free to withdraw from participation at any stage without any undesirable consequences. It also stipulated that there were financial or direct benefits that could arise due to taking part in the research. Above all, an ethical clearance (see Appendix 20) and a change of project title approval (see Appendix 21) were sought from the University of KwaZulu-Natal Research Ethics Committee to ensure that the research did not compromise moral expectations.

3.16 DUE DILIGENCE

Due diligence entails the exercising of care in the conduct of the research in order to remove bias. Major possible sources of bias in this research were identified and measures were put in place. Table 3.8 presents a summary of the due diligence activities undertaken in the present study.

Table 3.8 Due diligence process of the study

Research phase	Chapter	Due diligence activity	Control activity
Literature study	Chapter 2	A good literature review is the bedrock of a research. A thorough review of literature was done—several sources of literature were consulted in order to have an in-depth understanding of the critical issues concerning the study. The research objectives and or major areas concerning the study were taken as the key sections of the literature review chapter. A summary of the literature review was given at the end of Chapter 2 and the knowledge gap was identified thereof. Guidelines on how to conduct a good literature study were obtained from Randolph (2009:2) and Boote and Beile (2005:3).	Institutional guidelines were followed. The chapter was reviewed and approved by the supervisor.
Identification of the research problem	Chapter 3	The research problem was identified in view of the need to add to the current body of knowledge. Therefore, identifying the knowledge gap and a possible contribution towards it embodied the first step in the research process. To achieve this, a thorough review of related literature was conducted. Insights on the identification of the knowledge gap/research problem were drawn from Zikmund <i>et al.</i> (2010:108), Randolph (2009:2), Malhotra and Peterson (2006:33) and Boote and Beile (2005:3).	The research problem was reviewed and approved by the supervisor. The defence of the proposal was done by way of presentation at UKZN. The research problem was approved as viable.
Research design	Chapter 3	The choice of the research design is largely influenced by the nature of the research problem. It also forms the master plan of how the research is conducted. Failure to design a study may result in weak or wrong conclusions. Several sources of literature were consulted as follows; Jusoh and Ling (2012:225), Richardson Jr. (2012:15), Zakersalehi and Zakersalehi (2012:2), Durukan and Bozaci (2011:215), Kumar and Ali (2011:5), Mangnale <i>et al.</i> (2011:245), Pentz (2011:146), Brewer and Rojas (2008:4), Bryman (2008:31), Krystallis <i>et al.</i> (2007:57), Zikmund and Babin (2007:75), Lewis and Soureli (2006:21), Malhotra and Peterson (2006:71), Kimenju <i>et al.</i> (2005:1067), Chiou (2004:689), Tsang <i>et al.</i> (2004:69), De Vaus (2001:9) and Juric and Worsely (1998:435).	The research design was reviewed and approved by the supervisor. The defence of the proposal was done by way of presentation at UKZN. The research design was approved as appropriate.
Sampling	Chapter 3	Determining the appropriate sample size and the most suitable sampling technique is critical in the success of any research. Several sources were consulted in order to achieve this. These are listed as follows; Bandara and Miloslava (2012:8), Jusoh <i>et al.</i> (2012:225), Zakersalehi and Zakersalehi (2012:2), ZIMSTAT (2012a:9), Durukan and Bozaci (2011:215), Kumar and Ali (2011:5), Pentz (2011:156), Shafiq <i>et al.</i> (2011:10579), Saunders <i>et al.</i> (2009:212), Brewer and Rojas (2008:4), Krystallis <i>et al.</i> (2007:57), Aaker <i>et al.</i> (2007:760), Zikmund and Babin (2007:378), Kimenju <i>et al.</i> (2005:1067), Chiou (2004:689), Kothari (2004:56) and Rousseau and Venter (1995:20).	The sample size and sampling technique were reviewed and approved by the supervisor. The defence of the proposal was done by way of presentation at UKZN. The sample size and sampling technique were approved as appropriate.

Research phase	Chapter	Due diligence activity	Control activity
Designing the research instrument (questionnaire)	Chapter 3	In order to ensure that the research instrument captured all the key variables being studied, its development was guided by a thorough literature review. The instrument was also divided into major sections that covered the concepts/constructs under consideration. The major literature sources consulted include Northcutt (2009), Brewer and Rojas (2008:5), Bruner II <i>et al.</i> (2005:4-139), Assael (2004:216-218), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:256,259,554), Solomon (2002:200), Kotler and Armstrong (2001:197), Groom (1990:205) and Rousseau and Venter (1995:18).	The instrument was reviewed and approved by the supervisor. The UKZN research ethics committee also approved the instrument.
Reliability and validity	Chapter 3	Reliability and validity are critical issues when it comes to evaluation of research instruments. If not well addressed, the results of the study might be misleading. The reliability of the instrument was assessed using Cronbach's alpha (α). This method was chosen following the recommendations of Saunders <i>et al.</i> (2009:374) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:308) that the Cronbach's α is the most frequently used technique. To ensure content validity, a thorough literature study was conducted to guide in the development of the instrument.	The instrument was reviewed and approved by the supervisor. Expert opinions were also sought.
Administering the instrument	Chapter 3	<p>The use of an interviewer administered questionnaire can be a source of bias in that the researcher interacts with the respondents. To avoid bias, the instrument was designed in such a way that it was highly structured, with a few questions that were open-ended. Therefore, the researcher would simply record the responses of the respondents; only assisting them in explaining terms or questions that they found difficult to understand. Interviewer administered questionnaires can be expensive to manage. To ensure the viability of this research project, the mall intercept survey where sample consumers were drawn conveniently was used. The major advantage of this technique was that there were plenty of respondents in one location. This greatly reduced the costs of data collection.</p> <p>Even though the researcher was in charge of the data collection process, the use of the research assistant was a potential source of bias. Therefore, the research assistant was chosen on the basis of having marketing and research background as well as fluency in English, Shona and Ndebele in order to be able to explain and translate questions or terms to the respondents whenever necessary. In addition to that, the research assistant underwent training before the data collection stage.</p> <p>A pilot run was also conducted to pre-test the instrument and the research assistant. This gave the researcher an opportunity to make amendments on the instrument before the actual data collection process.</p> <p>To ensure that the sample comprised only those consumers who make purchase decisions and who are able to purchase imported poultry products on their own, the researcher targeted adult (18 years and above) consumers in the two cities under consideration. To ensure a fair representation of the population, a large sample (400 consumers) was used and these consumers were intercepted in supermarkets as they purchased the poultry products. A sample size of 400 was considered acceptable based on several international studies similar to the present research.</p> <p>Sources of literature consulted include Bandara and Miloslava (2012:8), Jusoh <i>et al.</i> (2012:225), Zakersalehi and Zakersalehi (2012:2), Durukan and Bozaci (2011:215), Kumar and Ali (2011:5), Pentz (2011:156), Shafiq <i>et al.</i> (2011:10579), Saunders <i>et al.</i> (2009:320-364), Brewer and Rojas (2008:4), Aaker <i>et al.</i> (2007:247), Krystallis <i>et al.</i> (2007:57), Kimenju <i>et al.</i> (2005:1067), Chiou (2004:689), Rousseau and Venter (1995:20).</p>	Guidance was sought from the supervisor. Opinions were also sought from the panel at the proposal defence presentation.

Research phase	Chapter	Due diligence activity	Control activity
Ethical considerations	Chapter 3	Consideration of ethical issues is crucial to the success of a research. High ethical standards were adhered to in order to ensure that the results of the present study were not biased. This was done before, during and after data collection. The respondents were asked to sign an informed-consent form before participating in the research. Also, the researcher did not influence the responses coming from the participants—where respondents faced difficulties in understanding certain terms/questions, an explanation was made without necessarily giving a clue to the answer. After the process of data collection, data were kept in strict confidence. The literature sources considered were Saunders <i>et al.</i> (2009:185), Zikmund <i>et al.</i> (2010:90) and Aaker <i>et al.</i> (2007:20).	The study was cleared by the UKZN Research Ethics Committee (see Appendix 20). Moreover, the researcher got the change of project title approval from the UKZN Research Ethics Committee (see Appendix 21).
Data analysis and presentation	Chapter 4	Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were employed in the present study. Qualitative analysis usually presents a problem to the researcher because of the huge amount of data involved and the likelihood of the researcher's bias in the interpretation of results. To avoid bias, the researcher resorted to the use of major themes that emerged from the data. The thematic analysis enabled the researcher to identify the major factors behind the decisions made by consumers to purchase imported poultry products. Sources consulted include Wilson (2010:254), Bryman (2008:554) and Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:1).	This was reviewed and approved by the supervisor.
Discussion	Chapter 5	Due to its qualitative nature, a discussion section also poses a challenge to the researcher because of the likelihood of biased interpretation. To counter this, the researcher based the discussion on the results founded on the objectives that the study sought to achieve. Reference was also made to the literature in Chapter 2. Insights were drawn from Randolph (2009:2) and Boote and Beile (2005:3).	This was reviewed and approved by the supervisor.
Conclusions, recommendations and contributions of the present study	Chapter 6	Just like in the discussion chapter, this section is also qualitative in nature and thus a potential for biased conclusions, recommendations and definition of the contribution of the study to the current body of knowledge. To deal with this, the researcher based the conclusions on the results and discussion in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 respectively. The recommendations were based on the conclusions of the study while the contributions to knowledge were based on the contrast between the existing literature and results of the present study. Insights were also drawn from Randolph (2009:2) and Boote and Beile (2005:3).	These were reviewed and approved by the supervisor.
Originality	All sections of the thesis report	In order to ensure the originality of the thesis, the researcher conducted a thorough literate study in order to identify the gap in the current body of knowledge. In presenting the literature, the researcher had to rephrase literature while citing the sources of literature.	The thesis was run through Turnitin to check for originality/similarity (see Appendix 19).

Throughout the due diligence process of the study, the supervisor was very instrumental. He provided guidance at each and every stage so as to minimise potential bias from the researcher.

3.17 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter touched on research methodology. The research problem and objectives were defined. This was then followed by a presentation of the research hypotheses and conceptual model. The appropriate research philosophy and design were identified for this study. Sampling issues were discussed and the appropriate sample size for the study was determined. The chapter went on to identify appropriate data collection methods for the study. The development of the research instrument was done and this was mainly based on previous research. Reliability, validity, sensitivity and pre-testing of the research instrument were also explained. The chapter examined data analysis procedures and the appropriate ones were identified. The chapter also looked at ethical and due diligence issues. The next chapter focuses on the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 4.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Three described the research problem and methodology. This chapter focuses on the results of the present research. The main objective of the study was to investigate the effects of consumer awareness and consumer ethnocentrism on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products using Zimbabwe as a point of reference. The specific objectives of the study were:- (i) to establish if consumer awareness predicts consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products, (ii) to determine if consumer attitude predicts purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products, (iii) to determine if consumer ethnocentrism predicts consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products, and (iv) to explore the critical decision factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. The presentation of results is done in two sections, namely quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative section (results from close ended questions) forms the major part of this chapter. It focuses on the response rate analysis, socio-demographic profile of the respondents, reliability analysis, descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, testing of hypotheses and effects of socio-demographics on the study constructs. The qualitative section (results from open ended questions) focuses on the presentation of factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. Influences of socio-demographic factors on the factors considered by consumers are also covered in the qualitative section.

4.2 RESPONSE RATE ANALYSIS

A total of 400 respondents—200 consumers each in Harare and Bulawayo—were considered for participation in the study. Data were collected using an interviewer administered questionnaire comprising both close ended and open ended questions. The respondents were intercepted and asked to respond to questions as they purchased products from supermarkets while the researcher recoded the responses. Out of the 400 consumers, a total of 95 consumers (25 consumers in Harare and 70 consumers in Bulawayo) either refused to be interviewed or agreed to be interviewed but could not finish the interview. This gave an overall response rate of 76.25% i.e. 305 usable questionnaires. According to Saunders *et al.* (2009:346), this response rate is acceptable considering studies of this nature.

The general attitude of the respondents towards the study was positive, however, differences could be noticed in the two cities under investigation. In Harare, the respondents were more responsive in taking part in the study than in Bulawayo. This can be evidenced by the response rate of 87.50% and 65.00% in Harare and Bulawayo respectively. Through interaction with the respondents, it was evident that there was a higher respondent fatigue in Bulawayo than in Harare. Ben-Nun (2008) refers to respondent fatigue as a phenomenon that takes place when participants become tired of the survey task. The symptoms of respondent fatigue include deterioration of the quality of data that respondents provide and giving up on answering the questions. The researcher observed that the respondents have been subjected to previous consumer behaviour studies. Unfortunately, the consumers generally claim that they have not benefited much from the previous studies in terms of feedback. Those consumers in Bulawayo appear to be more affected than those in Harare perhaps because there are fewer people in Bulawayo than in Harare (see Table 4.1). The total number of people who stay in Harare and Bulawayo was reported as 1,468,767 and 655,675 respectively (ZIMSTAT, 2012a:9). This could mean that the average consumer in Bulawayo is subjected to more consumer behaviour studies than the average consumer in Harare. Probably, this leads to a higher respondent fatigue in Bulawayo than in Harare. As a result, there was a higher response rate in Harare than in Bulawayo. Of interest to note, also, is that those respondents who were more responsive to participate in the survey appreciated and understood the importance of research. A detailed explanation of this phenomenon will be given in the ensuing section of socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.

4.3 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Data on the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample are presented in this section. These data are very important in marketing research as demonstrated by Kotler *et al.* (2009:342), Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:9), Kotler and Keller (2006:208) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:54) in that they constitute one of the important variables used in market segmentation. The presentation of data on socio-demographic variables is in two sections, namely descriptive statistics and association between variables.

4.3.1 Descriptive statistics of socio-demographic variables

Table 4.1 presents a summary description of the study sample (n = 305) based on gender, age, marital status, city where the respondent stays, residential area, highest level of education, monthly gross income, ethnic grouping, number of household members and religion.

Table 4.1 Socio-demographic profile of the respondents

	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	139	45.6%
Female	166	54.4%
Age		
18 – 19	4	1.3%
20 – 24	56	18.4%
25 – 29	80	26.2%
30 – 39	93	30.5%
40 – 49	61	20.0%
50 – 59	11	3.6%
Marital status		
Single	121	39.7%
Married	160	52.5%
Divorced	9	3.0%
Widowed	9	3.0%
Separated	2	0.7%
Living together	4	1.3%
Name of city where you stay		
Harare	175	57.4%
Bulawayo	130	42.6%
Residential area		
Low density	116	38.0%
Medium density	90	29.5%
High density	99	32.5%
Highest level of education		
Grade 7	1	0.3%
ZJC	18	5.9%
O-Level	21	6.9%
A-Level	33	10.8%
Diploma	98	32.1%
Bachelor's	102	33.4%
Master's	28	9.2%
Doctoral	4	1.3%
Monthly gross income (USD)		
Less than 500	128	42.0%
500 – 999	86	28.2%
1,000 – 1,499	55	18.0%
1,500 – 1,999	18	5.9%
2,000+	18	5.9%
Ethnic grouping		
Shona	233	76.4%
Ndebele	56	18.4%
Other	16	5.2%
Number of household members		
1	12	3.9%
2	30	9.8%
3	48	15.7%
4	84	27.5%
5	63	20.7%
6	55	18.0%
6+	13	4.3%
Religion		
Christianity	299	98.0%
Islam	2	0.7%
Hindu	1	0.3%
Other	3	1.0%

N = 305

Table 4.1 shows that there are slightly more females (54.4%) than males (45.6%). According to ZIMSTAT (2012a:9), there are more females (51.94%) than males (48.06%) in Zimbabwe.

The results also show that the majority (95.1%) of the respondents are aged between 20 and 49 while a few (1.3%) and (3.6%) are aged between 18 and 19 and between 50 and 59 respectively. A report by FinScope (2011:2) estimated the distribution of Zimbabwe's population by age as 18-20 (9%), 21-50 (79%) and 61 and above (12%).

It can also be established that the study sample is dominated by married people (52.5%) followed by a sizeable number (39.7%) of single persons; only a few respondents (8.0%) are divorced, widowed, separated or living together. Marital status (population age 12 years and above) results of a national labour force survey by ZIMSTAT (2012b: xxiii) showed that 37% of the respondents were never married, 50% were married, 4% were divorced and 8% were widowed.

There are more respondents from Harare (57.4%) than Bulawayo (42.6%). In Harare the respondents were more responsive in taking part in the study than in Bulawayo as evidenced by the response rate of 87.5% and 65.0% in Harare and Bulawayo respectively. This was attributed to respondent fatigue (Ben-Nun, 2008) and that there are more people who stay in Harare than Bulawayo (ZIMSTAT, 2012a:9); making it easier to conduct interviews in Harare than in Bulawayo.

The results also show that the distribution of the respondents among residential areas (low density, medium density and high density suburbs) is almost even i.e. 38.0%, 29.5% and 32.5% respectively. Most of the major supermarkets in Zimbabwe are situated in towns and are easily accessible to every consumer regardless of their residential area.

It can be established from Table 4.1 that few respondents had a Doctoral degree (1.3%) and a Master's degree (9.2%) while a considerable number of the respondents have attained a Bachelor's degree (33.4%) and a Diploma (32.1%). More so, few respondents had attained advanced level education (10.8%), ordinary level education (6.9%), Zimbabwe Junior Certificate education (5.9%) and Grade 7 education (0.3%). This implies that the study sample mainly consists of educated consumers. This can be attributed to the general observation that the respondents who were more responsive to participate in the survey were those who appreciated the importance of research perhaps because they would have done research elsewhere especially at the tertiary education level.

Results also suggest that a substantial number (42.0%) of the respondents earn a gross monthly income of less than USD500 followed by 28.2% earning between USD500 and 999 and 18.0% earning between USD1, 000 and 1, 499 while only a few (11.8%) earn at least USD1, 500.

According to FinScope (2011:2), 80% of adult population in Zimbabwe earn less than USD200 per month (including 17.3% who do not have an income at all). IndexMundi (2013) estimated Zimbabwe's 2011 gross domestic product per capita (purchasing power parity) at USD500. This converts to approximately USD42 per month (purchasing power parity). The World Bank (2013) classification also categorises Zimbabwe as a low income country.

The study sample is by dominated by Shona people (76.4%) versus Ndebele people (18.4%). People of Shona origin are concentrated in Harare and those of Ndebele origin are concentrated in Bulawayo (Encyclopaedia of the Nations, 2013). As already explained, there are fewer respondents from Bulawayo (a city dominated by Ndebele people) than Harare (a city dominated by Shona people) perhaps due to a higher respondent fatigue in Bulawayo than in Harare (Ben-Nun, 2008).

The results from Table 4.1 also reveal that the majority (81.9%) have an average family size of between 3 and 6 people while only a few (4.3%) have family sizes of more than 6 household members, 9.8% have family sizes of 2 household members and 3.9% are staying alone. Preliminary results of the 2012 national census show that the average size of household in Zimbabwe comprises 4.2 persons (ZIMSTAT, 2012a:9).

Lastly, the results show that the respondents are predominantly Christian (98.0%); only a minority (2%) of the respondents are of Islamic, Hindu or Traditional religion. Sahwira Online (2013) acknowledges that Zimbabwe is predominantly a Christian country while Religion in Zimbabwe (2013) estimates national religious statistics as Christians (85%), African traditional religions (3%), Islam and other religions (less than 1%) and Non-religious (12%).

4.3.2 Association between socio-demographic variables

An analysis of associations between socio-demographic variables was done. As already explained by Kotler *et al.* (2009:342), Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:9), Kotler and Keller (2006:208) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:54) that socio-demographics are very important in consumer behaviour studies regarding market segmentation, an analysis of the relationship between the socio-demographic variables is indispensable in that it helps the marketing researcher to have a sound understanding of the variables. For example, an understanding of the effect a particular variable, associated with another, on consumer behaviour would enable the marketing researcher to predict the likely influence of the other socio-demographic variable associated with it. The analyses on associations between socio-demographic variables were performed on the following possible combinations of socio-demographic variables: gender and age, gender and education, gender and income, age and education, age and income, city where respondent stays and income, city where respondent stays and education, city where respondent stays and

ethnic grouping, residential area and income, education and income, and household size and income. The results reported are only for pairs of socio-demographic variables that were found to be significantly associated.

The associations among socio-demographic variables of the respondents were analysed using cross tabulations and other techniques such as Cramer's V (V_c) and Spearman's rank coefficient (r_s). To test whether two variables are associated, Saunders *et al.* (2009:451) recommend Chi-square (χ^2) for descriptive (nominal) categorical data and ranked categorical data, and V_c for descriptive categorical data. To assess the strength of the relationship between variables, Saunders *et al.* (2009:451) suggest r_s or Kendall's tau for ranked categorical data. However, a χ^2 test cannot be used where frequencies in some cells or groups are less than 10 even though a minimum of 5 can still be used; when there are fewer cases in a cell, data may need to be regrouped (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:454; Kothari, 2004:238).

The association between gender and income was analysed using cross tabulation and Cramer's V . Table 4.2 shows a cross tabulation of gender and income.

Table 4.2 Cross tabulation of gender and income

		Monthly gross income (USD)					Total	
		less than 500	500-999	1,000-1,499	1,500-1,999	2,000+		
Gender	Male	Count	56	38	26	5	14	139
		% within Gender	40.3%	27.3%	18.7%	3.6%	10.1%	100.0%
		% within Monthly gross income (USD)	43.8%	44.2%	47.3%	27.8%	77.8%	45.6%
	Female	Count	72	48	29	13	4	166
		% within Gender	43.4%	28.9%	17.5%	7.8%	2.4%	100.0%
		% within Monthly gross income (USD)	56.3%	55.8%	52.7%	72.2%	22.2%	54.4%
Total	Count	128	86	55	18	18	305	
	% within Gender	42.0%	28.2%	18.0%	5.9%	5.9%	100.0%	
	% within Monthly gross income (USD)	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

$$V_c = 0.182, p = 0.038$$

At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the results show that gender is significantly associated with income ($V_c = 0.182, p = 0.038$). To examine the nature of the association between gender and income, an analysis of cells in Table 4.2 was done and the data show that there are more males (10.1%) than females (5.9%) earning higher monthly incomes (USD 2,000+) and that there are more females (42.0%) than males (40.3%) earning lower monthly incomes (less than USD 500). This implies that males are earning higher than females.

The association between age and education was analysed using cross tabulation and Spearman's correlation analysis. The results are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Cross tabulation of age and education

	Highest level of education								Total
	Grade 7	ZJC	O-Level	A-Level	Diploma	Bachelor's	Masters'	Doctoral	
Age 18-19	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	4
20-24	0	2	3	12	16	22	1	0	56
25-29	0	6	6	6	27	31	4	0	80
30-39	0	3	6	9	34	31	8	2	93
40-49	1	6	5	3	16	17	11	2	61
50-59	0	1	1	0	4	1	4	0	11
Total	1	18	21	33	98	102	28	4	305

$$r_s = 0.114, p = 0.048$$

Results show that at 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), there is a significant association between age and level of education ($r_s = 0.114, p = 0.048$). The association between age and education is positive ($r_s = 0.114$) i.e. the level of education increases with age. This implies that older respondents are more educated than younger respondents.

Spearman's correlation and cross tabulation analyses were done to determine the association between age and income. The results are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Cross tabulation of age and income

	Monthly gross income (USD)					Total
	less than 500	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000+	
Age 18-19	3	1	0	0	0	4
20-24	36	12	6	2	0	56
25-29	30	35	11	3	1	80
30-39	30	28	22	5	8	93
40-49	26	7	13	7	8	61
50-59	3	3	3	1	1	11
Total	128	86	55	18	18	305

$$r_s = 0.249, p < 0.0001$$

Results show that at 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), age and income are significantly associated ($r_s = 0.249, p < 0.0001$). The association between age and income is positive ($r_s = 0.249$) i.e. income increases with age. This implies that older respondents are earning higher incomes than younger respondents.

The association between the level of education and income was determined using cross tabulation and Spearman's correlation analyses. The results are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Cross tabulation of level of education and income

		Monthly gross income (USD)					Total
		less than 500	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000+	
Highest level of education	Grade 7	1	0	0	0	0	1
	ZJC	17	1	0	0	0	18
	O-Level	15	4	1	1	0	21
	A-Level	20	6	6	0	1	33
	Diploma	38	36	20	2	2	98
	Bachelor's	34	33	24	6	5	102
	Masters'	3	6	4	9	6	28
Doctoral	0	0	0	0	4	4	
Total		128	86	55	18	18	305

$$r_s = 0.428, p < 0.0001$$

Data show that at 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), there is a significant association between education and income ($r_s = 0.428, p < 0.0001$). The association between education and income is positive ($r_s = 0.428$). In other words, higher levels of education are associated with higher incomes and lower levels of education are associated with lower incomes. This implies that educated consumers earn higher incomes than their counterparts.

To determine the association between the city of residence and ethnic grouping, cross tabulation and Cramer's V analyses were done and the results are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Cross tabulation of city and ethnic grouping

		Ethnic grouping			Total	
		Shona	Ndebele	Other		
Name of city where you stay	Harare	Count	169	2	4	175
		% within Name of city where you stay	96.6%	1.1%	2.3%	100.0%
		% within Ethnic grouping	72.5%	3.6%	25.0%	57.4%
	Bulawayo	Count	64	54	12	130
		% within Name of city where you stay	49.2%	41.5%	9.2%	100.0%
		% within Ethnic grouping	27.5%	96.4%	75.0%	42.6%
Total	Count	233	56	16	305	
	% within Name of city where you stay	76.4%	18.4%	5.2%	100.0%	
	% within Ethnic grouping	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

$$V_c = 0.558, p = 0.0001$$

At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the results show that the city of residence is significantly associated with the ethnic grouping ($V_c = 0.558, p < 0.0001$). An analysis of the cells in Table 4.6 reveals that the Shona respondents are concentrated in Harare (96.6%) while the Ndebele respondents are concentrated in Bulawayo (96.4%), although there is a significant proportion (27.5%) of Shona people based in Bulawayo. The Encyclopaedia of the Nations (2013) confirms that the people of Shona origin are concentrated in Harare and those of Ndebele origin are concentrated in Bulawayo.

4.4 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Bryman (2008:148) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:308) refer to reliability as the consistency of a measure of a concept. To determine the reliability of the scales used to measure the study constructs, Cronbach's alpha (α) was used following the subscription of Saunders *et al.* (2009:374) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:308) that it is the most frequently used and proven method. SPSS Version 21 was used to perform the analysis. The computed α coefficient ranges between zero (0) and one (1). The value of zero denotes that there is no reliability while one denotes that there is perfect reliability. The typical acceptable level of internal reliability is 0.80. However, in many researches slightly lower values have been accepted (Bryman, 2008:151). In view of this, Zikmund *et al.* (2010:306) propose that scales with α coefficient between 0.80 and 0.95, between 0.70 and 0.80, between 0.60 and 0.70, and below 0.60 are considered to have very good reliability, good reliability, fair reliability and poor reliability respectively. The Cronbach's α of the scales used to measure the study constructs are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Reliability analysis of the measurement scales

Scale	Number of items	Cronbach's α
Consumer awareness	25	0.818
Consumer attitude	15	0.923
Consumer ethnocentrism	17	0.930
Consumer purchase behaviour	15	0.876
Factors considered	10	0.852

The results from Table 4.7 show that all the measurement scales used in the study were very reliable as demonstrated by the values of the Cronbach's α which are greater than 0.80 in all cases. As noted by Zikmund *et al.* (2010:306) and Bryman (2008:151), a computed α of 0.80 is considered to be a very good reliability.

4.5 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

This section presents results on descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, and percent average responses and standard error bars) for consumer awareness, consumer attitude, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer purchase behaviour and factors considered by consumers. The mean (M) refers to a numerical average for a set of responses. The standard deviation (SD) refers to the degree of consistency of the responses i.e. the distribution of the responses around the mean. A small SD represents fairly uniform responses while a large SD represents varying responses. When the responses are the same, SD will be equal to zero. When used together, M and SD provide a better understanding of the data. Percent average responses show the distribution of the categories of responses on a scale of 1 to 7 within the same set of questions. The standard error bars help to explain whether or not there are significant differences in

frequencies or percentages of averages responses. Overlapping standard error bars show that respective frequencies are not significantly different.

Likert type questions were used on each of the scales to collect data. The extent to which the respondents agreed to the questions was based on the following ratings: 1 'strongly disagree', 2 'disagree', 3 'somewhat disagree', 4 'neither agree nor disagree', 5 'somewhat agree', 6 'agree', and 7 'strongly agree'.

4.5.1 Descriptive statistics of consumer awareness

The mean scores and standard deviations for each of the items used to measure consumer awareness are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Descriptive statistics of consumer awareness

Item Code	Item/Description	Mean Rating	Mean Response	Std. Deviation
AWNS1	I check the media each week for bargains	3.69	Neither agree nor disagree	1.953
AWNS2	When I see a 'special' advertised on TV or other media I always follow it up	3.95	Neither agree nor disagree	1.791
AWNS3	I always shop at more than one store to compare prices and to take advantage of the lowest priced item	5.59	Agree	1.747
AWNS4	I like searching for bargains at seasonal sales auctions	4.14	Neither agree nor disagree	2.045
AWNS5	I always try to obtain the best deal	5.75	Agree	1.523
AWNS6	Consumers in Zimbabwe are not aware of their legitimate rights when it comes to doing business or engage in shopping	4.92	Somewhat agree	1.949
AWNS7	More attention should be paid to consumer awareness programmes in school education	5.84	Agree	1.426
AWNS8	Too few consumers in Zimbabwe read consumer articles in newspapers, magazines, and online and electronic resources	5.22	Somewhat agree	1.693
AWNS9	Zimbabwean consumers are not aware of laws available to protect their consumer rights	5.29	Somewhat agree	1.735
AWNS10	Consumer organisations in Zimbabwe deserve better support from consumers	5.47	Somewhat agree	1.526
AWNS11	Checking expiry dates on perishable food items is essential for ensuring fresh produce	6.44	Agree	1.172
AWNS12	I always look for a guarantee on expensive products before deciding on the purchase	5.78	Agree	1.573
AWNS13	It is important to share product information with friends and relatives	5.89	Agree	1.347
AWNS14	Product knowledge is one's best guardian against exploitation	6.07	Agree	1.199
AWNS15	I keep a watch on the media for new products and services that may be useful to me	5.09	Somewhat agree	1.581
AWNS16	I always consult brochures and pamphlets for information before buying durable goods	5.04	Somewhat agree	1.702
AWNS17	Seeking information from relatives prior to making final choice is always a good idea	4.64	Somewhat agree	1.747
AWNS18	Sales staff can be an important source of product information	5.12	Somewhat agree	1.578
AWNS19	Before purchasing a particular product I usually compare various brands to choose the best	5.97	Agree	1.197
AWNS20	I usually consider advertisements for obtaining product information prior to purchase	4.46	Neither agree nor disagree	1.676
AWNS21	Choosing 'no-name brands' is a good way for beating inflation	2.66	Somewhat disagree	1.797
AWNS22	Price is the most important factor to me in choosing an item	4.19	Neither agree nor disagree	2.026
AWNS23	When a product is offered at a discount price I am more tempted to buy it	4.86	Somewhat agree	1.752
AWNS24	Before deciding where to go shopping, I usually try to find out whether any specials are being offered	4.41	Neither agree nor disagree	1.837
AWNS25	I always compare prices of similar products on display in the store	5.60	Agree	1.477
	Valid N (listwise)		305	

As shown in Table 4.8, item 11 'Checking expiry dates on perishable food items is essential for ensuring fresh produce' received the highest rating ($M = 6.44$, $SD = 1.17$); implying that consumers placed more importance on this aspect. The least rating was placed on item 21 'Choosing 'no-name brands' is a good way for beating inflation' ($M = 2.66$, $SD = 1.80$);

implying that the respondents attached the least importance to this aspect. The overall item mean \pm SD was 5.04 ± 1.64 (somewhat agree) out of a possible score of 7 (strongly agree) and the overall scale mean \pm SD was 126.06 ± 17.43 out of a possible score of 175, thus implying a somewhat high level of consumer awareness among the Zimbabwean consumers.

Figure 4.1 illustrates the percentages and standard error bar of the average responses for the 7-point rating of the consumer awareness scale.

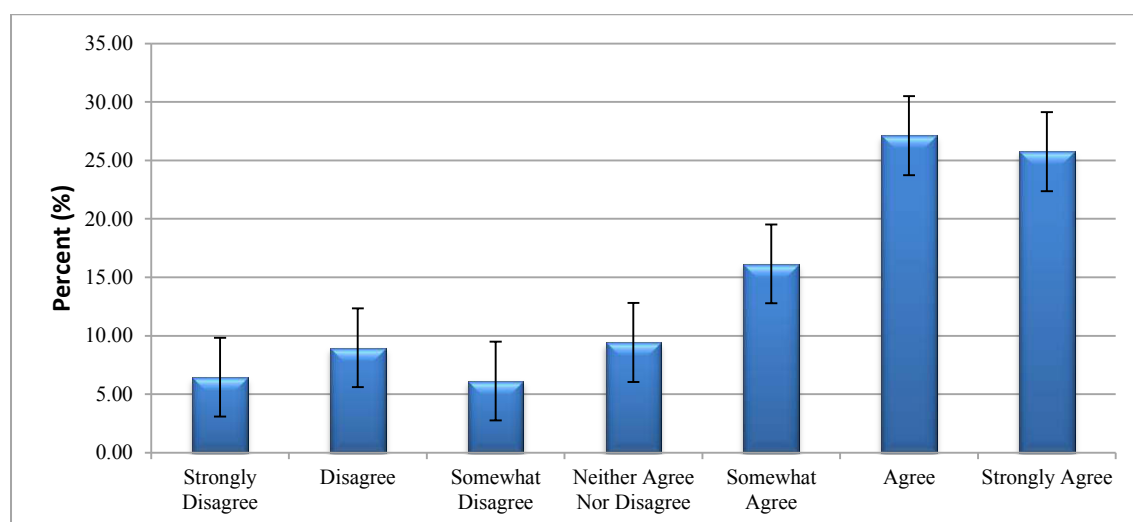


Figure 4.1 Average responses for the 7-point rating of consumer awareness (N = 305)

It can be established from Figure 4.1 that on average the majority of the respondents (52.87%) at least agreed to the 25 questions on the consumer awareness scale. On the contrary, only a few (15.44%) at least disagreed to the 25 questions on the consumer awareness scale. Similarly, the standard error bars show that frequencies of 'agree' and 'strongly agree' are significantly higher than the frequency of 'somewhat agree'. The frequency of 'somewhat agree' is significantly higher than frequencies of 'strongly disagree', 'disagree' and 'somewhat disagree'. The weighted average was calculated and it averaged 5.04 (somewhat agree) out of a possible score of 7 (strongly agree). These results imply that the level of consumer awareness among the respondents is somewhat high.

4.5.2 Descriptive statistics of consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products

The 15 statements used to measure consumer attitudes were stated in the positive with regard to imported poultry products. The mean scores and standard deviations for each of the items are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Descriptive statistics of consumer attitudes

Item Code	Item/Description	Mean Rating	Mean Response	Std. Deviation
ATTI1	Imported poultry products taste good	2.17	Disagree	1.564
ATTI2	Imported poultry products are healthy food	2.10	Disagree	1.392
ATTI3	Imported poultry products have good quality	2.35	Disagree	1.562
ATTI4	Imported poultry products are safe to consume	2.38	Disagree	1.464
ATTI5	Imported poultry products provide value for money	3.05	Somewhat disagree	1.853
ATTI6	Imported poultry products are good	2.42	Disagree	1.408
ATTI7	Imported poultry products are appealing	3.58	Neither agree nor disagree	2.044
ATTI8	Imported poultry products are excellent	2.26	Disagree	1.483
ATTI9	Imported poultry products are favourable	2.69	Somewhat disagree	1.630
ATTI10	Imported poultry products are preferred most	3.04	Somewhat disagree	1.911
ATTI11	I will definitely buy poultry imports the next time I buy poultry products	2.08	Disagree	1.492
ATTI12	I will spend more on imported poultry products next time I buy poultry products	2.02	Disagree	1.406
ATTI13	I will recommend others to buy imported poultry products	2.17	Disagree	1.545
ATTI14	I would not mind to buy imported poultry products next time	2.45	Disagree	1.630
ATTI15	I intend to buy imported poultry products when I make the next purchase	2.18	Disagree	1.489
	Valid N (listwise)		305	

Results from Table 4.9 show that item 12 ‘I will spend more on imported poultry products next time I buy poultry products’ received the least rating ($M = 2.02$, $SD = 1.41$); implying that consumers placed the least importance on this aspect. Item 7 ‘Imported poultry products are appealing’ received the highest score ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 2.04$), however, this mean rating is below the neutral point ($M = 4$); implying that the maximum rating is also relatively low. The overall item mean \pm SD was 2.46 ± 1.59 (disagree) out of a possible score of 7 (strongly agree) and the overall scale mean \pm SD was 36.94 ± 16.41 out of a possible score of 105; thus implying negative consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products.

Figure 4.2 illustrates the percentages and standard error bars of the average responses for the 7-point rating of the consumer attitude scale.

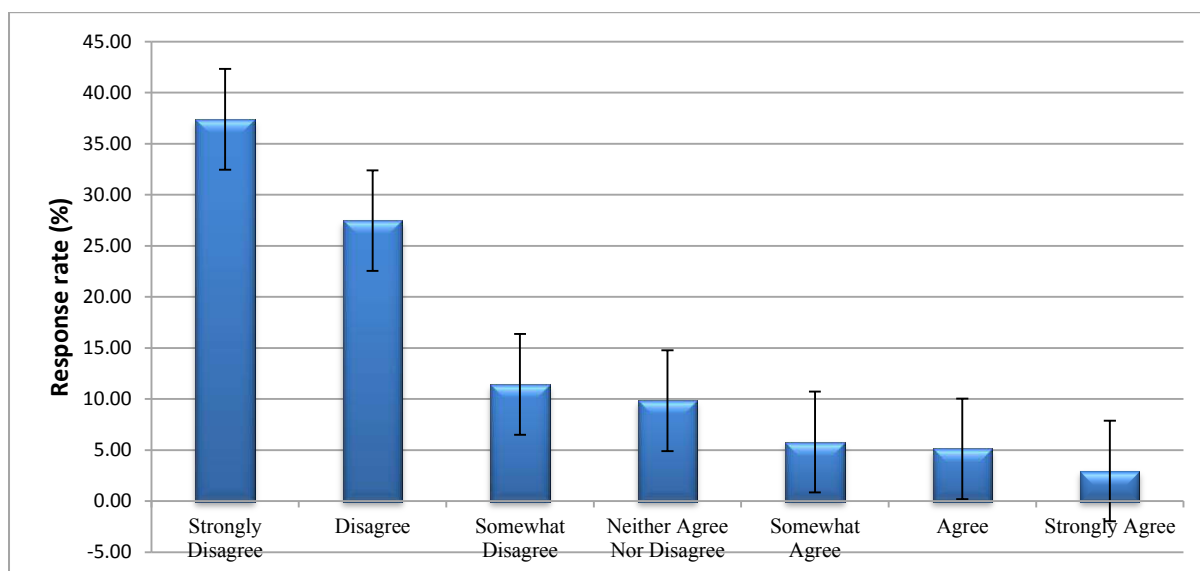


Figure 4.2 Average responses for the 7-point rating of the consumer attitude (N = 305)

The results from Figure 4.2 reveal that, generally, the responses on consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products were negative (37.39 % strongly disagreed and 27.47% disagreed while a mere 13.86% at least somewhat agreed). Similarly, the standard error bars show that the frequency of ‘strongly disagree’ is significantly higher than the frequency of ‘disagree’; the frequency of ‘disagree’ is also significantly higher than the frequencies of ‘somewhat disagree’, ‘neither agree nor disagree’, ‘somewhat agree’, ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’. The weighted average was calculated and it averaged 2.46 (disagree) out of a possible score of 7 (strongly agree).

4.5.3 Descriptive statistics of consumer ethnocentrism

The mean scores and standard deviations for each of the items used to measure consumer ethnocentrism are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Descriptive statistics of consumer ethnocentrism

Item code	Item/Description	Mean Rating	Mean Response	Std. Deviation
ETHN1	Zimbabwean people should always buy Zimbabwean-made poultry products	5.78	Agree	1.724
ETHN2	Only those poultry products that are unavailable in Zimbabwe should be imported	5.14	Somewhat agree	1.935
ETHN3	Buy Zimbabwean-produced poultry products; keep Zimbabwe working	6.14	Agree	1.377
ETHN4	Zimbabwean poultry products first, last and foremost	5.76	Agree	1.618
ETHN5	Purchasing imported poultry products is un-Zimbabwean	4.21		2.066
ETHN6	It is not right to purchase imported poultry products because it puts Zimbabweans out of jobs	4.86	Somewhat agree	1.940
ETHN7	A real Zimbabwean should always buy Zimbabwean-produced poultry products	4.67	Somewhat agree	1.959
ETHN8	We should purchase poultry products made in Zimbabwe instead of letting other countries get rich off us	5.19	Somewhat agree	1.866
ETHN9	It is always best to purchase Zimbabwean poultry products	5.73	Agree	1.507
ETHN10	There should be very little trading or purchasing of poultry products from other countries unless out of necessity	5.49	Somewhat agree	1.620
ETHN11	Zimbabweans should not buy imported poultry products because this hurts Zimbabwean businesses and causes unemployment	5.02	Somewhat agree	1.879
ETHN12	Curbs should be put on all imported poultry products	4.96	Somewhat agree	1.783
ETHN13	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Zimbabwean poultry products	5.54	Agree	1.630
ETHN14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their poultry products on our markets	4.17	Neither agree nor disagree	1.956
ETHN15	Imported poultry products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Zimbabwe	4.95	Somewhat agree	1.868
ETHN16	We should buy from foreign countries only those poultry products that we cannot obtain within our country	5.34	Somewhat agree	1.629
ETHN17	Zimbabwean consumers who purchase poultry products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Zimbabweans out of work	4.54	Somewhat agree	1.929
	Valid N (listwise)	305		

As illustrated in Table 4.10, the results show that item 14 ‘Foreigners should not be allowed to put their poultry products on our markets’ received the least rating ($M = 4.17$, $SD = 1.96$); implying that consumers placed the least importance on this aspect. However, this least rating is above the neutral point ($M = 4$); implying that the overall rating of consumer ethnocentrism was high. Item 3 ‘Buy Zimbabwean-produced poultry products; keep Zimbabwe working’ received the highest score ($M = 6.14$, $SD = 1.38$). The overall item mean \pm SD was 5.15 ± 1.78 (somewhat agree) out of a possible score of 7 (strongly agree) and the overall scale mean \pm SD was 87.50 ± 20.84 out of a possible score of 119; thus implying high consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

Figure 4.3 illustrates percentages and standard error bars of the average responses for the 7-point rating of the consumer attitude scale.

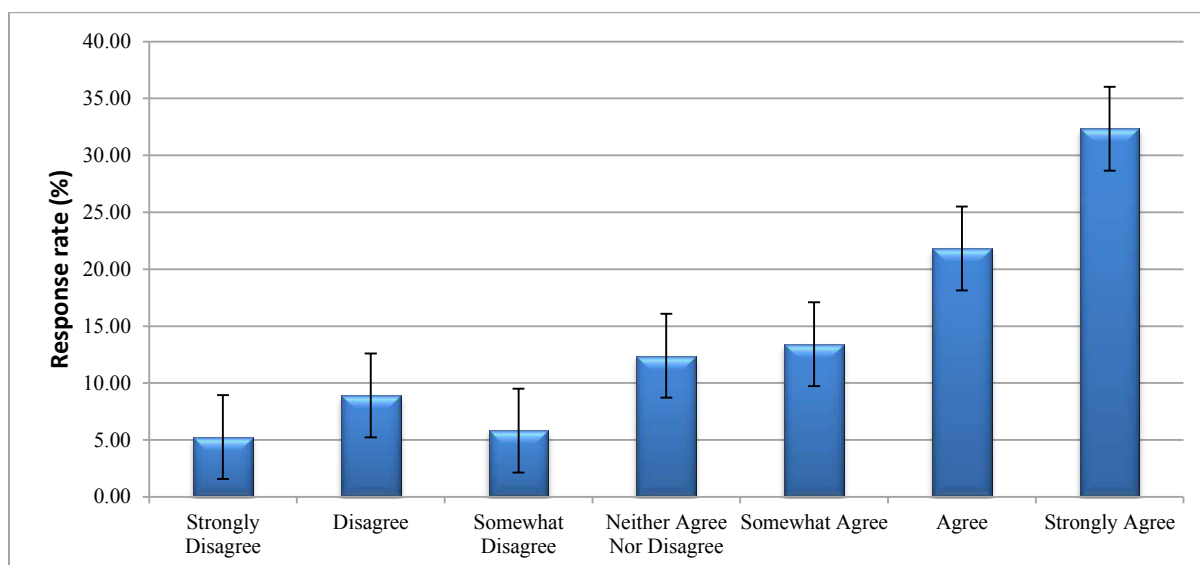


Figure 4.3 Average responses for the 7-point rating of consumer ethnocentrism (N = 305)

Results from Figure 4.3 show that, on average, 21.82% agreed to the 17 questions on the consumer ethnocentrism scale and 32.35% strongly agreed while only 8.91% disagreed and a mere 5.26% strongly disagreed. Similarly, the standard error bars show that frequency of ‘strongly agree’ is significantly higher than the frequency of ‘agree’; the frequency of ‘agree’ is significantly higher than the frequencies of ‘somewhat agree’, ‘neither agree nor disagree’, ‘somewhat disagree’, ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ while the frequencies of ‘strongly disagree’, ‘disagree’, ‘somewhat disagree’ and ‘neither agree nor disagree’ are significantly low. The weighted average was calculated and it averaged 5.15 (somewhat agree) out of a possible score of 7 (strongly agree). This implies high ethnocentric tendencies among the consumers.

4.5.4 Descriptive statistics of consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products

The 15 statements used to measure consumer purchase behaviour were stated in the positive with regard to imported poultry products. The mean scores and standard deviations for each of the items are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Descriptive statistics of consumer purchase behaviour

Item code	Item/Description	Mean Rating	Mean Response	Std. Deviation
BHVR1	I bought imported poultry products for the first time	3.50	Neither agree nor disagree	2.089
BHVR2	I bought small quantities of imported poultry products as a trial	4.21	Neither agree nor disagree	2.039
BHVR3	I have evaluated imported poultry products through consuming them for the first time	4.49	Neither agree nor disagree	1.997
BHVR4	I have been encouraged to try imported poultry products and I did	3.76	Neither agree nor disagree	2.050
BHVR5	I have tried new imported poultry products through promotions	3.19	Somewhat disagree	1.960
BHVR6	I approve imported poultry products	2.35	Disagree	1.664
BHVR7	I am willing to buy imported poultry products again	2.39	Disagree	1.673
BHVR8	I always buy imported poultry products	2.15	Disagree	1.508
BHVR9	I often buy imported poultry products in larger quantities	2.03	Disagree	1.472
BHVR10	I repeatedly spend more on imported poultry products than local products	2.06	Disagree	1.541
BHVR11	I am satisfied with imported poultry products	2.10	Disagree	1.451
BHVR12	I no longer have doubts in purchasing imported poultry products	2.22	Disagree	1.480
BHVR13	Consuming imported poultry products is a rational and a wise decision	2.20	Disagree	1.439
BHVR14	I seek promotions that support my choice for imported poultry products compared to local competitive brands	2.19	Disagree	1.536
BHVR15	I always try to persuade others also to buy imported poultry products	2.06	Disagree	1.518
	Valid N (listwise)		305	

As illustrated in Table 4.11, the results show that item 9 ‘I often buy imported poultry products in larger quantities’ received the least rating ($M = 2.03$, $SD = 1.47$); implying that consumers placed the least importance on this aspect. Item 3 ‘I have evaluated imported poultry products through consuming them for the first time’ received the highest score ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 2.00$); implying that consumers placed the most importance in this aspect. The overall item mean \pm SD was 2.73 ± 1.69 (somewhat disagree) out of a possible score of 7 (strongly disagree) and the overall scale mean \pm SD was 40.90 ± 14.69 out of a possible score of 105; thus implying unfavourable consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products.

Figure 4.4 illustrates percentages and standard error bars of the average responses for the 7-point rating of the consumer purchase behaviour scale.

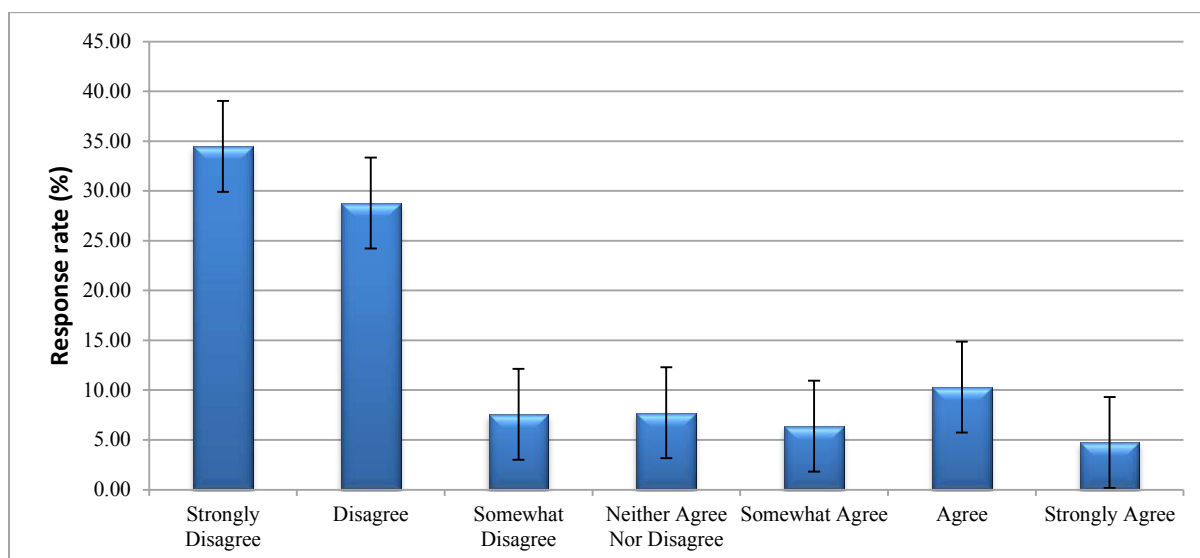


Figure 4.4 Average responses for the 7-point rating of consumer purchase behaviour (N = 305)

The results from Figure 4.4 show that overall, 34.47% strongly disagreed and 28.79% disagreed that they purchased imported poultry products while only 10.32% agreed and a mere 4.75% strongly agreed that they purchased imported poultry products. Similarly, the standard error bars show that frequencies of ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘disagree’ are significantly higher than the frequencies of ‘somewhat disagree’, ‘neither agree nor disagree’, ‘somewhat agree’, ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’. The weighted average was calculated and it averaged 2.73 (somewhat disagree) out of a possible score of 7 (strongly disagree). This implies a low purchase action of poultry imports by consumers.

4.5.5 Descriptive statistics of factors considered by consumers

Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed that they considered certain factors in making the choice to purchase imported poultry products. Ten factors were suggested to the respondents. The factors were taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, ease of access, promotional effort of the seller, influence from family members and others, religious beliefs and social status. The mean scores and standard deviations for each of the items are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Descriptive statistics of factors considered by consumers

Item code	Item/Description	Mean Rating	Mean Response	Std. Deviation
Consider1	Taste	4.67	Somewhat agree	2.306
Consider2	Tenderness	4.55	Somewhat agree	2.035
Consider3	Appearance	4.89	Somewhat agree	2.000
Consider4	Health and safety issues	4.96	Somewhat agree	2.297
Consider5	Price	5.24	Somewhat agree	1.896
Consider6	Ease of access	4.91	Somewhat agree	1.917
Consider7	Promotional effort of the seller	3.85	Neither agree nor disagree	1.942
Consider8	Influence from family members	3.77	Neither agree nor disagree	1.914
Consider9	Religious beliefs	3.54	Neither agree nor disagree	2.153
Consider10	Social status	3.75	Neither agree nor disagree	2.165
	Valid N (listwise)	305		

As illustrated in Table 4.12, the results show that item 9 ‘Religious beliefs’ received the least rating ($M = 3.54$, $SD = 2.15$); implying that consumers placed the least importance on religious beliefs. Item 5 ‘Price’ received the highest score ($M = 5.24$, $SD = 1.90$); implying that consumers placed the highest importance on the price. The overall item mean \pm SD was 4.41 ± 2.06 (neither agree nor disagree) out of a possible score of 7 (strongly agree) and the overall scale mean \pm SD was 44.14 ± 13.53 out of a possible score of 70; thus implying neutral responses. An analysis of the cluster of factors show that the mean \pm SD rating of items related to quality (taste, tenderness, appearance, and health and safety issues) was 4.77 ± 2.16 , implying that the respondents somewhat agreed that these factors are critical. The mean \pm SD rating of items related to the firm’s marketing effort (price, ease of access and promotional effort of the seller) was found to be 4.67 ± 1.92 . This also implies that the respondents somewhat agreed that these factors are critical. Items related to socio-cultural factors were influence from family members, religious beliefs and social status. The mean \pm SD rating of these items was 3.68 ± 2.08 . This implies that the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that these factors are critical.

Figure 4.5 illustrates percentages and error bars of the average responses for the 7-point rating of factors considered by consumers.

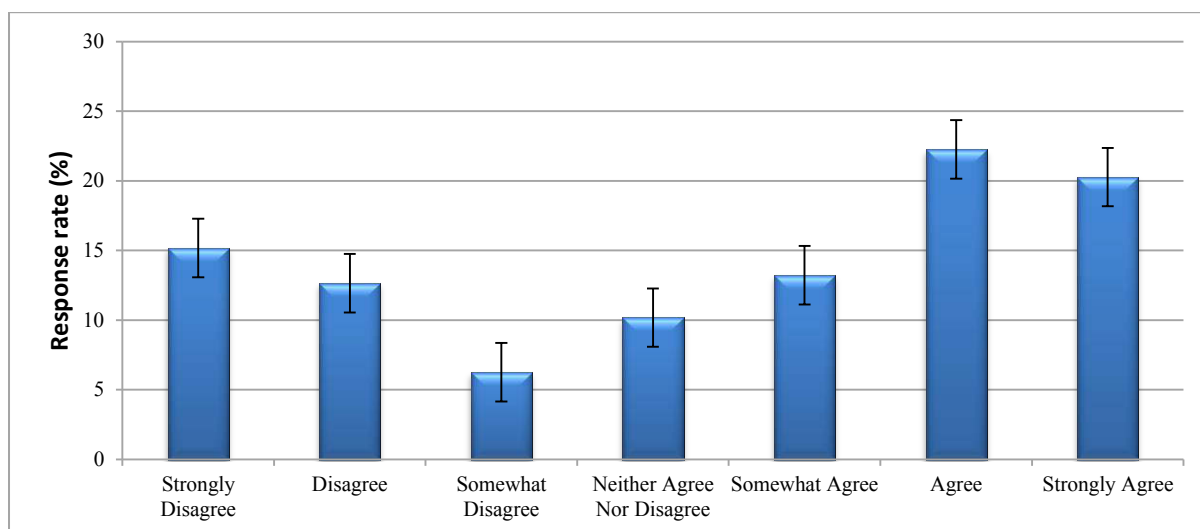


Figure 4.5 Average responses for the 7-point rating of factors considered by consumers (N = 305)

Results from Figure 4.5 show that, on average, there were more respondents (42.53%) who agreed and strongly agreed that they considered the ten factors when making decisions to purchase imported poultry products than respondents (27.84%) who strongly disagreed and disagreed. Similarly, the standard error bars show that frequencies of 'agree' and 'strongly agree' are significantly higher than the frequencies of 'somewhat agree', 'neither agree nor disagree' and 'somewhat disagree' while the frequencies of 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' are significantly higher than frequencies of 'somewhat disagree', 'neither agree nor disagree' and 'somewhat agree'. The weighted average was calculated and it averaged 4.41 (neither agree nor disagree) out of a possible score of 7 (strongly agree). This implies that, generally, consumers could neither agree nor disagree concerning the ten factors considered in making decisions to purchase imported poultry products.

4.6 FACTOR ANALYSIS

The first procedure in this section was to determine the adequacy of the sample and to test whether or not data permitted factor analysis to be executed. To determine the adequacy of the sample and to test whether or not data permitted factor analysis to be done, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were conducted for each of the constructs using SPSS Version 21 respectively. The KMO statistic varies between 0 and 1; with 0 denoting absolute inadequacy of the sample and 1 denoting absolute adequacy of the sample. Kaiser recommended a statistic of 0.5 as the bare minimum for the sample to be adequate. According to Field (2005:640), the Bartlett's test of Sphericity should be significant at $p < 0.05$ for factor analysis to be performed.

Exploratory factor analyses (EFA) on consumer awareness, consumer attitude, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer purchase behaviour and factors considered were executed using SPSS

Version 21. EFA is used in relation to multi-item scales in order to ascertain whether groups of indicators/items tend to bunch together to form distinct clusters, which are referred to as factors (Bryman, 2008:161). These distinct clusters help the researcher to identify the underlying factors being measured by a scale. The main objective is to reduce the number of variables the researcher is to deal with so as to simplify decision-making by identifying variables among many which might be important in the analysis (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:564; Field, 2005:620).

To further simplify the analysis of factors, factor rotation was performed using the Varimax method. Factor rotation is described as a mathematical way of simplifying factor results for easy interpretation (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:565). The Varimax method of rotation was chosen because it attempts to maximise the dispersion of loadings within factors resulting in clusters of factors that are easy to interpret (Field, 2005:630). Under each factor the items were sorted by size and factor loadings of less than 0.4 were suppressed following Steven's recommendation that only factor loadings greater than 0.4 should be interpreted in order to make interpretation considerably easier (Field, 2005:638).

Reliability analysis of the items loading on a particular factor was also done using Cronbach's α to determine whether or not the items reliably measured the underlying factor. This follows the recommendation by Cronbach that, where several factors exist, reliability analysis should be done separately on each of the factors (Field, 2005:668).

4.6.1 KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity analysis

The results of KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13 KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity statistics

Construct	KMO statistic	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		
		Approx. Chi-Square (χ^2)	Degrees of freedom (Df)	Significance (p value)
Consumer awareness	.763	1924.211	300	.000
Consumer attitude	.917	2712.073	105	.000
Consumer ethnocentrism	.939	2927.833	136	.000
Consumer purchase behaviour	.905	2395.415	105	.000
Factors considered	.821	1269.338	45	.000

Results from Table 4.13 show that the sample was adequate. This follows the recommendation by Field (2005:640) that the KMO statistic should be at least 0.5. According to Field (2005:640), data allow factor analysis to be performed on consumer awareness, consumer attitude, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer purchase behaviour and factors considered as indicated by a p value of less than 0.05 for each of the construct.

4.6.2 Exploratory factor analysis of consumer awareness data

Consumer awareness data were subjected to EFA using the Varimax rotation method. The factors extracted from the data and their item loadings are summarised in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14 Factor loadings of consumer awareness data

Factor name	Items	Factor loadings	% Variance explained	Reliability analysis (Cronbach's α)
Product knowledge	AWNS11	0.733	11.28%	0.778
	AWNS13	0.717		
	AWNS14	0.664		
	AWNS7	0.634		
Price consciousness	AWNS23	0.736	8.74%	0.612
	AWNS22	0.704		
	AWNS24	0.563		
	AWNS21	0.495		
General consumer knowledge	AWNS8	0.801	8.59%	0.726
	AWNS6	0.761		
	AWNS9	0.744		
Bargain hunting	AWNS1	0.784	8.54%	0.623
	AWNS2	0.741		
	AWNS4	0.546		
	AWNS5	0.436		
Obtaining the best deal	AWNS19	0.705	7.88%	0.549
	AWNS25	0.663		
	AWNS12	0.550		
Information search	AWNS15	0.670	7.47%	0.594
	AWNS20	0.640		
	AWNS16	0.569		
	AWNS17	0.553		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.
 Rotation converged in 8 iterations.
 Based on Eigenvalues > 1.00
 Total variance explained = 52.49%
 Loadings of less than 0.4 were suppressed

Initially seven factors were extracted from the data. However, one factor comprised a single item, AWNS10 (Consumer organisations in Zimbabwe deserve better support from consumers). This factor was dropped because a single item is not likely to measure a concept reliably (Eisinga, *te* Grotenhuis & Pelzer, 2013:637; Churchill Jr., 1979:68). Two items were deleted because they loaded on two different factors and this caused confusion i.e. AWNS18 (Sales staff can be an important source of product information) was dropped because it loaded onto product knowledge and price consciousness while AWNS3 (I always shop at more than one store to compare prices and take advantage of the lowest priced item) was dropped because it belonged both to product knowledge and obtaining the best deal. Thus six factors remained as illustrated in Table 4.14. Findings in Table 4.14 show that items that measured the extracted factors displayed acceptable reliability as suggested by Bryman (2008:151) that the Cronbach's α of 0.80 is typically employed as a rule of thumb to denote an acceptable level of internal reliability,

though many researchers work with a slightly lower figure. A detailed explanation of the factors is given below.

4.6.2.1 Product knowledge

The four items explaining this factor are as follows;

- AWNS11: Checking expiry dates on perishable food items is essential for ensuring fresh produce.
- AWNS13: It is important to share product information with friends and relatives.
- AWNS14: Product knowledge is one's best guardian against exploitation.
- AWNS7: More attention should be paid to consumer awareness programmes in school education.

These items focus on knowledge about products; hence the factor was referred to as 'product knowledge'.

4.6.2.2 Price consciousness

The four items that explain this factor were identified as follows;

- AWNS23: When a product is offered at a discount price I am more tempted to buy it.
- AWNS22: Price is the most important factor to me in choosing an item.
- AWNS24: Before deciding where to go shopping, I usually try to find out whether any specials are being offered
- AWNS21: Choosing 'no-name brands' is a good way for beating inflation.

The factor was named 'price consciousness' because the subscale explains the level of price consciousness among consumers.

4.6.2.3 General consumer knowledge

The three items explaining this factor were found to be;

- AWNS8: Too few consumers in Zimbabwe read consumer articles in newspapers, magazines, and online and electronic resources.
- AWNS6: Consumers in Zimbabwe are not aware of their legitimate rights when it comes to doing business or engage in shopping.
- AWNS9: Zimbabwean consumers are not aware of laws available to protect their consumer rights.

The three items explain the general knowledge of consumers. As such, the factor was referred to as 'general consumer knowledge'.

4.6.2.4 Bargain hunting

Bargain hunting comprised the following four items;

- AWNS1: I check the media each week for bargains.
- AWNS2: When I see a 'special' advertised on TV or other media I always follow it up.
- AWNS4: I like searching for bargains at seasonal sales auctions.
- AWNS5: I always try to obtain the best deal.

These four items explain the idea of consumer bargaining. Therefore, the factor was named 'bargain hunting'.

4.6.2.5 Obtaining the best deal

This factor was defined by three items namely;

- AWNS19: Before purchasing a particular product I usually compare various brands to choose the best.
- AWNS25: I always compare prices of similar products on display in the store.
- AWNS12: I always look for a guarantee on expensive products before deciding on the purchase.

The three items explain how consumers obtain the best deal out of their purchase action; hence the factor was referred to as 'obtaining the best deal'.

4.6.2.6 Information search

The four items that explained the sixth factor were as follows;

- AWNS15: I keep a watch on the media for new products and services that may be useful to me.
- AWNS20: I usually consider advertisements for obtaining product information prior to purchase.
- AWNS16: I always consult brochures and pamphlets for information before buying durable goods.
- AWNS17: Seeking information from relatives prior to making final choice is always a good idea.

The four items are based on how consumers search for information in order to make purchase decisions; hence the factor was named 'information search'.

4.6.3 Exploratory factor analysis of consumer attitude data

Exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation method was performed on consumer attitude data. The factors extracted from the data and their item loadings are summarised in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15 Factor loadings of consumer attitude data

Factor name	Items	Factor loadings	% Variance explained	Reliability analysis (Cronbach's α)
Consumer intentions to purchase	ATTI12	0.860	28.18%	0.921
	ATTI13	0.821		
	ATTI11	0.813		
	ATTI15	0.790		
	ATTI14	0.773		
Consumer beliefs	ATTI2	0.815	21.11%	0.851
	ATTI1	0.757		
	ATTI4	0.740		
	ATTI3	0.735		
Consumer feelings	ATTI7	0.770	17.15%	0.627
	ATTI5	0.697		
	ATTI9	0.545		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.
 Rotation converged in 5 iterations.
 Based on Eigenvalues > 1.00
 Total variance explained = 66.44%
 Loadings of less than 0.4 were suppressed

The results from Table 4.15 show that there are three factors extracted from the data. Three items were deleted because they were double loading i.e. belonged to more than one factor and this caused confusion i.e. ATTI6 (Imported poultry products are good) loaded on both consumer beliefs and consumer feelings while ATTI10 (Imported poultry products are preferred most) and ATTI8 (Imported poultry products are excellent) both loaded on consumer intentions to purchase and consumer feelings. The items that measured the extracted factors displayed acceptable reliability as recommended by Bryman (2008:151) that the typical acceptable level of internal reliability is 0.80, however, in many researches slightly lower values have been accepted. A detailed explanation of the factors is given below.

4.6.3.1 Consumer intentions to purchase

This factor is explained by five items as listed below;

- ATTI12: I will spend more on imported poultry products next time I buy poultry products.
- ATTI13: I will recommend others to buy imported poultry products.
- ATTI11: I will definitely buy poultry imports the next time I buy poultry products.
- ATTI15: I would not mind to buy imported poultry products next time
- ATTI14: I intend to buy imported poultry products when I make the next purchase.

These five items explain consumer intentions to purchase imported poultry products; hence the factor was referred to as 'consumer intentions to purchase'.

4.6.3.2 Consumer beliefs

The listed factors below explain this factor;

- ATTI2: Imported poultry products are healthy food.
- ATTI1: Imported poultry products taste good.
- ATTI4: Imported poultry products are safe to consume
- ATTI3: Imported poultry products have good quality.

The subscale explain the beliefs consumers have concerning imported poultry products, hence the factor was named ‘consumer beliefs’.

4.6.3.3 Consumer feelings

The following items explain consumer feelings;

- ATTI7: Imported poultry products are appealing.
- ATTI5: Imported poultry products provide value for money.
- ATTI9: Imported poultry products are favourable.

The factor was referred to as ‘consumer feelings’ because these items explain feelings that consumers have toward imported poultry products.

4.6.4 Exploratory factor analysis of consumer ethnocentrism data

Consumer ethnocentrism data were subjected to EFA using the Varimax rotation method. The factors extracted from the data and their item loadings are summarised in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16 Factor loadings of consumer ethnocentrism data

Factor name	Items	Factor loadings	% Variance explained	Reliability analysis (Cronbach's α)
Negative impact of foreign products	ETHN7	0.808	34.30%	0.911
	ETHN17	0.796		
	ETHN11	0.789		
	ETHN14	0.772		
	ETHN6	0.720		
	ETHN15	0.679		
	ETHN5	0.678		
Preference for domestic products	ETHN12	0.646	23.36%	0.795
	ETHN3	0.750		
	ETHN4	0.736		
	ETHN2	0.673		
	ETHN13	0.592		
	ETHN16	0.589		
	ETHN1	0.549		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.
 Rotation converged in 3 iterations.
 Based on Eigenvalues > 1.00
 Total variance explained = 57.66%
 Loadings of less than 0.4 were suppressed

The results illustrated in Table 4.16 show that there are two factors extracted from the data. Three items, namely ETHN8 (We should purchase poultry products made in Zimbabwe instead of letting other countries get rich off us), ETHN9 (It is always best to purchase Zimbabwean poultry products) and ETHN10 (There should be very little trading or purchasing of poultry products from other countries unless out of necessity) were deleted because they each belonged to the two extracted factors. The items that measured the extracted factors displayed acceptable reliability. This follows the recommendation by Bryman (2008:151) that the typical acceptable level of internal reliability is 0.80; however, in many researches slightly lower values have been accepted. A detailed explanation of the two factors is given below.

4.6.4.1 Negative impact of foreign products

The eight items that explain this factor are listed as follows;

- ETHN7: A real Zimbabwean should always buy Zimbabwean-produced poultry products.
- ETHN17: Zimbabwean consumers who purchase poultry products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Zimbabweans out of work.
- ETHN11: Zimbabweans should not buy imported poultry products because this hurts Zimbabwean businesses and causes unemployment.
- ETHN14: Foreigners should not be allowed to put their poultry products on our markets.
- ETHN6: It is not right to purchase imported poultry products because it puts Zimbabweans out of jobs.
- ETHN15: Imported poultry products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Zimbabwe.
- ETHN5: Purchasing imported poultry products is un-Zimbabwean.
- ETHN12: Curbs should be put on all imported poultry products.

These eight items are based on the negative impact of foreign products on the domestic economy and local employment; hence the factor was named ‘negative impact of foreign products’.

4.6.4.2 Preference for domestic products

The six items explaining this factor are as follows;

- ETHN3: Buy Zimbabwean-produced poultry products; keep Zimbabwe working.
- ETHN4: Zimbabwean poultry products first, last and foremost.
- ETHN2: Only those poultry products that are unavailable in Zimbabwe should be imported.
- ETHN13: It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Zimbabwean poultry products.
- ETHN16: We should buy from foreign countries only those poultry products that we cannot obtain within our country.

- ETHN1: Zimbabwean people should always buy Zimbabwean-made poultry products.
- These six items are based mainly on preference for domestic products. Therefore, the factor was referred to as ‘preference for domestic products’.

4.6.5 Exploratory factor analysis of consumer purchase behaviour data

Exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation method was performed on consumer purchase behaviour data. The results are summarised in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Factor loadings of consumer purchase behaviour data

Factor name	Items	Factor loadings	% Variance explained	Reliability analysis (Cronbach's α)
Repeat purchase	BHVR11	0.870	43.23%	0.936
	BHVR7	0.822		
	BHVR10	0.818		
	BHVR8	0.812		
	BHVR13	0.810		
	BHVR12	0.797		
	BHVR9	0.778		
	BHVR15	0.767		
	BHVR6	0.753		
Trial purchase	BHVR14	0.715	13.67%	0.633
	BHVR2	0.747		
	BHVR3	0.700		
	BHVR1	0.650		
	BHVR4	0.613		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.
 Rotation converged in 3 iterations.
 Based on Eigenvalues > 1.00
 Total variance explained = 56.90%
 Loadings of less than 0.4 were suppressed

The results illustrated in Table 4.17 show that there are two factors extracted from the data. Item BHVR5 (I have tried new imported poultry products through promotions) was deleted because it could not load onto any of the two factors extracted. The items that measured the extracted factors displayed acceptable reliability. This follows Bryman's (2008:151) recommendation that the typical acceptable level of internal reliability is 0.80 even though in many researches slightly lower values have been accepted. A detailed explanation of the two factors is given below.

4.6.5.1 Repeat purchase

The ten items that explain this are listed below;

- BHVR11: I am satisfied with imported poultry products.
- BHVR7: I am willing to buy imported poultry products again.
- BHVR10: I repeatedly spend more on imported poultry products than local products.
- BHVR8: I always buy imported poultry products.

- BHVR13: Consuming imported poultry products is a rational and a wise decision.
- BHVR12: I no longer have doubts in purchasing imported poultry products.
- BHVR9: I often buy imported poultry products in larger quantities.
- BHVR15: I always try to persuade others also to buy imported poultry products.
- BHVR6: I approve imported poultry products.
- BHVR14: I seek promotions that support my choice for imported poultry products compared to local competitive brands

The factor was referred to as ‘repeat purchase’ because the items are based mainly on repeat purchase behaviour of consumers.

4.6.5.2 Trial purchase

The items that explain this factor are as follows;

- BHVR2: I bought small quantities of imported poultry products as a trial.
- BHVR3: I have evaluated imported poultry products through consuming them for the first time.
- BHVR1: I bought imported poultry products for the first time.
- BHVR4: I have been encouraged to try imported poultry products and I did.

These items are explaining trial purchase behaviour of consumers; hence the factor was named ‘trial purchase’.

4.6.6 Exploratory factor analysis of factors considered by consumers data

Exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation method was performed on factors considered data. The results are summarised in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18 Factor loadings of factors considered data

Factor name	Items	Factor loadings	% Variance explained	Reliability analysis (Cronbach's α)
Quality	Taste	0.901	25.53%	0.837
	Health and safety issues	0.827		
	Tenderness	0.727		
Socio-cultural factors	Religious beliefs	0.798	22.67%	0.747
	Influence from family members and others	0.770		
	Social status	0.709		
	Promotional effort of the seller	0.590		
Firm's marketing effort	Availability	0.866	20.76%	0.801
	Price	0.850		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.
 Rotation converged in 5 iterations.
 Based on Eigenvalues > 1.00
 Total variance explained = 68.96%
 Loadings of less than 0.4 were suppressed

The results illustrated in Table 4.18 show that there are three components/factors extracted from the data. One item (Appearance) was deleted because it loaded both onto quality and firm's marketing effort and this causes confusion. The items that measured the extracted factors displayed acceptable reliability. This follows the recommendation by Bryman (2008:151) that the typical acceptable level of internal reliability is 0.80; however, in many researches slightly lower values have been accepted. A detailed explanation of the two factors is given below.

4.6.6.1 Quality

This factor is explained by three items, namely taste, health and safety issues and tenderness. These items are based on the quality of imported poultry products; hence the factor was named 'quality'.

4.6.6.2 Socio-cultural factors

This factor comprised four items, namely religious beliefs, influence from family members, social status and promotional effort of the seller. These factors are mainly related to the socio-cultural factors. As such the factor was referred to as 'socio-cultural factors'. The promotional effort loaded onto sociocultural factors instead of the firm's marketing effort. The possible explanation is that the item was interpreted by the respondents as an informal source of information. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554) classified informal sources of information under sociocultural factors influencing consumer decision making. Informal sources include word of mouth promotion by satisfied individuals, people employed to so or general employees of a particular firm. A more detailed explanation of this finding will be given in the next chapter.

4.6.6.3 Firm's marketing effort

This factor was explained by two items, namely availability and price. These items focus on the marketing activities initiated by the marketer; hence the factor was referred to as 'firm's marketing effort'.

4.7 TESTING OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Having identified the factors underlying the constructs, the next step was to test the research hypotheses so as to determine the nature of the relationships between constructs (variables). The variables for this study were consumer awareness, consumer attitudes, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer purchase behaviour and factors considered by consumers. The individual mean scores for each construct were determined in SPSS Version 21. The mean scores for a construct were based on the aggregate of the items that explained the factors extracted from the construct

divided by the number of items. Hypotheses were tested using multiple regression analysis in SPSS Version 21. The research hypotheses that sought to be tested are as follows;

- H₁** Consumer awareness positively predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.
- H₂** Consumer awareness positively predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.
- H₃** Consumer attitude positively predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.
- H₄** Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.
- H₅** Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.
- H₆** Pertinent factors described (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.
- H₇** Pertinent factors described (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict the choice to purchase imported poultry products.

4.7.1 Consumer attitude and its relationship with consumer awareness, ethnocentrism and factors considered by consumers

H₁ examines if consumer awareness predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. **H₄** examines if consumer ethnocentrism predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. **H₆** examines if pertinent factors described predict consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. To test the hypotheses, multiple regression analysis was executed. The results are presented in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19 Testing H₁, H₄ and H₆: Results of multiple linear regression analysis

Model Summary							
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate			
1	.451	.219	.211	.97326			

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	79.929	3	26.643	28.127	.000
	Residual	285.118	301	.947		
	Total	365.047	304			

Coefficients								
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta (β)			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.391	.432		7.841	.000		
	CONSUMER AWARENESS	.140	.083	.101	2.104	.043	.931	1.074
	CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM	-.414	.047	-.464	-8.777	.000	.931	1.074
	FACTORS	.103	.042	.127	2.442	.015	.958	1.044

- a. Predictors: (Constant), FACTORS, CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM, CONSUMER AWARENESS
b. Dependent Variable: CONSUMER ATTITUDE

As shown in Table 4.19, consumer attitude is the dependent variable and consumer awareness, ethnocentrism and factors are predictors (independent variables). Results show that data fit the model very well, i.e. the model is statistically significant (F ratio = 28.127, significant at $p < 0.001$). The model also shows that 21.9% of the variation (R Square = 0.219) in consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products is explained by consumer awareness and consumer ethnocentrism; implying a good explanatory power of the model. The tolerance and valence inflation factor (VIF) statistics (tolerance ranges between 0.931 and 0.958, VIF ranges between 1.044 and 1.074) show that the model is free from collinearity problems. This follows the recommendations of Saunders *et al.* (2009:463) that a very small tolerance value (0.10 or below) or a large VIF value (10 or above) indicates high collinearity.

Table 4.19 shows that consumer awareness significantly predicts consumer attitudes i.e. consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products is dependent on consumer awareness ($\beta = 0.101$, $t = 2.104$, significant at $p = 0.043$). A positive standardised beta coefficient ($\beta = 0.101$) shows that there is a positive relationship between consumer awareness and consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products. **H₁ is therefore supported.**

Results from Table 4.19 also show that consumer ethnocentrism significantly predicts consumer attitudes i.e. there is an inverse relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products ($\beta = -0.464$, $t = -8.777$, significant at $p < 0.001$). A negative standardised beta coefficient ($\beta = -0.464$) shows that ethnocentric consumers have negative attitudes toward imported poultry products. **H₄ is therefore supported.**

Table 4.19 also shows that, overall, pertinent factors described significantly predict consumer attitude towards imported poultry products ($\beta = 0.127$, $t = 2.442$, significant at $p = 0.015$). A positive standardised beta coefficient ($\beta = 0.127$) shows that, overall, the pertinent factors described positively influences consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. **H₆ is, therefore, supported.** In order to have a solid understanding of the prediction of each of the pertinent factors described on consumer attitude, multiple regression analysis was conducted using the pertinent factors described as independent variables and consumer attitude as the independent variable. Out of the ten factors only two factors (price and influence from others) were found to significantly predict consumer attitude. Price was found to inversely predict consumer attitude ($\beta = -0.125$, $t = -2.120$, significant at $p = 0.041$). The influence from others was also found to inversely predict consumer attitude ($\beta = -0.161$, $t = -2.276$, significant at $p = 0.024$).

4.7.2 Consumer purchase behaviour and its relationship with consumer awareness, attitude, ethnocentrism and factors considered by consumers

H₂ examines if consumer awareness predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. **H₃** examines if consumer attitude predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. **H₅** examines if consumer ethnocentrism predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. **H₇** examines the statistical significance of the factors that are considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. To test the hypotheses, multiple regression analysis was executed. The results are presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20 Testing H₂, H₃, H₅ and H₇: Results of multiple linear regression analysis

Model Summary								
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square		Std. Error of the Estimate			
1	.680	.463	.455		.73087			
ANOVA								
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.		
1	Regression	137.926	4	34.482	64.551	.000		
	Residual	160.253	300	.534				
	Total	298.179	304					
Coefficients								
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta (β)			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.310	.356		3.675	.000		
	CONSUMER AWARENESS	-.040	.063	-.028	-.628	.531	.884	1.131
	CONSUMER ATTITUDE	.604	.043	.668	13.947	.000	.781	1.280
	CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM	-.007	.040	-.009	-.184	.854	.741	1.350
	FACTORS	.034	.032	.046	1.062	.289	.939	1.065

- a. Predictors: (Constant), FACTORS, CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM, CONSUMER AWARENESS, CONSUMER ATTITUDE
b. Dependent Variable: PURCHASE BEHAVIOUR

As shown in Table 4.20, consumer purchase behaviour is the dependent variable and consumer awareness, attitude, ethnocentrism and factors considered by consumers are predictors (independent variables). Results in Table 4.20 show that the model is statistically significant i.e. the data fit the model very well, i.e. (F ratio = 64.551, significant at $p < 0.001$). The model also shows that 46.3% of the variation (R Square = 0.463) in consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products is explained by consumer awareness, consumer attitudes, consumer ethnocentrism and factors considered by consumers; implying a good explanatory power of the model. The model is free from collinearity problems as shown by acceptable tolerance and VIF statistics (consumer awareness tolerance 0.884, VIF 1.131; consumer attitude tolerance 0.781, VIF 1.280; consumer ethnocentrism tolerance 0.741, VIF 1.350; factors considered tolerance 0.939, VIF 1.065) as recommended by (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:463).

Table 4.20 shows that consumer awareness inversely predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. However, the relationship between consumer awareness and consumer purchase behaviour is not statistically significant ($\beta = -0.028$, $t = -0.628$, $p = 0.531$). **H₂ is therefore not supported**, implying that the inverse relationship between consumer awareness and consumer purchase behaviour is not conclusive.

Results from Table 4.20 show that consumer attitude significantly predicts consumer purchase behaviour i.e. there is a positive relationship between consumer attitude and consumer purchase

behaviour towards imported poultry products ($\beta = 0.668$, $t = 13.947$, significant at $p < 0.001$). A positive standardised beta coefficient ($\beta = 0.668$) shows that a positive consumer attitude towards imported poultry products would translate to increased consumer purchase of imported poultry products. **H₃ is therefore supported.**

Results from Table 4.20 show that consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. However, the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer purchase behaviour is not statistically significant ($\beta = -0.009$, $t = -0.184$, $p = 0.854$). **H₅ is therefore not supported.**

As illustrated in Table 4.20, factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products positively predict consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. However, the relationship between factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products and consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products is not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.046$, t value = 1.062, $p = 0.289$). **H₇ is therefore not supported.**

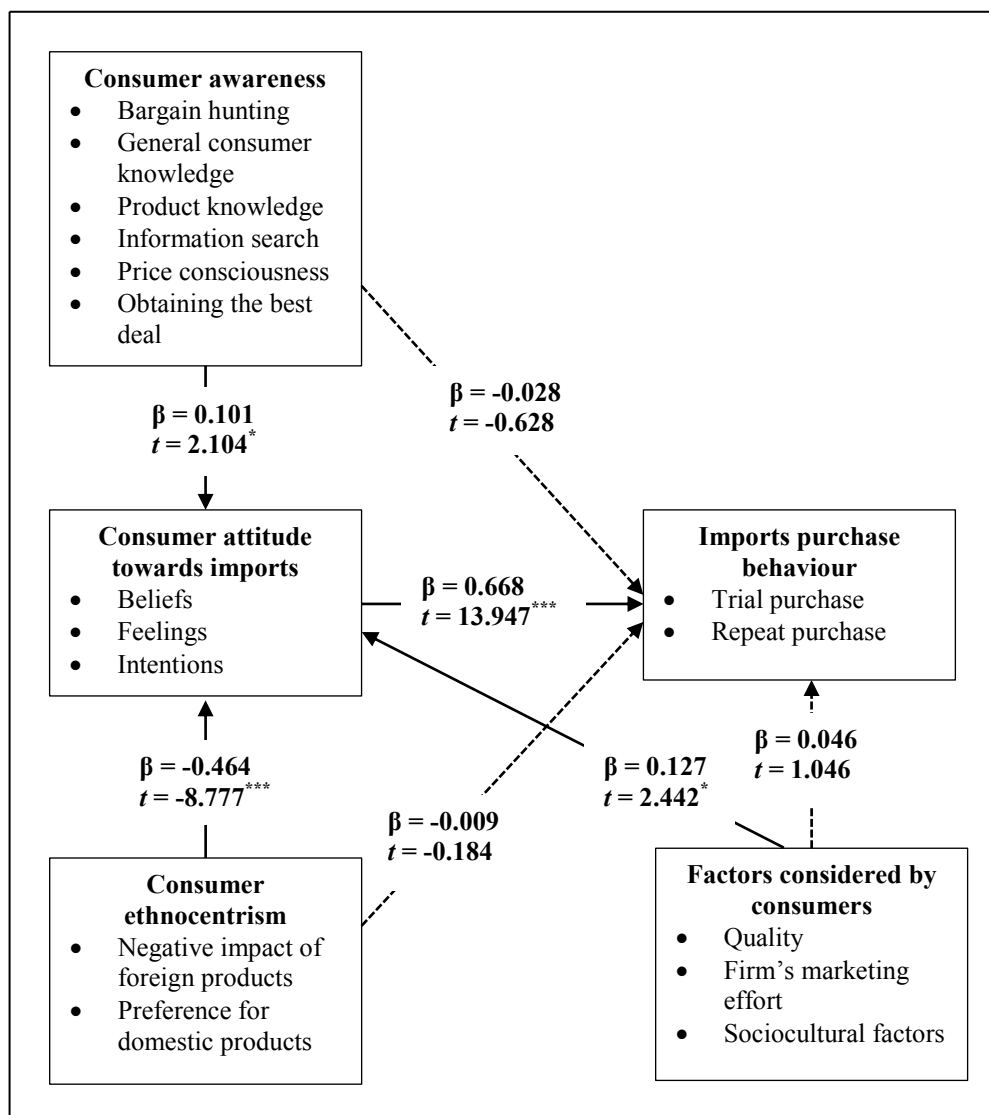
4.7.3 Summary of results of hypotheses testing and confirmed relationships

Table 4.21 presents a summary of the results of hypotheses testing.

Table 4.21 Summary of results of hypotheses testing

Hypothesis	Result
H₁ Consumer awareness positively predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.	H₁ was supported
H₂ Consumer awareness positively predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.	H ₂ was not supported
H₃ Consumer attitude positively predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.	H₃ was supported
H₄ Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.	H₄ was supported
H₅ Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.	H ₅ was not supported
H₆ Pertinent factors described (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.	H₆ was supported
H₇ Pertinent factors described (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict the choice to purchase imported poultry products.	H ₇ was not supported

It can be established from Table 4.21 that **H₁**, **H₃**, **H₄** and **H₆** were supported and that **H₂**, **H₅** and **H₇** were not supported. Confirmed relationships among the study constructs and their underlying attributes (factors) are, therefore, illustrated in Figure 4.6.



Notes:

* = Significant at $p < 0.05$

** = Significant at $p < 0.01$

*** = Significant at $p < 0.001$

————> Confirmed relationship

-----> Unconfirmed relationship

Figure 4.6 Conceptual framework showing confirmed relationships

4.8 EFFECTS OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

This section is concerned with an assessment of the effects of socio-demographic variables on consumer awareness, consumer attitude, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer purchase behaviour and factors considered by consumers. The variables considered are gender, age, marital status, city of residence, residential area within city, education, income, ethnic grouping and household size. Religion was excluded from the test because almost all (98%) of the respondents are Christians. An understanding of the effects of socio-demographic variables on the study

constructs is instrumental. As confirmed by Kotler *et al.* (2009:342), Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:9), Kotler and Keller (2006:208) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:54), socio-demographics constitute one of the important variables that are used to segment consumer markets.

Hair Jr. *et al.* (2008:258) recommend Independent *t*-Test to test for statistical difference between two group means, and also analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine statistical difference between three or more group means. As such Independent *t*-Tests were performed for gender, city of residence and ethnic grouping because questions on these items consisted of only two response categories (groups), and one way ANOVA was executed on age, marital status, education, income, residential area and household size because questions on these items comprised at least three response categories (groups). Both *t*-Tests and ANOVA were executed in SPSS Version 21.

4.8.1 Effects of socio-demographic characteristics on consumer awareness

Results from Independent *t*-Test of gender differences on consumer awareness show that the level of consumer awareness among females ($M = 5.047$, $SD = 0.740$) is higher than the level of consumer awareness among males ($M = 4.932$, $SD = 0.678$). However, at 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference in consumer awareness between males and females is not statistically significant ($F = 0.775$, $t = -1.405$, $df = 303$, $p = 0.379$); implying that the level of consumer awareness among males is not significantly different from the level of consumer awareness among females.

Independent *t*-Test of city of residence differences on consumer awareness results show that the level of consumer awareness in Harare ($M = 5.064$, $SD = 0.713$) is higher than the level of consumer awareness in Bulawayo ($M = 4.902$, $SD = 0.693$). At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference in consumer awareness between consumers in Harare and consumers in Bulawayo is not statistically significant ($F = 0.203$, $t = 1.988$, $df = 303$, $p = 0.653$); implying that the level of consumer awareness in Harare and Bulawayo is not significantly different.

Results from Independent *t*-Test of ethnic grouping differences on consumer awareness show that the mean ratings of consumer awareness based on ethnic grouping are almost equal i.e. Shona ($M = 4.983$, $SD = 0.717$) and Ndebele ($M = 4.954$, $SD = 0.666$). At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference of consumer awareness between Shona consumers and Ndebele consumers is not statistically significant ($F = 1.863$, $t = 0.282$, $df = 287$, $p = 0.173$); implying that Shona consumers and Ndebele consumers do not significantly differ in the level of consumer awareness.

One way ANOVA was executed to test for significant consumer awareness differences due to age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size. The results are presented in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22 One way ANOVA: Mean differences of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size on consumer awareness

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	106.921	69	1.550	1.255	.109
	Within Groups	290.076	235	1.234		
	Total	396.997	304			
Marital status	Between Groups	53.123	69	.770	1.017	.451
	Within Groups	177.880	235	.757		
	Total	231.003	304			
Residential area	Between Groups	47.280	69	.685	.966	.558
	Within Groups	166.772	235	.710		
	Total	214.052	304			
Highest level of education	Between Groups	137.458	69	1.992	1.162	.207
	Within Groups	403.053	235	1.715		
	Total	540.511	304			
Monthly gross income (USD)	Between Groups	87.129	69	1.263	.902	.688
	Within Groups	328.924	235	1.400		
	Total	416.052	304			
Number of household members	Between Groups	146.078	69	2.117	.966	.556
	Within Groups	514.762	235	2.190		
	Total	660.839	304			

As illustrated in Table 4.22, there are no statistical differences on consumer awareness attributable to age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size because the p value is greater than 0.05 and the F-ratio is not large (ranges between 0.902 and 1.255) in all cases.

4.8.2 Effects of socio-demographic characteristics on consumer attitudes

Results from Independent t -Test of gender differences on consumer attitudes towards imported poultry products reveal that the group mean rating of consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products is higher for males ($M = 2.539$, $SD = 1.131$) than females ($M = 2.348$, $SD = 1.061$). However, at 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference in attitudes between males and females is not statistically significant ($F = 0.373$, $t = 1.516$, $df = 303$, $p = 0.542$); implying that the attitudes of males toward imported poultry products are not significantly different from the attitudes of females.

Independent t -Test of city of residence differences on consumer attitudes show that the mean rating of consumer attitudes in Harare ($M = 2.517$, $SD = 1.114$) is higher than the mean rating of consumer attitudes in Bulawayo ($M = 2.235$, $SD = 1.066$). At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference in attitudes between consumers in Harare and consumers in

Bulawayo is not statistically significant ($F = 0.120$, $t = 1.518$, $df = 303$, $p = 0.730$); implying that the attitudes of consumers toward imported poultry products in Harare and Bulawayo is not significantly different.

Results from Independent t -Test of ethnic grouping differences on consumer awareness reveal that the mean rating of consumer attitudes based on ethnic grouping is almost equal i.e. Shona ($M = 2.427$, $SD = 1.070$) and Ndebele ($M = 2.414$, $SD = 1.177$). At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference of consumer attitudes between Shona consumers and Ndebele consumers is not statistically significant ($F = 1.689$, $t = 0.082$, $df = 287$, $p = 0.195$); implying that Shona consumers and Ndebele consumers do not differ in their attitudes toward imported poultry products.

One way ANOVA was performed to test if there are significant differences on consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products due to age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size. The results are presented in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23 One way ANOVA: Mean differences of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size on consumer attitudes

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	73.305	51	1.437	1.123	.278
	Within Groups	323.692	253	1.279		
	Total	396.997	304			
Marital status	Between Groups	32.863	51	.644	.823	.797
	Within Groups	198.141	253	.783		
	Total	231.003	304			
Residential area	Between Groups	36.229	51	.710	1.011	.461
	Within Groups	177.823	253	.703		
	Total	214.052	304			
Highest level of education	Between Groups	101.983	51	2.000	1.154	.237
	Within Groups	438.528	253	1.733		
	Total	540.511	304			
Monthly gross income (USD)	Between Groups	59.893	51	1.174	.834	.779
	Within Groups	356.159	253	1.408		
	Total	416.052	304			
Number of household members	Between Groups	126.890	51	2.488	1.179	.207
	Within Groups	533.949	253	2.110		
	Total	660.839	304			

Results from Table 4.23 reveal that there are no statistical differences on consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products attributable to age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size because the p value is greater 0.05 and the F-ratio is not large (ranges between 0.823 and 1.179) in all cases.

4.8.3 Effects of socio-demographic characteristics on consumer ethnocentrism

Results from Independent *t*-Test of gender differences on consumer ethnocentrism reveal that the group mean rating of consumer ethnocentrism is higher for females ($M = 5.183$, $SD = 1.131$) than males ($M = 4.953$, $SD = 1.246$). However, at 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference in consumer ethnocentrism between females and males is not statistically significant ($F = 0.513$, $t = -1.640$, $df = 303$, $p = 0.474$); implying that female ethnocentric tendencies are not significantly different from male ethnocentric tendencies.

Independent *t*-Test of city of residence differences on consumer ethnocentrism results show that the mean rating of consumer ethnocentrism in Bulawayo ($M = 5.264$, $SD = 1.068$) is higher than the mean rating of consumer ethnocentrism in Harare ($M = 4.940$, $SD = 1.318$). At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference in consumer ethnocentrism between consumers in Bulawayo and consumers in Harare is not statistically significant ($F = 2.367$, $t = -2.293$, $df = 303$, $p = 0.125$); implying that consumer ethnocentric tendencies in Bulawayo and Harare are not significantly different.

Results from Independent *t*-Test of ethnic grouping differences on consumer ethnocentrism reveal that the mean rating of consumer ethnocentrism based on ethnic grouping is higher for Ndebele consumers ($M = 5.227$, $SD = 1.997$) than for Shona consumers ($M = 5.053$, $SD = 1.284$). At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference of consumer ethnocentrism between Ndebele consumers and Shona consumers is not statistically significant ($F = 2.409$, $t = -0.947$, $df = 287$, $p = 0.122$); implying that Ndebele consumers and Shona consumers do not differ in their ethnocentric tendencies.

One way ANOVA was performed to test if there are significant differences on consumer ethnocentrism due to age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size. The results are presented in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24 One way ANOVA: Mean differences of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size on consumer ethnocentrism

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	101.225	68	1.489	1.188	.176
	Within Groups	295.772	236	1.253		
	Total	396.997	304			
Marital status	Between Groups	49.999	68	.735	.959	.571
	Within Groups	181.004	236	.767		
	Total	231.003	304			
Residential area	Between Groups	48.993	68	.720	1.030	.425
	Within Groups	165.060	236	.699		
	Total	214.052	304			
Highest level of education	Between Groups	123.126	68	1.811	1.024	.438
	Within Groups	417.385	236	1.769		
	Total	540.511	304			
Monthly gross income (USD)	Between Groups	92.351	68	1.358	.990	.506
	Within Groups	323.702	236	1.372		
	Total	416.052	304			
Number of household members	Between Groups	136.244	68	2.004	.901	.688
	Within Groups	524.595	236	2.223		
	Total	660.839	304			

Results from Table 4.24, reveal that there are no statistical differences on consumer ethnocentrism attributable to age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size because the p value is greater than 0.05 and the F-ratio is not large (ranges between 0.901 and 1.188) in all cases.

4.8.4 Effects of socio-demographic characteristics on consumer purchase behaviour

Results from Independent t -Test of gender differences on consumer purchase behaviour show that the group mean rating of consumer purchase behaviour is higher for males $M = 2.753$, $SD = 1.014$) than females ($M = 2.644$, $SD = 0.971$). However, at 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference in consumer purchase behaviour between males and females is not statistically significant ($F = 0.005$, $t = -0.958$, $df = 303$, $p = 0.943$); implying that male purchase behaviour is not significantly different from female purchase behaviour.

Independent t -Test of city of residence differences on consumer purchase behaviour results reveal that the mean rating of consumer purchase behaviour in Harare ($M = 2.748$, $SD = 1.071$) is higher than the mean rating of consumer purchase behaviour in Bulawayo ($M = 2.620$, $SD = 0.869$). At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference in consumer purchase behaviour between consumers in Harare and consumers in Bulawayo is not statistically significant ($F = 1.828$, $t = 1.120$, $df = 303$, $p = 0.177$); implying that consumer purchase behaviour in Harare and Bulawayo is not significantly different.

Results from Independent t -Test of ethnic grouping differences on consumer purchase behaviour show that the mean rating of consumer purchase behaviour based on ethnic grouping

is almost the same for Shona consumers ($M = 2.670$, $SD = 0.989$) and Ndebele consumers ($M = 2.648$, $SD = .906$). At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), there is no statistical difference in consumer purchase behaviour between Shona consumers and Ndebele consumers ($F = 2.409$, $t = -0.947$, $df = 287$, $p = 0.122$); implying that Shona and Ndebele consumers do not differ in their purchase behaviour.

One way ANOVA was executed to test if there are significant differences on consumer purchase behaviour due to age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size. The results are presented in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25 One way ANOVA: Mean differences of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size on consumer purchase behaviour

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	89.515	58	1.543	1.235	.139
	Within Groups	307.481	246	1.250		
	Total	396.997	304			
Marital status	Between Groups	35.221	58	.607	.763	.890
	Within Groups	195.783	246	.796		
	Total	231.003	304			
Residential area	Between Groups	50.024	58	.862	1.293	.094
	Within Groups	164.029	246	.667		
	Total	214.052	304			
Highest level of education	Between Groups	107.788	58	1.858	1.056	.378
	Within Groups	432.724	246	1.759		
	Total	540.511	304			
Monthly gross income (USD)	Between Groups	92.097	58	1.588	1.206	.167
	Within Groups	323.955	246	1.317		
	Total	416.052	304			
Number of household members	Between Groups	116.975	58	2.017	.912	.654
	Within Groups	543.864	246	2.211		
	Total	660.839	304			

Results from Table 4.25, show that there are no statistical differences on consumer purchase behaviour attributable to age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size because the p value is greater 0.05 and the F-ratio is not large (ranges between 0.763 and 1.293) in all cases.

4.8.5 Effects of socio-demographic characteristics on factors considered by consumers: results from structured questions

Results from Independent t -Test of gender differences on factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products show that the mean rating of factors considered by females ($M = 4.511$, $SD = 1.399$) when purchasing imported poultry products is higher than that of males ($M = 4.181$, $SD = 1.275$). However, at 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference in the rating of factors considered between females and males is not statistically

significant ($F = 1.128$, $t = -2.136$, $df = 303$, $p = 0.289$); implying that the factors considered by females and males when purchasing imported poultry products is not significantly different.

Independent t -Test of city of residence differences on factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products was performed. The results reveal that the mean rating of factors considered by consumers in Harare ($M = 4.458$, $SD = 1.256$) is higher than that of consumers in Bulawayo ($M = 4.230$, $SD = 1.465$). At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference in factors considered between consumers in Harare and consumers in Bulawayo is statistically significant ($F = 7.067$, $t = 1.430$, $df = 252.530$, $p = 0.008$); implying that consumers in Harare significantly consider the factors when purchasing imported poultry products more than consumers in Bulawayo. Although the mean difference is statistically significant, the mean ratings of 4.458 in Harare and 4.230 in Bulawayo out of a possible score of 7 fall within the same response category of neither agree nor disagree. This implies that consumers in Harare do not more diligently consider the prescribed factors when purchasing imported poultry products.

Further Independent t -Test analysis was done to determine specific factor differences in mean rating due to city of residence. Differences were noted in appearance and price. The mean \pm SD rating of appearance in Harare ($M = 5.05 \pm 1.89$, implying somewhat agree) was found to be significantly higher than the mean \pm SD rating in Bulawayo ($M = 4.68 \pm 2.13$, implying somewhat agree) at $F = 5.122$, $p < 0.05$. This implies that consumers both in Harare and Bulawayo were sensitive to appearance of imported poultry products. However, consumers in Harare were more sensitive than consumers in Bulawayo. The mean \pm SD rating of price in Harare ($M = 5.35 \pm 1.69$, implying somewhat agree) was found to be significantly higher than the mean \pm SD rating in Bulawayo ($M = 5.08 \pm 2.14$, implying somewhat agree) at $F = 13.097$, $p < 0.0001$. This implies that consumers both in Harare and Bulawayo were diligent in consideration of price of imported poultry products. However, consumers in Harare were more diligent than consumers in Bulawayo.

Results from Independent t -Test of ethnic grouping differences on factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products show that the mean ratings of factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products based on ethnic grouping are almost equal i.e. Shona ($M = 4.306$, $SD = 1.354$) and Ndebele ($M = 4.452$, $SD = 1.322$). At 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the mean difference of factors considered between Shona consumers and Ndebele consumers is not statistically significant ($F = 0.001$, $t = -0.731$, $df = 287$, $p = 0.982$); implying that Shona consumers and Ndebele consumers do not significantly differ in the factors they consider when purchasing imported poultry products.

One way ANOVA was performed to test if there are significant differences on factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products as a result of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size. The results are presented in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26 One way ANOVA: Mean differences of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size on factors considered by consumers

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	72.068	50	1.441	1.127	.274
	Within Groups	324.929	254	1.279		
	Total	396.997	304			
Marital status	Between Groups	33.766	50	.675	.870	.718
	Within Groups	197.237	254	.777		
	Total	231.003	304			
Residential area	Between Groups	38.506	50	.770	1.114	.292
	Within Groups	175.546	254	.691		
	Total	214.052	304			
Highest level of education	Between Groups	82.786	50	1.656	.919	.631
	Within Groups	457.725	254	1.802		
	Total	540.511	304			
Monthly gross income (USD)	Between Groups	51.708	50	1.034	.721	.918
	Within Groups	364.345	254	1.434		
	Total	416.052	304			
Number of household members	Between Groups	113.589	50	2.272	1.054	.385
	Within Groups	547.251	254	2.155		
	Total	660.839	304			

As illustrated in Table 4.26, there are no statistical differences on factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products as a result of age, marital status, residential area, education, income and household size because the p value is greater 0.05 and the F-ratio is not large (ranges between 0.274 and 0.918) in all cases.

4.9 FACTORS CONSIDERED BY CONSUMERS: FINDINGS FROM QUALITATIVE DATA

This section presents results on qualitative data i.e. data that were collected by means of open ended questions using the interviewer administered questionnaire in order to have an in depth understanding of the factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. The respondents were asked to describe the factors that they consider when purchasing imported poultry products. They were also asked to explain why they considered those factors to be critical. Probing questions were also asked as a follow up in order to clarify any ambiguous responses. Open ended questions ensured that that the respondents could openly express their views; the intention being to validate results from the structured ten-item scale. This notion is supported by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:27) who argue that quantitative and qualitative approaches are complementary in nature; the prediction made possible by quantitative research and the understanding provided by qualitative research work together to

bring out a richer and more robust profile of consumer behaviour than when either research approach is used in isolation.

Qualitative data were entered into SPSS Version 21 as string type and then case summaries were computer generated to give the output in the form of a table. The analysis of data was then done at three levels, namely thematic analysis, content analysis and discourse analysis. Themes and content were identified from the data and ranked according to frequencies. Results are reported in two main sections. First, those factors prescribed in the structured data collection for quantitative analysis that were confirmed as critical are reported. These factors are price and quality. Second, emerging factors unidentified in the structured data collection are also reported. These factors emerged as genetically modified food status, product labelling, country of origin, packaging, production methods and branding. In addition, results on the effects of socio-demographic factors on emerging factors are also presented.

4.9.1 Factors emerging from quantitative data that were confirmed qualitatively

The findings from open ended questions confirm that price and quality are important factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. An in depth explanation of these factors as given by the respondents is given below. All respondents' views are reflected *verbatim* throughout this section.

4.9.1.1 Price

A significant proportion (43.85%) of the respondents echoed price as a key factor that they consider when purchasing imported poultry products. Table 4.27 shows selected sentiments from the respondents concerning price.

Table 4.27 Selected respondents' remarks about price

Respondent (R)	Remark
R4	...because cheaper price enables me to buy more and save for other necessity....
R35	...imported poultry products are suitable for a family of six because they have big portions and cheap...
R62	...they are cheaper brands hence I buy because that is what I can afford...
R75	Poultry imports are the only option because they are affordable unlike local products that are expensive...
R76	Price! Imported poultry products are affordable unlike local products that are priced out of the market... People want value for money...
R92	Affordability! Money is a scarce resource so I would rather buy imports...
R111	The price to some extent matters when local products are exorbitant...
R119	...price because imports are usually cheaper...
R130	Affordability! One has to live within means and thus tend to buy cheaper products that are affordable...
R136	Local products are very expensive. I have to feed the family! So if I can't afford local products which are mostly priced higher, I buy imports!
R164	The price of poultry imports is competitive as compared to the local products...
R190	Our local products are more expensive than imports...
R222	Imported poultry products have become a relief to those families who cannot afford to buy local chickens which are somewhat expensive...
R293	...price should be reasonable...poultry imports are reasonably priced...

Responses from Table 4.27 show that the respondents were very passionate about the discussion on price. The buttressing concern raised by the respondents shows that local poultry products are more expensive than imported poultry products. For example, Respondent 222 had this to say, "Imported poultry products have become a relief to those families who cannot afford to buy local chickens which are somewhat expensive..." Another insight came from Respondent 75, "poultry imports are the only option because they are affordable unlike local products that are expensive..." In this regard, the respondents were likely to buy poultry imports based on their low price. To have a deeper understanding of price as an important factor considered by consumers when local products are available, the respondents were probed with further questions. Critical issues that the researcher had not captured in the literature review concerning price emerged, namely quantity purchased and pack sizes as well as income levels and propensity to save.

4.9.1.1.1 Quantity purchased and pack sizes

Of those respondents who identified price as an important factor, a significant percentage (81.58%) highlighted the importance of quantity purchased and packs sizes. Selected remarks from the respondents concerning quantity purchased and pack sizes are presented in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28 Selected respondents' remarks concerning quantity purchased and pack sizes

Respondent (R)	Remark
R2	considering the income that I earn, price and quantity will always be a major factor of concern to me
R70	price and quantity...depends on the amount of money I have; I may buy if I don't have enough money
R73	...price, packaging determines the quantity bought and affordable...
R76	...price and quantity... imported poultry products are affordable unlike local products that are priced out of the market... they are available in smaller affordable units....
R120	...we buy based on quantity not quality...smaller packages in which poultry imports come in are affordable...bigger packages are also reasonably priced...
R262	...affordability in relation to quantity is critical...

The remarks in Table 4.28 reveal the general perception of the respondents that imported poultry products are cheaper than local poultry products and that imported poultry products are available in varying selling units (pack sizes). One lesson drawn from this is that, because poultry imports are cheaper, it is possible for the respondents to purchase larger quantities than local poultry products. Another observation from Table 4.28 is that the respondents are excited about the availability of imported poultry products in various pack sizes as demonstrated by Respondent 120, "...we buy based on quantity not quality...smaller packages in which poultry imports come in are affordable...bigger packages are also reasonably priced..." This gives an indication that imported poultry products are available in smaller pack sizes which cost less and are affordable to the ordinary consumer while the bigger pack sizes are still reasonably priced better than local poultry products.

4.9.1.1.2 Income levels and propensity to save

The other respondents (18.42%) who identified price as important factor also gave a different dimension concerning price showing that income levels and associated savings are of paramount importance in their shopping behaviour of imported poultry products. Table 4.29 presents selected respondents' remarks concerning income levels and propensity to save.

Table 4.29 Selected respondents' remarks about income levels and propensity to save

Respondent (R)	Remark	Income level
R2	Considering the income that I earn, price and quantity will always be a major factor of concern to me...	Less than USD500
R5	Sometimes lack of sufficient funds forces me to buy imports because they are cheaper...	Less than USD500
R9	The income contributes to buying the imported poultry products because they are cheap...	USD500-999
R17	Price! ...poultry imports are important because they will leave your pocket with some money that you can use for other things...	Less than USD500
R130	Affordability! One has to live within means and thus tend to buy cheaper products that are affordable...	USD500-999
R135	If there is not enough money one would be forced to consider the price of the product...	Less than USD500
R161	The incomes being earned by people in Zimbabwe make price a supreme factor when deciding on what to purchase...	USD500-999
R205	I will be focussing on my budget. Poultry imports are cheaper when buying for a big function	Less than USD500
R225	...their affordability allows you to save...	USD500-999
R231	...we buy cheaper imported products because of low salaries...	Less than USD500

Of critical importance from Table 4.29 are the respondents' level of income earned and the desire to save money from the income earned. The respondents acknowledged that they purchased imported poultry products because they are cheaper. This implies that the relatively low price of poultry imports is commensurate with the consumers' incomes that are generally low (as already reported under socio-demographics in this chapter) unlike local poultry products that are relatively more expensive. The consumers' responses depict some form of tolerance towards the purchase of imported poultry products as evidenced in some responses that they are forced to purchase imported poultry products. For example, Respondent 5, "sometimes lack of sufficient funds forces me to buy imports because they are cheaper..." [income level less than USD 500]; Respondent 135, "if there is not enough money one would be forced to consider the price of the product..." [income level less than USD500]. This shows that even if the respondents would want to purchase local products (perceived as expensive), they may not do so because they cannot afford with their low incomes as shown in Table 4.29. Evidence from the findings also shows that the propensity to save would also drive the respondents to purchase imported poultry products. Being relatively cheaper than local poultry products, imported poultry products enable consumers to save money. The respondents demonstrated passion about saving money that can be used to buy other requirements whenever they make a purchase as demonstrated by Respondent 17, "...poultry imports are important because they will leave your pocket with some money that you can use for other things..." and Respondent 225, "...their affordability allows you to save..."

4.9.1.2 Quality

Another important factor considered by consumers (12.15%) when purchasing imported poultry products is quality. The selected commentaries presented in Table 4.30 were given by the respondents.

Table 4.30 Selected respondents' remarks regarding quality

Respondent (R)	Remark
R19	Quality for the good health of my family...price so that I get good quality for money...
R45	Poultry imports are affordable but tasteless, their appearance and tenderness is better than local products...
R51	A product might be cheaper but at the same time not good for the health of the human body. A product may be of good quality but too expensive and thus afforded by only a few people. Good quality products should be readily available and affordable...
R132 a lot of imported poultry products have been associated with cancer related diseases...
R132	Most imported poultry products though priced lower than local products do not taste as good as local products...
R186	...price indicates the value of a product...it determines the quality of the product.
R194	...good appearance but do not taste good hence not healthy...
R296	When it comes to food health is very important...quality of any product is of paramount importance....

Sticking out from the responses given in Table 4.30 about quality are five issues. First, the respondents express their concern about healthy issues related to imported poultry products. For example, Respondent 132 remarked, "...a lot of imported poultry products have been associated with cancer related diseases..." Second, taste is another important consideration when purchasing imported poultry products. For example, Respondent 132 remarked, "most imported poultry products though priced lower than local products do not taste as good as local products..." Third, the appearance or colour of imported poultry products is of reasonable importance to the consumers. To this effect, Respondent 194 had this to say, "...good appearance but do not taste good hence not healthy..." The fourth issue arising from Table 4.30...is tenderness of the imported poultry products. In this regard, Respondent 45 had this say, "poultry imports are affordable but tasteless, their appearance and tenderness is better than local products..." The fifth emerging issue is price as an indicator of the quality of imported poultry products. In view of this Respondent 186 remarked, "...price indicates the value of a product...it determines the quality of the product". In order to have an in-depth understanding of these issues, respondents were probed to explain these emerging factors. The findings are explained below.

4.9.1.2.1 *Health and safety issues*

Of those respondents who identified quality as an important factor, 43.75% were critical about health and safety issues concerning the quality of imported poultry products. Table 4.31 illustrates selected remarks of the respondents concerning health and safety issues.

Table 4.31 Selected respondents' remarks concerning health and safety issues

Respondent (R)	Remark
R15	To safeguard my health and that of my family
R19	Quality is important for the good health of my family...
R131	Health is the most important factor because it can cost you in the long term if you don't watch what you eat...
R160	Poultry imports are poisonous and full of artificial stuff which later has side effects health wise...I care for my health so much that I do not want to end up with health complications that I would have avoided. Healthy eating is good...
R206	Quality affects an individual's health. When buying a product health aspects should be considered...
R222	Imported poultry products have become a relief to those families who cannot afford to buy local chickens which are somewhat expensive although they are unhealthy to the consumer...
R257	I consider my health first...
R292	If we need good health we should not purchase imported poultry products...

Responses from Table 4.31 show a general negative respondent perception of imported poultry products with regards to health and safety issues. An illustration of this is given by Respondent 160, "poultry imports are poisonous and full of artificial stuff which later has side effects health wise... I care for my health so much that I do not want to end up with health complications that I would have avoided. Healthy eating is good..." In agreement, Respondent 292 also expresses the same sentiment; "if we need good health we should not purchase imported poultry products..." However, evidence from research also suggests that there is a positive side of imported poultry products as raised by Respondent 222 that, "imported poultry products have become a relief to those families who cannot afford to buy local chickens which are somewhat expensive although they are unhealthy to the consumer..." This implies that the respondents still purchase imported poultry products because they are cheaper despite perceived health risks associated with the products. Follow up questions on why the respondents perceive imported poultry products as a health risk revealed that they were not sure of how these products were processed and handled along the value chain until the products reached the final consumer. This issue will be covered in detail under the section on production methods.

4.9.1.2.2 *Taste*

A reasonable proportion (31.25%) of the respondents who identified quality as an important factor acknowledged that the taste of imported poultry products is an issue of concern as illustrated by selected remarks from the respondents presented in Table 4.32.

Table 4.32 Selected respondents' remarks about taste

Respondent (R)	Remark
R7	They are of poor quality compared to Zimbabwean poultry; the taste is not that good...
R12	Large portions which are cheaper, but taste is not appealing; meat shrink after being put in water and yield more water...
R15	...they have a 'soppy' taste...
R18	Poultry imports are unhealthy, tasteless and unappetising...
R28	...their taste is not as good as local products...
R40	Imported poultry products are tasteless and 'toughie' when cooked, they are expensive...
R44	...is not pleasant at all, prefer naturally grown chickens...
R54	Their taste is not so good...
R63	Waste ever products I have tasted! They have too much fat and do not taste nice at all...
R96	Poultry imports are not very popular with my family because they are tasteless...
R108	They do not taste as good as local products...
R149	Despite their impressive weight the taste is awful...
R182	They don't taste natural...
R221	They taste awful...
R261	Imported poultry products are tasteless and not palatable...

The respondents were clear on the need to enjoy food, indicating that palatability is always an issue that cannot be ignored when it comes to consumption of a food product. The sentiments expressed by the respondents in Table 4.32 seem to show that, generally, the taste of imported poultry products is unacceptable, bad, poor and unpleasant as evidenced by the following remarks: ...they have a 'soppy' taste... Respondent 15; "poultry imports are unhealthy, tasteless and unappetising..." Respondent 18; "Despite their impressive weight the taste is awful..." Respondent 149. Evidence from the findings also suggests that local poultry products are tastier than imported poultry products as demonstrated by the following remarks: "They are of poor quality compared to Zimbabwean poultry; the taste is not that good..." Respondent 7; "...their taste is not as good as local products..." Respondent 28; "They do not taste as good as local products..." Respondent 108.

4.9.1.2.3 *Appearance*

Some respondents (15.63%) who identified quality as a factor of importance shared the view that appearance or colour is also critical when it comes to the quality of imported poultry products. Table 4.33 presents some of the remarks from the respondents concerning appearance.

Table 4.33 Selected respondents' remarks regarding taste

Respondent (R)	Response
R45	...affordable but tasteless, their appearance and tenderness is better than local products...
R73	Poultry imports have good appearance but are tasteless...
R118	...appearance is important...I would not want to buy something unappealing...
R180	Imported poultry products in appearance they are good...
R194	...good appearance but do not taste good...
R208	...their appearance is attractive...
R248	Poultry imports are attractive in appearance...
R286	...imported poultry products have a catchy appearance....

The sticking point in the discussion is that the appearance of poultry products has to be attractive and appetising. It is evident from Table 4.33 that the respondents seem to perceive the appearance of imported poultry products as attractive. This is illustrated by such remarks from the respondents: "Poultry imports are attractive in appearance..." Respondent 248; "...imported poultry products have a catchy appearance..." Respondent 286. This implies that imported poultry products seem to be appealing to the eyes of the respondents.

4.9.1.2.4 *Tenderness*

Out of those respondents who viewed quality as an important factor, a small proportion (6.25%) identified tenderness as a key quality aspect considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. The sentiments expressed by the respondents are presented in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34 Selected respondents' remarks concerning tenderness

Respondent (R)	Response
R9	...imported poultry products are tender
R45	Poultry imports are affordable but tasteless, their appearance and tenderness is better than local products...
R119	...they are tenderer than local products...
R225	...they are tender but most are of poor quality...
R268	...that is what everyone looks for tender meat...

Evidence from Table 4.34 suggests that the issue of tenderness is a critical one when it comes to the purchase of imported poultry products. The respondents' sentiments presented in Table 4.34 generally give an impression that the respondents perceive imported poultry products as tender. For example, "...imported poultry products are tender", Respondent 9. The other finding is that imported poultry products are perceived as tenderer than local poultry products as demonstrated by Respondent 119, "...they are tenderer than local products..." This implication of this is that the respondents were likely to purchase imported poultry products because they are tender.

4.9.1.2.5 *Price as a quality cue*

Of those respondents who identified quality as an important factor, a small proportion (3.13%) acknowledged the importance of price as an important factor that can be used as a cue to the quality of imported poultry products. Respondent 186 exclaimed, "...price indicates the value of a product..., it determines the quality of the product..." Similarly, Respondent 277 had this to say, "...price might have a bearing on the quality of the product..." Probing the respondents further revealed that the respondents were in the adamant in using price to evaluate the quality of imported poultry products. It was evident that this minority of consumers held the view that the low prices associated with imported poultry products go hand in hand with their poor quality.

4.9.2 Emerging factors

This section presents results on new emerging factors as expressed by the respondents. The influence of socio-demographic factors on the factors is also given. An in depth presentation of the emerging factors considered by consumers is given below. All respondents' views are reflected *verbatim* throughout this section.

4.9.2.1 *Genetically modified food status*

The issue of genetically modified (GM) food status emerged as a critical factor considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. A reasonable proportion (14.85%) of the respondents acknowledged that GM food status is a sensitive issue and that it has to be known before a purchase of imported poultry products is made. The sentiments expressed by consumers concerning GM foods are presented in Table 4.35.

Table 4.35 Selected respondents' remarks about genetically modified foods

Respondent (R)	Remark
R12	...GM foods pose health risks because of additives during production...
R17	The imported poultry products are not good for the health because some of them are GM foods...
R22	GM foods cause obesity; these are consumed from imported stuff...
R136	Local products are very expensive. I have to feed the family! So if I can't afford local products which are mostly priced higher, I buy imports!
R144	GM foods have a health risk...
R149	I am very pessimistic towards GM foods. I am healthy conscious and therefore prefer natural organic home-grown Zimbabwean food...
R152	...they are tasteless and GM foods which cause bad health like fat, high cholesterol and cancer...
R155	...my health first...GM foods no!
R160	Poultry imports are poisonous and full of artificial stuff which later has side effects health wise...I care for my health so much that I do not want to end up with health complications that I would have avoided. Healthy eating is good...
R175	...GM foods impact on my health now and in the long run...
R184	GM products are not good for our health...too much fat in poultry imports cause obesity in kids and adults...
R202	...it is all about my health...
R222	Imported poultry products have become a relief to those families who cannot afford to buy local chickens which are somewhat expensive...
R240	GM foods are imported and unfit for human consumption health wise...
R267	They are not good for human consumption due to technologies used to manufacture them...
R295	They are genetically produced on a fast track basis and are thus not as good as original poultry products which are produced naturally, so to say...

Responses from Table 4.35 show that the respondents have high concerns about the GM food status of imported poultry products. Probing the respondents further showed an inadequate appreciation of what is involved in GM food technology. However, the respondents' likening of imported poultry products to GM foods is a cause for concern. The respondents largely perceive the consumption of GM foods or GM related foods to have negative unintended effects. A few responses from selected respondents give evidence to this effect: "The imported poultry products are not good for the health because some of them are GM foods..." Respondent 17; "GM foods cause obesity..." Respondent 22; "Poultry imports are poisonous and full of artificial stuff which later has side effects health wise...I care for my health so much that I do not want to end up with health complications that I would have avoided. Healthy eating is good..." Respondent 160; "GM products are not good for our health...too much fat in poultry imports cause obesity in kids and adults..." Respondent 184; "GM foods are imported and unfit for human consumption health wise..." Respondent 240. It can be established from Table 4.35 that, generally, the respondents have negative perceptions toward GM foods. In this regard, Respondent 152 remarked, "...they are tasteless and GM foods which cause bad health like fat, high cholesterol and cancer..." Moreover, Respondent 295 had these words, "They are genetically produced on a fast track basis and are thus not as good as original poultry products which are produced naturally, so to say..." This implies that imported poultry products are not

as tasty as locally produced poultry products. It can be established from the respondents that the perceived poor taste of imported poultry products is associated with GM foods by the respondents. Despite the general negative perception of the respondents toward GM modified foods, evidence suggests that imported poultry products still account for some space in the shopping basket of the respondents as illustrated: Respondent 136, “Local products are very expensive. I have to feed the family! So if I can’t afford local products which are mostly priced higher, I buy imports!” Respondent 222, “Imported poultry products have become a relief to those families who cannot afford to buy local chickens which are somewhat expensive...” A lesson drawn from this is that price still plays a major part in influencing the decisions of the respondents to purchase imported poultry products.

4.9.2.2 Product labelling

The research results (9.54% of the respondents) revealed that product labelling is a key factor considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. Presented in Table 4.36 are sentiments from some of the respondents concerning product labelling.

Table 4.36 Selected respondents’ remarks regarding product labelling

Respondent (R)	Remark
R64	...health labels whether organic or genetically modified are necessary.
R111	... Labelling of the products so that consumers can make informed decisions...
R143	...labelling and expiry date specification...it is good for health reasons...
R186	...having knowledge of when the product expires helps us to eat healthy foods and avoid eating risky products...
R273	Buying expired goods is not healthy...

Evidence from Table 4.36 shows that the respondents scrutinise products, checking for information that can help in making purchase decisions. It can be established that product labelling plays a necessary function in the decision making of the respondents. In this regard, Respondent 64 had this to say, “...health labels whether organic or genetically modified are necessary”. This implies that products should be labelled of whether they are GM foods or not. Moreover, the perception of the respondents is that labelling plays an important role in assisting the consumer to purchase healthy imported poultry products thereby avoiding eating risky expired products. For example, Respondent 186 remarked, “...having knowledge of when the product expires helps us to eat healthy foods and avoid eating risky products...” Probing the respondents with further questions in order to have a deeper understanding of products labelling as far purchasing imported poultry products is concerned raised important issues, namely expiry dates, nutrition content and GM food status.

4.9.2.2.1 *Expiry dates*

A significant proportion (76.00%) of the respondents who identified product labelling as an important factor were excited about the issue of expiry dates of imported poultry products. The remarks concerning expiry dates from some of the respondents are presented in Table 4.37.

Table 4.37 Selected respondents' remarks concerning expiry dates

Respondent (R)	Remark
R12	... I want fresh products, so I consider expiry dates...
R17	The imported products are not good for the health because some of them are GMOs and some of them have passed the expiry dates and now they don't even taste good and they are a health hazard to our bodies...Some do not even have expiry dates...
R123	Labelling expiry dates helps to consume health food and value for money...
R132	A lot of imported poultry products have been expired and of poor quality... products are a serious health hazard if consumed by humans or animals hence the need to check expiry dates....
R186	...having knowledge of when the product expires helps us to eat healthy foods and avoid eating risky products...

Central to the remarks tabulated in Table 4.37 is the negative perception of the respondents that most of imported poultry products are expired and some are not even labelled of their expiry dates. This is demonstrated by the sentiments from Respondent 17, "The imported products are not good for the health because some of them are GMOs and some of them have passed the expiry dates and now they don't even taste good and they are a health hazard to our bodies...Some do not even have expiry dates..." Similarly, Respondent 132 was recorded saying, "A lot of imported poultry products have been expired and of poor quality... products are a serious health hazard if consumed by humans or animals hence the need to check expiry dates..." These sentiments show anxiety about the issue of labelling imported poultry products of expiry dates. Probing further on whether the respondents would buy expired products or those without expiry date label, Respondent 12 said, "... I want fresh products, so I consider expiry dates..." Respondent 123 also weighs in, "Labelling expiry dates helps to consume health food and value for money..." The lesson drawn from this is that the respondents were not likely to purchase imported poultry products that were expired or that did not have labels of expiry dates.

4.9.2.2.2 *Nutrition content*

Another aspect considered by respondents (16.00%) who viewed product labelling as a critical factor was identified as nutrition content. Table 4.38 presents selected remarks from the respondents concerning nutrition content.

Table 4.38 Selected respondents' remarks about nutrition content

Respondent (R)	Response
R28	They are cheap and readily available but I doubt their nutritional value...
R31	...price and nutritional value...they are important because they affect whether or not I will purchase that particular product...
R223	...they are tasteless, fattening, low nutritional value...
R235	I consider the nutritional content... I want a balanced diet...Why I should I buy something not nutritious?

Evidence from Table 4.38 shows the robustness of the respondents in explaining that labelling the ingredients of the products on the packaging would help them to make informed purchases. For example, Respondent 31 proclaimed, "...price and nutritional value...they are important because they affect whether or not I will purchase that particular product..." The respondents seem to be unsatisfied with the nutrition content of imported poultry products as demonstrated by Respondent 28, "They are cheap and readily available but I doubt their nutritional value..." Likewise, Respondent 223 said, "...they are tasteless, fattening, low nutritional value..." Respondent 235 also expressed a concern on purchasing imported poultry products based on nutrition content by asserting, "I consider the nutritional content... I want a balanced diet... Why I should I buy something not nutritious?" This implies that the respondents were not likely to purchase imported poultry products because of perceived poor nutrition content.

4.9.2.2.3 *GM food status*

Of those consumers who regarded product labelling as a critical factor, a small section (8.00%) of the respondents gave insights about the importance of the GM food status. Some of the quotes from the respondents are:- Respondent 111, "We should know whether imported poultry products are GM foods or not....We suspect that they are GM foods..." Respondent 144, "GM foods have a health risk... This information should be made public..." These sentiments suggest that the respondents are concerned about the GM food status of imported poultry products and are not sure of this status. This line of reasoning demonstrates that the respondents highly consider the issue of GM food status and they feel that the packaging of imported poultry products should indicate whether the products are genetically modified or not. Based on the remark of Respondent 144, "GM foods have a health risk... This information should be made public...", it appears that the respondents were not likely to purchase imported products that are genetically modified related.

4.9.2.3 *Country of origin*

A sizeable number (8.69%) of the respondents gave a profound view that the country of origin (COO) of imported poultry products is an important factor considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. Table 4.39 presents selected excerpts from the respondents.

Table 4.39 Selected respondents' remarks concerning the country of origin

Respondent (R)	Remark
R152	...the origin of the product matters because it determines whether the product is GMO or not...
R180	It is important to know the origin of the products before purchasing...
R186	The originality of a product determines a healthy diet even though it is rarely labelled on the product container...
R289	The country of origin says a lot about the type of product i.e. is it GMO among other things?

As illustrated from Table 4.39, COO labelling is particularly important to the respondents as it enables them to know the origin of the products. In this regard, Respondent 180 pronounced, "It is important to know the origin of the products before purchasing..." This finding reveals a close perceived relationship between COO and GM food status. For example, "...the origin of the product matters because it determines whether the product is GMO or not..." Respondent 152. Similarly Respondent 289 had this to say, "The country of origin says a lot about the type of product i.e. is it GMO among other things?" The implication of this is that the respondents hold the perception that there are some specific countries where GM foods are produced. However, probing with further questions revealed that the respondents were not quite sure of the specific countries where GM foods are manufactured. The respondents also suffer in decision-making when it comes to purchasing imported poultry products because they are not sure of the origin of the products. Supporting this view is the statement from Respondent 186 that, "The originality of a product determines a healthy diet even though it is rarely labelled on the product container..." This implies that the respondents found it difficult to make purchase decisions regarding imported poultry products due to lack of information about the origin of the products.

4.9.2.4 Packaging

The issue of packaging was raised by a small proportion (4.38%) of the respondents as an important factor also considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. Table 4.40 presents selected quotes from the respondents with regards to packaging.

Table 4.40 Selected respondents' remarks about packaging

Respondent (R)	Remark
R79	Imported poultry products have hygienic packaging...
R84	They are well packaged as compared to local products...
R162	Packaging is important for hygienic purposes...
R251	They are packaged more attractively than local poultry products...
R277	...appearance in terms of packaging is important...

Evidence from the excerpts in Table 4.40 shows that packaging of poultry products has to be appealing and hygienic. The respondents revealed that imported poultry products have a more appealing packaging than local poultry products. In support of this observation are these remarks: "They are well packaged as compared to local products..." Respondent 84; "They are

packaged more attractively than local poultry products...” Respondent 251. Probing the respondents with further questions established that they were more likely to purchase imported poultry products than local poultry products based on the packaging.

4.9.2.5 Production methods

Production methods were also identified by a small section (3.81%) of the respondents as a critical factor considered when purchasing imported poultry products. Table 4.41 presents the sentiments that came from some of the respondents.

Table 4.41 Selected respondents’ remarks regarding production methods

Respondent (R)	Remark
R12	...GMOs pose health risks because of additives during production...
R113	They are good as long as there is strong monitoring and there are regulations that are adhered to ensure quality production and zero GMOs.
R267	They are not good for human consumption due to technologies used to manufacture them...
R295	They are genetically produced on a fast track basis and are thus not as good as original poultry products which are produced naturally, so to say...

A lesson that can be learnt from the remarks in Table 4.41 is that the respondents are concerned about how imported poultry were reared. They maintain that imported poultry could have been fed on GM feeds? For example, Respondent 295 commented, “They are genetically produced on a fast track basis and are thus not as good as original poultry products which are produced naturally, so to say...” This remark also implies that imported poultry products have been made using unnatural or artificial methods unlike local poultry products which have been made using natural methods. The perception among the respondents is that these unnatural methods used in the production of imported poultry products are detrimental to human health. In this respect, Respondent 12 is quoted saying, “...GMOs pose health risks because of additives during production...” Likewise, Respondent 267 retorted, “They are not good for human consumption due to technologies used to manufacture them...” These findings reveal that the respondents were less likely to purchase imported poultry products that have been produced under artificial means such as exposure to genetic modification.

4.9.2.6 Branding

A small number (2.73%) of the respondents brought the issue of branding to the fore. The thoughts of some of these respondents about branding are presented in Table 4.42.

Table 4.42 Selected respondents' remarks about branding

Respondent (R)	Remark
R26	I prefer local brands
R161	Most of them are GMOs and they do not appeal well to the market like local brands though they are a bit cheaper...
R238	I personally avoid no-name brands...
R289	No-name brands are a problem and are bound to be unsafe...

The respondents underscored branding as a critical factor they consider when purchasing imported poultry products. The central point that emerged from the responses is that the respondents do not trust unfamiliar brands which they perceive to have more risk as compared to familiar brands. Supporting this observation, Respondent 238 remarked, "I personally avoid no-name brands..." Similarly, Respondent 289 stressed the point, "No-name brands are a problem and are bound to be unsafe..." Another lesson drawn from the remarks in Table 4.42 is that the respondents regard imported poultry brands as inferior to local poultry brands. In view of this, Respondent 26 stated, "I prefer local brands".

4.9.3 Effects of socio-demographics on emerging factors

This section presents results on the effects of socio-demographics on emerging factors considered by consumers. Emerging factors are those new factors that were raised by the respondents as important to their purchase decisions of imported poultry products. A sound comprehension of the effects of socio-demographic variables on marketing phenomena is critical. In light of this, Kotler *et al.* (2009:342), Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:9), Kotler and Keller (2006:208) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:54) assert that socio-demographic factors are one of the important variables that are used in the segmentation of consumer markets. It is imperative, therefore, to determine whether or not the identification of the new critical factors raised by consumers was influenced by socio-demographic factors.

There was no conspicuous influence of most of the socio-demographic factors (gender, age, marital status, name of city where the respondent stays, residential area within the city, monthly gross income, ethnic grouping and number of households) on the identification of new critical factors considered by consumers. Notable influences were only observed on the level of education variable. As already highlighted, religion was excluded from the analysis because almost all (98%) of the respondents are Christians.

The percent distribution by education level of the respondents who identified GM food status as a critical factor is as follows; 1.41% Grade 7, 2.82% ZJC, 5.63% O-Level, 9.86% A-Level, 30.99% Diploma, 30.99% Bachelor's, 14.08% Master's, and 4.23% Doctoral. The majority (80%) of the respondents who identified product labelling as a critical factor have at least a diploma level of education while the remaining 20% was made up of the respondents whose

level of education ranged between Grade 7 and A-Level. The percent distribution by level of education of the respondents who identified COO as a critical factor is as follows; 10.00% O-Level, 30.00% Diploma, 90.00% Bachelor's and 10.00% Master's. The percent distribution by level of education of the respondents who identified packaging as a critical factor is as follows; 21.43% ZJC, 7.14% A-Level, 50.00% Diploma and 21.43% Master's. The majority (66.67%) of the respondents who identified production methods as a critical factor have attained at least a diploma level of education. The distribution by level of education of the respondents who identified branding as a critical factor is as follows; 7.14% ZJC, 35.71% Diploma, 42.86% Bachelor's, 7.14% Master's and 7.14% Doctoral. These findings imply that most of the respondents who identified new critical factors considered by consumers are well-educated.

4.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The presentation of results was done in two main sections namely quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative presentation, being the greater part of the chapter, focused on the response rate analysis, socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, reliability analysis, descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, testing of hypotheses and effects of socio-demographics on the study constructs. This was followed by the presentation of qualitative results. The qualitative section concentrated on the presentation of factors considered by the respondents when purchasing imported poultry products. The influence of socio-demographic variables on the factors considered by the respondents was also examined in the qualitative section. The next chapter focuses on the discussion of research results presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Research findings were presented in the previous chapter. A discussion of the findings is done in this chapter. The results of the present study are interpreted in view of the findings in prior research. Thus the research findings will be discussed in light of what is already known about the problem under investigation in related studies. The main areas of discussion include research objectives and related hypotheses, study variables and influences of socio-demographic factors on the study variables.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS ON RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RELATED HYPOTHESES

5.2.1 Consumer awareness and prediction of consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products

The objective of the study was to determine if consumer awareness predicts consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. Therefore, it was hypothesised that,

H₁: Consumer awareness positively predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.

The study established a significant positive relationship between consumer awareness and consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. Consumer awareness refers to “the extent or alertness of individual consumers of their rights and responsibilities in the market place” (Rousseau & Venter, 1995:18). This implies that the higher the level of consumer awareness, the more positive the consumer attitude towards imported poultry products; the lower the level of consumer awareness, the more negative the consumer attitude toward imported poultry products. Consumer awareness manifests itself as a way of exercising consumer rights; as part of consumerism (Consumer International, 2012; Du Plessis *et al.*, 1994:339). An attitude is described as a favourable or unfavourable tendency that directs the behaviour of consumers towards certain objects (Assael, 2004:216; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004: 253). Therefore, as consumers become more and more alert of their rights and responsibilities in the market place, they develop tendencies to behave in a consistently favourable way toward imported poultry products. Increased knowledge of one’s rights and responsibilities in the market place seems to affect the consumer decision making process in two ways. First, it may increase objectivity in the evaluation of products i.e. products are not blindly evaluated but rather are evaluated based

on merit. Second, it may speed up the consumer decision making process because the knowledge of one's rights and responsibilities at the market place is likely to shorten the information search stage of the consumer decision making process. As illustrated by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554), attitudes are a part of the psychological field which affects the consumer decision making process—need recognition, pre-purchase search, and evaluation of alternatives (see Figure 2.5). A consumer is viewed as a thinking problem solver i.e. the consumer processes information related to products in order to make purchase decisions (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550; Verbeke, 2000:524). In this regard, the consumer is frequently portrayed as an individual who readily receives or actively searches for product related information in order to enrich his/her survival. Information processing leads to favourable attitudes which also may lead to the actual purchase (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550). **The positive relationship between consumer awareness and consumer attitude has not been described before; hence this is the pioneer study to report this finding.**

It was also hypothesised that,

H₂: Consumer awareness positively predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.

The foregoing findings show that there was no significant relationship between consumer awareness and consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. This implies that the level of consumer awareness does not influence the purchase behaviour of consumers towards imported poultry products. The present finding suggests that although consumer awareness is critical in influencing the attitudes of consumers toward imported poultry products, it is insignificant in influencing the actual purchase behaviour. When purchasing imported poultry products, it does not matter whether or not consumers are alert of their rights and responsibilities at the market place. Therefore, imported poultry products would be purchased by consumers regardless of whether these consumers are aware of their rights and responsibilities in the market place. This indicates that there are other factors that influence the actual purchase of imported poultry products than consumer awareness. The process of consumer decision making comprises five stages, namely problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase behaviour, and post-purchase behaviour (Kotler, 2002:98). The relevance of consumer awareness in the consumer decision making process is thus limited to consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products. Attitudes are a part of the psychological field—which also includes motivation, perception, learning and personality. Only the three stages of consumer decision making—need recognition, pre-purchase search, and evaluation of alternatives—are influenced by the psychological field (see Figure 2.5). The actual purchase behaviour and post purchase behaviour stages are precluded (Schiffman & Kanuk,

2004:554). **This is the first study which has managed to provide evidence that the actual purchase of an imported product is not necessarily related to the level of consumer awareness.**

5.2.2 Consumer attitude and prediction of purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products

The objective of the study was to determine if consumer attitude predicts consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. It was, therefore, hypothesised that,

H₃: Consumer attitude positively predicts purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.

The study established that a significant positive relationship exists between consumer attitude and consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. This implies that consumers with positive or favourable attitudes toward imported poultry products are likely to purchase imported poultry products. Conversely, consumers with negative or unfavourable attitudes toward imported poultry products are not likely to purchase imported poultry products.

This finding upholds the extant theoretical evidence. Sheth (2011:504) suggests that attitudes shape behaviour and behaviour also shapes attitudes. Similarly, Bellows *et al.* (2010:540) observe that food choice is influenced by the attitudes of consumers toward food attributes and that food choice has gained prominence in expressing personalities of consumers. More so, consumer attitudes influence consumer behaviour (Assael, 2004:222; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:265). Akar and Topçu (2011:43) also concluded that, the better the attitude an individual has toward a product or brand, the more likely he/she will use it. Likewise, Argyriou and Melewar (2011:431) emphasise that consumer attitudes are known to positively influence the behaviour of consumers toward a particular object such as a product or a brand.

5.2.3 Consumer ethnocentrism and prediction of consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products

The study sought to establish if consumer ethnocentrism predicts consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. Therefore, it was hypothesised that,

H₄: Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.

The study established an inverse relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. The implication is that ethnocentric consumers have negative attitudes toward imported poultry products i.e. consumers showing ethnocentric tendencies have unfavourable attitudes toward imported poultry products. Consumer ethnocentrism explains the beliefs held by consumers on whether or not it is appropriate or

moral to purchase foreign products. To highly ethnocentric consumers, purchasing products made from other countries is not appropriate because it has negative consequences to the domestic economy and it may also lead to citizens to lose their jobs. More so, it is unpatriotic. On the other hand, consumers who are non-ethnocentric evaluate foreign made products objectively i.e. based on merit (Shimp & Sharma, 1987:280). Similarly, Klein and Ettenson (1999:6) describe consumer ethnocentrism as beliefs held by consumers concerning the appropriateness or morality of purchasing products from other countries. They suggest that, to highly ethnocentric consumers, purchasing foreign products can damage the domestic economy, result in job losses and it is unpatriotic. On the contrary, those consumers perceiving imported poultry products to have positive effects also develop favourable attitudes toward imported poultry products. This finding concurs with Pentz's (2011:231) conclusion that consumer ethnocentrism is inversely correlated with attitudes toward importing foreign products. Similarly, Rice (2011:211) agrees with Moon (2004:668) that, in most cases, consumer ethnocentrism negatively influences consumers' attitudes toward foreign products. The same view is given by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:126) and Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001:908) that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively correlated with consumer attitudes toward foreign products and is positively correlated with consumer attitudes toward domestic products.

This finding that consumer ethnocentrism is inversely related to consumer attitude extends the existing general understanding that consumer ethnocentrism leads to negative attitudes toward foreign products. The plausible explanation of the present finding is that Zimbabwean consumers developed unfavourable attitudes toward imported poultry products because of the perceived negative effects these products have on the local poultry industry and domestic economy at large. More so, Zimbabwean consumers seem to be patriotic to domestic poultry products and unpatriotic to foreign poultry products. It could be that Zimbabwean consumers perceive poultry imports as a threat to the domestic economy. As such imports may cause loss of jobs which may render the consumers jobless. This disposition could have been motivated by the fact that the economy of Zimbabwe has experienced a massive downturn, coupled with high unemployment, until 2009 when multi currencies were introduced. This could mean that Zimbabwean consumers are overly protective of their domestic economy so much that they do not entertain imported poultry products.

It was also hypothesised that,

H₅: Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products.

The study found no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer purchase behaviour. This implies that although consumer ethnocentrism inversely influences consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products, consumer ethnocentrism does not influence the actual consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. The purchase of imported poultry products is, therefore, independent of consumer ethnocentric tendencies. It could be that there are other more important factors that influence the purchase of imported poultry products than consumer ethnocentrism. For example, morality and economic factors such as price may be more critical in influencing the purchase behaviour of consumers towards imported poultry products. Consumer ethnocentrism impacts the attitude of the consumer, which is a part of the consumer psychological field (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:554) but fails to influence the actual purchase behaviour. This is consistent with the theoretical observation of Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:126) that consumer ethnocentrism refers to a trait that shapes the personality of an individual. It is relatively enduring and it distinguishes one individual from the other. This observation indicates that consumer ethnocentrism does not always directly influence the actual purchase behaviour, but it somehow does so indirectly by influencing attitudes which, in turn, also influence the purchase behaviour. **This could mean that consumer ethnocentrism plays a bigger and more influential role on the ‘inward person’ that involves the psychology of the individual consumer than the ‘outward person’ that involves the behaviour of the consumer. It is the first finding of a ‘disconnect’ between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase behaviour.**

5.2.4 Factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products

The study sought to explore the critical decision factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. It was, therefore, hypothesised that,

H₆: Pertinent factors described (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict consumer attitude towards imported poultry products.

H₇: Pertinent factors described (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict the choice to purchase imported poultry products.

The findings show that, overall, the factors (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) significantly predict consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. Individually, only price and influence from others significantly predict (inversely) consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. However, there was no statistically significant prediction of purchase

behaviour towards imported poultry products by the factors (taste, tenderness, health and safety issues, price, ease of access, promotional effort of the seller, influence from family members and others, religious beliefs and social status).

There are three plausible explanations to these findings. First, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554) provide evidence that attitudes are a part of the consumer psychological field which can affect, or can be affected by, the firm's marketing effort (product, price, promotion and place) as well as the socio-cultural environment (family, informal sources, other non-commercial sources, social class, and culture and subculture). The negative effect of price on consumer attitude toward imported poultry products suggests that as price increases, consumer attitude towards imported poultry products become unfavourable. This implies that imported poultry products are associated with low prices. On the other hand, the negative effect of influence from others on consumer attitude towards imported poultry products implies that the more consumers influence others, the more unfavourable their attitudes toward imported products. This is likely to be sensible because there has been a negative publicity of imported poultry products in Zimbabwe especially from the local poultry producers (ZPA, 2012). Second, the factors (taste, tenderness, health and safety issues, price, ease of access, promotional effort of the seller, influence from family members and others, religious beliefs and social status) do not directly influence the actual purchase behaviour of consumers with regard to imported poultry products. Thus, the prescribed factors, on aggregate, influence consumer attitude which, in turn, influences consumer behaviour. Third, the prescribed factors on their own do not adequately influence the purchase decisions of consumers. The implication of this is that there are other factors that influence the purchase behaviour of consumers towards imported poultry products. As such, qualitative insights brought several factors to the fore, namely price, quality, GM food status, product labelling, country of origin, packaging, production methods and branding. **It is the first time that the GM food status, product labelling, country of origin, packaging, production methods and branding have been shown to be amongst the critical factors considered by emerging market consumers when purchasing imported poultry products.**

The reaffirmation of price as a critical factor could mean that the respondents perceive that lower prices of poultry imports afford them to purchase more quantities of imported poultry products. The availability of poultry imports in different pack sizes enables consumers to make a wider choice on various selling units including smaller ones which are affordable to the consumers. Moreover, with the general low income levels of the consumers, lower prices on imported poultry products probably enable them to save money for other things. This implies that the propensity to save money drives consumers to buy cheaper imported poultry products. Even though consumers want to buy local poultry products that are perceived to be of better quality, they are more expensive and seem to erode all their potential savings. This finding

suggests that the price of imported poultry products and the consumer's income are related factors i.e. the influence of price on the consumer purchase decision is moderated by the income of an individual consumer. **Thus the impact of price is felt more by those consumers earning lower incomes than those consumers earning higher incomes. This is consistent with the concept of expenditure elasticity.** According to Browne *et al.* (2007:567), expenditure elasticity refers to a measure of the responsiveness of the consumption of a product to a real change in income. They elaborate that if a product has high estimated expenditure elasticity, additional income to consumers will result in increased consumption or demand of the product. Similarly, consumers with lower incomes are likely to spend less on imported poultry products.

Quality—in terms of health related issues, taste, appearance and tenderness—was also reaffirmed by consumers as an important factor considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. The consumer anxiety about health and safety issues regarding imported poultry products suggests that imported poultry products pose a risk to human health. This is probably because consumers are not sure of how imported poultry products are processed and handled before they reach the final consumer. This uncertainty makes it difficult for consumers to make informed purchase decisions concerning imported poultry products. The importance of taste may be explained by the need for consumers to enjoy food. This suggests that if imported poultry products are unpalatable, they are not likely to be bought by consumers. This makes taste an always important attribute of a meat product. The appearance of imported poultry products has been given attention perhaps because consumers attach value to food products that are appealing. This could mean that consumers are more likely to purchase imported poultry products ahead of local poultry products because imported poultry products are more appealing; they are neatly packaged and look more appetising than local poultry products. Consumers also pay attention to tenderness of imported poultry products possibly because tender meat is easier to prepare (i.e. it takes a shorter time to prepare) and consume. Drawing insights from the finding that imported poultry products are tenderer than local poultry products, consumers are more likely to purchase imported poultry products. The extant literature attempts to shed some light on these findings. According to Yang *et al.* (2011:949-954), Northcutt (2009), Maltin *et al.* (2003:337) and Groom (1990:205), quality appears to be a broad term that encompasses various elements that describe the characteristics of a meat product. Groom (1990:205) describes meat quality as an amalgamation of characteristics that determines the distinctiveness of individual units of a meat product. Meat quality is viewed by Maltin *et al.* (2003:337) as a broad term often used to describe meat properties and perceptions held by consumers of that particular meat, for example, eating quality and health issues. Likewise, Yang *et al.* (2011:949-954) refer to meat quality as a complex trait which consists of several meat quality indicators. Maltin *et al.* (2003:337) weighs in by arguing that the consumers' evaluation

of eating quality is the major determinant of meat quality, with tenderness, juiciness and flavour of meat being the most important elements (Maltin *et al.*, 2003:337). Accordingly, Northcutt (2009) asserts that eating quality, based on appearance/colour, texture/tenderness, and flavour, is the most important aspect of poultry meat.

The research established that a minority of consumers use price as a quality cue of imported poultry products. This suggests that the use of price to determine the quality of imported poultry products is not a widely held view among the consumers. Rao (2005:401) observes that price can non-consciously exert expectations about the quality of a product and these expectations can be enhanced by non-price information such as advertising. **However, this finding points that price is linked more to the affordability of imported products than as a means to assess the quality of poultry products. Thus, economic factors seem to override quality issues. This is probably because, generally, consumers are constrained by limited disposable incomes—a typical feature of most developing countries.**

The GM food status of imported poultry products emerged as a critical factor considered by the respondents when purchasing imported poultry products. Consumer concerns about GM food status are centred on health and taste issues. Consumers perceive imported poultry products as GM food products that are injurious to human health, and as products that are not tasty. Blindly referring to all imported poultry products as genetically modified products suggests a lack of understanding of the nature of GM food technology. The possible explanation of this is that consumers are not aware of how imported poultry products are made. It appears that there is insufficient information concerning imported poultry products available to the consumers. The World Health Organisation (WHO) attempted to clarify the issue of GM food technology. According to the WHO (2013), GM foods refer to foods that are derived from organisms whose genetic material has been modified (GM – Genetically Modified) in a way that does not occur naturally. The majority of GM foods currently come from plants. However, GM animals are likely to be introduced in future (WHO, 2013). Concern for safety issues related to GM foods is a common phenomenon. Previous studies (Frewer, Lasssen, Kettlitz, Scholderer, Beekman & Berdal, 2004:1181; Frewer, Scholderer & Bredahl, 2003:1117; Kuiper, Kleter, Noteborn & Kok, 2001:2001:504) have shown mixed concerns about GM foods, with the on-going debate being centered on their risks and benefits. **It is unexpected for consumers in developing countries, such as Zimbabwe, where incomes are relatively low, to be concerned about the GM food status. The possible explanation is that the sample consisted of a high percentage (43.9% with at least a Bachelor's degree) of educated consumers. As such, educated consumers probably understand the benefits and costs of GM foods more than the less educated.**

Labelling of imported poultry products also emerged as a critical factor considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. Consumers were shown to be concerned about such information as expiry dates, nutrition content and GM food status. This suggests that for consumers to make informed purchase decisions, imported poultry products should have labels indicating when the products will expire, nutrition content and GM food status. This finding indicates that the lack of information associated with imported poultry products in terms of expiry dates, nutrition content and GM food status is likely to discourage consumers from purchasing these products. According to the Canadian Food Inspection Agency (2013) and NHS Choices (2013), labelling products provides valuable information to the consumer in helping to choose products that are safe to consume. Harcar and Karakaya (2005:353) confirm the relevance of labelling in consumer behaviour. They refer to labelling as a subset of packaging and that it forms an integral part of a typical package. The importance of labelling is in its ability to capture the attention of the consumer and promoting a particular product. Such information as expiry dates, product ingredients and safety and proper use of a product should be carried by the label. To demonstrate the importance of product labelling, European food industry, motivated by the increasing interest of consumers in food and health, has vowed to ensure that more information about nutritional composition of food products is provided to consumers through labelling (Möser, Hoefkens, Camp & Verbeke, 2009:169). **Similarly, it is rather unexpected for consumers in developing countries, such as Zimbabwe where incomes are relatively low, to be concerned about the labelling issues. The possible explanation with regards to the finding of the present study is that the sample is made up mainly of educated consumers. Educated consumers, therefore, probably understand the importance of labelling food products.**

It also emerged that the country of origin (COO) labelling is a critical factor considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. Consumers are concerned about countries where imported poultry products come from. Despite this concern, the study established that most of imported poultry products were not labelled of their COO. The Zimbabwean market has witnessed a surge in poultry imports and yet these products are not readily seen in the formal markets, suggesting that they are finding their way to consumers, mainly through informal channels (ZPA, 2012; WATT Executive Guide, 2011:47). In developed countries it seems rare to find imported products in informal trade channels. In Zimbabwe, a developing country, it could be that informal traders buy imported poultry products from big formal traders or importers. The informal traders would then repackage the products and sell them via informal channels. This could mean that information concerning COO is not readily available by the informal traders. This is likely to make it difficult for consumers to make purchase decisions. The importance of COO is acknowledged in literature.

COO effects represent consumer attitudes that are specific to countries. They are one of the important cues used by consumers to judge the quality of products from other countries (Bandyopadhyay *et al.*, 2011:212). Hill (2005:593) refers to COO effect as the potential or ability of consumers in a country to have bias for or against foreign firms and or their products. Hoffmann (2000:211), Kaynak *et al.* (2000:1221) and Bruning (1997:60) acknowledged the growing importance of COO in influencing the behaviour of consumers in terms of whether or not to buy local versus foreign products. Similarly, Hoffman (2000:211-215) argues that COO is a quality indicator; consumers are now interested in not only product specific quality but also process quality. This implies that COO also gives a cue on how the products were processed. According to Ahmed, Johnson, Yang, Fatt, Teng and Boon (2004:102), the COO effect varies from product to product, suggesting that the COO may not necessarily apply to other product categories not investigated in this research. **Previously, the consideration of the COO had only been shown to be a phenomenon of consumers from developed countries. This makes this finding in Zimbabwe, a developing country, a first. This can best be explained by the fact that the present study is mainly made of educated consumers who seem to understand the importance of the COO. It is also possible that increased availability of information, through mass media, has enhanced COO awareness among the consumers.**

Packaging also emerged as a critical factor considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. The findings indicate that consumers expect products to be packaged in various pack sizes. The implication of this is that those who do not afford bigger ones can go for smaller ones which are perceived to be relatively cheaper. They also expect packaging that is appealing and hygienic. Appealing products are likely to lure consumers to make a purchase. The concern for hygienic packaging seems to stem from the need for healthy food products. The concern also appears to increase with imported products whose origin may not be well-known by the consumers. These findings are in line with Silayoi and Speece's (2007:1496) observation that packaging is a vehicle for communicating with the customer. Packaging therefore becomes critical in the process of consumer decision-making especially at the point of sale (Silayoi & Speece, 2007:1496; Silayoi & Speece, 2004:607). Similarly, packaging affects buying decisions of consumers. For example, package size, product labelling, shape, colour, graphics and elongation are the aspects of packaging that affect the judgment of consumers. In other words, these aspects are used as heuristics to make judgments (Silayoi & Speece, 2004:612). Likewise, Rundh (2005:671) and Prendergast and Pitt (1996:61) assert that packaging plays an important marketing function as a marketing tool. Apart from attracting the attention of the consumer, packaging attributes such as size and shape enable the product to be usable and provides convenience to the customer. More so, smaller packaging units are affordable to consumers who are price sensitive.

It also emerged that the method of production is a critical factor considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. It appears that consumers are concerned about how imported poultry products are processed and handled along the value chain to reach the final consumer. Such critical aspects of production as the use of chemicals and GMO food technology appear to be central to the concern about the way imported poultry products are made and handled before reaching the final consumer. It could be that consumers view these processes—the use of chemicals and genetic modification of food—as detrimental to human health. This implies that, consumers should be informed of the methods of production or prior handling of imported poultry products so that they can make informed purchase decision. Failure to provide adequate information concerning the method of production of imported poultry products may discourage consumers from purchasing imported poultry products. The perceived risk in food products is not a new phenomenon in the literature. As noted by Hoffmann (2001:211), the consumer of today also demands process specific quality apart from product specific quality. Similarly, there are increased consumer concerns about the safety of food and the methods in which food is produced (Pouta, Heikkilä, Forsman-Hugg, Isoniemi & Mäkelä, 2010:539; Brewer & Rojas, 2008:2). Likewise, Verbeke, Frewer, Scholderer and Brabander (2007:2) argue that food safety is usually a non-negotiable product attribute in a typical consumer decision-making process. They go on to assert that consumers generally expect all food products to be intrinsically safe and would not intentionally buy or consume foods that they know are not safe. In a study on the effects of COO and production methods on consumer choice of broiler meat in Finland, such production methods as organic production and those emphasising consumer health or animal welfare were found to be important on the selection of broiler meat by Finnish consumers (Pouta *et al.*, 2010:539). **It is also unexpected for consumers in developing countries, such as Zimbabwe, to be concerned about the methods of producing imported poultry products. The possible explanation with regards to the finding of the present study is that the sample is made up mainly of educated consumers. As such, educated consumers are likely to be more concerned with the methods of production than their counterparts.**

Branding also emerged as a critical factor considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. Perhaps, consumers trust and are likely to purchase brands that they are familiar with. They probably perceive brands that they are familiar with to have less risk as compared to unfamiliar brands. According to Ahmed *et al.* (2002:102), apart from price, brand name generally influences the consumer's evaluation and intentions to purchase toward a product. Similarly, Ranchhod, Gurãu and Marandi (2011:353) demonstrate that in most cases, brands are developed within the national context first, creating specific images which determine the attitudes and expectations of customers. Usually, brands that demonstrate more universal

appeal and offer good promise tend to transcend national boundaries and eventually become global brands. **With increased globalisation of production and marketing, the consumer of today is exposed to a wide range of brands. Likewise, it is expected for the present day consumer to be able to distinguish between and evaluate different brands. This seems to make sense especially with educated consumers who constitute a significant proportion of the present study sample.**

5.3 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS ON THE STUDY VARIABLES

5.3.1 Consumer awareness

The study established a relatively high level of consumer awareness. This implies that Zimbabwean consumers are alert to their rights and responsibilities at the market place. The level of consumer awareness of organic foods varies with the level of development of a particular country i.e. consumer awareness and knowledge specific to organic foods are significantly higher in developed countries as compared to developing countries (Kumar & Ali, 2011:4). Although Kumar and Ali (2011:4) referred to consumer awareness specifically of organic foods instead of the general awareness concerned with the alertness of consumers of their rights and responsibilities at the market place, insights can still be drawn from their finding. Results of the present study deviate from Kumar and Ali's (2011:4) observation in that consumer awareness was found to be relatively high instead of being low in Zimbabwe, a developing country. The possible explanation is that the majority of the consumers who participated in the present study have received some formal education (i.e. at least a diploma). As such these educated consumers are likely to be conversant of their rights and responsibilities at the market place. There is also a board called Consumer Council of Zimbabwe (CCZ) overseeing the affairs of the consumers in Zimbabwe. It could be that this Council has been effective in educating consumers of their rights and responsibilities at the market place.

The study found that there are **six factors underlying the construct of consumer awareness, namely product knowledge, price consciousness, general consumer knowledge, bargain hunting, obtaining the best deal and information search. This finding is in line with previous research. However, it extends our understanding of the dimensionality of consumer awareness.** According to Rousseau and Venter (1996:21) and Rousseau and Venter (1995:29), consumer awareness comprises five distinguishable characteristics namely "bargain hunting, general consumer knowledge, product knowledge, information search and price consciousness". **Thus, obtaining the best deal emerged as an additional sixth factor, never previously reported in the literature.** This variation in findings may be explained by political and economic changes that have taken place in Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe has been hit by a widespread shortage of commodities in supermarkets as a result of the economic meltdown for

almost a decade until early 2009 when the multi-currency system was introduced. The few products available usually were of poor quality. Consumers might have learnt a lesson as to how to obtain value for money. This study supports the views of Rousseau and Venter (1996:26) that major political and economic transformations taking place in a particular country may influence the state of consumer awareness; hence it may be necessary to replicate studies.

5.3.2 Consumer attitude towards imported poultry products

The study established that consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products were negative. Solomon (2002:527) describes an attitude as a lasting, general evaluation of an object. An object may refer to people (including oneself) or issues. In the context of consumer behaviour, Assael (2004:216) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:253) view an attitude as a favourable or unfavourable tendency that directs the behaviour of consumers towards certain objects. The word object refers to something specific, for example, a product, a product category, a brand, and an advertisement (Assael, 2004:216; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:253). As suggested by Blackwell *et al.* (2006:375), attitudes represent a global evaluative judgement; a favourable attitude towards a product denotes that the person likes the product, and an unfavourable attitude denotes that the person does not like the product. In this regard, Zimbabwean consumers do not like imported poultry products. **In a developing country like Zimbabwe, it is rather surprising for local consumers to have negative attitudes toward imports.** It could be that the perceived poor quality of poultry imports in the Zimbabwean market has made the local consumers unhappy so much that the consumers tend to develop negative attitudes toward imported poultry products. Another plausible explanation of negative attitudes toward imported poultry products is consumer ethnocentrism. This study has established that Zimbabwean consumers are ethnocentric. In this regard, Saffu and Walker (2006b:185) and Kaynak and Kara (2002:934) acknowledge that consumer ethnocentrism may lead consumers to overstate the quality and value of products made within their countries while understating the quality and value of products made in other countries. This suggests that consumers will be morally obliged to prefer and to purchase domestic products.

The study found that there are three factors underlying the construct of consumer attitude, namely consumer beliefs, feelings and intentions to purchase. According to the tri-component attitude model, attitude consists of three major components, namely cognitive, affective and conation (Assael, 2004: 216; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:256; Solomon, 2002:200). The cognitive component consists of beliefs because consumers hold beliefs that an object has attributes and that certain behaviours will lead to specific outcomes (Assael, 2004:216; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:256). Beliefs are subjective judgments about the relationship between two or more things (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:375). Assael (2004:217), Schiffman and

Kanuk (2004:257) and Solomon (2002:200) concur that the feelings or emotions of consumers constitute the affective component. They also view this component as the overall brand evaluation. Brand evaluations result from brand beliefs. The conative component is concerned with the intention to buy. It leads to behaviour or purchase action. It is the consumer's tendency to act toward an object, or the intention to buy (Assael, 2004:217; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:258). **Therefore, this finding supports the existing literature.**

5.3.3 Consumer ethnocentrism

The study established that the respondents have high ethnocentric tendencies. This implies that Zimbabwean consumers are likely to blindly accept domestic poultry products simply because they are made in Zimbabwe while rejecting imported poultry products simply because they are made in other countries. They view imported poultry products as damaging to the local poultry industry or to Zimbabwean economy. In this perspective, Klein and Ettenson (1999:6) describe consumer ethnocentrism as beliefs held by consumers concerning the appropriateness or morality of purchasing products from other countries. To highly ethnocentric consumers, purchasing foreign products can damage the domestic economy, results in unemployment and it is unpatriotic (Orth & Firasová, 2003:140; Klein & Ettenson, 1999:6). In view of this, Kaynak and Kara (2002:934) submit that consumer ethnocentrism is a disposition of consumers to prefer domestic products at the expense of foreign products. Consumer ethnocentrism has been measured in several countries using students and general populations (Teo *et al.*, 2011:2806). They observed that general populations tended to have higher ethnocentric tendencies (CETSCORES between 28.7 and 85.07) than student populations (CETSCORES between 32.02 and 62.50) based on the 7 point Likert scale. A CETSCORE denotes a score or measure of consumer ethnocentric tendencies. The highest score (85.07) was recorded in Korea and the lowest score (28.70) was recorded in Belgium. **The mean score of 87.50 based on the 7 point Likert scale in the present study is remarkable in that it appears to be the highest score ever recorded i.e. Zimbabwean consumers are extremely ethnocentric.** As already acknowledged by Teo *et al.* (2011:2806), such a high score is possible with the general population that was used in the study instead of students. Bawa (2004:51) observed that there is a common belief that consumer ethnocentrism is a construct of the developed world; with overwhelming evidence suggesting that consumers from developing countries have marked preferences for imported products. **The finding of the present study departs from the view that consumer ethnocentric tendencies are exclusive to developed countries in that ethnocentric tendencies were found to be high in Zimbabwe, a developing country. Probably, as the globalisation of production and marketing takes centre stage at the moment, consumers from developing and emerging markets may be catching up with their**

counterparts in developed economies. As such, there seem to be blurring differences among consumers based on the stage of market development.

The study established that the construct of consumer ethnocentrism is composed of two factors, namely negative impact of foreign products and preference for domestic products.

Literature shows that there is no agreement among scholars concerning the factor structure of the construct of consumer ethnocentrism. Haws *et al.* (2010:90) acknowledged consumer ethnocentrism as a uni-dimensional construct. According to Bawa (2004:54), the construct of consumer ethnocentrism prevailing in USA and other developed Western countries was found to be uni-dimensional. However, other studies (Bandara & Miloslava, 2012:10; Teo *et al.*, 2011:2808; Saffu & Walker, 2006a:167) have proved that it is not uni-dimensional.

5.3.4 Consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products

Quantitative analysis established that consumers have unfavourable consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. However, reality shows that Zimbabwean consumers still purchase imported poultry products as evidenced by qualitative insights. This suggests that imported poultry products are not a product of choice among the respondents. Therefore, Zimbabwean consumers would not purchase imported poultry products under normal circumstances. However, it appears there are overriding factors such as price and income levels that induce consumers to purchase imported poultry products. Generally, Zimbabwean consumers have limited incomes and as such are price sensitive. They purchase imported poultry products probably because they are relatively cheaper than local products.

The study confirmed that there are two factors underlying the construct of consumer purchase behaviour, namely trial purchase and repeat purchase. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554) submit that the purchase behaviour comprises trial purchase and repeat purchase. Trial purchase takes place when the consumer purchases a product or brand for the first time. It is regarded as an exploratory phase in that the consumer evaluates products or brands through direct use (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:569). Repeat purchase behaviour is closely associated with brand loyalty. Every marketer wishes to have customers who are loyal to his/her brands mainly because it fosters stability in the market place. Purchasing products or brands repeatedly is a good indicator that customers approve of these products or brands. It may also give an indication that, in future, customers will be willing to purchase or consume the products or brands in larger quantities (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:569; Kotler & Armstrong, 2001:197). **This finding agrees with the extant literature.** This implies that consumers first make a trial purchase and, if satisfied with the imported poultry products, they make repeat purchases.

This two-step approach to purchase behaviour represents a well-thought process of consumer decision making i.e. the cognitive aspect of consumer decision making. This could mean that imported poultry products are **high-involvement** products in which consumers are actively involved when making purchase decisions. The standard learning hierarchy views the consumers' responses to come in the cognition-affect-behaviour order i.e. cognition influences affect, and then the affect influences behaviour (Arnould *et al.*, 2002:463). Assael (2004:218) describes this as a "high-involvement hierarchy" because consumers first develop beliefs about a product as a result of active information search. This represents a 'think before you act' process. In this regard, consumers evaluate the product and then develop definite attitude and a purchase decision accordingly (Assael, 2004:218; Solomon, 2000:201). The plausible explanation of the present finding is that imported poultry products are food items. Therefore, consumers pay particular attention to the food that they eat. In this regard, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:260) refer to consumer decision making as an activity that solves consumer problems. They content that the prime decision made by consumers is whether to purchase or not, to spend or save money when faced with a particular buying situation. Similarly, the cognitive approach views the consumer as a thinking problem solver. As such, the consumer is frequently portrayed as an individual who receives or actively searches for product related information in order to enrich his/her survival (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:550). Likewise, Verbeke (2000:526) illustrates that the actual decision making process towards a meat product is not simple. He submits that the process consists of four stages called problem recognition, information search, alternative evaluation and choice/behaviour. This indicates the high-involvement nature of consumer purchase decisions toward meat or food products such as imported poultry products. More so, this careful consideration in the purchase behaviour of consumers could have been influenced by consumer awareness. As already discussed, the study established a relatively high level of consumer awareness in Zimbabwe. Rousseau and Venter (1995:18) refer to consumer awareness as "the extent or alertness of individual consumers of their rights and responsibilities in the market place". Thus, as consumers become more and more aware of their rights and responsibilities at the market place, they are likely to make well-calculated decisions when it comes to purchasing products.

5.3.5 Factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products

Although the prescribed factors were not statistically significant, exploratory factor analysis yielded three clusters of factors which were named quality, socio-cultural and firm's marketing effort. Taste, health and safety issues as well as tenderness loaded on quality while religious beliefs, influence from family members and others, social status and promotional effort of the seller loaded on socio-cultural factors. Items that loaded on firm's marketing effort were availability and price. According to Yang *et al.* (2011:949-954), Northcutt (2009), Blackwell *et*

al. (2006:75), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:553), Maltin *et al.* (2003:337) and Groom (1990:205), taste, health and safety issues as well as tenderness are meat quality-related variables. Similarly, availability and price are concerned with the firm's marketing effort. **The appearance of the promotional effort of the seller under socio-demographic factors departs from the existing theory.** The promotional effort of the seller was expected to appear under the firm's marketing effort as suggested by Blackwell *et al.* (2006:75) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:553). The possible explanation is that the item was interpreted by the respondents as an informal source of information. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554) classified informal sources of information under socio-cultural factors influencing consumer decision-making. Informal sources include word of mouth promotion by satisfied individuals, people employed to do so or employees of a particular firm. The present day consumer can communicate freely and easily about products via social media with or without the control of the seller. According to Brown and Reingen (1987:350), word of mouth communication represents one of the most widely accepted notions in consumer behaviour. It has been viewed as an important source of influence on the consumer's decision to purchase food products or household goods. Goldenberg, Libai and Muller (2001:211), however, raise the concern that although the word of mouth communication is an important aspect in marketing, not much of its fundamental process of personal communication is known. Mangold and Faulds (2009:357) noted that social media has been regarded as an element of the promotion mix that impacts marketing in two ways. In the traditional or basic sense, social media make it possible for marketers to communicate messages to their customers. In the non-traditional form, social media make it possible for customers to communicate directly with one another. More so, in the non-traditional sense the managers may not be able to control the content, timing and frequency of the social media. This implies that word of mouth communication is out of control of the managers, perhaps thus making it a social factor. In this regard, imported poultry consumers appear to share the information obtained from marketing communications concerning imported poultry products with their colleagues through word of mouth and social media.

5.4 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS ON THE STUDY VARIABLES

The foregoing findings show that there were no statistically significant differences among consumer awareness, consumer attitude towards imported poultry products, consumer ethnocentrism, and consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products attributable to socio-demographic factors (gender, age, marital status, city of residence, residential area within city, education, income, ethnic grouping and household size). These findings suggest that the socio-demographic characteristics of the consumers may not be important in segmenting consumers. Results from prior studies are not conclusive with regards

to the influence of socio-demographic characteristics on marketing phenomena. In their study to investigate consumer awareness of organic foods in India, Kumar and Ali (2011:7) established that gender, education, income, occupation and location were the only socio-demographic factors that significantly influenced consumer awareness specific of organic food products. Similarly, education, age, income and location were found to significantly influence consumer awareness (Rousseau & Venter, 1996:31; Rousseau & Venter, 1995:24). Akar and Topçu (2011:52) examined factors influencing consumer attitudes toward social media marketing and found that income was positively associated with consumer attitudes while there were no significant differences attributable to gender of the respondents. In a study to investigate consumer attitudes and behaviour toward organic products in Greece, Tsakiridou *et al.* (2008:164) concluded that gender does not significantly influence consumer attitudes, while education, income and age were found to positively influence consumer attitudes. In studying foreign product perceptions and country of origin across the Black Sea, Apil (2006:32) reported that education is positively correlated with consumer attitudes toward foreign products while younger consumers were reported to have more favourable attitudes than older consumers toward foreign products. Females were reported to have more favourable attitudes than males toward foreign products. No significant differences in consumer attitudes toward online and mobile banking in terms of the level of education were observed in China (Laforet & Li, 2005:371). Juric and Worsley (1998:437) analysed the attitudes of consumers toward imported food products in New Zealand. They found that younger respondents, those who were better educated and those with higher income levels had more favourable attitudes than their counterparts. A study conducted in Ethiopia by Mangnale *et al.* (2011:241) found that women were more ethnocentric than men; while there were no significant differences on ethnocentrism due to age, income and educational levels. In Bawa (2004:46) it was observed that older people tended to be more ethnocentric than younger consumers. Education was negatively associated with consumer ethnocentrism, while women tended to be more ethnocentric than men. Orth and Firbasová (2003:140) also reported that consumer age has repeatedly been found to significantly correlate with ethnocentrism, i.e. older consumers were found to be much more ethnocentric than younger ones. For Polish consumers, age was found to positively correlate with scores on the CETSCALE while income was found to negatively correlate with consumer ethnocentrism. However, there was no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and gender (Supphellen & Ritterburg, 2001:917). In Kamaruddin *et al.* (2002:561), females tended to be more ethnocentric than males; income was negatively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism. There is a scarcity of empirical evidence with respect to the effect of socio-demographics on the consumer purchase behaviour. In one study to investigate the impact of perceived channel utilities, shopping orientations, and demographics on online buying behaviour of consumers in USA, Li, Kuo and Rusell (1999) found that there were no significant differences in online

shopping due to age. Better educated consumers were found to use Web buying more than their counterparts. Similarly, consumers with higher incomes were found to do more online buying than consumers with lower incomes while men were found to use Web buying more than females. **It is proposed that this inconsistency in the findings of prior research and the present study could be attributable mainly to product and market factors.** First, product differences could play a major role in influencing the effect of socio-demographic characteristics. Thus the nature of the product under investigation is likely to influence the results. The present study is based on imported poultry products while prior research was based on different products. Second, markets differ from one country to the other especially due to such environmental differences as socio-cultural, economic and political factors. These external factors can impact the consumption patterns and behaviours of individual consumers within a particular foreign market.

The study also showed no statistical significant differences in the prescribed factors (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, ease of access, promotional effort of the seller, influence from family members and others, religious beliefs and social status) attributable to socio-demographic factors except for the city of residence. This implies that consumers in Harare and Bulawayo generally do not differ in terms of socio-demographic factors. The plausible explanation is that Harare and Bulawayo are the first and second largest cities in Zimbabwe respectively. As such they tend to share similar characteristics when it comes to urban consumers. However, consumers in Harare were found to significantly consider appearance and price when purchasing imported poultry products more than consumers in Bulawayo. This implies that consumers in Harare were more diligent in considering appearance and price more than consumers in Bulawayo. The probable explanation is that Harare is the capital and largest city of Zimbabwe. As such most of imported products first reach Harare before they are distributed to other cities in the country. Therefore, consumers in Harare consumers are exposed to more imported poultry products than consumers in Bulawayo. Therefore, consumers in Harare are somewhat more inclined to scrutinise products in terms of appearance and price because of the wider variety of products that they are exposed to than consumers in Bulawayo.

Evidence from the qualitative insights indicates that the emerging factors (GM food status, product labelling, COO, packaging, production methods and branding) considered by consumers were identified by respondents from those who are better educated i.e. the majority of the respondents who raised these new issues had attained at a least a diploma level of education. This could mean that educated consumers consider more issues when it comes to making purchase decisions than their counterparts. In addition to that, it could be that educated consumers seek more information concerning imported poultry products through such

sources as newspapers because they can afford to buy them. They can also read and comprehend product labels to determine the suitability of products better than uneducated consumers. The implication of this is that information concerning imported poultry products should be readily available where the market is dominated by educated consumers. In the absence of reliable empirical evidence to validate these findings, insights are drawn from Fox, Cater, Shreve and Jones' (2013) study that examined demographic differences in decision-making among a group of adolescents in a community based project. No significant differences in decision-making were found due to gender, age, race and residence. However, Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:9) and Kotler *et al.* (2009:341) suggest that socio-demographic factors are one of the important descriptive characteristics of consumers that are used to segment markets. **The finding that the emerging factors (GM food status, product labelling, COO, packaging, production methods and branding) considered by consumers were identified by respondents from those who are better educated indicate the first evidence from developing and transitional economies.**

5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The findings of the present study were discussed. The results were discussed in light of the findings in previous research i.e. the findings in Chapter 4 were interpreted in view of what is already known about the problem under investigation in related studies. The main areas that guided the discussion include research objectives and related hypotheses, consumer awareness, consumer attitude towards imported poultry products, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products, factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products, and the effect of socio-demographics on the study constructs. The next chapter presents conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 6.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Research results were discussed in Chapter 5. This is the final chapter of the thesis report. It provides conclusions of the present research. Research conclusions are based on the research questions or objectives and related hypotheses as presented in Chapter 3. The research conclusions are drawn from the findings and discussion as presented in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 respectively. The implications of the study findings to policy and practice, the current body of knowledge and research methodology are also provided. Finally, the research limitations are highlighted in view of making recommendations for future research.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

There is sufficient evidence from the findings and interpretation of the results to suggest that consumer awareness positively predicts consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products. This implies that as consumers become more aware of their rights and responsibilities at the market place, they tend to have favourable attitudes toward imported poultry products.

The study results and interpretation show that there is no significant relationship between consumer awareness and consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. This implies that the level of consumer awareness does not predict the purchase behaviour of consumers towards imported poultry products. Imported poultry products would be purchased by consumers regardless of whether these consumers are aware of their rights and responsibilities in the market place.

There is sufficient evidence from the findings to suggest that consumer attitudes positively predict purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. A positive relationship exists between consumer attitude and consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. Favourable consumer attitudes lead to increased purchase of imported poultry products while unfavourable consumer attitudes lead decreased purchase of imported poultry products.

The findings and interpretation suggest that consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. An inverse relationship exists between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. The implication of this is that consumer ethnocentric tendencies result in negative consumer

attitudes toward imported poultry products i.e. ethnocentric consumers have unfavourable attitudes toward imported poultry products.

Findings show that there is no relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. This implies that consumer ethnocentrism does not predict the purchase behaviour of consumers towards imported poultry products. The purchase of imported poultry products is, therefore, independent of consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

Overall, the prescribed factors (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, availability, promotion, influence by others, religious beliefs and social status) influence consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. Separately, only price and influence from others significantly influence (inversely) consumer attitude toward imported poultry products. However, the prescribed factors do not directly influence consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. Thus, on their own, the prescribed factors do not adequately influence the purchase behaviour of consumers toward imported poultry products. This implies that while these factors might be important in determining the consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products, there are other factors that influence the purchase behaviour of consumers towards imported poultry products. These factors include GM food status, product labelling, COO, packaging, production methods and branding.

Consumers expect to be given information concerning the GM food status of imported poultry products when making purchase decisions. While they demonstrate a lack of understanding of the nature of GM food technology, the consumers are concerned about the safety of GM foods and the prevalence of genetic modification in imported poultry products.

As far as labelling is concerned, consumers seem to be concerned about such information as expiry dates, nutrition content and GM food status. It appears that, for consumers to make informed purchase decisions, imported poultry products should have labels indicating when the products will expire, nutrition content and GM food status.

Consumers are concerned about COO i.e. countries where imported poultry products come from. Lack of this information seems to make it difficult for consumers to make purchase decisions on imported poultry products.

Consumers want imported poultry products that are packaged in various pack sizes so that those who do not afford bigger ones can go for smaller ones which are relatively cheaper. They also seem to expect packaging that is appealing and hygienic. Appealing products are likely to lure consumers to make a purchase. The concern for hygienic packaging seems to stem from the

need for healthy food products because the consumer of today is health conscious. Concerns for hygiene seem to increase with imported poultry products whose origin is not known.

It appears that consumers' concerns about the method of production of imported poultry products are centred on the use of chemicals and GMO food technology. Consumers are reluctant to purchase GM food products and those products which have been processed using certain chemicals which are perceived to be detrimental to human health. Failure to provide adequate information concerning the method of production of imported poultry products seems to discourage consumers from purchasing imported poultry products.

Branding also plays an important role in influencing consumer decisions to purchase imported poultry products. Consumers seem to trust and are likely to purchase brands that they are familiar with. Perhaps they perceive brands that they are familiar with to have less risk as compared to unfamiliar brands.

Price determines the quantity that consumers purchase and acts as a cue to the quality of imported poultry products. Consumers are likely to buy more of cheaper imported poultry products than expensive ones. They do so while being cautious about the quality of the products. The impact of price is felt by consumers with lower incomes more than consumers with higher incomes.

Quality of imported poultry products is a broad concept that encompasses such characteristics of imported poultry products as health related issues, taste, appearance and tenderness. Consumers consider these attributes of quality as important. Consumers are concerned about the impact of the food that they eat on their health while they consider taste to be important possibly because of the need to enjoy food. Appearance seems to attract consumers to purchase imported poultry products. Consumers prefer food products that are appealing to the eye. The importance of tenderness of imported poultry products is probably in terms of the preparation time and eating. Consumers prefer tender poultry products perhaps because tender meat is easier to prepare (i.e. it takes a shorter time to prepare) and consume.

The study establishes that the level of consumer awareness in Harare and Bulawayo is relatively high. Thus consumers are relatively alert of their individual rights and responsibilities in the market place. The construct of consumer awareness comprises six underlying factors, namely product knowledge, price consciousness, general consumer knowledge, bargain hunting, obtaining the best deal and information search. The implication of this is that consumer awareness is a multi-dimensional construct.

Consumers in Harare and Bulawayo have negative attitudes toward imported poultry products i.e. the attitude of consumers in Harare and Bulawayo is unfavourable toward imported poultry products. The construct of consumer attitude consists of three underlying factors called consumer beliefs, consumer feelings and consumer intentions to purchase.

Consumers in Harare and Bulawayo have high ethnocentric tendencies. Therefore, Zimbabwean consumers are likely to blindly accept domestic poultry products simply because they are produced in Zimbabwe while rejecting imported poultry products simply because they are made in other countries. They view imported poultry products as damaging to the local poultry industry or to Zimbabwean economy. The construct of consumer ethnocentrism comprises two underlying factors called negative impact of foreign products and preference for domestic products.

Imported poultry products are not the product of choice among the Zimbabwean consumers. However, consumers purchase imported poultry products because they are cheaper. Therefore, Zimbabwean consumers would not purchase imported poultry products if the price of imported poultry products is the same as the price of local poultry products. Consumer purchase behaviour consists of two underlying factors, namely trial purchase and repeat purchase. Consumers seem to start purchasing imported poultry brands on a trial basis and when satisfied, they continue to buy those brands.

Gender, age, marital status, city where the respondent stays, residential area, highest level of education, monthly gross income, ethnic grouping and number of household members do not significantly influence consumer awareness, consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. Likewise, gender, age, marital status, residential area, highest level of education, monthly gross income, ethnic grouping and number of household members do not significantly influence the prescribed factors (taste, tenderness, appearance, health and safety issues, price, ease of access, promotional effort of the seller, influence from family members and others, religious beliefs and social status). However, the city where the respondents stay significantly influences the importance attached to price and appearance by consumers when they make decisions to purchase imported poultry products. Qualitative insights established that the level of education is an important variable that influences how consumers perceive the importance of GM food status, product labelling, COO, packaging, production methods and branding when purchasing imported poultry products. Consumers with low incomes seem to be more affected by price than consumers with high incomes.

6.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR MARKETING THEORY AND KNOWLEDGE, MANAGEMENT AND METHODOLOGY

6.3.1 Implications for marketing theory and knowledge

Despite developing and emerging economies now presenting the next great opportunity for global business because the economies of developed nations are ever-shrinking (Klein *et al.*, 2006:305), there has been a scarcity of studies that have systematically investigated consumer behaviour and attitudes in developing countries especially in Sub-Saharan Africa and very little is known about consumer behaviour in this part of the world (Opoku & Arkoli, 2009:350). This research addresses this knowledge gap. Globally, there has been a dearth of consumer behaviour studies that have specially focused on international poultry consumers. The present study is, therefore, a pioneer in consumer behaviour studies in that it takes a holistic investigation into consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, attitudes, purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products, and factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. **From this study, it is therefore for the first time possible, to construct a theoretical framework showing confirmed significant relationships between consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, attitude and purchase behaviour which is presented in Figure 6.1**

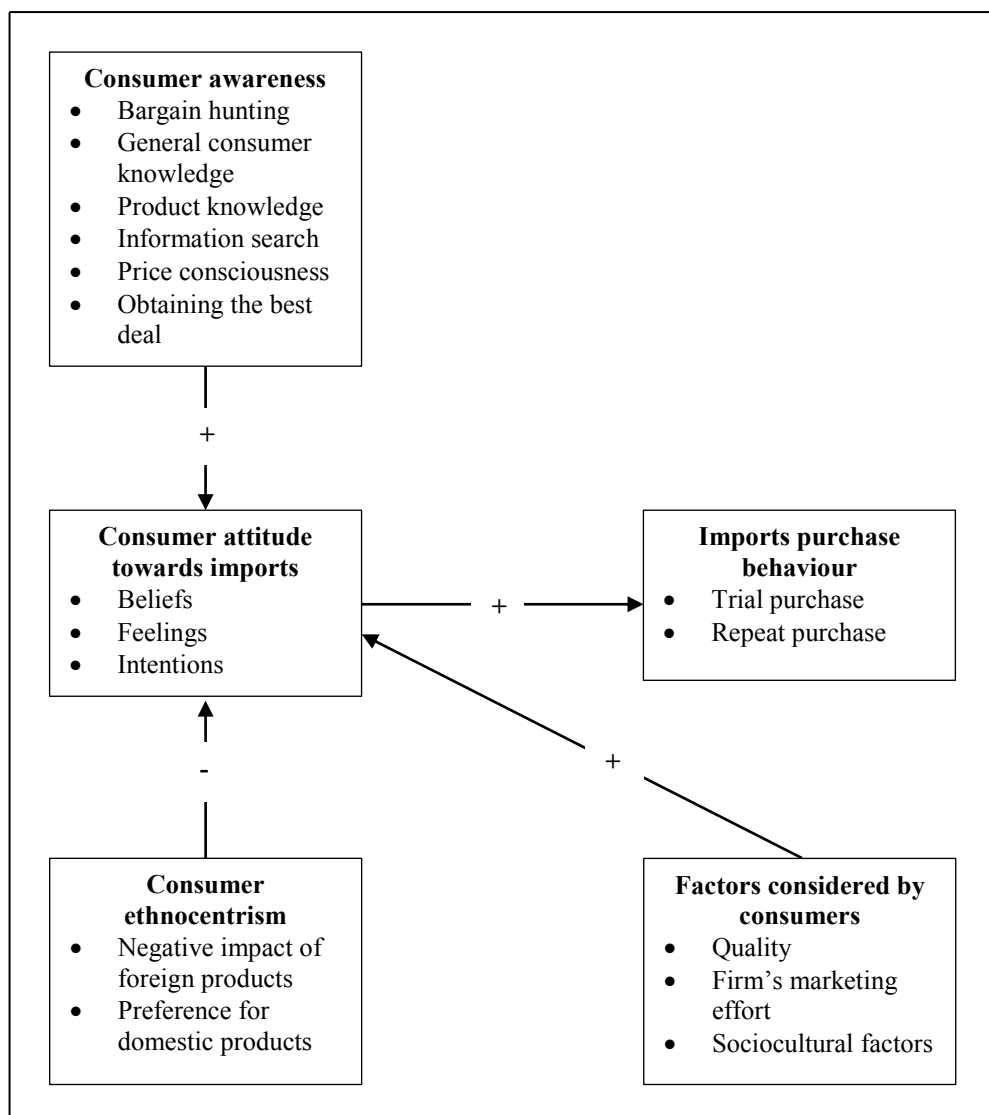


Figure 6.1 Theoretical framework of consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products

As illustrated in Figure 6.1, consumer awareness and factors considered by consumers (quality, firm's marketing effort and socio-cultural variables) positively predict consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. Consumer ethnocentrism inversely predicts consumer attitude towards imported poultry products. Consumer attitude also positively influences consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. Apart from this theoretical framework, marketing literature should pay attention to emerging factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products as suggested by qualitative insights. The major factors include price, quality, genetically modified food status, product labelling, COO, packaging, production methods and branding. **Thus, the existing theory should be enhanced to include this finding.**

The present study is unique in its quest to investigate the effect of consumer awareness on consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported products. The positive relationship established between consumer awareness and consumer attitude towards imported poultry products is a first. As such, marketing literature needs to pay more attention to the established relationship between consumer awareness and attitude towards imported poultry products. Consumer awareness and consumer attitude are important variables in marketing and consumer behaviour. Consumer attitudes shape consumer behaviour (Sheth, 2011:504; Bellows *et al.*, 2010:540; Assael, 2004:222; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:265). Consumer awareness is concerned with consumers' attentiveness of their individual rights and responsibilities with regards to the purchase of products in the market place (Rousseau & Venter, 1995:18).

An enhanced understanding of marketing theory is made in terms of the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism, attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. **The study established an inverse relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes toward imported poultry products. This finding augments the existing general understanding that consumer ethnocentrism leads to negative attitudes toward foreign products.** The same conclusions were drawn by Pentz's (2011:231), Rice (2011:211), Moon (2004:668), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:126) and Supphellen and Rittersburg (2001:908). **A positive relationship between consumer attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products was also acknowledged. This finding agrees with the existing marketing theory.** As testified in consumer behaviour theory, consumer attitudes influence consumer behaviour and sometimes consumer behaviour also influences attitudes (Sheth, 2011:504; Bellows *et al.*, 2010:540; Assael, 2004:222; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:265).

The finding that, **on aggregate, quality, firm's marketing effort and socio-cultural variables directly predict consumer attitude but do not directly predict consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products** enriches our understanding of the behaviour of consumers. **Price and influence by others were each found to negatively predict consumer attitude toward imported poultry products.** This also expands the growing body of marketing literature.

The study shows that the construct of consumer awareness is multi-dimensional. According to Rousseau and Venter (1996:21) and Rousseau and Venter (1995:29), consumer awareness comprises five distinguishable characteristics, namely "bargain hunting, general consumer knowledge, product knowledge, information search and price consciousness". **This study identifies 'obtaining the best deal' as the sixth factor not previously reported in literature.**

Marketing literature should pay more attention to the dimensionality of the construct of consumer awareness. Thus, the existing theory should be expanded to include this finding.

A contribution to marketing literature is made through an enriched understanding of the factor structure of consumer attitudes. As already highlighted, **consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products consist of three underlying factors called consumer beliefs, feelings and intentions to purchase. This confirms the multi-dimensionality of consumer attitude as suggested in literature** (Assael, 2004: 216; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:256; Solomon, 2002:200).

The high CETSCORE of 87.50 based on the 7 point Likert scale recorded in the present study is remarkable. As acknowledged by Teo *et al.* (2011:2806), the highest score (85.07) was recorded in Korea and the lowest score (28.70) was recorded in Belgium. Literature shows mixed findings regarding the dimensionality of consumer ethnocentrism. **This study shows that consumer ethnocentrism is a two-dimensional construct comprising negative impact of foreign products and preference for domestic products.** According to Bawa (2004:51), there is a common belief that consumer ethnocentrism is a construct of the developed world; with overwhelming evidence suggesting that consumers from developing countries have marked preferences for imported products. **Contrary to this view is the finding in this study which records high ethnocentric tendencies in a developing country. The existing theory should be enhanced to include this finding.**

The present study also provides a major basis for an appreciation of the factor structure of consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products. **Empirically, it was established that consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products comprises two underlying factors called trial purchase and repeat purchase.** In the absence of other empirical evidence to validate the factor structure of the construct of consumer purchase behaviour, a theoretical standpoint is taken by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:569) that there are two major types of consumer purchase behaviour, namely trial purchase and repeat purchase.

6.3.2 Implications for policy and practice

As the study underscored that consumer awareness positively predicts consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products, it is recommended that marketers of imported poultry products focus on increasing the level of consumer awareness. This is important because consumers with a high level of awareness are not only protected against exploitation but are also more likely to obtain maximum satisfaction of their household needs (Du Plessiset *al.*, 1994:331). It is also hoped that the favourable consumer attitudes achieved as a result of

increased consumer awareness would translate to favourable purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products as acknowledged by Sheth (2011:504), Bellows *et al.* (2010:540), Assael (2004:222) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:265). Marketers are advised to lobby and work with the Government of Zimbabwe through the CCZ so that more consumer awareness programmes can be conducted in Zimbabwe so as to increase the level of consumer awareness. The CCZ should focus on conducting consumer awareness campaigns that seek to educate the consumers about their rights and responsibilities in the market place. Marketers should also come up with aggressive marketing programmes that seek to educate Zimbabwean consumers of their rights and responsibilities in the market place. This can be achieved through such media as television, radio, newspapers, billboards, social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter and WhatsApp) and word of mouth. Since consumer awareness fails to significantly influence consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products, marketers may not be able to directly shape consumer purchase behaviour by increasing the level of consumer awareness. Instead, they should direct their marketing efforts at increasing consumer awareness with the intention of shaping the attitudes of consumers toward imported poultry products. Consequently, favourable attitudes of consumers would lead to favourable purchase behaviour.

As underlined by the present study, favourable consumer attitudes lead to favourable purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. Insights drawn from the negative attitudes of consumers toward imported poultry products suggest that marketing effort should aim at inculcating in consumers favourable attitudes toward imported poultry products. This can be done by means of product promotion especially persuasive communication as suggested by Foxall and Goldsmith (1994:106). Likewise, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:269) assert that the success of most marketing strategies lies in the ability to change the attitudes of consumers. Most competitors aim to topple market leaders. They do this by trying to change consumer attitudes so as to lure them from market leaders. Marketers should take into account the three components of consumer attitude i.e. marketing promotions should be aimed at changing the beliefs, feelings and purchase intentions of consumers from an unfavourable state to a favourable one. On the other hand, domestic marketers are advised to take advantage of the unfavourable attitudes of consumers toward imported poultry products. They should promote their local products emphasising the attributes of local poultry products that are viewed positively by the consumers. As acknowledged by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:269), market leaders strive to fortify the existing positive attitudes of consumers. They do this so that their customers are not enticed by offerings from competitors.

Since imported poultry products are not the product of choice among the Zimbabwean consumers, marketers are advised to engage in aggressive promotions of their products. The promotional efforts should be aimed at consumers to try imported poultry products and to

achieve sustained repeat purchase. For example, they can come up with penetration pricing strategies; they can also offer free samples and discounts to the consumers. They are also advised to work on improving the general quality of imported poultry products in terms of health and safety, labelling of GM food status, COO and production methods. On the contrary, domestic marketers should take advantage of the unfavourable purchase behaviour of consumers and promote local poultry products emphasising the unique attributes of local products that are favourable to the consumers. They should put in place mechanisms that would ensure that their production facilities would be able to sustainably provide these favourable traits demanded by consumers.

The study established high ethnocentric tendencies among the consumers and that consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products. From a marketing point of view, there is a need for marketers to understand ethnocentric tendencies of the consumers so that they may have an idea of how the consumers evaluate imported poultry products. Domestic marketers should view the threat of poultry imports into Zimbabwe in light of the high ethnocentric tendencies among the consumers. High consumer ethnocentric tendencies present an opportunity to domestic marketers in that consumers tend to prefer local poultry products ahead of imported poultry products. Domestic marketers should therefore emphasise the 'Made in Zimbabwe' tag or the 'Buy Zimbabwe' campaign in promoting local poultry products. Their promotions should emphasise the negative effect foreign poultry products have on the Zimbabwean economy. They should also focus on the consumers' preference for local products by emphasising the positive attributes of local products. From the point of view of marketers of poultry imports, a greater degree of competition should be expected. Therefore, foreign poultry producers should consider producing their poultry products in Zimbabwe. They can do this by setting up production facilities in Zimbabwe or venturing into partnerships with local producers so that they can circumvent the high ethnocentric tendencies of the Zimbabwean consumers. Since consumer ethnocentrism does not significantly influence consumer purchase behaviour, it is recommended that marketing managers of imported poultry products not pay much attention to consumer ethnocentrism as an antecedent of consumer purchase behaviour. Thus, a good understanding of consumer ethnocentrism in view of influencing consumer choice of imported poultry products is not likely to be useful. Focus should otherwise be directed at an understanding of consumer ethnocentrism in view of changing consumer attitudes which, in turn, would directly impact consumer purchase behaviour.

Marketing managers of imported poultry products are advised to focus on sustaining the competitive price advantage in their product offerings. They should continue to charge competitive prices i.e. prices that are affordable to consumers. However, charging low prices

should not be done at the expense of quality (Rao, 2005:401). Domestic marketers should also be sensitive to their prices that are perceived to be too high by charging competitive prices as well. Failure to do that may render the local poultry products uncompetitive in terms of price. Domestic marketers should also offer their local poultry products in different pack sizes including smaller ones that are affordable to ordinary consumers.

The present study advises the Government of Zimbabwe to ensure that stringent measures are put in place so that poultry products that are imported into the country bear sufficient information related to their health and safety and that the products are not of substandard quality. Domestic marketers should take advantage of the negative consumer perceptions of imported poultry products in terms of health and safety issues and promote their products, emphasising the strength of local poultry products in this area.

Marketing managers need to pay particular attention to the issue of GM food status. Marketers of imported poultry products should ensure that information about the GM food status of imported poultry products is availed to the consumers. One way of doing this is labelling the products of their GM food status. On the other hand, domestic marketers should capitalise on this negative consumer perception of imported poultry products and promote their local products emphasising the genetically modified organism free status of their product offerings as their unique selling proposition. At a higher level, the Government of Zimbabwe should enforce the laws that govern the flow of GM foods into country i.e. the Government should come up with clear policies as to whether or not GM foods are permitted into the country and, if so, mandatory labelling of the products about their GM food status should be introduced. This information is vital to the consumers as they will make informed purchase decisions.

Marketers should ensure that information on expiry dates, nutrition content, COO and production methods is availed to the consumers. Enforcements should come from the Government of Zimbabwe through the CCZ. It should be mandatory to label poultry products in terms of expiry dates, nutrition content, COO and production methods. This information would not only make it easier for consumers to make purchase decisions regarding imported poultry products but would also protect the consumers from unsafe poultry products on the market place.

Domestic marketers should take a leaf from foreign poultry suppliers and come up with a more appealing packaging. Various pack sizes including smaller ones that are affordable to low income earners should also be taken into consideration by local poultry producers if they are to remain competitive on this aspect.

The lack of socio-demographics in explaining consumer awareness, consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products demonstrate that these variables are not an important consideration when it comes to segmenting consumer markets in Harare and Bulawayo. As such market segmentation cannot be effectively based on gender, age, marital status, city where the respondent stays, residential area, highest level of education, monthly gross income, ethnic grouping, number of household members and religion in Zimbabwe. Therefore, marketers should not pay much attention to these factors when planning programmes on consumer awareness, consumer attitudes toward imported poultry products, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products. However, for factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products there is a need for marketing managers to take into account the differences in the behaviour of consumers due to the city where the consumer stays, education and income.

6.3.3 Methodological implications

The present study makes a contribution to marketing research methodology in that new construct measures were developed and validated for consumer attitude, purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products and prescribed factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products. New scales were developed for consumer attitude and purchase behaviour and the scales were found to be reliable.

The factors underlying the study constructs are critical when it comes to the measurement of the respective constructs. Six factors were extracted from the construct of consumer awareness, namely bargain hunting, general consumer knowledge, product knowledge, information search, price consciousness and obtaining the best deal. **This finding is in line with previous research. However, it extends our understanding of the dimensionality of consumer awareness because obtaining the best deal emerged as a new factor never reported in the literature.**

Three factors were extracted from the construct of consumer attitude toward imported poultry products, namely consumer beliefs, feelings and intentions to purchase. **This finding supports the existing literature.**

The factors underlying consumer purchase behaviour towards imported poultry products were identified as trial purchase and repeat purchase. **This finding agrees with the extant literature.** This implies that consumers first make a trial purchase and, if satisfied with the imported poultry products, they make repeat purchases.

Consumer ethnocentrism comprised two underlying factors called negative impact of foreign products and preference for domestic products. Literature shows that there is no agreement

among scholars concerning the factor structure of the construct of consumer ethnocentrism. **However, this finding extends our understanding of the multi-dimensionality of consumer ethnocentrism. It adds that, in developing and transitional economies, the construct of consumer ethnocentrism comprises two distinct attributes, namely negative impact of foreign products and preference for domestic products.**

Marketing scholars are advised to consider the methodological implication of the present research when it comes to exploratory studies on consumer behaviour. The study adopted a mixed methods approach (quantitative and qualitative) in data collection and analysis as suggested by Lewis and Soureli (2006:20) and Mostert (2002:279). To explore the factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products, both quantitative and qualitative questions were used. It turned out that the structured (quantitative) questions alone could not adequately bring out the factors considered by consumers. Open ended (qualitative) questions were therefore inevitable as they presented an opportunity to the respondents to openly express themselves. This worked well as new factors that were not previously addressed by structured questions emerged. In this regard, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:27) uphold that quantitative and qualitative approaches are complementary in nature; the prediction made possible by quantitative research and the understanding provided by qualitative research work together to bring out a richer and more robust profile of consumer behaviour than either research approach used alone. Thus the combined findings make it possible for marketers to design more meaningful and effective marketing strategies (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004:28). More so, the qualitative dimension is also inevitable as it allowed for speculative discussion in the discussion chapter.

6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Although the present study has managerial, academic and methodological implications, it is limited by a few factors. These factors and other emerging issues should be addressed in future research.

The present study focused only on imported poultry products. This implies that the generalisation of the study findings is limited to this product category. More so, the study sample was drawn only from two major cities and yet there are other several cities in Zimbabwe. Even though there are more consumers living in rural areas than urban areas of Zimbabwe (ZIMSTAT, 2012a), rural consumers were not considered as part of the study sample.

It is therefore recommended that further studies be conducted to investigate consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, attitudes and purchase behaviour toward a wide range of imported

products such as apparel, electronic gadgets, groceries and automotive products. Another area that future research should focus on is extending the present study into other cities in Zimbabwe and also into rural areas. A comparative study may be necessary between urban poultry consumers and rural poultry consumers. One other area that may seek the attention of future researchers is exploring the attitudes and purchase intentions of consumers toward genetically modified foods in Zimbabwe and other developing countries. Several other studies are required to test the statistical significance of the emerging factors considered by consumers when purchasing imported poultry products to enhance an understanding of this phenomenon. Lastly, it is recommended that more studies of this nature be conducted especially in developing and emerging economies in order to validate the findings of the present study and enhance an understanding of the phenomena.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Research instrument and informed consent



UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
School of Management, IT & Governance

Research Project: Ph.D. Marketing Management
Researcher: Charles Makanyeza (+263 772 945 941)
Supervisor: Dr. F. du Toit (+27 11 652 0326)
Dr. M. Ramchander (+27 31 2602550)

Dear Respondent,

I, Charles Makanyeza, a Ph.D. Marketing Management student, at the School of Management, IT & Governance of the University of KwaZulu-Natal, am conducting a research project. You are invited to participate in this research project entitled, *Consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, attitude and behaviour toward imported poultry products in a developing transition economy: A Zimbabwean perspective*. The aim of this study is to investigate consumer attitudes and behaviour towards imported poultry products in a developing transition country and establishing the effect of consumer awareness on consumer attitude and behaviour using Zimbabwe as a point of reference. Through your participation I hope to understand the behaviour, attitudes and awareness of Zimbabwean consumers towards imported poultry products. The results of the survey are intended to contribute to the development of marketing strategies regarding, not only imported poultry products, but also local poultry products.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the School of Management, IT & Governance of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

The survey should take you about 20 minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey.

Sincerely

Investigator's signature _____ Date _____

CONSENT

I.....(full names of participant) 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.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

Question 1

Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following suggestions.

(Key: 1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Somewhat Disagree; 4=Neither Agree Nor Disagree; 5=Somewhat Agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

A1	I check the media each week for bargains.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A2	When I see a 'special' advertised on TV or the other media I always follow it up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A3	I always shop at more than one store to compare prices and take advantage of the lowest priced item.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A4	I like searching for bargains at seasonal sales auctions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A5	I always try to obtain the best deal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A6	Consumers in Zimbabwe are not aware of their legitimate rights when it comes to doing business or engage in shopping.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A7	More attention should be paid to consumer awareness programmes in school education.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A8	Too few consumers in Zimbabwe read consumer articles in newspapers, magazines, and online and electronic sources.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A9	Zimbabwe consumers are not aware of the laws available to protect their consumer rights.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A10	Consumer organisations in Zimbabwe deserve better support from consumers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A11	Checking expiring dates on perishable food items is essential for ensuring fresh produce.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A12	I always look for a guarantee on expensive products before deciding on the purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A13	It is important to share product information with friends and relatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A14	Product knowledge is one's best guardian against exploitation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A15	I keep a watch on the media for new products and services that may be useful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A16	I always consult brochures and pamphlets for information before buying durable goods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A17	Seeking information from relatives prior to making a final choice is always a good idea.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A18	Sales staff can be an important source of product information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A19	Before purchasing a particular product I usually compare various brands to choose the best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A20	I usually consider advertisements for obtaining product information prior to purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A21	Choosing 'no-name brands' is a good way to beat inflation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A22	Price is the most important factor to me in choosing an item.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A23	When a product is offered at a discount price I am more tempted to buy it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A24	Before deciding where to go shopping, I usually try to find out whether any specials are being offered.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A25	I always compare prices of similar products on display in the store.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 2

Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following suggestions.

(Key: 1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Somewhat Disagree; 4=Neither Agree Nor Disagree; 5=Somewhat Agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

B1	Imported poultry products taste good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B2	Imported poultry products are healthy food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B3	Imported poultry products have good quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B4	Imported poultry products are safe to consume.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B5	Imported poultry products provide value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B6	Imported poultry products are good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B7	Imported poultry products are appealing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B8	Imported poultry products are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B9	Imported poultry products are favourable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B10	Imported poultry products are preferred most	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B11	I will definitely buy poultry imports the next time I buy poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B12	I will spend more on imported poultry products the next time I buy poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B13	I will recommend others to buy imported poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B14	I would not mind to buy imported poultry products next time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B15	I intend to buy imported poultry products when I make the next purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 3

Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following suggestions.

(Key: 1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Somewhat Disagree; 4=Neither Agree Nor Disagree; 5=Somewhat Agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

C1	I bought imported poultry products for the first time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C2	I bought small quantities of imported poultry products as a trial.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C3	I have evaluated imported poultry products through consuming them for the first time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C4	I have been encouraged to try imported poultry products and I did.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C5	I have tried new imported poultry products through promotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C6	I approve imported poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C7	I am willing to buy imported poultry products again.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C8	I always buy imported poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C9	I often buy imported poultry products in larger quantities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C10	I repeatedly spend more on imported poultry products than local products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C11	I am satisfied with imported poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C12	I no longer have doubts in purchasing imported poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C13	Consuming imported poultry products is a rational and a wise decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C14	I seek promotions that support my choice for imported poultry products compared to local competitive brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C15	I always try to persuade others also to buy imported poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 4

Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following suggestions.

(Key: 1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Somewhat Disagree; 4=Neither Agree Nor Disagree; 5=Somewhat Agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

D1	Zimbabwean people should always buy Zimbabwean-made poultry products instead of imports.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D2	Only those poultry products that are unavailable in Zimbabwe should be imported.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D3	Buy Zimbabwean-produced poultry products; keep Zimbabwe working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D4	Zimbabwean poultry products first, last and foremost.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D5	Purchasing imported poultry products is un-Zimbabwean.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D6	It is not right to purchase imported poultry products because it puts Zimbabweans out of jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D7	A real Zimbabwean should always buy Zimbabwean-produced poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D8	We should purchase poultry products made in Zimbabwe instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D9	It is always best to purchase Zimbabwean poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D10	There should be very little trading or purchasing of poultry products from other countries unless out of necessity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D11	Zimbabweans should not buy imported poultry products because this hurts Zimbabwean business and causes unemployment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D12	Curbs should be put on all imported poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D13	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Zimbabwean poultry products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their poultry products on our markets.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D15	Imported poultry products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Zimbabwe.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D16	We should buy from foreign countries only those poultry products that we cannot obtain within our country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D17	Zimbabwean consumers who purchase poultry products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Zimbabweans out of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 5

Please indicate your responses to the suggestion that you consider the following factors when purchasing imported poultry products.

(Key: 1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Somewhat Disagree; 4=Neither Agree Nor Disagree; 5=Somewhat Agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

F1	Taste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F2	Tenderness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F3	Appearance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F4	Health and safety issues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F5	Price	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F6	Ease of access/availability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F7	Promotional effort of the seller	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F8	Influence from family members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F9	Religious beliefs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F10	Social class or status	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix 2: The 17-item original CETSCALE

No.	Item
1.	American people should always buy American-made products instead of imports.
2.	Only those products unavailable in USA should be imported.
3.	Buy American-made products; keep America working.
4.	American products first, last and foremost.
5.	Purchasing imported products is un-American.
6.	It is not right to purchase foreign products.
7.	A real American should always buy American-made products.
8.	We should purchase products manufactured in America instead of letting other countries get rich off us.
9.	It is always best to purchase American products.
10.	There should be very little trading or purchasing of products from other countries unless out of necessity.
11.	Americans should not buy foreign products because this hurts American business and causes unemployment.
12.	Curbs should be put on all imports.
13.	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support American products.
14.	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.
15.	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into the USA.
16.	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.
17.	American consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans out of work.

Note: Response format is a 7-point Likert-type scale (strongly agree = 7, strongly disagree = 1). Range of scores is from 17 to 119 calculated from confirmatory factor analysis of data from four-area study.

Source: Shimp and Sharma (1987:282).

Appendix 3: A scale to measure consumer awareness

1. I check the newspaper each week for bargains.
2. When I see a 'special' advertised on TV or radio I always follow it up.
3. I always shop at more than store to compare prices and take advantage of the lowest priced item.
4. I like searching for bargains at seasonal sales auctions.
5. I always try to obtain the best deal.
6. Consumers in Zimbabwe are not aware of their legitimate rights when it comes to doing business or engage in shopping.
7. More attention should be paid to consumer awareness programmes in school education.
8. Too few consumers in Zimbabwe read consumer articles in newspapers and magazines.
9. Zimbabwe consumers are not aware of the laws available to protect their consumer rights.
10. Consumer organisations in Zimbabwe deserve better support from consumers.
11. Checking expiring dates on perishable food items is essential for ensuring fresh produce.
12. I always look for a guarantee on expensive products before deciding on the purchase.
13. It is important to share product information with friends and relatives.
14. Product knowledge is one's best guardian against exploitation.
15. I keep a watch on the media for new products and services that may be useful to me.
16. I always consult brochures and pamphlets for information before buying durable goods.
17. Seeking information from relatives prior to make a final choice is always a good idea.
18. Sales staff can be an important source of product information.
19. Before purchasing a particular product I usually compare various brands to choose the best.
20. I usually read newspaper advertisements for obtaining product information prior to purchase.
21. Choosing 'no-name brands' is a good way to beat inflation.
22. Price is the most important factor to me in choosing an item.
23. When a product is offered at a discount price I am more tempted to buy it.
24. Before deciding where to go shopping, I usually try to find out whether any specials are being offered.
25. I always compare prices of similar products on display in the store.

Source: Rousseau and Venter (1995:21)

Appendix 4: Attributes of a food product

In your opinion, how safe is the food you eat? (Check one.)	
_____	Very safe, not a concern.
_____	Very safe, but minor concern.
_____	Somewhat safe, but minor concern.
_____	Somewhat safe, but moderate concern.
_____	Not safe, much concern.

Source: Brewer and Rojas (2008:5)

Appendix 5: Attributes of a food product

With respect to the safety of the food product you eat, how concerned about the following are you? (1 = no concern, 2 = low concern, 3 = moderate concern, 4 = strong concern, 5 = very strong concern.)

1	2	3	4	5	Restaurant sanitation
1	2	3	4	5	Shelf-stable foods (canned, dried, etc.)
1	2	3	4	5	Pasteurised foods (milk, juice, etc.)
1	2	3	4	5	Refrigerated, prepared food
1	2	3	4	5	Improper food preparation at home
1	2	3	4	5	Vitamin content of processed food
1	2	3	4	5	Microbiological contamination of fresh food
1	2	3	4	5	Carbohydrate content of specific foods
1	2	3	4	5	Pesticides residues in food
1	2	3	4	5	Calorie content of specific foods
1	2	3	4	5	Hormone residues in poultry, meat or milk
1	2	3	4	5	Fat or cholesterol content of specific foods
1	2	3	4	5	Meat being thoroughly cooked
1	2	3	4	5	Use of preservatives
1	2	3	4	5	Irradiation
1	2	3	4	5	Nitrites in cured meats
1	2	3	4	5	Mad Cow Disease in beef
1	2	3	4	5	Food ingredients associated with allergies
1	2	3	4	5	Genetically modified foods
1	2	3	4	5	Food additives and artificial colours

Source: Brewer and Rojas (2008:5)

Appendix 6: Consumer's belief system for two methods of broadband Internet access

Product Brand Attributes	BROADBAND INTERNET ACCESS							
	Cable Internet Access				DSL Internet Access			
	<i>Speed</i>	<i>Availability</i>	<i>Reliability</i>	<i>Other Features</i>	<i>Speed</i>	<i>Availability</i>	<i>Reliability</i>	<i>Other Features</i>
Beliefs	Faster than DSI.	Offered now by my cable company	As reliable as my cable TV	No choice of provider and slows down when lots of subscribers are online	Slower than a cable modem but faster than dial-up service	Offered now by my local telephone company	Can be spotty	Bandwidth varies less than with a cable connection but can be more difficult to install and troubleshoot
Evaluations	(++++)	(+++)	(+++)	(-)	(++)	(+++)	(-)	(+)

Source: Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:257)

Appendix 7: Attitude toward the brand

1.	I would not purchase this product/I would purchase this product
2.	Mediocre product/exceptional product
3.	Not at all high quality/extremely high quality
4.	Poor value/excellent value
5.	Poorly made/well made
6.	Boring/exciting
7.	Not a worthwhile product/a worthwhile product
8.	Unappealing product/appealing product
9.	Common/unique

Source: Bruner II *et al.* (2005:88)

Appendix 8: Brand belief

Brand X is (Family X are) _____.

1. Strongly disagree/strongly agree
2. Extremely unlikely/extremely likely
3. Not at all high probable/very probable
- 4.

Source: Bruner II *et al.* (2005:131)

Appendix 9: Selected evaluative scale used to gauge consumers' attitudes toward Lubriderm Skin Therapy Moisturising Lotion

Compared to other skin moisturising lotions, Lubriderm Skin Therapy, Moisturising Lotion is:								
Good	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	Bad
Positive	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	Negative
Pleasant	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	Unpleasant
Appealing	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	Unappealing

Source: Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:258)

Appendix 10: Measuring consumer's feelings and emotions with regard to using Lubriderm Skin Therapy Moisturising Lotion

For the past 30 days you have a chance to try Lubriderm. We would appreciate it if you would identify how your skin felt after using the product during this 30-day trial period.
 For each of the words below, we would appreciate it if you would mark an 'X' in the box corresponding to how your skin felt after using Lubriderm during the past days

	VERY				NOT AT ALL			
Relaxed	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Beautiful	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Tight	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Smooth	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Supple	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Clean	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Refreshed	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Younger	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Revived	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Renewed	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Source: Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:258)

Appendix 11: General affective response

1. Unpleasant/Pleasant
2. Dislike very much/like very much
3. Left me with a bad feeling/left me with a good feeling

Source: Bruner II *et al.* (2005:4)

Appendix 12: Attitude toward the brand (general attitude)

1. I like _____
2. _____ is satisfactory
3. _____ is desirable
4. _____

Source: Bruner II *et al.* (2005:44)

Appendix 13: Attitude toward the brand and product category

1. How favourable are _____?
not at all favourable/very favourable
2. How likable are _____?
not at all likable/very likable
3. How pleasing are _____?
not at all pleasing/very pleasing
4. How favourable is the category of _____?
not at all favourable/very favourable
5. How likable is the category of _____?
not at all likable/very likable
6. How pleasing is the category of _____?
not at all pleasing/very pleasing

Source: Bruner II *et al.* (2005:45)

Appendix 14: Attitude toward the brand (beer)

1. Pleasant/unpleasant
2. Agreeable/disagreeable
3. Satisfactory/unsatisfactory
4. Positive/negative
5. Tastes good/tastes bad
6. Exciting/dull
7. Romantic/unromantic
8. Powerful/weak
9. Social/not social
10. Expensive/inexpensive
11. Good/bad

Source: Bruner II *et al.* (2005:72)

Appendix 15: Attitude toward the product/brand

1. This is a bad product/This is a good product.
2. I dislike the product/I like the product.
3. I feel negative toward the product/I feel positive toward the product.
4. The product is awful/The product is nice.
5. The product is unpleasant/The product is pleasant
6. The product is unattractive/The product is attractive.
7. I approve of the product/I disapprove of the product.

Source: Bruner II *et al.* (2005:90)

Appendix 16: Behavioural intention

1. Unlikely/likely
2. Non-existent/existent
3. Improbable/probable
4. Impossible/possible
5. Uncertain/certain
6. Definitely would not use/definitely would use
7. Not at all/very frequent
8. No chance/certain chance
9. Probably not/probably

Source: Bruner II *et al.* (2005:125)

Appendix 17: Behavioural intention

1. The probability that I will use this _____ again is:
2. The likelihood that I would recommend this _____ to a friend is:
3. If I had to do it over again, I would make the same choice.

Source: Bruner II *et al.* (2005:127)

Appendix 18: Two examples of intention-to-buy scales

Which of the following statements best describes the chance that you will buy Lubriderm Lotion the next time you purchase a skin care product?

- | | |
|-------|---------------------------------------|
| _____ | I definitely will buy it. |
| _____ | I probably will buy it. |
| _____ | I am uncertain whether I will buy it. |
| _____ | I probably will not buy it. |
| _____ | I definitely will not buy it. |

How likely are you to buy Lubriderm Lotion during the next three months?

- | | |
|-------|-------------|
| _____ | Very likely |
| _____ | Likely |
| _____ | Unlikely |
| _____ | Very Likely |

Source: Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:259)

Appendix 19: Turnitin originality report (first page)

Turnitin Originality Report

Draft by C Makanyeza

From Thesis (Doctoral FR Thesis)

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Appendix 20: Ethical clearance certificate



5 July 2013

Mr Charles Makanyeza 212561327
School of Management, IT and Governance
Westville Campus

Protocol reference number: HSS/0586/013D
Project title: Consumer awareness, attitude and behaviour toward imported poultry products in a developing transition economy: A Zimbabwean perspective

Dear Mr Makanyeza

I wish to inform you that your application has been granted Full Approval.

Expedited Approval

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 school/department for a period of 5 years.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully


.....
Dr S Singh (Deputy Chair)

/px

cc Supervisor: Dr F du Toit
cc Co-Supervisor: Dr M Ramchander
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor B McArthur
cc Post Graduate Administrator: Ms A Pearce

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
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Founding Campuses: ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville

INSPIRING GREATNESS



Appendix 21: Change of project title approval



29 April 2014

Mr Charles Makanyeza 212561327
School of Management, IT and Governance
Westville Campus

Protocol reference number: HSS/0586/013D
Project title: Consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, attitude and purchase behaviour toward imported poultry products: A Zimbabwean perspective.

Dear Mr Makanyeza

Approval - Change of project title

I wish to confirm that your application in connection with the above mentioned project has been approved.

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/Methods must be reviewed and approved through an 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.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol.

Yours faithfully

Dr Shamila Naidoo (Deputy Chair)

/px

cc Supervisor: Dr F du Toit
cc Co-Supervisor: Dr M Ramchander
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor B McArthur
cc Post Graduate Administrator: Ms A Pearce

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