

CHAPTER 1



CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

After engaging with the material presented in this chapter and its associated exercises and reading, you should be able to:

- Distinguish between needs and wants
- Apply theories of motivation to how consumers behave
- Explain consumer values and how they relate to motives
- Define motives for 'going shopping'
- Demonstrate an awareness of motivation research techniques, their nature and application.

CONSUMER MOTIVES AND VALUES

INTRODUCTION

The understanding of customer **needs and wants** is one of the major underpinning constructs of the **marketing concept**. The nature of being **market-orientated** rather than **product-orientated** requires organizations to consider who their (best) customers might be, where they are, how to target them and with what and an important starting point is to understand what it is they really 'want'. This is not as easy as it might sound. A company might be making 8 mm drills and at first sight it might seem logical for the company to focus on 'selling' 8 mm drills. However, customers don't buy 'drills' so much as 'holes': that is, what the product (or service) can do for them, rather than what it is in its tangible form. Indeed the DIY store *Homebase* has used the slogan: 'Make a house a home.'

EXAMPLE 1.1

The concept of market orientation can be illustrated in many ways. Charles Revson, the founder of Revlon cosmetics stated, 'In the factory we make cosmetics; in the drugstore we sell hope.'

In other words it isn't the physical composition or features that are being purchased, but rather the benefits consumers might derive from their purchase. An advertisement for Canon microcomputers depicted a variety of situations in the life of a man. Each box in the press advertisement showed, variously, the man at the office working on business plans, with employees in a negotiating situation, with clients in a selling situation, on the squash court and at home with his family. This multifaceted way of life fits very well in this **postmodern** era of persons fulfilling many roles. Each of these boxes had captions: forward planning, employee relations, clinching the deal, playing hard, and being a dad. The implication of course was that a prospective Canon computer buyer would not be buying RAMs, ROMs and hard disks, but would be buying something that takes over the tedious and time-consuming chores, thus allowing the buyer more time for the important things in life, and therefore being more successful at them, including being a better squash player and parent!

A Sainsbury's television commercial featured a mother and young son at the checkout. When the items were rung up on the till, the display did not show prices but, for example: 'mum's night off' for a pizza, 'breakfast in bed' for a packet of croissants.

Throughout all this the son looked glum: they had perhaps had a row. When the gingerbread man was rung up the display was 'peace offering'!

The classic way for marketing to focus on the 'benefits approach' is to identify needs of the target and to match one or more product or service features that are in some way relevant with each need. Then each feature can be converted, using a 'which means' approach, into a benefit that can satisfy that need (Table 1.1).

Customer needs and requirements should not, however, be totally satisfied: business is not altruistic because it needs to make a profit in order to stay in business and grow. What is needed is a crucial

Table 1.1 Needs, features, benefits

Needs	Features	Benefits
Identify needs	Select relevant features	Convert features into benefits that satisfy needs
Newly married couple who have just moved into a newly built house	This drill-bit set includes a set of masonry and wood/metal bits	This drill-bit set can help you turn your house into a home by allowing you to personalize it by hanging shelves, pictures, etc.
Shy and retiring 18-year-old who has just started university and wants to make some new friends	Designer-label jacket	This jacket will help you fit in and become part of the in-crowd
A young woman who wants to experience life to the fullest and wishes to make a statement about her individuality	A navel-piercing service	Piercing your navel makes a statement. It says something about who you are and you've never before experienced anything like the feeling it gives you.

compromise of satisfying organizational goals and satisfying customer needs, which can lead to competitive advantage in increasingly crowded marketplaces. This chapter explores how marketing can interpret and use motivation theories in these respects and provides practical examples of their application. We start with a discussion of **motivation** and motivation theories, then extend this into coverage of **values**. The chapter closes with a brief exploration of research approaches to investigating consumer motives and values.

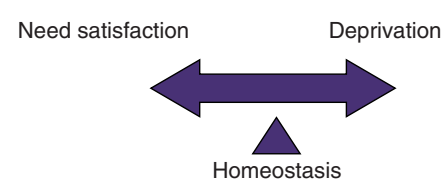
MOTIVATION

Motivation is a basic concept in human behaviour and thus, also in consumer behaviour. Motivation can be described as the driving force within individuals that moves them to take a particular action. This driving force is produced by a state of tension, which exists as a result of an unfulfilled need that moves us away from psychological equilibrium or **homeostasis** (Figure 1.1).

Indeed, motivated behaviour is activity that is directed towards the attainment of a goal or objective. As we have indicated, not all **motives** derive from physical drives. Having satisfied their hunger and other physical needs, people may be found buying such items as fashionable clothes or cosmetics. Evidently, the motives behind this behaviour originate quite separately from those that involve the satisfaction of the physiological drives (also called **biogenic drives**) of, for example, keeping warm and ‘needing’ to eat and drink in order to live. A whole range of **psychogenic** drives (e.g. the desire to be appreciated or to have status or feel ‘at one with oneself’) stem from our social environment, **culture** and social group interactions. Many such as Belk *et al.* (2003) even argue that **want** (or desire), which is fundamentally social in nature, is the major driving force or motivation behind much of our contemporary consumption.

Every individual has the same need structure, but different specific needs will be to the fore in different individuals at various points in time and according to different cultural and social contexts. In critical mode, Mishan (1971) argued that marketing adds to dissatisfaction, rather than satisfaction:

Advertising, taken as a whole, conspires first to make men feel that the things that matter to them are the material things of life: the goods, services and opportunities provided by the economy. Second, it conspires to make men dissatisfied with what they have – so goading them into efforts to increase their ‘real’ earnings so as to acquire more of the stuff produced by modern industry. (p 244)



- We strive for a state of equilibrium (*Homeostasis*)
- Physiological needs (e.g. hunger) move us away from this
- But so do *social* and *psychological* needs

Figure 1.1 The homeostasis see-saw

He also maintained that the plethora of versions of products and services, with relatively little differentiation (apart from the ‘emotional’) again added to consumer anxiety and dissatisfaction. He preferred less choice but greater real differentiation.

So, marketers are often accused of creating a need for a product or a service that would not exist except due to some aggressive and repetitive marketing activities that educate, inform and even persuade consumers to buy those products and services. For example, most advertisements strive to portray products in such an emotional and persuasive manner that consumers start to think that they ought to buy those products even if that specific brand is not a necessity for sustaining life. However, our proposition is that marketing does not create needs, rather it encourages us to want or desire brand X by associating its acquisition with the satisfaction of a latent need.



Indeed Marx (1867/1967) wrote:

A commodity is, in the first place, an object outside us, a thing that by its properties satisfies human wants of some sort or another. The nature of such wants, whether for instance they spring from the stomach or from fancy, makes no difference.

However, he was not convinced about them satisfying our needs because he also said that the danger of continual aspirations to *have* things was that it creates the illusion that *having* is a way to happiness. We just want more and more and are constantly distant from happiness.

Tangible and practical uses of products are often subordinated to more symbolic values. In a useful chapter on how consumers use *the things* we buy to communicate more symbolic meaning with others, Gabriel and Lang (1995, chapter 3) draw from Theodor Adorno’s philosophical thinking of post-war Germany. Adorno and others from what became known as the **Frankfurt School** saw social symbolism of products often outweighing their more practical use values. The work of Vance Packard (1957) extended this to assert that as the *practical* is subordinated in favour of the more frivolous, we are unduly influenced by the persuasive powers of marketing.

Various forms of marketing communications (e.g. advertising, personal selling, branding, sales promotions, direct marketing, packaging) contribute by conveying **symbolic meanings** about who we are and the way we can relate to ourselves and to others in the society. On this basis, products and services can be strategically positioned in competitive marketplaces and marketing communications (in particular) can, at an operational level, benefit from an understanding of the key aspects of motivation theory because specific message appeals can be based on such analysis.

WWW. For more on symbolic consumption, read the article by Piacentini and Mailer (2004), **Symbolic Consumption in Teenagers’ Clothing Choices**, which follows Part 1 and also appears on the accompanying web site at www.wiley.com/go/evans.

Furthermore, marketers can restructure and shape how human needs are manifested by introducing and producing products that did not exist before (Firat *et al.*, 1995). For instance, the need for transportation and mobility has been restructured and reshaped in recent times by the production and consumption of cars and televisions. Due to the modern organization of life and the relationships of work and home, we have witnessed a reorganization of the transportation and entertainment systems at both the society and individual levels leading to changes in our consumption and expenditure patterns (Firat *et al.*, 1995).

Might consumer's buying behaviour not only reflect their desire to buy benefits but that the aggregation of their purchases even define them? Are we what we buy (Belk, 1988)?

McAlexander *et al.* (2002) propose that, from a marketers' perspective, it is worth exploiting consumers' desire not only to buy benefits but also an experience. They suggest that this can gain competitive advantage by focusing: 'not merely on the product and its positioning but also on the *experience* of ownership and consumption'. The concept of experiential consumption is explored in Chapter 10.

THINKBOX

Our central proposition, then, is that marketing does not create needs but shapes the manifestation of these via wants for specific brands and types of products.

Do you think that marketing creates needs? Explain your position.

How do you feel about the proposition that many of the things we buy lack real use value and are merely bought for their symbolism to ourselves and to others?

Positive and Negative Motivation

Positive and negative motivation may be distinguished as **approach** and **avoidance**, respectively. As positive motivation, people are looking for positive situations, positive mood, pleasure, sensory gratification, intellectual stimulation, social approval and comfort: things that may enrich their lives and are worthwhile to strive for and goals that they want to reach (Figure 1.2). Holidays and entertainment are examples of products and services appealing to a positive motivation.

With negative motivation, people are motivated to escape from negative situations, negative mood, pain, illness and discomfort such as a headache: they want to avoid and remove problems. For example,

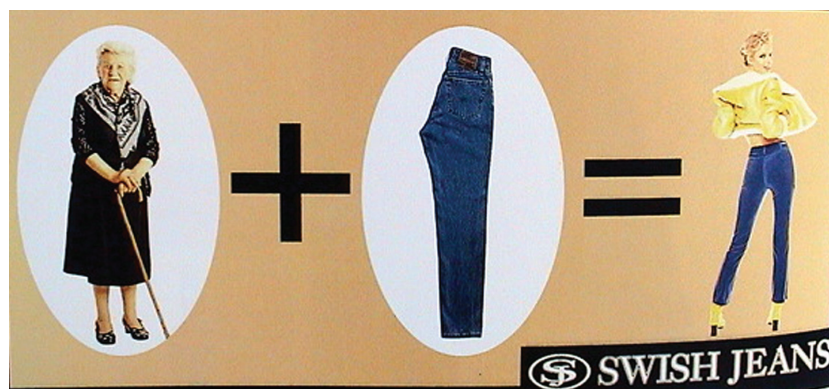


Figure 1.2 Positive motivation

It's not how you really are, but how the advertisement suggests you might become. But does marketing sometimes promise the undeliverable, leading to consumer discontent?

Source: Swish Jeans

people do not like to be stranded on a motorway when their cars break down suddenly and hence the motivation to purchase the breakdown cover. Similarly, a consumer while buying a washing machine may opt to buy an extended warranty for up to five years to avoid inconvenience and pain associated with calling and paying for expensive repairs if the machine breaks down.

We discuss **cognitive dissonance** later in this chapter (and in Chapter 4) and this is another example of how we are motivated to avoid states of disequilibrium.

Internal and External Motivation

Motivation is either internal ('from within a person') or external ('from the environment'). Internal motivation is concerned with instinct, need, drive or emotion. It often has a physiological base, e.g. hunger, thirst, sexual needs and need for stimulation. We explore aspects of deep-seated inner drives in the later section on **Freudian motivation**. **External motivation** is based on an attractiveness of environmental stimuli such as products and services and often becomes **internal motivation** in the form of preference for products, services, and situations.

Operant conditioning and **vicarious learning** (explored in more detail in Chapter 3) are based on the attractiveness of goods and services and the reinforcements these goods provide for consumers through their benefits. Operant conditioning is concerned with the strengthening of behaviour through **reinforcement**. If consumers select a brand or product type they may be positively reinforced by the benefits of the product. But if these benefits are absent, there can be a 'negative' reinforcement of not repeating the same buying experience. Vicarious learning (Chapters 3, 7 and 9) relates to the imitation drive of people. Many will try to imitate celebrities and fashion models. They imitate the clothing, movements and typical characteristics of these role models and in this way external motivational drives are often triggered. Combining positive and negative motivation with internal and external motivation gives the four types of motivation of Table 1.2.

At this point we turn to specific theories of motivation and how the work of the marketer and consumer researcher can be informed by these.

Table 1.2 Different kinds of motivation

Motivation	Internal	External
Positive	pleasure, comfort	attractive goods and services, attractive situations
Negative	pain, discomfort	unattractive goods and services, unattractive situations

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Perhaps the most widely cited theory of motivation is that of Maslow which is represented as a hierarchy of needs (Figure 1.3). Maslow's proposition is that needs at one level must be at least partially satisfied before those at the next level become important in determining our actions. The satisfaction of a lower-order need triggers the next level of needs into operation, demanding new patterns of behaviour on the part of the individual. Naturally the basic needs must be met first

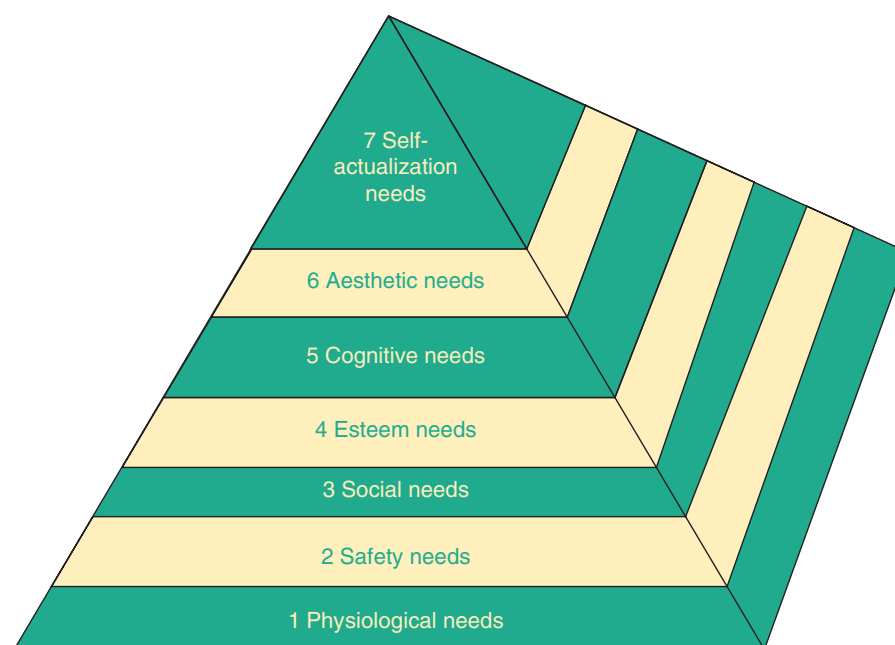


Figure 1.3 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

(adequately, if not completely). But once the physiological (**biogenic**) needs have been satisfied, the individual turns their attention to the fulfilment of more advanced **psychogenic** requirements such as social acceptance and self-esteem. People may also have needs for 'cognition', that is to know and to understand things, and Maslow's level 5 reflects this. Many will have a need for learning for its own sake, for example. There can also be a need for creativity and for outlets for artistic, creative and aesthetic drives (level 6). The final stage in the motivational hierarchy is the need for what Maslow calls **self-actualization**. While he does not define this term with any real degree of precision, it appears to represent the attainment of what other psychologists call *self-realization*, the process in which the individual has the opportunity to invest all their talents and abilities in activities which they find meaningful: activities which help develop **personality**, e.g. through leisure activities and creative pastimes.

The significance of the hierarchy to marketing is great. It clearly demonstrates that a need refers to more than mere physiological essentials. Other forces driving our behaviour can come from a concern for our safety, social integration, personal recognition, learning, appreciation of our surroundings or from the perceived importance of spiritual satisfaction.

WWW. Take a look at this web site for more on Maslow's theory:

<http://www.businessballs.com/maslow.htm>

The hierarchy can be criticized; for example, Maslow suggested that as societies develop they move further up the hierarchy in terms of their most relevant needs to tackle. It could be argued here that not everyone will move up the ladder in quite the same way, perhaps missing some levels and perhaps moving back down to lower level needs. An illustration of this would be where, in Western industrialized countries,

at the same time as attempting to satisfy social and higher levels of the hierarchy, many will be heavily orientated to, for example, safety and security as a result of fears about criminality, the violent society and terrorism. An advertisement by the Discovery Television channel for documentary programmes about terrorism pictured an airplane flying close to two tower blocks of flats. The copy headline was: 'Terrorism has changed the way we view the world.' Marketing clearly recognizes how even the most developed societies have strong and rekindled safety needs. This is evidenced by the plethora of advertisements for personal alarms, life assurance policies and home and car security devices. Chubb locks, for example, use the copy: 'Pick your own lock before a burglar does . . . and lock out unwelcome visitors.'

Some expensive products will target lower-level needs. Prior to the slightly more trendy Volvo advertising of today, the company promoted 'safety' as a key benefit of its cars for many decades (Figure 1.4). So, in the context of the discussion of consumer motivation, such criticisms are relatively pedantic. We present Maslow to reinforce the point that consumers can be motivated by more than the 'essentials' of physiology and that there can be changes, over time, to what motivates individuals. Maslow's theory makes a distinction between what may be termed physical/inherited needs and learned needs. The latter are not innate but acquired by the individual through social interaction.

Identifying which needs are especially salient within different market segments is a task for marketers and market researchers. To demonstrate this, a useful illustration is the toothpaste market. Many of us might think, 'Toothpaste is toothpaste' and that we all use it in similar quantities for similar reasons. Table 1.3 adapts a classic piece of research into an apparently non-differentiated market. It shows consumers may be assigned to different segments for a variety of reasons and can, on this basis, be targeted with different marketing mixes.

So, whereas brands of fluoride toothpaste may be tangibly and chemically very similar, they will often be targeted at different market segments. Even the brand *names* used can suggest this, on the basis of varying benefits being sought: Close Up, Aquafresh, Ultrabrite and Macleans. The imagery surrounding the advertising of these brands similarly suggests the difference between 'features' and 'benefits'. Some might show two mothers with their children in a dentist's waiting room. One child has to have several

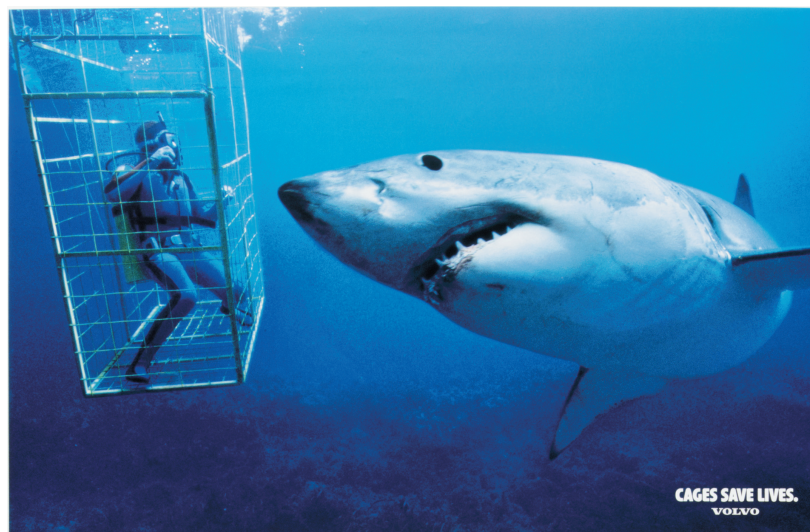


Figure 1.4 Example of how marketers have targeted Maslow's 'safety' needs

Reproduced by permission of Volvo Car UK Ltd and Abbott Mead Vickers BBDO.

Table 1.3 Toothpaste consumer benefit segments

	Sensory segment	Sociable segment	Worrier segment	Independent segment
Main benefit	flavour	bright teeth	decay prevention	price
Demographic factors	children young people	teens	large families	men
Lifestyle factors	hedonistic	active	conservative	concerned with value

Adapted from Haley (1968)

fillings and the other does not. Explicitly there might be references to the brand used by the child who has no cavities, suggesting that this is the brand for 'you', if you want to prevent tooth decay and hence satisfy a need or value to safeguard yourself (needs at level 2). Implied, however, is an even stronger benefit that if you don't use this brand as a parent, in some way you are not such a good parent (needs at levels 2, 3 and perhaps 4).

Recently, Colgate, in Figure 1.5, heavily promoted the benefit of fresh breath.

**Figure 1.5** Toothpaste 'benefits'

Example of a marketer recognizing that different market segments will be motivated by different needs and therefore providing a basis for 'benefit segmentation'.

©Colgate-Palmolive Company 2005. Designed by Jim Richards, addicted2tv.com

EXAMPLE 1.2

Direct mailings for pensions aimed at the 18–35s have shown that in order to secure an assured future, a second pension is increasingly desirable (level 2). BUPA has used the advertising strapline: 'You're amazing, we want to keep you that way.' This and campaigns for life assurance, especially covering family members, can be linked with level 2 but also, because of the implied concerns for loved ones, we can see level 3 being activated (i.e. social needs) and additionally, more personal esteem needs from level 4 (our self-esteem can be enhanced by feeling we are looking after those for whom we have some responsibility). Social needs are also portrayed by BT's 'Friends and Family' and 'It's Good to Talk' campaigns. Perhaps, rather incredulously, we can see a possible use of self-actualization and its 'utopian' nature in Bounty Bar (a chocolate bar) advertisements claiming 'a taste of paradise'?

There is evidence of a trend toward self-actualization as reflected in **individualism**. We explore this further in Chapters 6 and 11 but it is worth a brief mention here. During the 1970s in the UK and the USA this trend was identified and led, among other things, to the Regan and Thatcher election campaigns from the late 1970s and into the 1980s, based on ‘self-reliance’ (BBC, 2002; McNulty and McNulty, 1987). ‘Standing on one’s own feet’ and ‘freeing the individual from the state’ were the sorts of mantras of those elections and were manifestations of research at the time that was put forward as evidence of the self-actualizing consumer, by the creator of the VALS life style research in USA and confirmed more recently (McNulty, 2002). Indeed in UK, research reported by Publicis (1992) suggests that from 1973 to 1989 there had been a shift in motivators from ‘level 1 and 2’ functional and rational factors (40% to 27% of the population) and ‘level 3’ other-directedness (static at 35%) to more **inner-directedness** levels 4 to 7 (25% to 38% of the population). So although we started by suggesting a criticism of Maslow that not all societies will continue to progress up the hierarchy, there is evidence to suggest this can happen within some.

While keeping Maslow’s theory in mind, one can think of some other theories that have tended to explain individual differences in motivation. For instance, consumers are likely to be different in their need for achievement (McClelland, 1961), their need for cognition (Cohen *et al.*, 1955) and their need for affiliation and power (Atkinson, 1958). Similarly, McGuire classified motives into two broad categories: cognitive and affective. **Cognitive motives**, as per McGuire (1974, 1976), reflected motives that emphasized an individual’s need for being adaptively orientated towards the environment and for achieving a sense of meaning. **Affective motives** emphasized an individual’s need to achieve satisfying feeling states and to obtain emotional goals.

FREUDIAN THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Consider the following: owners of sports cars verbalize reasons for purchase as being able to accelerate safely during overtaking manoeuvres. This, however, might just be a *good* reason, and the underlying *real* reason might be that the sports car helps attract the opposite sex or is even a substitute mistress. This is not as far-fetched as it might sound and was actually the theme of a classical advertising for the MGB GT car in the early 1980s. The copy headline for that advertisement read: ‘Psychologists say a saloon car is a wife and a sports car is a mistress.’ The MGB advertisement played on the proposition that not only are consumers buying benefits rather than features, but also that the benefits can sometimes satisfy more deeply seated needs. In this case, the sports car would be considered to be a subconscious symbol.

Sigmund Freud’s psychoanalytic theory underpins this thinking and distinguishes three basic structures of the mind: **Id**, **Ego** and **Superego** (Table 1.4).

Table 1.4 Id, ego and superego

Structure	Level
Superego	Conscious
Ego	Subconscious
Id	Unconscious

Id

The **id** is the unconscious, instinctive source of our impulses: a source of psychic energy. It is a beast looking for immediate hedonistic gratification (pleasure), self-interest and a short-term perspective. Freud argued that the libido, sexuality, is the driving force of the id but the more general interpretation is that the id is the reservoir of 'base' instincts and these could be sexually or violence-related or even be traumatic experiences from the past which linger in the unconscious and exert influence on conscious and subconscious processes. There is a large degree of 'internal' motivation here, based on deeply seated instinctive drives.

Many people believe that consumers may be influenced at the unconscious level with 'subliminal' advertising. Subliminal advertising is supposed to exert influence on behaviour while consumers are not aware of the influence attempt of this type of advertising. Examples of subliminal advertising are short flashes, such as 'Eat popcorn' or 'Drink Coca-Cola' inserted in a film in New Jersey. These flashes were too short to be consciously observed (Packard, 1957). Subliminal images may also be inserted in pictures, in a scrambled or hidden way, e.g. the word 'sex' to be read in the ice cubes in a glass of whisky (Key, 1973). The suggestion is that these hidden flashes or pictures are being unconsciously observed and processed and, without any cognitive defence or screening by the superego, transmitted to the mind of consumers. These subliminal messages exert a strong effect on behaviour without people knowing that they are influenced. Recent research, however, does not support this view and there is conflicting evidence for its effectiveness. But if subliminal advertising should work, it would bring many ethical questions to the fore whether this type of advertising would be allowed or not.

Superego

However, the **superego** represents the internalized representation of the morals and values of those important to us in society and operates at the conscious level. In this way the superego is more of an 'external' motivator. It consciously controls our behaviour by seeking to make it fit with these internalized norms. It is our social conscience and can conflict with the id.

Ego

The **ego**, on the other hand, responds to the real world and acts in a mediating role between the id and reality. It does not operate at the conscious level but neither is it submerged into the unconscious; instead it is a subconscious mediator between the other two elements. Thus it controls our instinctive drives and tries to find a realistic means by which we can satisfy our impulses, or socially acceptable (to satisfy the superego) outlets that will adequately address the id drives (Figure 1.6).

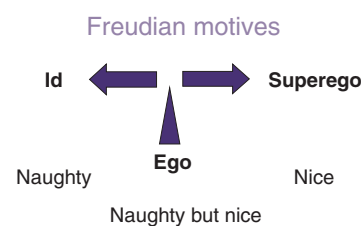


Figure 1.6 The Freudian see-saw

THINKBOX

In Figure 1.7, the id suggests what we ‘really’ want to wear or see, but which might not be entirely socially acceptable in public. Our superego reflects our social conscience and is what we see as being socially acceptable, but which probably doesn’t satisfy the id enough. The ego comes up with styles which satisfy the id acceptably but which are also socially acceptable in public.



Id



Superego



Ego

Figure 1.7 Naughty, nice, naughty but nice

Source: Ann Summer's, www.annsummers.com (id); Freemans plc, www.freemans.com (Superego and Ego).

EXAMPLE 1.3

If a main tenet of the theory is the conflict and ultimate compromise between the id, the superego and the ego, consider the effects of alcohol. In a classic television anti-drink advertising campaign, the same scene was played twice, through the perceptions of the two main characters. First, a man was drinking more and more and (through his eyes) becoming more sophisticated, suave and attractive to the women around him. Then the same episode was played as if through her eyes: a drunk was getting more and more obnoxious. What this nicely demonstrates is the effect that alcohol can have on reducing the constraints of the superego.

Indeed, in a series of advertisements for Pernod, the copy, in a variety of different settings, read ‘Pernod: free the spirit’. Apart from the obvious play on words, it could also be equated with the notion of freeing the id. When on holiday in a foreign country we often don’t know of the local norms and some will deliberately ignore them so that there is little perception of social constraints at all. Again the id can be free and this might explain the **misbehaviour** (see Chapter 12) of binge drinkers in Spanish resorts and elsewhere.

Even ice cream has been promoted with a similar ‘free the id’ appeal (Figure 1.8).

Tapping the id, but in a way that can ultimately be manifested in a socially acceptable way, is the key to this approach. Consider the following: ‘Why do people take so much pleasure in immersing themselves in warm water? One theory is that it awakens distant memories of floating in the comfort of the womb.’ This was actually part of the copy for a British Gas advertisement!

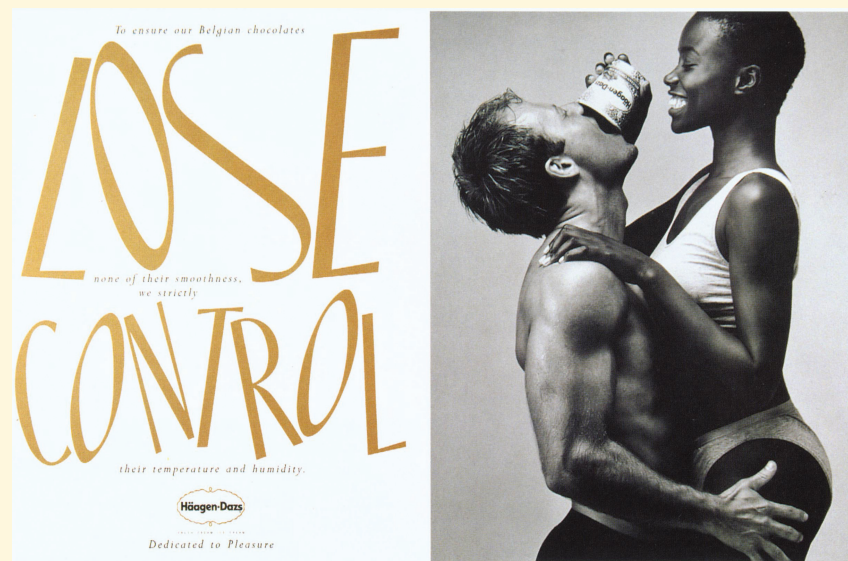


Figure 1.8 Freeing the id?

Free the spirit: free the id via alcohol – and even with ice cream you can ‘lose control’.

Source: General Mills UK. Image courtesy of the Advertising Archives

Referring back to the use of **subliminal messages** to reach the subconscious. Early experiments were based on editing in a single-frame insert to cinema films. As we know, although films appear convincingly as movement, they are composed of a series of still frames. The speed through the projector gives the impression of movement. The point is that our senses are not quick enough to distinguish each single frame. The idea behind the experiments was to use this knowledge and it was thought that the single-frame insert would not be consciously noticed but, because it did physically appear on the screen for a fraction of a second, there would be a chance that the receivers’ subconscious might accept the message. Indeed, for the test products, Coca-Cola and popcorn, more was sold during the commercial break (after the ‘subliminal’ message in the form of this additional single frame was shown) than was the case in ‘control’ audiences where the insets were not projected.

The approach was pounced on by the media and, as a result of general public concern, subliminal advertising was made illegal in many countries. However, other experiments attempting to replicate the results were not entirely conclusive about its effectiveness. Nevertheless there was sufficient concern for the legislation to remain.

Lasswell’s (1948) **theory of the triple appeal** is useful for practical implementation of Freud-based marketing messages. This states that to be successful the message must appeal to all three elements of the mind. If not and it appeals only to the id, for instance, its effects will be immediately negated by the superego. If the appeal is purely to the superego, the social conscience it is in danger of being too ‘goody-goody’ and won’t address what really motivates us, and if the appeal is pure ‘ego’ it can be too logical and therefore lacks ‘appeal’. So, Lasswell would opt for an appeal that was a touch ‘naughty’ but also ‘nice’.

EXAMPLE 1.4

It might be suggested that appeals to the id can be made in other subconscious ways. Pack designs could trigger subconscious sets of associations; for example, when there is phallic and other symbolism in the designs, shapes, textures and materials. Also, consider the scope for 'voice under' messages as part of in-store music tracks declaring you must not steal, but which (at the conscious level) are inaudible.

Marketers might attempt to tap the Id in such a way as to encourage what some might regard as rather dubious purposes. The purchase of a camcorder, for example, might be explained via a number of 'good' reasons but the 'real' reason might not be one that all **purchasers** would verbalize (Figure 1.9)!



Figure 1.9 'Good' and (dubious) 'real' motives
Good and real reasons for buying a camcorder ...

© Sanyo Europe Ltd. Reproduced by permission

Other messages might attempt to tap the subconscious id drives with what superficially would appear to be rather obscure references. Take, for instance, an advertisement in which a woman is about to eat a toffee apple. She wears a bracelet on her wrist in the form of a snake and the copy reads: 'Adam just cured my fear of snakes.' The advertisement is actually for gold jewellery, but there is plenty of Freudian symbolism here (Adam and Eve, 'forbidden fruit' and the phallic symbolism of snakes!). This might go completely over the heads of the target market, at least at the conscious level, but if it reaches the id then it might well be doing what was intended.

The problem with the subconscious, of course, is that it is very difficult to identify and research – even its very existence. Different psychoanalysts might well interpret research findings in different ways and so the whole approach attracts critical attention.

However, new developments in **direct marketing** might increase the use of id appeals. For example, Club 18–30 targeting of what they see as the 'real' reason for young people to go on their holidays (i.e. sex on holiday) is barely disguised ('Beaver Espania', 'One swallow doesn't make a summer', 'the summer of 69'). We suggest that this sort of 'id' appeal would generally not be acceptable in mass media communications that reach the mass of the population with little targeting. But the direct approach perhaps allows for this, providing these risqué messages are targeted at the 'like-minded' in a discreet and confidential way; for example, through direct mail. In one mailing, Club 18–30 portrayed a couple of dolls having sex with the headline, 'coming soon'. In this way, the more 'private' message, which direct communications provide, could give added momentum for Freudian messages which are almost *all* id.

MEMETICS

We wonder if a new consumer motivator is in the process of being identified and exploited. **Memetics** has recently attracted significant attention (Dawkins, 1989; Blackmore, 1999; Marsden, 1998, 1999; Williams, 2002). Whereas a gene passes forms of behaviour down (vertically) through the generations, a meme acts as a sort 'horizontal' communicator of how to behave. The difference, however, is that memes work more like a viral contagion. A good example of the principle is how it is often difficult not to start yawning if others are yawning (Marsden, 1998). Could memes go some way to explaining the spread of extreme xenophobia, Nazism or ethnic cleansing? It might be an unconscious communication, thus having some relationship with the Freudian paradigm discussed above and be one which might be most enduring if instilled at an early age. Will it become possible to 'create' a meme that marketers can use to communicate through societies, with consumers becoming infected with a mind virus that is not recognized consciously, but which results in them suddenly joining the next fad or fashion? Some say this is nearly possible, and research is being conducted to 'design and engineer highly infectious memes that could be used in marketing campaigns' (Marsden, 1998).

WWW. Take a look at this website for more on memes and memetics:
www.geocities.com/persistentmemes/articles.html

THINKBOX

In 1957, with respect to what we might see today as straightforward mass media advertising such as TV advertising, Vance Packard raised concerns about its 'hidden persuasion' potential. He wrote: 'Eventually – say by AD 2000 – perhaps all this depth manipulation of the psychological variety will seem amusingly old-fashioned. By then perhaps the biophysicists will take over "biocontrol", which is depth persuasion carried to its ultimate' (Packard, 1957:195).
What do you think?

COGNITIVE DISSONANCE AS MOTIVATOR

The final motivation theory we have space to explore here is the need to avoid or reduce cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). This is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4 but, briefly, it is a condition reflecting a tendency towards mental unease (the homeostasis see-saw again) which occurs when an individual holds two attitudes, ideas, beliefs or other cognitions that are not in harmony with each other. In this situation the person tries to reduce dissonance – perhaps by dropping a cognition, perhaps by strengthening one. Dissonance is therefore a factor in motivation because it leads the individual to change their opinion, attitudes or behaviour in order to reach a state of 'consonance' or homeostasis.

For example, there is dissonance in a smoker who knows that smoking is dangerous to health. The smoker is motivated to reduce the dissonance, perhaps by stopping or reducing the smoking behaviour or by not reading (or screening out) the messages conveying the dangers of smoking. Another well-known example of cognitive dissonance theory concerns the post-decisional doubt expressed by purchasers of new cars. The existence of dissonance among such customers was deduced from their tendency to seek further information about the model just bought despite having previously considered several alternatives. There is a degree of reassurance that many buyers seek, to confirm their choice. Marketing responds with 'welcome packs' for new customers (especially for new customers of mobile phone companies), 'congratulations' messages on joining the 'family' of owners, after-sales service and the use of comparative advertising in which competitors offerings are not seen in such good light as their own. Chapter 4 explores dissonance as a **post-purchase** phenomenon in more detail, but in this chapter we submit that dissonance reduction and/or avoidance as a clear motivator for many consumers.



MOTIVATION AND SHOPPING

In a shopping context, we can think of motivation as the driving force within consumers that makes them shop. Table 1.5 presents some of the shopping motives identified by previous research. The

Table 1.5 Shopping motives

Tauber (1972)

- **Diversion** highlights shopping's ability to present opportunities to the shopper to escape from the routines of daily life and therefore represents a type of recreation and escapism.
- **Self-gratification** underlines shopping's potential to alleviate depression as shoppers can spend money and buy something nice when they are in a down mood.
- **Physical activity** focuses on consumers' need for engaging in physical exercise by walking in spacious and appealing retail centres, particularly when they are living in urban and congested environments.
- **Sensory stimulation** emphasizes the ability of the retail institutions to provide many sensory benefits to consumers as they can enjoy the physical sensation of handling merchandise, the pleasant background music and the scents.
- **Social and communication** motives feature shopping's potential to provide opportunities to socialize, meet and communicate with others with similar interests.
- **Peer group attraction** stresses consumers' desires to be with their reference group.
- **Status and authority** reflect shopping's ability to provide opportunities for consumers to command attention and respect from others.
- **Pleasure of bargaining** reflects consumers' desires and abilities to make wiser decisions by engaging in comparison shopping and special sales.

Westbrook and Black (1985)

- **Anticipated utility**—the benefits provided by the product acquired via shopping.
- **Role enactment**—identifying and assuming culturally prescribed roles.
- **Negotiation**—seeking economic advantage via bargaining.
- **Choice optimization**—searching for and securing precisely the right products to fit one's demands.
- **Affiliation**—with others directly or indirectly.
- **Power and authority**—attainment of elevated social position.
- **Stimulation**—seeking novel and interesting stimuli.

Arnold and Reynolds (2003)

- **Adventure shopping**—to seek stimulation, adventure, and feelings of being in a different world.
- **Social shopping**—for enjoyment of shopping with friends and family, socializing while shopping and bonding with others.
- **Gratification shopping**—for stress relief, to alleviate a negative mood and as a special treat to oneself.
- **Idea shopping**—for keeping up with trends and new fashions and to seek new products and innovations.
- **Role shopping**—for getting enjoyment as a consequence of shopping for others.
- **Value shopping**—reflecting shopping for sales, looking for discounts, and hunting for bargains.

well-known work of Tauber (1972) concerns the identification of a number of shopping motivations with the premise that consumers are motivated by a number of personal and social needs. The personal motives include the needs for role-playing, diversion, self-gratification, learning about new trends, physical activity and sensory stimulation. The social motives identified by Tauber (1972) include the needs for social experiences, communication with others, peer group attractions, status and authority, and pleasure in bargaining. Similarly, Westbrook and Black (1985) and Arnold and Reynolds (2003) identify a number of interesting shopping motivations. It is worth noting that, for some consumers, a shopping experience can be potentially entertaining, playful and fun, emotionally involving and a mechanism of escaping from the daily routines. In this way it reinforces the earlier view that we buy less for tangible functionality than for social and psychological symbolism that satisfy higher-level needs. Even the *process* of buying can be more important than the resulting product acquisition itself. We explore negative dimensions of this (for example, **compulsive buying**) in our chapter on **consumer misbehaviour** (Chapter 12).

For other consumers, however, *shopping* can obviously be task-orientated (e.g. I have to buy this as part of my day-to-day routine) and is a very rational activity to satisfy more physiological needs.

By knowing and exploring consumers' motivations for shopping, researchers have been able to profile shoppers into different segments and have examined similarities and differences among these segments. Table 1.6 presents characteristic features of different shopper segments based on Sproles and Kendall's (1986) work on mental orientations that characterize consumers' approaches to making shopping choices. Marketers can improve their targeting efforts by developing marketing communications that emphasize key features of the shopping experience (e.g. depict the shopping experience as a delightful adventure or emphasize value for money). They can also improve store designs and store layouts (e.g. tailor store atmospherics to the needs of a particular segment).

Table 1.6 Classification of shoppers based on Sproles and Kendall's (1986) consumer decision-making styles

Shopper category	Characteristics
Quality-consciousness shoppers	They look for highest possible quality while shopping; like to shop carefully, systematically and may not feel satisfied with just-good-enough brands.
Brand-conscious shoppers	They seek out more expensive and famous brands; like to perceive price-quality link, have positive attitudes towards departmental and speciality stores selling expensive and popular brands and may prefer best-selling, heavily advertised brands.
Novelty-fashion-conscious shoppers	They seek to buy novel and fashionable items; like to seek pleasure and excitement out of discovering new things, want to keep up to date with new styles and trends.
Recreational shoppers	They look for pleasure, fun, recreation and entertainment out of shopping.
Value-conscious shoppers	They seek bargains and look for deals; are concerned about getting best value for money; engage in comparison-shopping.
Impulsive shoppers	They tend to buy on impulse; do not like to plan their shopping; remain unconcerned about how much they spend.
Confused shoppers	They tend to get confused by over-choice of brands and information; likely to experience information overload.
Brand-loyal shoppers	They tend to like and buy same brands again and again; likely to have developed particular behaviours and habits.

WWW. Addis and Holbrook (2001) on the conceptual link between mass customization and experiential consumption: An explosion of subjectivity, *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol 1 No 1 pp 50–66 can be found on the accompanying web site and it explores a variety of issues relevant to the current chapter: hedonistic versus utilitarian consumption, experiential consumption as well as aspects of relational consumption, relevant to Chapter 10.

www.wiley.com/go/evans

VALUES

Higher-level needs approach the status of **values**, which are critical determinants of behaviour (Baier, 1969). Rokeach (1968) regarded a value as ‘an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence’. For Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) values transcend specific situations and one of the most widely accepted value inventory is the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS). The RVS measures 18 **instrumental values** and the same number of **terminal values** (Table 1.7). Instrumental values are related to preferred modes of conduct such as honesty and friendliness which people know can lead to being accepted by others and to having good relations with others. Instrumental values are thus means to reach a goal. Terminal values are more related to end-state goals such as wisdom, happiness and freedom. Products and services may also be related to terminal values; for example, Coca-Cola and its connotation with US values.

Vinson and Lamont (1977) devised a model of consumer value systems by arranging values at three different levels and giving a hierarchical arrangement to them (Figure 1.10).

Table 1.7 The Rokeach Value Survey

Instrumental Values	Terminal Values
Ambitious	A Comfortable Life
Broad-minded	An Exciting Life
Capable	A Sense of Accomplishment
Cheerful	A World at Peace
Clean	A World of Beauty
Courageous	Equality
Forgiving	Family Security
Helpful	Freedom
Honest	Happiness
Imaginative	Inner Harmony
Independent	Mature Love
Intellectual	National Security
Logical	Pleasure
Loving	Salvation
Obedient	Self-respect
Polite	Social Recognition
Responsible	True Friendship
Self-controlled	Wisdom

Source: Adapted from Rokeach (1973)

WWW. Chapter 6 explores lifestyles that reflect consumer values. As a link between consumer values, Maslow's hierarchy of needs and our coverage of personality in Chapter 6, take a look at this web site:
<http://www.realmotivations.co.uk/>
 This is the site of the Wegener company which researches values and lifestyles based on Maslow. You can complete a version of their questionnaire yourself and get a personal profile – see if it matches your view of yourself!

In different cultures, different values have been found and we discuss this in more detail in Chapter 8. However, it is worth introducing Hofstede's (1980) study on work-related cultural values in 40 countries. This identified four major dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, femininity/masculinity and individualism/collectivism. The power-distance emphasis refers to the extent to which a particular society or its members tolerate an unequal distribution of power in the society. In cultures with large power distance, people tend to have their rightful places in the society. They also tend to respect old age, and status is valued to show off power. People in low power-distance cultures try to look younger than they are and the powerful people try to look less powerful. The uncertainty-avoidance emphasis refers to the extent to which people tend to feel threatened by uncertain, risky and ambiguous situations. People in cultures with large uncertainty-avoidance tend to appreciate the need for rules and formality to structure their lives. They also tend to value competence, which leads them to value experts. In masculine cultures, people tend to value achievement and success and there is a significant role differentiation between males and females. In feminine cultures, people tend to value caring for others and quality of life and there is less role differentiation. People in individualist cultures tend to look after themselves and their immediate family only whereas, in collectivist cultures, people tend to value belonging to groups that look after them in exchange for loyalty.

Similarly, Western values are characterized by 'separatedness' in the sense of people being relatively independent and individualistic (as the Publicis [1992] research above suggested). The Harley Davidson strapline, 'We don't care how everyone does it ... we prefer to go our own way' encapsulates this, whereas non-Western cultures are more 'connected' in terms of being more interdependent and collective. The Fuji Bank in Japan has used the strapline, 'Meeting clients' needs is half the story, meeting society's needs is the other half.' Furthermore, Harris Research (1998) has found differing values within Europe as summarized in Table 1.8. Similarly, Caillat and Mueller (1996) compared the cultural variables manifest in US and UK commercial messages for beer advertising, including dominant cultural values. The study found that the US commercials perpetuated predominantly US cultural values (e.g. achievement, individualism/independence, and modernity/newness) whereas UK commercials presented



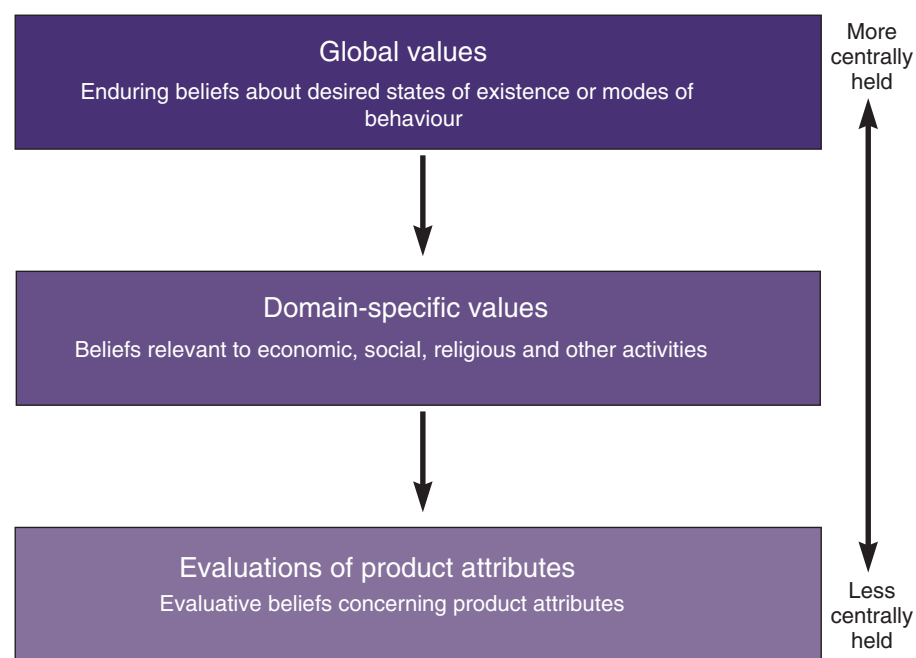


Figure 1.10 Consumer value systems

Source: D. Vinson, J. Scott and L. Lamont, 'The Role of Personal Values in Marketing and Consumer Research', *Journal of Marketing* 41 (April 1977), pp. 45–50. Reproduced by permission of American Marketing Association

Table 1.8 European values

Country	Values
UK	Singularity, difficult to express feelings, not tactile
France	Search for quality of life/well being
Italy	Religious idealism, community, curiosity
Spain	Human interaction, sharing, harmony
Germany	Tangible reality, concrete pleasure

Source: Adapted by the authors from Harris Research (1998) European Values Research Report, London

predominantly UK cultural values (e.g. tradition/history and eccentricity). Their findings led them to conclude a standardized message strategy among the US and UK beer markets might not be very effective, because of differences in cultural values.

People are not born with their values. Rather, values are passed from one generation to another; they are learned. Engel *et al.* (1986) point out that some values are relatively constant while others are subject to change. They propose that the triad of families, religious institutions and school plus early lifetime experiences leads to a model of **intergenerational value transmission** (Figure 1.11).

This analysis is developed in the next section discussing motivation research methods because it provides a framework for research; namely, to explore a hierarchical sequence of how consumers perceive product **attributes**, their **consequences** and what these then reveal about their values (**means–end chains**).

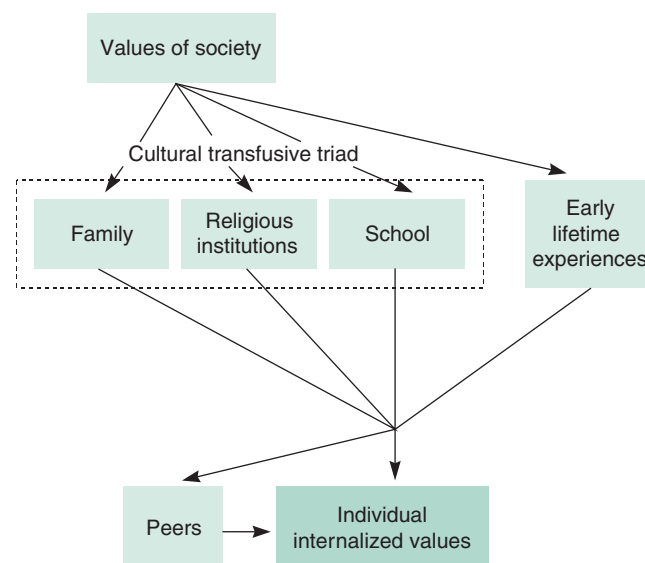


Figure 1.11 Intergenerational value transmission

Source: Adapted from Engel *et al.* (1986)

MOTIVATION RESEARCH

It is apparent from the foregoing that the identification of consumers' motives is a complex business. The difficulties involved in discovering directly the precise motivating factors that shape buying behaviour led some marketers and consumer researchers to devise techniques for exposing hidden motives. Such techniques sometimes need to reveal suppressed and repressed motives and some are briefly discussed below. Most marketing research textbooks will provide more detailed expositions.

Projective Techniques

If persons are relieved of direct responsibility for their expressions, they will tend to answer more freely and truthfully. **Projective tests** are designed to achieve this end. These are called 'projective tests' because respondents are required to project themselves into someone else's place or into some ambiguous situation. Consider the following examples of projective tests:

Third-Person Tests

In **third-person tests**, the respondent is encouraged to reply through some third party. The rationale is that there are both 'good' and 'real' reasons for behaviour. 'Good' reasons are socially acceptable (e.g. to buy environmentally friendly products). 'Real' reasons are sometimes not socially accepted. While 'good' reasons will probably be given in response to a direct questioning approach, such as 'Why did you buy this?', these answers may only be partially true. There may be a 'real' reason for behaviour that either the respondent is unwilling to admit or unable to recognize. An indirect question – for example, 'What sort of people buy this?' or 'Why do people buy these?' – might be sufficient to reveal 'real' reasons for behaviour.

EXAMPLE 1.5

A classic piece of market research years ago investigated the reasons for poor sales of the newly introduced instant coffee. The widely quoted study of instant coffee usage illustrates that there can be ‘good’ and ‘real’ reasons for behaviour (Haire, 1950). The indirect questioning approach employed in this project was to ask women what sort of housewife would have compiled the shopping lists shown in Table 1.9. One half of the sample had list 1, which differed from list 2 only by having instant coffee included. The instant-coffee shopping list was seen to have been drawn up by a lazier, less well-organized woman who was described as not being a good housewife. Direct questioning, on the other hand, revealed good reasons for preferring real coffee, which revolved around the product not tasting as good as drip-grind coffee. Respondents were considered to be unwilling or unable to reveal their true (real) reasons for not buying instant coffee.

Table 1.9 Haire's shopping list

Shopping list 1	Shopping list 2
1 1/2 lb hamburger	1 1/2 lb hamburger
2 loaves Wonderbread	2 loaves Wonderbread
Bunch of carrots	Bunch of carrots
1 can Rumfords baking powder	1 can Rumfords baking powder
1 lb Nescafé instant coffee	1 lb Maxwell House drip-grind coffee
2 cans Del Monte peaches	2 cans Del Monte peaches
5 lb potatoes	5 lb potatoes

Source: Haire (1950)

Word Association Test

This type of test, also known as ‘free association’, involves firing a series of words at respondents who must state immediately which other words come into their minds. Word association tests can be used to determine consumer attitudes towards products, stores, advertising themes, product features and brand names. A frequent association with ‘Volvo’, for many years, was ‘safety’.

Psychodrama

Here, the respondent is asked to play a role and, to do so, they are given a complete description of the circumstances. For instance, the role-playing of respondents to depict two alternative painkillers with other respondents playing the role of the pain. How the ‘painkiller’ tackles the ‘pain’ might lead to the copy strategy in direct response and other advertising campaigns (Cooper and Tower, 1992).

Cartoon Test

Informants are presented with a rough sketch showing two people talking. One of them has just said something represented by words written into a ‘speech balloon’ as in a comic strip. The other person’s balloon is empty and the respondent is asked how this other person might reply (Figure 1.12). The idea is that the respondent’s *own* feelings are *projected* through that reply.

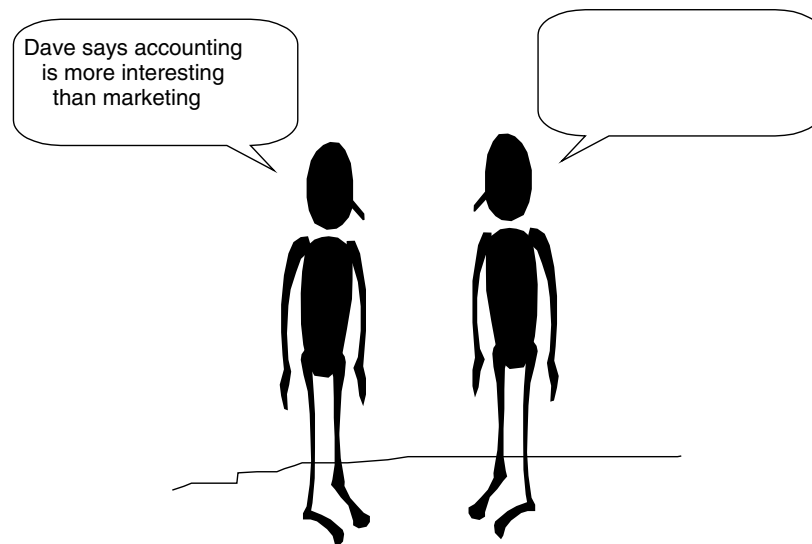


Figure 1.12 Cartoon test

MEANS-END CHAIN ANALYSIS AND LADDERING

As mentioned in the 'Values' section, a useful technique is repeatedly to ask the respondent (words to the effect of) 'What does that mean to you?' For example, it is typical to start with product or service attributes such as those shown in Figure 1.13 and to encourage the respondent to work through a series of 'consequences' towards their own motives and values. Product features or attributes are thus 'creating' benefits, and these benefits are contributing to the realization of consumer needs and values. The sequence of 'attributes → benefits → values' is called a 'ladder' or a means-end chain (Gutman, 1982; Reynolds and Gutman, 1988).

WWW. Take a look at the article by Woodside (2004), *Advancing Means-End Chains by Incorporating Heider's Balance Theory and Fournier's Consumer Brand Relationship Typology*, which is accessible from the accompanying web site: www.wiley.com/go/evans. We refer to this again in Chapters 3 and 11 because it integrates concepts from those chapters with the means-end chain approach.

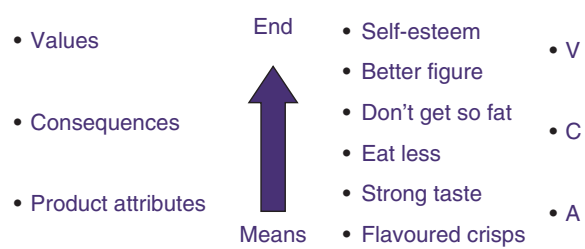


Figure 1.13 Means-end chains using laddering

SUMMARY

■ It might be tempting to assume that a 'need' would be for the necessities of life whereas a 'want' would be for something that is merely desired in, perhaps, a 'luxury' sense. This is *not* the marketing view. Marketing sees 'needs' as being any motivator that encourages some sort of behavioural response. In this way, a need can certainly be for the necessities like food and drink, but can equally be for more social and psychological reasons. Needs are motivational forces providing direction and intensity of behaviour: both approach and avoidance behaviours. Approach behaviour results from a positive motivation (sensory gratification, intellectual stimulation and social approval). Avoidance behaviour results from a negative motivation (problem avoidance and problem removal).

■ Motivated behaviour occurs when an individual perceives an external goal (incentive) and experiences internally a need or drive which stimulates them to reach that goal. Motives can be classed as biogenic (psychological and safety needs) or sociogenic (affective, esteem and actualization needs). Both of these types of motive are useful in marketing planning. Cognitive dissonance may also motivate.

■ Maslow provides a view of human motivation which is hierarchical, moving from physiological to social, psychological and spiritual needs. Freud on the other hand suggests we are motivated by deep-seated drives, which we do not always recognize at a conscious level.

■ Satisfaction of needs and wants is a major emphasis of the marketing concept and they are often activated through social interaction, observation, vicarious learning (imitation), advertising and just due to the presence of products. Marketing may make latent needs manifest (through specific wants and desires) but it does not create needs in people. People are not always aware of the 'real' needs determining their behaviour, so advertising may sometimes appeal to these subconscious and unconscious needs.

■ Marketers can improve the effectiveness of their targeting activities by investigating the reasons consumers go shopping. Consumers can be motivated to shop by personal and social motives, hedonistic and utilitarian motives and cognitive and affective motives.

■ Values are more enduring and can be gleaned from means–end chain research. Other forms of research are important for exploring what motivates consumers, such as projective techniques.

QUESTIONS

1. Find some examples of Freudian symbolism in advertising and packaging.
2. Using your course as a product/service, create a needs–features–benefits framework and discuss its use in marketing the course.
3. Discuss the reasons why consumers go shopping.

4. Find three press advertisements and for each of these:

- a. Decide what are the likely target market and promotional objectives, based on media and message used and your knowledge of competition within such markets.
- b. What do Maslow and Freud contribute to explaining the message used and motivational factors in the target market?

5. Choose a product or service, and then design projective techniques to explore why consumers do or do not buy it.

FURTHER READING

Elliott R (1999) Symbolic Meaning and Postmodern Consumer Culture, in **Brownlie D et al.** (eds) (1999) *Rethinking Marketing*, Sage. This chapter concisely summarizes the key issues in symbolic consumption and contextualizes them within **postmodern society**.

Packard V (1957) *The Hidden Persuaders*, McKay, New York. No marketing student should miss this one. It might be old and some of the content will seem dated, but the critical analysis of the use of consumer psychology for marketing purposes will still provide food for thought.

Woodruffe-Burton et al. (eds) (2005) *Toward a Theory of Shopping*, *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol 4 No 4. This Special Issue of *JCB* is an excellent amalgam of research for a number of countries. These papers contribute much to our understanding of consumer shopping behaviour.