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**WISDOM AND FOLLY:
Decision Dilemmas of
Advertisers and Consumers**

The Twentieth Faculty Lecture

By

Nyitor Alexander SHENGE, Ph.D
Department of Psychology
University of Ibadan
Ibadan, Nigeria

FACULTY OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN



MARCH 11, 2014

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DEDICATION

TO

My darling wife & lovely children
My caring father of blessed memory

Professor B.O. Ehigie, my academic father
who guided my walk in the fascinating
world of Advertising and Consumer Psychology.

AND TO

Almighty God who is the ultimate source of wisdom and blessing.

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First, I thank God almighty for all the wonderful things He did and has been doing in my life. He has given me life, good health, successful career, amiable friends and colleagues, and a very wonderful family. I pray that His mighty hand will continue to be upon me, my family and all of us gathered here. Amen.

Let me use this opportunity to express my deep appreciation to the University of Ibadan and the MacArthur Foundation for approving and generously funding my first visit to Canada in 2003. That visit provided a platform for many of my subsequent visits to that country, and elsewhere.

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In the course of doing a good quality scholarly work one is most likely to get assistance from colleagues and other individuals of goodwill. Putting together the ideas for this lecture was not an exception. I would like to most sincerely express my appreciation to those who contributed in one way or the other towards ensuring that this lecture was written and delivered successfully.

The Dean of the Faculty, Professor E.Olawale Ogunkola, deserves special commendation for the support and encouragement he gave me before and during the preparation of this lecture. Mr. Dean, you have been a great source of inspiration, and I thank you so much for your humility and favourable disposition. The Faculty Officer (my FO), Mr. A.O. Raji, has always been a good friend. He offered me words of encouragement and occasionally asked when my lecture would be ready. I thank him for that. I also appreciate other staff in the Dean's office for their supportive roles at various times.

My colleagues in the Department of Psychology contributed enormously towards this lecture. On this note I want to acknowledge the contributions of my academic mentor, Professor B.O. Ehigie, Drs. D.E. Okurame, P.O. Olapegba who deligently read this manuscript and made very useful contributions. Professors D.C.E. Ugwuegbu, S.K. Balogun, H.O. Osinowo, I.B. Udegbe, A.M. Sunmola, P.N. Ibeagha, E. Idemudia, D. Simmons, P. McCleod, L. Laing, T. Brown, J.I. Shindi, F. Eyetsemitan, J.T. Gire, D.I. Ker, F.I. Tamen; Drs. B.O. Olley, S.S. Babalola, K.O. Taiwo, D.O. Adebayo, A. T. Igundunasse, P. Wai, A.I. Alarape, J.O. Ekore, R. B. Asagba, G. Thompson, Paul Orhii, Stefan Gabos have enriched my intellectual and psycho-social life at different times. So also have Mr. G.T. Korgba, S.T. Hon (SAN), Yange Ikyaa, Drs. G.A. Adejuwon, A.S. Okhakhume, A.O. Adejuwon, A.O. Taiwo, E.O. Alhassan, and A. Faga. My worthy colleagues, I appreciate you all. The non-teaching staff in the Department of Psychology have equally been wonderful and supportive of me. May the good Lord continue to uphold them. All my students that I have taught and supervised in Nigeria and Canada at various times have been a source of inspiration to me. Indeed, many of them have positively impacted my intellectual functioning. I most sincerely appreciate them.

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I seize this opportunity to thank my Parish Priest, Rev. Fr. Ezekiel Owoye, Assistant Parish Priest, Rev. Fr. Vincent Alabi, Rev. Fr. Innocent Ejiofor, and Pastor (Dr.) T.T. Shaguy, for their spiritual support. I also express appreciation to Monsignor (Prof) Adeigbo, Late Rev. Fr. (Professor Louis Munoz) and my Charismatic Brethren at Our Lady Seat of Wisdom Catholic Church, University of Ibadan, and the Ibadan Catholic Archdiocese in general. I also appreciate my worthy and learned friends in the Faculty of Law, UI, my good Brother, Professor E.A. Ajav and his wife, the Ehigie family, the Ukpokolo and Ehikhamenor families, Professor & Dr. (Mrs) A. Odaibo, Professor & Mrs D.O. Olaleye, the Orsani, Toryough, Ityokumbur families, Mr. & Mrs Ter Ikyese, and Mrs Akinrelere and all staff of Playworkz International School for their love and continued support.

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From the very depth of my heart, I most sincerely appreciate my wife, Mrs Juliet Adamma Shenge, for her true love for me and our family. My Darling Wife, you have shown great commitment to our union and family. I really do not have words to adequately express my gratitude for all you have done for me and our family. God almighty will reward you richly. To our lovely children, Terver Shenge and Mimidoo Shenge, I say thank you so much for being my sweet little angels. God bless you all.

N.A. Shenge
March, 2014

**WISDOM AND FOLLY:
Decision Dilemmas of Advertisers and Consumers**

Nyitor Alexander Shenge, PhD

The Dean, Faculty of the Social Sciences, distinguished colleagues, ladies and gentlemen. I feel honoured to present this Faculty lecture on behalf of the Department of Psychology. This is the twentieth lecture in the series, but the third to be presented by the Department of Psychology. Professor I. Bola Udegbe first presented on behalf of the Department on 30 July, 1997. Her lecture, the ninth in the series, was titled: "Gender and Leadership: Images and Reality." Professor Benjamin O. Ehigie also presented for the Department on 6th December, 2006. The title of his lecture was: "Flying without Crashing: The worth of Customer Loyalty." Today, I stand on the shoulders of the aforementioned senior colleagues, and other colleagues before me, to present my lecture titled: WISDOM AND FOLLY: Decision Dilemmas of Advertisers and Consumers.

Mr. Dean, sir, fate has a way of making certain things happen unexpectedly. Professor B.O. Ehigie was the one that ably supervised my M.Sc dissertation and Doctoral thesis. Even though I had initial flair for advertising and consumer psychology research, it was Professor Ehigie that actually fired my imagination in this area. He successfully guided my walk into this subject area. When he stood right here on Wednesday, 6th December, 2006 to present his Faculty lecture, little did I know that I would be the next person from Psychology to present after him. Today I happily stand before this great audience to follow in the footsteps of Professor Ehigie. But I am a bit apprehensive that my rather small feet may not exactly fit into the large scholarly imprints already made by Professor Ehigie in this subject area. But positive psychology teaches us never to give up. So I will try.

1. Introduction

Decisions and decision-making form the bedrock of human existence because we always encounter situations that require us to make decisions. We all make decisions, big or small. Individuals, groups, and nations make decisions. Individuals may take decisions on what to do, say, buy, or consume. They also make decisions regarding where to go or not go, whom to marry or not marry, which school to attend or not attend. Group decisions may include choice of leader, date and venue of a meeting or on what resource to allocate to group members. National decisions may pertain to choosing a particular economic policy, adopting a certain type of government, fixing a certain minimum wage, or choosing a strategy to deal with insurgences. Mr. Dean, sir, the title of this lecture - WISDOM AND FOLLY: Decision Dilemmas of Advertisers and Consumers - may suggest that the lecturer is strictly talking about advertisers and consumers in business organizations in the sense that "business" is normally used. But this is not exactly the case! I am going to talk extensively about advertisers and consumers in business organizations quite alright. But I am also going to dwell on advertisers and consumers in nonbusiness (unconventional) organizations or institutions such as universities, political parties (politics), religion, even marriage.

Stanton (1981) observes that the marketing fundamentals for nonbusiness, nonprofit organizations are the same as for the business sector. This means that both business and nonbusiness organization strive to develop their marketing or consumer programmes. These are built around a product or service that is effectively priced, promoted, and distributed to satisfy wants in the respective markets in which these organizations operate. It is in this regard that several private and public universities in developed countries, for example, have conducted advertising campaigns and other promotional campaigns to stem declines in enrollment. Candidates for political office too have used advertising campaigns to solicit votes. Such candidates have also used survey-research techniques to determine public opinions and preferences (Stanton, 1981).

By training and research, I am an industrial/organizational psychologist with bias for advertising and consumer psychology. My research demonstrates how psychology can positively influence advertising message recipients

or consumers' perception of advertisements. This influence can take the form of persuasive advertising mechanisms (such as humour, music, emotional and sex appeals) and manipulation of product characteristics like price, place of production, product label and quality. My research shows how psychology can positively shape advertising practice, promote advertisement efficacy and boost products sales and consumption. Mr. Dean, sir, I did not venture into the aforementioned research areas by accident. While working as a marketing and advertising executive in Lagos in the early 1990s, I was puzzled by the way consumers of products behaved or failed to behave in certain circumstances. I was also fascinated by the way some commercials or advertisements influenced or failed to influence individuals or groups. These dynamics, as well as the overbearing influences of emotions, motivations, personality and culture on consumers' psychology caught my attention and consequently shaped my research focus. Thus my concern in this presentation is to examine some psychological factors that heavily influence advertiser and consumer decision making. I also intend to elucidate the wisdom and folly in some of the decisions that advertisers and consumers make, and the dilemmas arising from these decisions. Further, I will empirically argue that rationality (wisdom) propositions about advertiser and consumer decision making are not always correct. This means that many times there is wisdom, but sometimes there is folly, in advertiser and consumer decisions.

Mr. Dean, sir, consumer psychology and psychological dynamics of advertising are not yet satisfactorily studied or adequately known in Nigeria and much of the developing world. This is despite the fact that these important subject areas attempt to understand the decision making processes of buyers and advertisers. Nigerians are heavy and active consumers of all manner of products. Inevitably, Nigerians get exposed to thousands of advertisements each day and they also make simple and complex decisions regarding products consumption. We need to begin to seriously know and analyze consumer and other decisions in Nigeria as a way of knowing what was done right and what was done wrong. This is one sure basis on which successful future decisions can be built. This lecture aims to point out and stress the relevance of consumer psychology and advertiser decision mechanisms. It is hoped that this lecture will further the understanding, appreciation, promotion, and application of consumer psychology and consumer decision making principles.

2. Definition of Wisdom, Folly, and Dilemma

The New Penguin English Dictionary defines "wisdom" as "good sense," or "judgment." In the context of this lecture, wisdom is used to mean rationality or sound judgment.

The New Penguin English Dictionary defines "folly" variously as "a lack of good sense," "foolish act or idea," or "foolish actions or conduct." In this lecture, I use "folly" in the context of lack of wisdom, irrationality, or poor judgment that leads to poor or inappropriate action(s).

"Dilemma" is defined by The New Penguin English Dictionary as "a situation involving choice between two equally unsatisfactory alternatives" or problem seemingly incapable of a satisfactory solution. In this lecture, "dilemma" is used to mean the tension or unsatisfactory feeling(s) that a consumer or an advertiser has or experiences when making a choice between two equally unsatisfactory alternatives.

3. Why consumer psychology is important

Consumer Psychology, or Consumer Behavior, is an interdisciplinary area that incorporates ideas from, among other disciplines, psychology, marketing, communications, economics, anthropology, sociology, and geography. One "official" definition of consumer psychology is:

"The study of individuals, groups, or organizations and the processes they use to select, secure, use, and dispose of products, services, experiences, or ideas to satisfy needs and the impacts that these processes have on the consumer and society" (Lars, 2013).

The above definition brings up some useful points: First, behavior occurs either for the individual, or in the context of a group (e.g., friends influence what kinds of clothes a person wears) or an organization. Second, consumer behavior involves the use and disposal of products as well as the study of how they are purchased. Third, consumer behavior involves services and ideas as well as tangible products. Fourth, the impact of consumer behavior on society is also of relevance (for example, aggressive marketing of high fat foods, or aggressive and indecent movies, may have serious repercussions for the national health and morals) (Sommers and Barnes, 2007; and Stanton, 1981).

The study of consumers, Mr. Dean, sir, is a beautiful bride of firms and organizations because consumer's expectations and standards change. Therefore, it is imperative that the manufacturer or marketer be sensitive to these changes. There is also need to know or understand consumer motivation. The matter of sales cannot be reduced simply to considerations of product excellence, and appropriateness of advertising media and distribution channels. Human behavior is much more complicated than this. Consumers perceive particular products either as being appropriate or inappropriate to their needs; they purchase need-satisfying products and reject the others. The intent of motivation research is to discover patterns of underlying consumer needs, both at the conscious and unconscious levels. Such information can provide the manufacturer and advertiser with extremely powerful ammunition for effecting brand changes and reinforcing brand loyalties (Lars, 2013).

The study of consumers helps improve their marketing strategies by understanding issues such as how:

- The psychology of how consumers think, feel, reason, and select between different alternatives (e.g., brands, products);
- The psychology of how the consumer is influenced by his or her environment (e.g., culture, family, signs, media);
- The behavior of consumers while shopping or making other marketing decisions;
- Limitations in consumer knowledge or information processing abilities influence decisions and marketing outcome;
- How consumer motivation and decision strategies differ between products that differ in their level of importance or interest that they entail for the consumer; and
- How marketers can adapt and improve their marketing campaigns and marketing strategies to more effectively reach the consumer.

As a final benefit, studying consumer behavior should make us better consumers (e.g. by being more knowledgeable and prudent. The complex area of consumer behavior does not fall exclusively within the province of psychology. However, one of the unique contributions made by the psychologist, however, is the application of rigorous scientific method to consumer research. Psychological methods of inquiry make it possible to replace speculation about consumer behavior with valid and useful information for producers, distributors, and advertisers. Psychological methods of inquiry make it possible to replace speculation about consumer behavior with valid and useful information for producers, distributors, and advertisers. One of the fundamental problems for the producer which consumer psychology attempts to solve is bringing the product to the attention of potential consumers, and influencing them to purchase it. Purchase by the consumer involves an element of decision making. The prospective customer must decide, on occasion, whether or not to buy a product or utilize a service without regard for competing brands. This leads us into wisdom and folly in advertiser and consumer decision making.

4.1. Who is an Advertiser?

An advertiser is anyone who engages in activities geared towards presenting to a group a non-personal, sponsor-identified message regarding a product or organization (Sommers and Barnes, 2007). Advertisers are identifiable and the marketing activity which advertisers engage in thrives on repeat business (Shenge, 2001). The foregoing suggests that the advertiser so much values the consumers of the product(s) that the advertiser sells or wants to sell.

In a limited sense, a product is a set of tangible physical attributes assembled in an identifiable form. It is a thing of value. Each product carries a commonly understood descriptive (or generic) name, such as mangoes, bags, shoes, or tennis racket. In a broad definition, however, we may define a product as:

“A set of tangible and intangible attributes, (including packaging, colour, price, manufacturer’s prestige, retailer’s prestige, and manufacturer’s and retailer’s services) that leads to customer satisfaction” (Stanton, 1981, p.161).

The key idea in this definition is that consumers are buying more than a set of physical attributes. For instance, when a travel agent sells a one-month East Africa holiday ticket, he or she is selling not just the ticket but also relaxation, romance, glamour, a chance to meet people, and the opportunity for education. In the same vein, prospective students may choose to come to the University of Ibadan (UI) not just for the UI certificate but, most importantly, for the worth and marketability of that certificate. Thus, wise companies or firms sell product benefits rather than just products. It is in this context that goods can be said to be psychological symbols of personal attributes, goals, and social patterns. Typically, we buy products that reinforce our self-image or self-concept; therefore people are shrewd judges of symbols.

In a way, each one of us is an advertiser of one “product” or another. It may be a tangible thing or a service. It may also be our character, skill, talent, or other attribute. We human beings value our self-esteem, personal and social identities, and other personal attributes so much so that we tend to consciously or unconsciously promote them in the course of our interactions with people. In a way, these attributes constitute our “psychological” or “social products” which we advertise to the people we relate or want to relate with. The centrality of advertising in our everyday individual and organisational life is such that consciously or unconsciously we seem to be always saying to one another, “I am here. I am good. I am valuable. Buy me. Buy my product, idea, etc.” (Shenge, 2001).

4.2. Advertising and its discontents

Advertising is one element of the marketing function and could be defined as a process of informing others of the existence and availability of a product or service. The Advertising Practitioners Council of Nigeria, APCON (1993), defines advertising as "a form of communication through media about products, service(s) or ideas paid for by an identifiable sponsor. Ehigie and Babalola (1995) define advertising as any form of presentation of ideas about goods and services, paid for by an identified sponsor with predominant use of media of communication. According to Shenge (1996), advertising is a process of informing others of the existence and availability of a product or service. Perreault and McCarthy (1996) define advertising as any paid form of non-personal presentation of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor.

Advertising is one important element of the marketing function that sustains an organisation by modifying or changing attitudes or behaviour of the recipients. What advertising does is to fit in with and supplement the internal and external motivational influence of a product (Shenge, 2001). Advertising plays an important role in the present day’s socio-economic world. This is evidenced by the ever-increasing number of advertisements that come out everyday and the huge amounts of money people spend on advertising. As a matter of fact, advertising has come to be so effective that even its critics are completely certain about its effectiveness. Some experts believe that advertising can make people do what the advertiser wants them to do, whether they wish it

or not and even if it is not in their interest (Weilbacher, 1984). Critics of advertising are so certain of advertising's power that they believe it should be curbed through government regulation or advertiser self-restraint if consumers are to be protected from it. Information processing in advertising is the activity that links the various external influences and marketing practices to the consumer's decision process. Information is the raw material for a decision. The recipient of ad information receives information, processes it, discards some, stores some, combines new information with old; all to come up with solutions to problems in the form of decisions. Advertising managers and practitioners are therefore quite interested in how consumers get advert information, what makes them pay attention to it, why it is given a particular interpretation, and how it is stored in memory.

Quite often, advert information processing takes place at a very low level of consumer involvement. That is, consumers process substantial amounts of information without conscious effort or even awareness. Information thus processed can have substantial effects on subsequent behaviour. Thus, the basic goal of advertising and marketing strategies with respect to attitudes can take one or a combination of three forms:

- a) To maintain present attitudes;
- b) To change attitudes; and
- c) To create new attitudes.

With its focus on attitude change and behaviour modification, advertising relies heavily on psychological techniques to achieve results. The psychosocial determinants of advertising's effectiveness include attention, interest, and desire. This is followed by action (Shenge, 2001).

Criticisms of marketing generally and advertising particularly focus largely on two areas: **their "excesses"** and their **"expertness"**. Excesses are about purposefully shoddy objectionable products, inadequate warranties, deceptive or objectionable advertising, misleading packaging, and questionable selling practices, among others. These are the basis of what is broadly referred to as "consumerism", or "consumer movement".

"Expertness" refers to the special ways marketing and, by extension, advertising approaches consumers (Star, 1989). Advertisers define consumer needs or wants in terms of products and their functional attributes. But they also think of how products perform in terms of consumers' psychological and psychosocial needs and wishes. These tend to be complex, subtle, and manipulable. Individuals often do not perceive any need for particular products until they have been persuasively exposed to the possibility of having them. It is marketing and advertising experts who expertly do the persuasion. Thus the height of the criticism of, and discontent about, advertising is that:

"When an expert takes on an amateur, especially when money is involved, the general feeling is that it is unfair."

It is on this basis of actual and perceived unfair practices of advertisers that even businessmen and women often hold advertising in deep suspicion. It is widely suspected of trying, with all the intelligence, technology, and cunning it can command, to get people to want what they do not need, of over-promising and exaggerating what can be delivered. Further, and worst of all, advertising exploits people's vulnerabilities by getting them to value, want, and expect the unattainable and undesirable.

It is suggested, based on the foregoing, that advertising has both functional and dysfunctional effects, the trade-off between which is difficult to make. This is a decision dilemma. For instance, if a particular advertising programme, is shown to have satisfied one million consumers, distracted 500,000, and increased the frustration of 300,000, would its net effect on society be negative or positive? Your guess is as good as mine.

Mr. Dean, Psychologists help advertisers to create effective advertisements. However, psychologists are not accomplices in the alleged excesses of advertisers. This is because ethical guidelines for the psychologist

engaged in any endeavour are spelt out rather clearly in psychologists' professional associations, especially in developed countries, such as the USA, Canada, and the UK. For instance, the American Psychological Association in its publication on Ethical Standards of Psychologists states that:

“The psychologist's ultimate allegiance is to society, and his professional behaviour should demonstrate an awareness of his social responsibilities. The welfare of the profession and of the individual psychologist are clearly subordinate to the welfare of the public.”

4.3. Who is a Consumer?

A consumer is an individual or household that consumes goods and services generated within the economy. Every individual is a consumer of one product or another. But consumers do not necessarily influence purchase repeatability directly, but through their pattern and strength of consumption, they indirectly influence what is bought and how much is bought. Consumers are differentiated from customers. A customer is an individual or organization involved in making purchase and consumption decisions. Ehigie (2006) views a customer also as someone who receives the products or services of an organization. The fact that a customer makes consumption decisions does not necessarily mean that he or she must be the one to consume the products he or she purchased (Sommers and Barnes, 2007). But there are customers who are also consumers of the products they purchase.

A distinction has been made between ultimate consumers and industrial users. Ultimate consumers buy and/or use products or services for their own personal use. They are satisfying strictly nonbusiness wants, and they constitute what is called the “consumer market.” Industrial users are business, industrial, or institutional organizations who buy products or services to use in their own businesses or make other products. The sole criterion in making this distinction is the reason for buying (Stanton, 1981; Bovee and Thill, 1992).

5. Wisdom and folly in advertiser and consumer decision making

Rationality or “wisdom” is often defined as choosing the option that has the highest expected value among those potentially open to us. Perhaps not surprisingly, our decision-making can be affected by how much attention we pay to it. In a number of ways, there is wisdom and folly in advertising and consumer decision making. Some discussions on advertising and consumer decision making show wisdom and folly. For instance, advertisers:

- a) Budget huge sums of money for their advertising campaigns which they prosecute aggressively and decisively, but some advertisers do not carefully evaluate the successes of their advertising campaigns;
- b) Have rightly explored multiple measures for measuring advertisement efficacy. However, many advertisers rely on ‘outcome’ measures such as recall, awareness, attitudes and purchase intentions in examining the effects of commercial repetition. But these outcome measures, individually and in combination, do not equate actual purchase behaviour.
- c) Sometimes wrongly view increase in sales as necessarily being evidence of successes of advertising campaigns. Hence they spend more money on their campaigns based on the perceived success of advertising. But they fail to realize that certain periods (of the new) or situations may usher in increases in sales which may not be necessarily associated with specific advertising campaigns.
- d) Frequently depend more on their intuitions than on scientific evidence provided by experts such as psychologists.

- e. May aim to influence the mind of the consumer to purchase advertised product. However, the cost of his advertising campaign may turn out to be way too much, relative to actual sales revenue. Advertisers often desire repeated advertising exposures which implies increased advertising costs. In reality, however, they maintain tight advertising budgets and are hesitant to adequately pay for long and prime periods of their advertising exposure.
- f. Consumers also buy products based essentially on rational considerations (such as price and product's attributes), but they sometimes end up not deriving satisfaction from consuming the product.
- g. Both advertisers and consumers have their personal and psychological attributes (perceptions, personality, attitudes and motivations). Sometimes their decisions are unduly influenced by these attributes and they take decisions that are deemed irrational. Therefore, it is important to consider advertiser and consumer attributes in theory and practice. The useful fallout lesson is that planning, information and caution are needed in most decisions.

6. Advertisers' and consumers' decision dilemmas

Most decisions come with dilemmas, Mr. Dean, sir. Advertising and consumer decisions are no exceptions. There are trade-offs. For instance, an advertiser may decide to keep a product that is not very profitable simply because such product is maintaining the loyalty of customers patronize other profitable products marketed by that advertiser.

Consumers may be in a dilemma to choose low-priced products and forgo maximum satisfaction or choose high priced products and achieve maximum satisfaction. Cognitive dissonance is one of the most challenging forms of decision dilemmas that consumers face. An essential requirement for making an effective, objective or even understanding the true dimensions of a problem is adequate, accurate information. The only means of obtaining information is communication. Good advertising and consumer decisions are those taken on holistic considerations (Higgins, 1991). For effective advertising and consumer decision making, adequate information about products needed to be provided by marketers. One of the major sources of this information is advertising.

7. Some advertising-related factors influencing advertising response and consumer behaviour

Advertising literature is replete with findings that a number of advertising-related factors influence advertising response and consumer behavior. These factors include temporal spacing between advertisements, gender, emotions and persuasive strategies, etc. Some of the variables are discussed as follows:

Temporal spacing and advertisement exposures: Belch (1981b) has noted with concern the unwillingness of most advertising researchers to consider the effects of message repetition on advertising. This unwillingness, he said, has necessitated the basing of most advertising effects on single-exposure investigation. In a 2 x 2 x 3 between subjects laboratory experimental design that considered repeated commercials (appearing 8 times within thirty minutes interval) and unrepeated commercials (those appearing 3 times within thirty minutes interval), Belch (1981b) found subjects in the repeated commercials to have scored far higher in recall and liking of product. There were, however, no significant differences between repeated commercial subjects and unrepeated commercial subjects with regard to attitude towards, and intention to try, advertised product. However, commercial efficacy in Belch's (1981b) work similarly consisted of attitude, recall, intention and likeness.

Research (Sahni, 2013) has demonstrated empirically that temporal spacing between advertisement (ad) exposures have significant effect on a consumer's decision of whether to purchase the advertised product. In his study, Sahni created an individual level data-set with exogenous variation in the spacing and intensity of advertisements by running online field experiments. In these experiments, exposure to ads was randomized across individuals and over time. His findings showed that at a purchase occasion, the likelihood of a product's

purchase increased if its past ads were spread apart rather than bunched together, even if spreading apart of advertisements involved shifting some ads away from the purchase occasion. These findings suggest that, in certain situations, advertisers might be harming their advertising campaigns with intensive advertisements that are poorly spaced. In an experimental evaluation of persuasive mechanisms and television commercial efficacy, Shenge (1996) found repeated advertisements to be significantly more efficacious than single presentations. Sternthal and Leavitt (1976) in a unique explanation of repetition, hinged the effect of commercial repetition on “weak effects” hypothesis in which they argued that the effect of any one exposure is slight, and only very substantial levels of repetition ‘ingrain a stimulus in the mind.’

Shenge (1999) conducted an experimental study on the frequency of presentation of television advertisement and its effect on television commercial efficacy. He found that repetition of TV commercials was more efficacious than singular presentation of TV commercials. Sahni’s (2013) findings reported above do not support Shenge’s (1999) results. Perhaps the differences in the attributes of samples and sample size accounted for the differences in the findings of these two studies.

In another study, Shenge (2001) examined advertisement presentation frequency, type of stimulus and information source as psychological strategies for managing TV commercial efficacy. A total of 80 randomly selected secondary school students were used in the study. In a 2x2x2 factorial design, 8 advert pieces were designed to reflect the independent variable. Results obtained using ANOVA showed significant main effect of each of the independent variables on the dependent variable. Except for the interaction effect between presentation frequency and information source, all others hypotheses were significant. It was suggested that advertisement practitioners should repeat their messages, use familiar stimuli (if and when necessary), and perceived credible sources.

The issue of whether frequently and infrequently presented advertisements influence product trial intentions differently was examined by Shenge (2008). The study was an independent group design, involving 480 undergraduates of a Nigerian university aged between 16 and 34 years. Participants were made up of 240 males and 240 females equally distributed among two independent groups, namely, frequently presented and infrequently presented ad groups. Participants in both groups watched a 24-minute video which contained advertisement (ad) slots for a new insecticide. Frequent presentation had 8 slots of ad while infrequent presentation had 3 slots. It was found, following an independent t test analysis, that frequently presented ads more significantly influenced product trial intentions of participants. These findings further corroborated some earlier findings that repetition of advertisements could be beneficial to advertisers.

In contrast to this incremental theory of association, Peirce (1991) has suggested that a “strong effects” hypothesis is more appropriate to order the findings of field research on the effects of advertising. The strong effects hypothesis suggests that the effectiveness or efficacy of a commercial depends on the events occurring during the first few exposures to it. Though greater consideration is possible with further repetitions, inhibiting factors operating in the communication process often prevents it. In the view of Appel (1994), as repetition progresses, recall of commercials initially increases and then drops. This view of Appel (1994) partly informed this research’s adoption of two different frequency rates for commercial presentation. The aim was to give room for comparison of repeatedly presented commercials and unrepeatedly presented commercials.

Gender: Gender plays a key role in advertising and its effect. Some advertisers prefer a particular gender for their advertisements; others do not have preferences. Also, the appeal (including sex appeal) that a female model may generate in the mind of viewers may not be the same with that of a male model. This is to say that individuals young and old can learn a great deal from the ways in which men and women and boys and girls are depicted in the media. Alongside other socializing influences such as family and peers, the media help form perceptions of gender roles, and can shape the behaviours that stem from those perceptions (Scharrer, 2013).

Scharrer (2013) reviewed evidence from content analysis research to determine the most prevalent patterns in gender representations in the media, with particular emphasis on television, video games, advertising, and magazine content. Themes that emerged pointed underrepresentation of women in the media. Other depictions included physical appearance, domestic roles, and professional roles. In doing so, the topics of gender role socialization and body image disturbance were discussed. The research confirms the general belief that gender is a significant factor in advertising, and should be so recognized by advertisers.

Emotions and persuasive strategies: Prior research in psychology and marketing indicates that consumers' negative emotions will impact their information processing, and the results vary according to types of negative emotions. In their study that tested the effect of emotions advertisement information processing, Huang, Tong, Zhang, and Zhang (2012) found that negative emotion affected advertisement processing negatively. Earlier, Shenge (1996) experimentally evaluated the impact of persuasive mechanisms (presentation frequency, information source credibility on television commercial efficacy. He found that repetition, familiarity and source credibility were more efficacious than single presentation, and source non credibility. For the interaction effects, presentation and type of stimulus, type of stimulus and information source as well as presentation, type of stimulus, and information source interacted significantly to improve commercial efficacy. These suggested that multiple uses of persuasive mechanisms are effective in television advertising but never absolute predictors of choice behavior.

Personality and attitudes: Advertisers have long embraced personality attitudes as key variables of interest in advertising and consumer research. Shenge and Babalola (2003) conducted a study designed to investigate the effects of self-esteem (a personality variable) and illness vulnerability on perception of quality of "pure" water. They reported that self-esteem and illness vulnerability individually affected people's perception of quality of pure water. Based on this finding, the authors suggested that "pure" water producers and marketers need to improve the quality and hygiene of their water. The logic here is that many individuals don't just buy "pure" water. They go for the quality and brand of "pure" water that is hygienic and boosts (or at least not diminish) their self-esteem.

Shenge (2006) conducted another study on product's promotion patterns and their effects on consumers' purchase intentions, brand loyalty and attitude. Ninety randomly selected social science undergraduates of the University of Ibadan participated in the study. Participants were randomly assigned to three new Coca-Cola television promotions, namely, dream trip; open and win; and collect and win. The study was set in the human laboratory of the university's Psychology Department. Following timed viewing of the product's promotions on television, participants completed a structured questionnaire that tapped information on four key areas, namely, socio-demographics, consumer attitude, purchase intentions and brand loyalty. A one-way analysis of variance tested each of three hypotheses. Result showed that there was no significant difference in the purchase intentions of participants exposed to Coca-Cola open and win, and collect and win promotions. Similarly, there was no significant difference in the brand loyalty of participants exposed to the Coca-Cola dream trip promotion and participants exposed to the Coca-Cola collect and win promotions. Findings of the study were discussed in line with conceptual and practical trends involving the subject areas investigated.

The need to validly and reliably measure commercial efficacy is a pressing one to advertisers. This is because advertisers need to properly channel their time and other resources. The instruments they use must be seen to be valid and reliable. In a bid to deal with this challenge, Ehigie and Shenge (1996) developed a scale for measuring television commercial efficacy. Their study utilized a factorial design and subjects were 120 randomly selected undergraduates of the University of Lagos, Nigeria. Their average age was 22.2 years. Commercial efficacy consisted of advertised product information, attitudes toward using a product, subjects' intention to try advertised product, and likeness for advertised product. The scale was valid and reliable, with least and highest item-total correlation for each of the efficacy components standing above .32 and .60 respectively and standardized coefficient alpha for each of the efficacy components standing above .74.

Meaningfulness, price of product, and country of production: Advertising and consumer psychology literature is replete with findings that show the effect of meaningfulness of advertisement, price of product, and country of production on advertising decisions and consumer behaviour. Shenge (2001) conducted study that empirically determined the factors that could improve TV commercial efficacy. In the study, repetition of commercial and meaningfulness, together with price and country of production were considered as independent variables. Commercial efficacy served as dependent variable and was defined as the summation of a subject's scores on recall of advertised product information and attitude towards, intention to try, and liking of, advertised product. A factorial design involving purposely-designed TV commercials to accommodate the independent variables was employed while a total of 480 (240 male and 240 female) randomly drawn undergraduates was used. Participants were randomly assigned to the 24 experimental cells where they watched the TV commercials. Standardized instruments were used to measure recall of advertised product information, attitude towards, intention to try, and liking of, the advertised product.

The product advertised was a fictitious product brand named "Antisect" insecticide. Using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), regression analysis and partial correlation statistics to analyze results, it was found that: In the main ANOVA results, repeated presentation, $F(1,456)=156.41$; $P<.001$ and meaningful commercials, $F(1,456)=94.43$; $P<.001$ were more efficacious than unrepeated presentation and less meaningful commercials. For the interaction effects, repetition and meaningfulness $F(1,456)=21.32$; $P<.01$; price and country of production $F(2,456)=59.39$; $P<.001$; repetition, meaningfulness and price $F(1,456)=28.05$; $P<.01$; repetition, meaningfulness and country of production $F(2,456)=5.48$; $P<.05$ and; repetition, meaningfulness, price and country of production $F(2,456)=18.28$; $P<.01$ significantly determined TV commercial efficacy. Repetition of commercial and, the interaction of repetition, meaningfulness and price significantly affected recall of advertised product information, liking of, intention to try, and attitude towards, the advertised product. The joint prediction of repetition, meaningfulness, price and country of production on TV commercial efficacy was significant ($R^2 = 0.37$, $F=69.20$; $P<.001$) with country of production ($\beta=0.54$; $P<.01$) contributing the most, followed by repetition ($\beta=0.19$; $P<.01$), meaningfulness ($\beta=0.14$; $P<.01$) and price ($\beta=0.14$; $P<.01$).

The implication of these findings is that repeated and meaningful TV commercial presentation improves TV commercial efficacy and therefore calls for TV commercial planning, funding and skills training. Furthermore, product price and country of production are as important as meaning and frequency of presentation in the creation, presentation and efficacy of commercials. The findings further implied that attitudinal and behavioural change programmes are needed to correct Nigerians' dogged preference for high-price imported products. It was also recommended that combined TV commercial efficacy measures are more workable than single measures. Tables 1-4 illustrate some of the results of this study.

TABLE 1: SUMMARY OF 2x2x2x3 ANOVA AND ANCOVA SHOWING THE EFFECTS OF REPETITION, MEANINGFULNESS, PRICE AND COUNTRY OF PRODUCTION ON TV COMMERCIAL EFFICACY.

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P
RECALL ABILITY (COVARIATE)	327.87	1	327.87	4.46	<. 05
REPETITION (A)	11593.50 (10701.20)	1 (1)	11593.50 (1071.20)	156.41 (145.62)	<. 001
MEANINGFULNESS (B)	6999.77 (7230.44)	1 (1)	6999.77 (7230.44)	94.43 (98.28)	<. 001
PRICE (C)	6228.00 (6147.44)	1 (1)	6228.00 (6147.44)	84.02 (83.56)	<. 001
COUNTRY OF PRODUCTION (D)	256546.6 (256873.3)	2 (2)	128273.3 (128436.7)	1730.51 (1745.85)	<. 001
A x B	1580.50 (1723.55)	1 (1)	1580.50 (1723.55)	21.32 (23.43)	<. 01
A x C	1150.10 (1088.09)	1 (1)	1150.10 (1088.09)	15.52 (14.79)	<. 01
A x D	910.08 (840.83)	2 (2)	455.04 (420.42)	6.14 (5.72)	<. 05
B x C	3333.80 (3444.46)	1 (1)	3333.80 (3444.46)	44.98 (46.82)	<. 001
B x D	2425.59 (2481.68)	2 (2)	1212.79 (1240.84)	16.36 (16.87)	<. 01
C x D	8803.90 (8675.81)	2 (2)	4401.95 (4337.90)	59.39 (58.97)	<. 001
A x B x C	2079.17 (2108.03)	1 (1)	2079.17 (2108.03)	28.05 (28.66)	<. 01
A x B x D	812.08 (912.83)	2 (2)	406.04 (456.42)	5.49 (6.20)	<. 05
A x C x D	157.03 (153.25)	2 (2)	78.52 (76.62)	1.06 (1.04)	N.S
B x C x D	891.75 (999.81)	2 (2)	445.88 (499.90)	6.015 (6.80)	<. 05
A x B x C x D	2710.21 (2967.42)	2 (2)	1355.11 (1483.71)	18.28 (20.17)	<. 01
ERROR	33800.85 (33472.98)	456 (455)	74.13 (73.57)		
TOTAL	340022.90	479	709.86		

N.S=Not significant. Note: ANCOVA results are presented in parentheses.

TABLE 2**SUMMARY OF MEANS OF TV COMMERCIAL EFFICACY SCORES AS DETERMINED BY REPETITION, MEANINGFULNESS, PRICE AND COUNTRY OF PRODUCTION.**

	Repeated				Unrepeated				X
Country	Meaningful		Less Meaningful		Meaningful		Less Meaningful		Overall
	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	
Nigeria	134.00	98.55	102.15	89.45	102.30	94.80	103.50	81.60	100.83
Ghana	92.20	79.40	77.20	84.60	76.20	77.60	77.20	77.80	80.27
England	152.40	141.45	137.15	139.55	137.95	128.40	120.40	132.70	136.25
Overall	126.20	106.46	105.50	104.63	105.48	100.27	100.37	97.37	105.78

TABLE 3**LSD MULTIPLE COMPARISON SHOWING THE EFFECTS OF COMMERCIAL REPETITION AND COMMERCIAL MEANINGFULNESS ON TV COMMERCIAL EFFICACY**

	Variables	X	1	2	3	4
1	Repeated presentation/meaningful commercial	116.33	-			
2	Unrepeated presentation/meaningful commercial	102.93	13.40*	-		
3	Repeated presentation/less meaningful commercial	105.07	11.26*	2.14**	-	
4	Unrepeated presentation/less meaningful commercial	98.87	17.46*	4.06**	6.20*	-

*P<. 01; ** P<. 05

TABLE 4

MULTIPLE REGRESSION AND PARTIAL CORRELATION ANALYSES ON TV COMMERCIAL EFFICACY AS DETERMINED BY COMMERCIAL REPETITION, COMMERCIAL MEANINGFULNESS, PRODUCT PRICE AND PRODUCT'S COUNTRY OF PRODUCTION.

Predictors	β	Partial r^2	F	Partial Correlation	P
Repetition	0.19	0.33	117.07	0.23	<.001
Meaningfulness	0.14	0.35	85.37	0.18	<.001
Price	0.14	0.37	69.19	0.17	<.001
Country of Production	0.54	0.30	200.16	0.56	<.001
R = 0.61					
R ² = 0.37					

8.1. Organizational decision making processes

Decision making can be defined as the processes of thought and action that culminate in choice behavior (Odumosu, 2006). Decisions typically concern choices between more than one possible course of action. For many people, consumption involves frequent decisions. Some are perhaps made automatically, so it has been argued that the whole notion of deliberate, conscious choice has been taken too seriously by psychologists and economists. Other people argue that understanding how decisions (conscious or otherwise) are made by consumers, and how they might be improved, is crucial to enhancing the performance of firms and even national economies (Odumosu, 2006). Individuals and groups make decisions and these decisions have advantages and disadvantages. The processes of group and individual decision making also share some similarities. Although the focus of this discuss is essentially on individual decision making, I will also discuss organizational decision making process so as to bring out some areas of similarities and differences.

Diverse bodies of literatures make use of “decision making” and “problem solving’ in many different ways. In a number of cases, decision making is viewed as a subset of problem, with decision making dealing essentially with evaluation and choice from a set of alternatives, and problem solving dealing with the whole process of problem formation, alternative generation, and information processing which culminates in the choice (Odumosu, 2006). In other cases, problem solving is considered a subset of decision making, since problem solving typically deals with simple situations that often have correct solutions, while decision encompasses broader, more important context. Judgment is a key ingredient in decision making or problem solving. Together, decision making, problem solving, and judgment imply both thought and action (Odumosu, 2006).

8.2. Types of Decisions and Decision Making Conditions

Griffin (1992) identified two types of decisions. These are programmed and nonprogrammed. They are discussed as follows:

- a. Programmed decisions: These are fairly structured or recurs with some frequency (or both).
- b. Nonprogrammed decision: These are relatively unstructured and occur much less often.

Most, if not all, nonprogrammed decisions are treated uniquely and very carefully.

Griffin (1992) also identifies three decision-making conditions. These include:

- a) *Decision making under certainty*: The decision maker knows with reasonable certainty what the alternatives are and what conditions are associated with each alternative. Few organizational or individual decisions are made under conditions of certainty.
- b) *Decision making under risk*: This is a more common decision making condition. Under this condition, availability of each alternative and its potential payoff and costs are all associated with probability estimates. The outcomes are not certain, but the probabilities of various outcomes are known. Probability is a chance factor. It ranges from 0 to 1.
- c) *Decision making under uncertainty*: Most major contemporary organizations' decisions are done under a state of uncertainty. Not all the alternatives are known. Also, not all the risks associated with each alternative or the likely consequences of each alternative are known. Complexity, dynamism and novelty are largely responsible for high level of uncertainty. Probability of potential outcomes can't be determined.

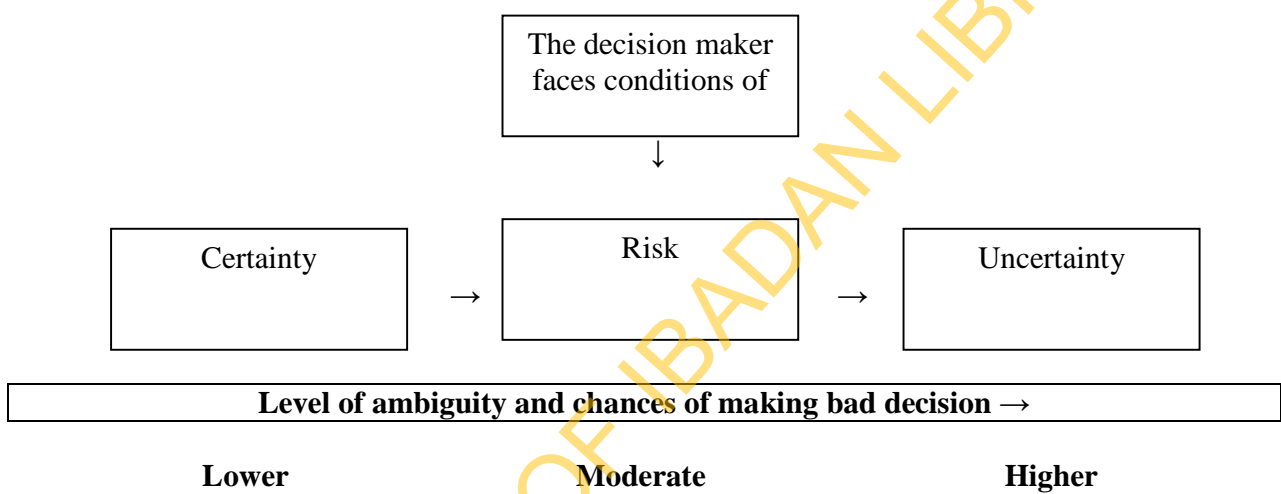


Fig. 1: Decision- making conditions (Source: Griffin, R.W., 1992).

8.3. Decision Making Models

In the opinion of Higgins (1991), it is not in all situations that decisions are made based on logic. If it were to be so, all decisions would prove to be successful. Sometimes, decisions are made with little consideration for logic and rationality. It is estimated that American companies use rational decision making technique less than 20 percent of the time. And even when organizations try to be logical, they sometimes fail. Sometimes, when a decision is made with little regard for logic, it can still turn out to be correct. A key ingredient in how these forces work is the administrative aspect of decision making. The administrative model reflects these subjective considerations. Other behavioural aspects include political forces, intuition and escalation of commitment, risk propensity, and ethics (Higgins, 1991).

According to Higgins (1991), decision making in an organization seems to occur according to two principal behavior models: the economic (classical) and the administrative.

The Economic Model: This revolves around a rational systematic perspective. Typically, economic decisions are viewed as being synonymous with rationality or ‘wisdom.’

Assumptions of Economic Model

1. Objectives are known and agreed upon;
2. The existence of the problem is recognized and its nature has been identified;
3. The consequences of implementing each alternative are certain or a probability may be assigned to each;
4. Criteria for best decision are agreed upon. Best alternative is arrived at based on these criteria;
5. Managers are rational; they make decisions that will optimize the attainment of the decision’s objective; and
6. Managers have complete knowledge of the situation.

The Administrative Model: This model focuses on the psychological and interpersonal aspects of decision making. Higgins (1991) has noted that the administrative model was for many years believed to be the way decisions were actually made. Research by Herbert A. Simon (Nobel Laureate in Economics) and James G. March culminated in the administrative model. Hebert Simon was one of the first to recognize that decisions are not always made with rationality and logic. His view is that, rather than prescribing how decisions should be made, we should describe how decisions are actually made. Simon, March and others revealed that decision making is often dominated by non-rational social and political processes. These researchers found that the assumptions under which decisions are made according to the economic model do not conform with reality. It suggests that decision makers are restricted in the decision process and must settle for something less than ideal solution. For instance, an administrator may decide to hire a less qualified candidate for a job over and above qualified candidates for administrative reasons such as loyalty, family relationships, and reciprocity. The administrative model is based on the concept identified by Simon as “bounded rationality.”

Another important part of the administrative model is satisficing. This concept suggests that rather than conducting an exhaustive search for the best possible alternative, decision makers tend to search only until they identify an alternative that meets some minimum standard of sufficiency. Due to the inherent imperfections of information, bounded rationality, and satisficing, the decisions made by a manager may or may not actually be in the best interests of the organization. Both the classical and administrative models can be used to understand how managers make decisions. The classical model is prescriptive: it explains how managers can at least attempt to be more rational and logical in approach to decisions. The administrative model can be used by inherent biases and limitations.

Studies on decision making have now shown that the administrative approach is the more realistic of the two. People simply do not make decisions in a strictly rational manner. Rather, various types of psychological and interpersonal factors such as perception, attitudes, friendships greatly affect the process.

Assumptions of Administrative Model

1. Objectives of the decision are often vague, conflicting and not agreed upon;
2. Often managers do not recognize that a problem exists;
3. Managers do not go through the identification process and therefore solve the wrong conceptualization of the problem;
4. Decision makers and problem solvers solve models of their world. These models never encompass all the variables, facts, or relationships involved in the actual problem. Rationality if applied at all, is applied only to a part of the total problem;
5. Limited knowledge of the situation. As such only a few of the possible alternatives are considered;
6. Managers don’t often seek the best decision, but only the decision that improves, or satisfies, their situation, and one that the time constraints will allow them to make;
7. Alternatives are not evaluated based on criteria. Past experience is often the basis for making decisions;

8. The decision-making process, especially in the higher levels of the organizations, is greatly affected by social relationships;
9. Decisions often occur in a series of small steps.

Administrative decisions are associated with irrationality, ‘foolishness’ or ‘folly.’

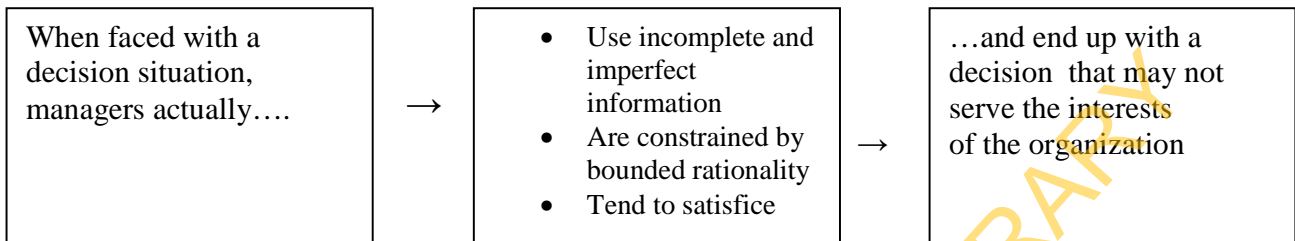


Fig. 2: Diagrammatic illustration of the administrative model of decision making (Adapted from Higgins, 1991)

8.4. Other Behavioural Factors Influencing Decisions (Rational and Non-rational)

1. *Political forces* (such as coalitions) in decision making: Coalition is an alliance of individuals or groups formed to achieve a common goal. This common goal is often a preferred decision alternative. The impact of coalitions can be either positive or negative. Managers must, therefore, recognize when and how to use coalitions, and in the best interests of the organization.
2. *Intuition and escalation of commitment*: Intuition is an innate belief about something without conscious consideration. This might be based on years of experience in doing similar things. Escalation of commitment is a situation in which decision makers make decisions and become so committed to the course of action suggested by that decision even when it appears to have been wrong. Managers seek retrospectively to find reasons why they “did the right thing.” This borders on ego or dignity.
3. *Risk propensity*: This is the extent to which a decision maker is willing to gamble in a decision. Some managers are cautious about every decision they make. Gambling might put off or lead to losses.
4. *Ethics and decision making*: Individual ethics are personal beliefs about right and wrong behavior. Ethics are clearly related to decision making in such ways as prudence, fairplay, obedience, morality.

8.5. Decision-Making Styles

People are different in the way they go about making decisions, and the same person may make decisions in different ways in different circumstances. Arroba (1978) identified six decision-making styles.

- a) No thought
- b) Compliant with expectations from outside
- c) Logical, careful, objective evaluation of alternatives
- d) Emotional decision made on the basis of wants or likes
- e) Intuitive – the decision simply seemed right and/inevitable
- f) Hesitant: Slow and difficult to feel committed.

Arroba (1978) further found that:

- The logical style was much more often used for work-related decisions than for personal ones;
- The “no thought” style was used for unimportant decisions than others;
- The emotional style was used for quite important decisions;

- The intuitive style was used for every important decision;
- Overall, the logical style is most frequently used, followed by no thought. Emotional is the third most frequently used style; and,
- The more important and irreversible decisions become, the more likely people are to adopt a logical approach, especially where they expect to be held responsible for the decision (McAllister, Mitchell and Beach, 1979).

9. Consumers' decision making process

With specific reference to consumer decision making, there is a logical, five-stage process (or general routine) that consumers often go through (Berkman, Lindquist, and Sirgy, 1996).. This process consists of:

1. Recognition of an unsatisfied need
2. Identification of alternative ways of reducing tensions, i.e. achieving satisfaction
3. Evaluation of alternatives
4. Purchase decision
5. Postpurchase behavior

Recognition of an unsatisfied need: The process starts when an unsatisfied need (motive) creates inner tension. Once the need has been recognized, often consumers become aware of conflicting motives or competitive uses for their scarce resources of time or money. A person must resolve these conflicts before proceeding. Otherwise, the buying process stops at this point.

Identification of Alternatives: Once a need has been recognized, both product and brand alternatives must be identified. The search for alternatives, and the methods used in the search, are influenced by such factors as: 1) what the time and money costs are; how much information the consumer already has from past experience and other sources; and 3) the amount of the perceived risk if a wrong selection is made.

Evaluation of Alternatives: Once all the reasonable alternatives have been identified, the consumer must evaluate each one preparatory to making a purchase decision. The criteria consumers use in their evaluations include past experience and attitudes toward various brands. Consumers also use the opinion of members of their families and other reference groups as guidelines in these evaluations.

Purchase decisions: After searching and evaluating, the consumer at some point decides whether or not to buy. If the decision is to buy, the buyer must make a series of decisions regarding brand, price, store, colour, and so on. Anything marketers can do to simplify decision making will be attractive to buyers, because most people find it very hard to make a decision. To do a better marketing job in this stage of the buying process, marketers need to know answers to many questions regarding consumers' shopping behavior.

Once the process has commenced, potential buyers can withdraw at any stage prior to the actual purchase, and some stages can be skipped. In certain buying situations, such as first-time purchase of a product or buying a high-priced, infrequently purchased articles, a total-stage approach is likely to be used. For many products the purchasing behavior is a routine affair in which the aroused need is satisfied in the usual manner by repurchasing the same brand. That is, previous reinforcement in learning experiences leads directly to buying response-act, and thus the second and third stages are bypassed. However, if something changes appreciably (price, product, services), buyers may reopen the full decision process and consider alternative brands or products.

Postpurchase Behaviour: A buyer's feelings after the sale are also significant for a marketer. They can influence repeat sales and what the buyer tells others about the product. Typically buyers experience some postpurchase anxieties in all but routine purchases. Leon Festinger refers to this state of anxiety as cognitive dissonance. Festinger theorizes that people strive for internal harmony, consistency, or congruity among their

“cognitions” (knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, values). Any inconsistency in these cognitions is called “dissonance.” Postpurchase cognitive dissonance occurs because each of the alternatives considered by the consumer usually has both advantages and limitations. Thus, when the purchase decision is finally made, the selected alternative has some drawbacks, while the rejected alternatives each possess some attractive features. That is, negative aspects of the item selected, and the positive qualities of the rejected products, create dissonance in the consumer.

Festinger (1957) developed some hypotheses about the intensity of cognitive dissonance. Dissonance increases as: 1) the naira value of the purchase increases; 2) the relative attractiveness of unselected alternatives increases; and 3) the relative importance of the decision increases (buying a house or car creates more dissonance than buying biscuit).

To restore internal harmony and minimize discomfort, people will try to reduce their postpurchase anxieties. Thus they are likely to avoid information (such as advertisement for the rejected items) that is likely to increase dissonance. They may change their opinions, or they may seek increased amounts of consonant information. Prior to making the purchase, they may shop around quite a bit, especially for high-priced, infrequently purchased articles. In this way they seek to avoid or minimize postdecision dissonance by spending more time in predecision evaluations.

Some useful generalizations, Mr. Dean, sir, can be made from the theory of cognitive dissonance. For example, in their advertising or personal selling, anything sellers can do to reassure buyers, by stressing desirable features of a product, reduce dissonance. This reduction will reinforce consumers and increase the likelihood of repeat purchases. When the product in question is expensive and infrequently purchased, the sellers’ postsale service programme can be a significant factor in reducing dissonance.

10. Consumer decision making process and the theory of consumer behaviour

Some notable attempts have been made in the past to formulate a comprehensive theory of buyer behavior. Two models described by Stanton (1981) and Berkman, Lindquist (1996) are discussed here briefly.

The Howard-Sheth Theory: This is based on the assumption that 1) buying is a rational exercise in problem solving and 2) consumer behavior is systematic (not random). Thus it is caused by inputs (stimuli) and results in outputs (buying behavior). The theory is an attempt to describe what occurs between the inputs and outputs. The summary of the theory is that much buying is repetitive. When confronted with a repetitive brand-choice decision, consumers tend to simplify their task by storing relevant information and establishing a routine in decision process. The elements in this brand-choice decision are 1) a set of motives, 2) alternative choices of products and brands (called the evoked set), and 3) decision mediator. Decision mediators are a set of rules that buyers use to match their motives and the alternatives for satisfying these motives.

Buyers who are satisfied with their brand choices repeat those choices in future purchases. The buyer thus strives to develop a routine, to reduce the complexity of buying. This is called *psychology of simplification*. On the other hand, sometimes the same routines and the same brands become boring. A buyer who is tired of his or her preferred brands will complicate the situation by starting the product search process all over again. This is called the *psychology of complication*.

The Engel-Kollat-Blackwell Theory: This theory conceives of a person as being a system with outputs (behavior) that respond to inputs. The model recognizes the existence of “intervening variables” between the initial inputs and the ultimate outputs. We then try to understand how these variables affect the processes going on in the consumer’s mind. This theory postulates that the individual’s psychological makeup (personality,

attitudes, stored information from learning experiences affects that person's mental processes. How physical inputs are received and interpreted depends on the person's selective perceptions. This process involves the search for, and evaluation of, alternatives. The process also involves the purchase and then the postpurchase evaluations.

11. Conclusion and suggestions

Decision making is an important aspect of our lives. As individuals and groups, as a society and as a nation, we all make decisions. Given the centrality of decision making, everyone who makes decisions must continually understand its dynamics and improve on decision making processes. Mr. Dean sir, both advertisers and consumers are actively engaged in decision making. Good and effective decisions boost the activities of advertisers and consumers while bad decisions adversely affect advertisers' and consumers' business or activities. There is a strong connection between decisions of advertisers and consumers. Decisions (e.g. price increase, change in product packaging, medium and intensity of advertising) made by advertisers may affect consumer decisions and actions, and vice versa. Decisions of advertisers and consumers are typically thought to be rational. This may be true but not all the time. Advertisers and consumers have their personal and psychological attributes (perceptions, personality, attitudes and motivations). Therefore, it is important to consider these attributes in theory and practice. In this lecture, I looked at some psychological factors that heavily influence advertiser and consumer decision making, and further empirically argued that rationality propositions about advertiser and consumer decision making are not always correct. This means that sometimes there is folly in advertiser and consumer decisions. Also, consumer psychology and psychological dynamics of advertising are not satisfactorily studied or known in Nigeria and the rest of the developing world, even though they are important areas that attempt to understand the decision making processes of buyers and advertisers. Yet consumer psychology is an important subject area that attempts to understand the decision making processes of buyers and advertisers. The need for seriously studying consumer psychology also lies in the fact that Nigerians are heavy and active consumers of all manner of products. This lecture tried to identify and stress the relevance/importance of consumer psychology and advertiser decision mechanisms. It is hoped that the lecture will help in furthering the understanding, appreciation, promotion, and application of consumer psychology principles in Nigeria and elsewhere.

Based on the foregoing, it is hereby suggested that:

- a) Advertisers take more interest in understanding their consumers. They can do that by engaging consumer study professionals, such as psychologists, economists, and others to study and understand their consumers;
- b) More interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches to consumer studies or research in Nigeria should be encouraged since no single discipline can exhaustively study and understand consumer behaviour.
- c) The Faculty of the Social Sciences, in conjunction with the University of Ibadan, should urgently establish a Center for Decision Research and Analysis. The mandate of this center should include:
 - critically examining proposals and plans for future decisions in the Faculty, University, and the nation;
 - evaluating previously made decisions and their effects on institutions, individuals and the society;
 - Developing individual and institutional capacity for decision making;
 - Carry out any other mandate that will help improve decision making and its effects on society.

- d) Machineries should be put in place, and awareness should be created to the public, for applying advertising and consumer psychology principles to individual lives, and to non-business institutions or areas such as education, health, marriage and family, religion, and politics.
- e) Following from (d) above, the University of Ibadan needs to re-invent itself by truly advertising itself and better identifying and taking good care of the consumers of her “products.” Consumers here include students, members of the public, even employees. Admission, employment, promotion, placement, diversity, and other policies of the University of Ibadan must be truly reflective of an international institution. Admitting and hiring from around the world is academic wisdom; looking at our local confines is folly. Giving all stakeholders in the system equal opportunities is wisdom; creating unlevel playing fields for institutional members in terms of appointments, promotions, and other considerations is folly. University academic job entails teaching, research and community service. Therefore, choosing publications alone to evaluate academics for promotion is good; but evaluating scholars for promotion on the basis of teaching, research and community service is best. It benefits students more, engenders more development, and strengthens town-gown relationship. Nigerian universities and institutions must learn this and cease being “dynamically inactive” (i.e. doing the same thing same way and hoping to achieve different results). Universities are designed to enjoy academic freedom, we must stop promoting mediocrity, sychophancy, and worshipping of individuals in high places, within and outside the university system. This is folly and it poses a great dilemma for many a principled scholar. “As academics we are the conscience of the nation. We have to drive the thinking in the land” (Dr. Segun Ajiboye, UI ASUU Chairman, 2013).
- f) Nigerian, and indeed African universities strive or wish to be like Harvard, MIT, Stanford, Yale, Oxford, etc, but we don’t want to do what these other universities are doing. Reputable universities, the world, over market and advertise themselves relentlessly, in words and in deeds. They care so much about their students, employees, alumni, and consumers of their products, which includes employers. The time has come for us in Nigeria and Africa to drop the folly in our manner of running universities and embrace wisdom. We have to reverse the trend where, for example, hundreds of Nigerian university teachers and scholars spend their sabbatical and other kinds of leave at western universities and other African universities, but very limited number of western scholars and scholars from other African countries spend their sabbatical in Nigeria. This is a case of the Dead Sea that receives water from diverse sources without giving out water to any source. This intellectual dilemma should be stopped so that we will not be relegated to what I now call “Geovarsities” and “Microvarsities.” Nigeria and Africa need real universities and nothing else. We must create our own Ivy League Universities. This is wisdom. Wisdom for development; wisdom for consumer and stakeholder satisfaction.
- g) There is wisdom and folly and dilemmas in consumer and other decision making. Decision makers must recognize and learn from the wisdom, folly, and dilemmas of their (and others) decisions.
- h) Based on some findings reported here on country of production effects on consumer product choice, pertinent attitudinal and behavioural change programmes are needed to correct Nigerians’ dogged preference for ostentatious lifestyle as evidenced in their preference for high price products. Advertisers of products should also learn to realistically fix prices for their products.
- i) The revelation by some reported findings that even the high price products desired by Nigerians tend to be imported products also needs to be corrected. This could be through attitudinal and behaviour change programmes. This is to help local producers /providers of goods and services to survive international competition. This will improve the very unhealthy market competition that is being currently faced by local producers and providers of goods and services.

- j) There is need to educate Nigerians and, indeed, citizens of West African countries on the need to patronize producers/providers of goods and services within their sub-region. As indicated by one reported finding commercial efficacy was higher in favour of English product than of Nigerian and Ghanaian products. But if efforts at improving regional economic and scientific integration among West African countries are to succeed, there is need to change the consumption patterns of citizens of these countries.

If and when the above suggestions are properly put in place, there will be less folly, fewer dilemmas and more wisdom, not only in advertiser and consumer decisions, but all decisions.

I thank you for listening.

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