International Journal of Economics, Business and Innovation Research
https://e-journal.citakonsultindo.or.id/index.php/IJEBIR
E-ISSN : 2964-0865
IJEBIR

The Role Of Brand Awareness In Influencing Purchase Intention In The Manufacturing Sector

SEGUN KEHINDE[1]

[1]Department of Business Management, Covenant University, Nigeria

Abstract

This study delves into the integral role of brand awareness in shaping purchase intention within the manufacturing sector. Brand awareness stands as a pivotal factor in influencing consumer choices and purchase decisions. This research investigates the depth of its impact on consumer behavior, focusing on its role in increasing trust, recognition, and favorability of specific brands. Through a comprehensive analysis of the manufacturing sector, using both quantitative and qualitative methods, this study offers insights into the dynamic interplay between brand awareness and purchase intention. The findings illuminate the profound influence brand awareness wields in the context of consumers' purchasing decisions and choices. The implications of this research extend to marketing professionals, business leaders, and scholars, providing a deeper comprehension of the critical relationship between brand awareness and consumer behavior. Recognizing the significant role of brand awareness enables organizations to make informed branding decisions that resonate with their target audience, fostering increased purchase intention and market success.

Keywords: ***Brand Awareness, Purchase Intention, Manufacturing Sector, Consumer Behavior, Brand Recognition***

INTRODUCTION

The strategic significance of branding within a company is paramount, as it serves the critical role of distinguishing one firm's products or services from those of others. Branding enables customers to recognize and favor products and services offered by a particular company. Therefore, branding is a vital strategy for ensuring that a product or service is identifiable to customers (Boyle, 2007). Moreover, branding plays a pivotal role in conveying meaning to individuals about the essence of a product or service. Brand strategy underscores the enduring relationship and interconnectedness between the firm

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

and its external environment (Wood, 2000). It empowers companies to cultivate their reputation among customers and stakeholders, nurturing and innovating market-based assets. Consequently, market-based assets facilitate the development of customer-perceived brand value, brand equity, and reputation enhancement (Abimbola and Kocak, 2007). According to Quiston (2004), "a product is something that is made in a factory while a brand is something that is bought by a customer. A product can be copied by a competitor, a brand is unique. A product can be quickly outdated, a successful brand is timeless." This statement prompts researchers to investigate the influence of a brand on consumer purchasing behavior. Throughout history, brands have served as symbols of identification, differentiating one producer's goods from another's (Alamgir, Nasir, Shamsuddoha, Nedelea, 2010). Today, a brand not only distinguishes products but also justifies consumers' purchasing decisions (Alamgir et al., 2010). A brand possesses value, contingent on the quality of its market offerings and customer satisfaction (Alamgir et al., 2010). This engenders trust in the brand; when customers have faith in a brand's quality, it forges a positive bond, encouraging customer loyalty (Alamgir et al., 2010). Customer loyalty and trust are pivotal for a company, reducing susceptibility to competition (Aaker, 1996a). Brands function as decision heuristics, serving as markers of functional performance and aiding rational consumer choices (Baudrillard, 1988). Creating awareness for a brand is an integral part of influencing familiarity of consumers with the distinctive features and qualities of a peculiar brand. If consumers can recognize or recall a brand it is more likely that they will have a positive attitude towards the brand. However, little has been done to show how brand awareness influences purchase intention as most research works focused on the relationship between brand awareness and consumer attitude. This in essence created the need to determine the role of brand awareness in

LITERATURE REVIEW

Branding is a significant marketing tool and is used to differentiate an organisation's product(s) in the marketplace. (Graham, Harker, and Tuck, 1994). This is in support of Doyle (1989) who states that "a branded product distinguishes itself from the competition, enabling it to be easily recognised by consumers." Keller (2009) continues, “The brand and what it represents is the most important asset for many companies and is the basis for competitive advantage and profits”. From these opinions, it is clear to see the importance and benefits of owning a strong and memorable brand. "Some feel that brands themselves are doomed because of years of inconsistent

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

advertising and agency management, generic marketing, look-alike advertisements, un-distinctive products, and the proliferation of promotions." (Wentz, 1993). However, Wentz and Suchard (1993) disagree with this when they state "brands and branding are not new ideas, and today firms are applying them to more diverse settings where the role of branding is becoming increasingly important." Lin and Chang (2003) in their research found out that brand awareness had the strongest effect on purchase decision on habitual behaviour of low involvement products. They also highlighted the fact that Hoyer and Brown (1990) examined the role played by brand awareness in consumer decision making process and found that it was a dominant factor. According to Dodds and Grewal (1991), higher level of brand awareness can influence the purchase decision of the consumers. Macdonald and Sharp (2000) mention in their research findings that even though consumers familiarize and are willing to purchase a product, brand awareness is still an important factor to influence purchase decision.

Hoyer and Brown (1990) also discovered in their research that brand awareness affects consumer decision making and that a known brand has a much better chance of being chosen by consumers than a brand, which is unknown. Rossiter & Percy (1987) affirmed that a consumer has to be made aware of the brand, before he can buy it. If not aware, brand attitude cannot be formed, and intention to buy will not step in. Wilson (1981) confirmed in his study the importance of top of mind awareness. He states that there is a positive relationship between the position of the brand in the consumer's mind and purchase intention of the brand. Hence a brand with high awareness likely performs better compared to a lesser Known brand.

Definition Of A Brand

“Defining a brand is a struggle,” (Blois, 2000). There have been many attempts to define the word. Barlow and Stewart (2004) give a very simple and clear definition of brand as “a unique identity”. According to the American Marketing Association (AMA), a brand is a “name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of the competition” (Keller, 2008). Davis (2010) provided an updated brand definition by the American Marketing Association (AMA). According to Davis (2010), a brand is a customer experience represented by a collection of images and ideas; often, it refers to a symbol such as a name, logo, slogan and design scheme. Brand recognition and other reactions are created by the accumulation of experiences with the specific product or service, both directly relating to its use, and through the influence of

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

advertising, design and media commentary (Davis, 2010). The updated definition provided by the AMA incorporates the influence of the media (media commentary) into the definition of brand as a result of experiences with specific products or services, replacing the term brand differentiation with brand recognition (Rashid, 2012). However, leaving out an important element in a definition such as brand differentiation could lose the essence of the brand. Brand recognition began with the existence of brand differentiation. Rashid (2012) suggested that brand, in general, is recognised through its distinctive identity in making it different from other brands; therefore, brand differentiation is an important component that should be included in the definition. To be different is fundamental in making a product or service appeal to consumers. A brand is likely to resonate more with consumers if it has an identification mark, symbol, word(s) or a combination of these to distinguish its product or service from other companies, thereby creating a unique identity (Imber and Toffler, 2000; Kotler, 1997). Ghodeswar (2008) also noted that a brand can be differentiated from its competitors through a distinguishing name or symbol. Giving an identity to a product or service will create clearly identifiable brands that will benefit both managers and consumers (Jevons, 2005).

Dimensions Of Brand Functions

According to Del Rio et al (2001), the functions of a brand can be measured through the dimensions of guarantee, personal identification, social identification and status.

1. Guarantee Function: The guarantee function, understanding by this the promise or guarantee of quality, is based on the appraisal that the brand is reliable, efficiently carries out its performance qualities and meets the generated expectations (Ambler, 1997). Similarly, it is fitting to associate this function with the perception that the brand is linked to products with a suitable level of performance and is concerned about conveniently satisfying consumer needs, contributing variety and innovation (Sheth, Newman and Gross, 1991; Dubois and Duquesne, 1995).
2. Personal identification function: The personal identification function is related to the fact that consumers can identify themselves with some brands and develop feelings of affinity towards them (Del Rio et al. 2001).
3. Social Identification Function: The social identification function is based on the brand's ability to act as a communication instrument allowing the consumer manifesting the desire to be integrated or, on the contrary, to dissociate himself from the groups of individuals that make up his closest social environment (those people with whom he

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

currently interacts or aspires to do so) (Del Rio et al. 2001). Consumers interested in this function will positively value those brands that enjoy a good reputation among the groups with which they belong to or aspire to form part of (Long and Shiffman, 2000).

4. Status Function: The status function expresses the feelings of admiration and prestige that the consumer may experience upon using the brand (Solomon, 1999). According to Vigneron and Johnson (1999), this function is based on five characteristics of the brand:
    a. Symbol of the individual's power and social status;
    b. reflection of social approval;
    c. Exclusivity or limitation of the offer to a small number of people;
    d. Contribution of emotional experiences; and
    e. Technical superiority.

Brand Awareness

Before consumers can have any perceptions of a brand, they need to have some knowledge of that brand. American Marketing Association (AMA) defines brand awareness as a marketing concept that enables marketers to quantify levels and trends in consumer knowledge and awareness of a brand's existence (Keller 2008). Brand awareness can be related to the strength of the brand node in memory, which can be measured as the consumers' ability to identify and remember the brand under different conditions (Keller 2008). It is an important step in building brand equity. According to Aaker (1996), brand awareness must precede brand associations and perceptions. It also precedes brand equity building (Huang & Sarigöllü 2012). The role of brand awareness in brand equity depends on the level of awareness that is achieved. The higher the brand awareness the more dominant is the brand, which will increase the probability of the brand being purchased more often (Yasin, Noor & Mohamad 2007).

Awareness within brand management refers to the perception of a brand in the mind of the stakeholders. Awareness reflects earlier experiences and affects future perceptions, attitude and behaviour. Aaker (1996) argues that brand awareness reflects the knowledge and salience of a brand - the capacity to recognise - in the mind of customers. The level of brand awareness is heavily affected by the synergy of the brand name itself and the attached symbols, imagery and a brand slogan within the given condition (Aaker, 1996). According to Aaker (1996), there are three levels of awareness namely brand recognition, brand recall and top of mind. Brand recognition relates to consumers' ability to confirm prior exposure to the brand when given the brand as a cue.

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

In other words, brand recognition requires that consumers correctly discriminate the brand as having been seen or heard previously (Keller 1993). Brand recall relates to consumers ability to retrieve the brand when given the product category, the needs fulfilled by the category, or some other type of probe as a cue. In other words, brand recall requires that consumers correctly generate the brand from memory (Keller 1993). Top of mind is the highest awareness level where the brand dominates the mind and appears as first whenever applicable.

Keller (2008) conceptualized the distinction between depth and breadth of brand awareness. The depth of brand awareness measures how likely it is for a brand element to come to mind and the ease with which it does so. A brand that is easily recalled has a deeper level of brand awareness than a brand that only comes to customers' mind when seeing it. The breadth of brand awareness measures the range of purchase and usage situations in which the brand element comes to mind. The breadth depends on the organization of brand and product knowledge in memory (Keller 2008).

People like to purchase familiar brands and according to Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000), they are also prepared to ascribe different good attitudes to products or services that are familiar to them. Brand awareness plays an important role in consumer decision making for three major reasons. Firstly, it is important that consumers think of the brand when they think about the product category. Raising brand awareness increases the likelihood that the brand will be a member of the consideration set (Baker, Hutchinson, Moore, and Nedungadi 1986; Nedungadi 1990). Secondly, brand awareness can affect decisions about brands in the consideration set, even if there are essentially no other brand associations. For example, consumers have been shown to adopt a decision rule to buy only familiar, well-established brands (Jacoby, Syzabillo, and Busato-Schach 1977; Roselius 1971). Finally, brand awareness affects consumer decision making by influencing the formation and strength of brand associations in the brand image. A necessary condition for the creation of a brand image is that a brand node has been established in memory, and the nature of that brand node should affect how easily different kinds of information can become attached to the brand in memory (Keller 1993).

Achieving Brand Awareness

Recognition and recall in attaining awareness, engage two responsibilities: to increase the brand name identity as well as linking the characteristics to the item. This is in particular vital when the product is new (Aaker, 1991). Aaker (1991) has set up the following factors concerning how to achieve brand awareness:

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

1. Be different, memorable: Today, many products seem alike and the communication in the product clusters is related. Therefore, it is important to differentiate the product, although, the bond between the product class and the brand has to exist for easier recognition.
2. Involve a slogan or jingle: There can be a stronger linkage between a slogan and a brand because it involves a visual feature of the brand. By this, the jingle or slogan is powerful and can make a big change.
3. Symbol exposure: It is important to have a known symbol, because it is easy to memorize and recall a visual illustration. A logo, either an already existing one or a developed one, which is connected to the brand, can take a huge part in forming and keeping awareness.
4. Publicity: Advertising is a proficient way to get publicity and make awareness, since it can be customized to the communication and the addressees.
5. Event sponsorship: The primary role of most event sponsorship is to create or maintain awareness.
6. Consider brand extensions: To show the name or the logo on the products, and make the name more prominent, is one way to increase brand recall.Examples of names that can be found, promoted, shown and publicized on other products, than the key product, are Coca-Cola, Heinz and Sunkist.
7. Using cues: The package is one of the most important cues to a brand, since that is what the purchaser sees when buying the product. If not knowing the brand or the product, the only contact to the brand is the package.
8. Recall requires repetition: It is easier to build up recognition than to build up recall of a brand. It can be compared to the fact that one can recognize a face of a person but do not recall the name. Therefore the link between the brand and the product class needs to be stronger and the brand needs to be more prominent than in the recognition of the brand. To receive a top of mind recall is even harder.
9. The recall bonus: To keep a top position through regular publicity creates brand awareness as well as a strong brand which in turn leads to decreasing recall of competitive brands.

Nature Of Consumer Purchase Behaviour

The research in consumer purchase behaviour is a relatively new field, which grew predominantly in the 1960s. Research in this field had little or no history of its own and marketing researchers obtained a great deal of concepts from other research fields.

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

These fields are named in an article by Smith and Rupp (2003), and consist of "psychology (the study of the individual), sociology (the study of groups), social psychology (the study of how an individual operates in groups), anthropology (the influence of society on the individual), and economics (the study of spending patterns in society)". Earlier studies in theories regarding consumer purchase behaviour were developed through economic theory, for example the concept of where consumers proceed rationally to maximize their satisfaction in the process of purchase. More recent research reveals that consumers are influenced by different types of reference groups, such as family, friends, advertisers and role models (Bredberg and Holmquis, 2009).Terms like impulsive purchase, mood, situation and emotion are applied more commonly in concerns regarding consumer purchase behaviour (Bredberg and Holmquis, 2009). All of these factors combine to form a comprehensive model of consumer purchase behaviour that reflects both the cognitive and emotional aspects of consumer decision-making (Kanuk and Schiffman, 2000; Smith and Rupp 2003). In literature perspective, Assael (1994) explains consumer purchase behaviour as the process of perceiving and evaluating different components of a purchase. Furthermore, he explains that there are two broad influences that decide consumer choice. Firstly, the individual consumer's needs, consciousness of brand characteristics and awareness to alternatives are of significance in the matter of decision-making. Other factors that influence the choice of brand are the consumer's demographics, lifestyle and personal characteristics. Secondly, the environment has importance in consumer purchase behaviour, which consists of culture, social class and reference groups. Assael (1994) then continues to describe the reason of why information about consumer purchase behaviour is of importance. This reason is primarily that the information is valuable for companies to be aware of, which can thereby improve marketing strategies. Engel, Blackwell and Kollat (1978) opine that consumer purchase behaviour represent those acts of individuals directly involved in obtaining and using economic goods and services, including the decision processes that precede and determine these acts. The protagonist of this view extend the horizon of consumer purchase behaviour to include even decision processes (Goodhope 2013). Consumer purchase behaviour relates to any behaviour of people who buy and use products or services for satisfaction of identifiable gains (Goodhope 2013). Wasson (1975) simply define it as, the way people act in exchange process. This definition is all about action during exchange. Schiffman and Kanuk (1978) hold the view that consumer purchase behaviour is, the behaviour that consumers display in searching for, purchasing, using and evaluating products, services and ideas which will satisfy their needs. Loudun

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

and Bitta (1979) introduced consumer purchase behaviour as, the decision process and physical activity individuals engage in when evaluating, acquiring and using economic goods and services.

DETERMINANTS OF CONSUMER PURCHASE BEHAVIOUR

The buying behaviour of consumer is affected by a number of factors which are generally uncontrollable. These factors are also known as determinants of consumer buying behaviour. All these factors affect the buying behaviour of consumer differently. These factors can be grouped into two; internal and external factors.

Internal factors influencing consumer behavior

Internal influences are able to play a huge role in affecting a consumer's behaviour and include the following issues namely, perception, memory, learning, attitude, motivation, and emotion.

Perception; Perception has been defined as the process by which an individual selects, organises and interprets information inputs to create a meaningful picture of the world (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 2001; Kotler, 2000; and Shimp, 1997). Consumers are constantly bombarded with information every day. Information processing is susceptible to a consumer's perceptual defences, namely selective attention, selective perception and selective retention. It is impossible for consumers to allocate their time and effort in addressing each bit of information. Therefore, this concept is known as selective attention (Hawkins et al., 2001; and Singh, Balasubramanian and Chakraborty, 2000). Selective perception refers to the way which all consumers, either adults or children, perceive the information they have given their attention to. There is a tendency to manipulate and interpret information into personal meanings that will fit consumer preconceptions (Kotler, 2000). Children have been found to more creative in their efforts (Ayman-Nolley, 1999; and Brassington & Pettit, 1997). One of the most influential aspects that come into play with regard to selective perception is that of noise. Noise can be any message, commercial or not, that can distort or prevent information from being sent and received efficiently (Arens, 1999). Often consumers will learn things but will forget them because they don't conform to their beliefs and attitudes. These bits of information are only transitory. This is the reasoning behind selective retention (Keenan, 2001; and Jones and Sasser, 1995).

Memory; A person's memory is the total accumulation of prior learning experiences. It consists of two interrelated components, namely short-term and long-term

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

memory. The former, otherwise known as working memory, is that portion of total memory that is currently in use. The amount of information that it can store is limited thus making it an active, dynamic process and not a static structure (Hawkins et al., 2001; Nurrenbern, 2001; and Shimp, 1997). Short-term memory houses two types of information processing activities: elaborative activities and maintenance rehearsal. Elaborative activities are defined as: "the use of previously stored experiences, values, attitudes, beliefs and feelings to interpret and evaluate information in working memory as well as to add relevant previously stored information" (Hawkins et al., 2001). An example is that of a child using his existing knowledge, on ice-skating, in learning how to use a pair of roller blades. Maintenance rehearsal on the other hand is something quite different and is defined as "the continual repetition of a piece of information in order to hold it in current memory for use in problem solving or transferral to long-term memory" (Hawkins et al., 2001). A scholar repeating mathematics formulas or definitions several times, in preparation for a school test, is a typical example of maintenance rehearsal. Long-term memory, the second component of memory, is seen as being unrestricted in the quantity or quality of information it is capable of storing. Remaining with the topic at hand, a difference between explicit and implicit memory needs to be addressed. When a consumer makes a conscious recollection about an event (such as a trip to the local café) they were exposed to, then they are making use of their explicit memory. An example of implicit memory usage would see how a consumer tries to non-consciously retrieve a previously encountered stimulus that refers to an association with a brand (Shimp, 1997; Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, 1995; and Hawkins et al. 2001)

Learning; Learning is the term used to explain the procedure by which a consumer's memory and behaviour are altered as a result of conscious and non-conscious information processing. It has been suggested that learning comprises of two types, namely declarative and procedural. Declarative learning involves the subjective facts that are known (for example, that wheels, a saddle and pedals are components needed in riding a bicycle), whereas the procedural learning refers to the understanding of how these facts can be used (knowing how these components can be used in actually riding a bicycle) (Hawkins et al, 2001; Shimp, 1997; Burgess, 1998; and Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). It is crucial for marketers to acquire a thorough understanding of what consumers know (or don't know) for a simple reason – what consumers buy, how much they will pay, where they buy and when they buy are influenced by the knowledge they possess. Such understanding may lead to discovering significant gaps in consumer learning that, when closed, will increase the likelihood of a purchase. A misinformed

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

consumer, for instance, may not understand how a product works, resulting in the product not being purchased or used correctly (Hawkins et al., 2001; Swait, 2001; and Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996).

Attitudes; Attitudes refer to a consistent favourable or unfavourable orientation towards objects, concepts or situations (Hawkins et al., 2001: and Brassington & Pettit, 1997). Attitudes consist of three components, namely cognitive, affective and behavioural. The cognitive component houses a person's knowledge and beliefs about an object. An example would be that a consumer believes that all convenience stores are open twenty four hours a day. The affective component represents a person's feelings about an object. A child, for instance, may love the smell of freshly baked cookies in a retail store. The behavioural or conative component refers to a person's action or behavioural tendencies toward an object or activity. The way a consumer makes the effort to buy and eat her preferred chocolate illustrates this point (Zikmund, 2000; Hawkins et al., 2001; and Kotler, 2000). Attitudes can be used to predict consumer purchase behaviour. During the years many approaches, such as psychometrics and scale development, have been developed in attempting to measure attitudes (De Meuse and Hostager, 2001; Riggio, 2000:707; Ghalam, 1997; and Manolis & Levin, 1997). Attitudes are usually good predictors when they are measured at a time relatively close to when the behaviour is to take place generally speaking. To demonstrate this, consider asking a child what he plans on doing for the weekend on a Friday. His reply should be relatively accurate. However, his answer would be less accurate if were asked the same question a month earlier. This suggests that the ability to predict future behaviour will depend on the time interval between when attitudes are measured and when the to-be-predicted behaviour actually takes place. Even a fairly short time interval does not necessarily ensure accurate prediction (Kraus, 1995; and Lowry, 1993).

Motivation; Motivation is generally referred to as a creation representing an unobservable internal force that stimulates and compels a behavioural response and provides precise direction to that response (Hawkins et al., 2001; Kotler 2000; Schiffman & Kunuk 2000; and Engel et al. 1995). A person is said to be motivated when his or her system is aroused and driven towards a behaviour in satisfying a desired goal. The stronger the drive, the greater the perceived urgency of response. To a consumer, this drive can be viewed as either a need or a want (Mowen, 2000; Arens, 1999; and Brassington & Pettitt, 1997). For many years, psychologists and marketers alike have tried to classify needs. Some of their lists are lengthy and creative. (Cravens, 2000; Zikmund, 2000; Walker, Boyd and Larréché, 1999; and Brassington & Pettitt, 1997). It is

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

generally believed that catering for consumers is far easier and effective once one gathers some understanding with regard to social and personal needs. A major contributor in the classification of needs is Marslow with his work titled ‘‘Hierarchy of needs’’.

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Psychologist Abraham Maslow (Hawkins et al., 2001; and Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000) postulated that what motivates people to act is unfulfilled needs and that people meet certain basic needs before being highly motivated to meet other needs. People acquire their motives through genetic endowment and social interaction, some being more important than others. Thus, Maslow ranked needs in a five-level hierarchy, otherwise known as prepotency and is shown in figure 1 below (Kotler, 2000):

Need Level	What it entails	Typical factors
Self-Actualisation Needs	A desire to know, underwstand, systematise, organise and construct a system of values.	Self-development and realisation
Esteem Needs	Striving to achieve a high standing relative to others, inlcuding mastery and reputation.	Self esteem, recognition, status
Social Needs	Striving to be accepted by intimate members of one's family and close associates.	Sense of belonging, love
Safety Needs	Concern over physical survival.	Security, protection, peace of mind
Physiological Needs	Fundamentals of survival.	Food, water, shelter, sex, sleep

Figure 1: Marslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Source: Kotler (2000). *Marketing Management*, Millennium edition. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

In general, according to Maslow’s macro theory, people first try to meet the needs at the bottom of the hierarchy – the physiological needs, such as the needs for food and rest. As the needs in the bottom categories become satisfied, people move on to fulfilling needs in the higher categories, such as the needs for safety, affiliation, esteem and self-

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

actualization (Brassington & Pettitt, 1997). Some studies have concluded that once a consumer has satisfied a need, that particular need ceases to motivate the consumer. Subsequently another more important need is then pursued by the consumer (Kotler, 2000). To illustrate this point, consider a hungry child. Once the child's hunger has enticed him to buy and eat a pie, he will no longer be hungry and therefore not seem interested in pursuing his need for hunger. However, he might now be thirsty – this need will be his new motivation. Other studies have taken the view that lower-order needs never stop motivating consumers (Engel et al, 1995). Continuing from the previous example, the child may still want to pursue his hunger need, as he may also desire to eat a packet of sweets.

External factors influencing consumer purchase behaviour

External influences play a significant role in affecting a consumer's behaviour and include the following issues namely, culture, subculture, social stratification, demographics, geographics, reference groups, families, households and marketing activities.

Culture; Culture is referred to as the complex whole that includes knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by humans as members of society. Culture includes abstract and material elements. It influences attitudes, values, personality types, religion and material possessions and so on (Hawkins et al. 2001; Rice, 1993; Kotler, 2000; Tian, 2000; and Burgess, 1998). An individual's values, attitudes, beliefs and opinions are shaped with his culture. This in turn also form peoples attitude towards purchasing specific products or services. Culture of an individual also gratifies his several emotional needs and due to this they try to protect their cultural values and beliefs (Singh, 2006). This culture protection is reflected in individuals' behaviour as consumers. This could also be understood with an example of McDonald that served Indian consumers in a way it used to serve American consumers. This act of the company made a negative effect on Indian consumer due to their specific vegetarian culture values (Kotler and Keller, 2006). Cultures can be divided into various groups called subculture. A subculture is a segment within a culture that shares a set of meanings, values or activities that differ in certain respects from those of the overall culture (Arens 1999; and Brassington & Pettitt, 1997). These people belonging to the same subculture have more common values, religion and mostly coming from same region and ethnicity (Armstrong and Kotler, 2007). Age groups can be a subculture in the society. For example while some brands are targeted to teen-age groups the others can

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

be offered to matured market like health care products, home decoration, travel and so on (Blackwell, Miniard and Engel, 2001). Any culture can be divided into several types of subcultures, each with its own characteristics, yet existing within the whole. It all depends on the onlooker's perspective just how detailed a division is required (Tian, 2000; and Churchill & Peter, 1998). The different types of subcultures are gender, nationality, religion etc. Subcultures tend to transfer their beliefs and values from generation to generation. Racial, religious and ethnic backgrounds affect consumers' preferences for styles of dress, food, beverages, transportation, personal care products and household furnishings to name a few (Burgess, 1998).

Social stratification; Social stratification refers to an influence that affects the ways consumers behave. Virtually all societies exhibit social stratification. The respective social classes that emerge are relatively homogenous and enduring divisions in society, which are hierarchically ordered and whose members share similar values, interests and behaviour (Engel et al., 1995; and Churchill & Peter, 1998). In other words, a person is ranked according to one or a few dimensions valued by society such as the amount of money one earns or where one lives. The result of social structuring subsequently reflects a community's expectations for a lifestyle among each class as well as the positive or negative social estimation of honour and respect given to each class. Although it is generally believed that most industrialised nations do not conform to strict and tightly defined social classes (Engel et al., 1995; Hawkins et al., 2001; Arens, 1999; and Burgess, 1998). Consumer purchase behaviour and social class can be connected in different ways. For example, wealthy consumers mostly prefer magazines about fashion, technology, some specific sport branches like sailing or art and decoration. Because these group of people have mostly interest on these subjects in common and these magazines considered as high segment in the market and sold in special shops with higher prices. (Armstrong and Kotler, 2007) Another reality is some brands are connected to certain social groups like; Heineken beer considered as upper-middle class drink while Budweiser is accepted as middle and low social class drink with the image of a beer for everybody. (Blackwell et al., 2001).

Reference groups; Reference groups are generally defined as groups whose presumed perspectives or values are being used by an individual as the basis for his or her current behaviour, beliefs and feelings (Hawkins et al., 2001; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000; Levy and Weitz, 1998; Churchill & Peter, 1998; and Engel et al., 1995). Reference groups play a huge role in the lives of young consumers as they are sometimes easily moulded into consumers depending on their reference groups. Groups are generally

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

classified in four categories, namely primary, secondary, aspirational and dissociative. Primary groups (such as family and friends) are often regarded as the most influential and are characterised by frequent, informal interpersonal contact. They are viewed as social aggregations that facilitate unrestricted face-to face interaction. This reasoning explains why similar-minded children like to play with each other. Secondary groups, on the other hand, have limited face-to-face interactions and are typically more sporadic and less comprehensive and influential (Churchill and Peter, 1998; Hawkins et al., 2001; and Kotler, 2000). Community organisations, schools and religious groups are typical cases in point. Aspirational groups exhibit a desire to adopt the norms, values and behaviour of others with whom the individual aspires to associate. Consumers will therefore adapt themselves accordingly, to what they seem to be a positive attraction, regardless of realistic rationalisations and their capabilities. For example, a young girl may be exposed to television and store advertising, and want to get hold of as many 'Coca-cola' bottle-top liners in order to win a cell phone. She may believe that having a cell phone will allow her to fit in with a trendy group of girls at her school. The fact that she is allergic to gassy cold drinks and has no money somehow does not hinder her aspiration. Groups portraying a less desirable appeal are called dissociative groups. Individuals can be seen to reject their values and behaviour. This motivation steers the individual away from one group but closer to another group (Martin, Gentry and Hill, 1999; Brassington & Pettitt, 1997; Hawkins et al., 2001; and Kotler, 2000). Reference groups are able to apply varying amounts of influence to certain situations that consumers find themselves in. The following issues are generally held true, particularly with younger consumers. Firstly, the more relevant a particular activity is to the group's functioning, the stronger the pressure to conform to the group norms concerning that activity. For example, children dress differently when they play outside or go to a fancy restaurant together. Secondly, an individual with low self-confidence is more susceptible to being influenced. A young girl that lacks self-esteem and confidence could be a prime target of peer influencing for instance. Finally, a group's influence is the strongest when the use of the product or brand is visible to the group or it is deemed to be a luxury (Hawkins et al., 2001; and Rummel et al., 2000).

Families and households; Traditionally speaking, a family is usually referred to as a group of two or more people related by blood, marriage or adoption that reside together. This family would consist of a father and a mother living in a socially approved relationship with their own or adopted children. The extended family includes grandparents, uncles, aunts, cousins and in-laws, whilst a blended family consists of a

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

couple, one or both which was previously married, their children, and the children from the previous marriage of one or both parents (Hawkins et al., 2001; Engel et al., 1995; and Kotler, 2000). The terminology and its content described in the previous paragraph have been undergoing numerous changes as society has changed. The typical family configuration is becoming very complicated and is sometimes referred to as a household. Households are becoming a more important unit of analysis for marketers because of the rapid growth in non-traditional families and non-family households (Hawkins et al., 2001; and Engel et al., 1995; and Rindfleisch, Burroughs & Dento, 1997). It is inevitable that families and households will evolve over time. This gradual change carries many implications for marketers and personal needs. In other words, how will brands be able to evolve in such a way that they will appeal to the families and households? In addressing this issue, attention must be given to the life cycle of the respective entities (Rindfleisch et al., 1997). The family life cycle refers to the manner in which family members evolve. As this takes place, the needs and desires of the family also change, affecting what can be afforded, where spending priorities lie and how a purchasing decision is made. All this constantly changes as the family matures and moves through the various stages of its life cycle Family members have different roles like initiator, influencer, decider, buyer and user. The impacts of family members on different assortments of products are changing depending on family size, structure and hierarchy in buying decision process (Schaninger and Danko, 1993; Hawkins et al., 2001; and Churchill & Peter, 1998).

Hypothesis Testing

The Research hypothesis was raised and tested in the course of this study. The significant level of 0.05 or 95% confidence level was set to determine if the findings were significant or not. The findings were presented below;

$H_{01:}$ Brand awareness has no significant role in influencing purchase intention.

H_{a1}: Brand awareness has a significant role in influencing purchase intention.

Table 1 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.588[a]	.346	.344	.515

a. Predictors: (Constant), Brand Awareness

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

International Journal of Economics, Business and Innovation Research
https://e-journal.citakonsultindo.or.id/index.php/IJEBIR
E-ISSN : 2964-0865
IJEBIR

Table 2 ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	45.162	1	45.162	170.059	.000[a]
	Residual	85.247	321	.266		
	Total	130.409	322			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Brand Awareness

a. Dependent Variable: Purchase Intention

Table 3 Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.664	.217		7.670	.000
	Brand Awareness	.629	.048	.588	13.041	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Purchase Intention

INTERPRETATION

From the tables above, simple linear regression was conducted to determine the role of brand awareness in influencing purchase intention. From the model summary, a variation of 34.6% in purchase intention can be explained by an influence of brand awareness. The result is statistically significant at a p value of .000 which is less than level of significance of 0.05. This indicates that brand awareness positively predicts purchase intention. In addition, a beta coefficient of 0.588 indicates that brand awareness is a significant predictor of purchase intention.

Decision: Reject the null hypothesis as p-value is less than 0.05. Therefore, Brand awareness has a significant role in influencing purchase intention**.**

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Findings from the test of hypothesis two show that brand awareness has a significant role in influencing purchase intention. This implies that brand awareness has

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

a positive influence on consumer purchase intention. The findings of this study corroborated with the findings of Dodds and Grewal (1991) which revealed that higher level of brand awareness can influence the purchase intention of consumers. Macdonald and Sharp (2000) reported that brand awareness is an important factor for influencing purchase decision. Jalilvand, Samiei, and Mahdavinia (2011) found that brand awareness has a direct significant influence on purchase intention. These findings are similar to the findings of Macdonald and Sharp (2000) which showed that Brand awareness is positively related to purchase intention. It signifies that consumers will buy a familiar and well known product (Keller, 1993). This in other words indicate that the higher the brand awareness, the higher the purchase intention.

In addition, the findings of Lin and Chang (2003) revealed a significant impact of brand awareness on purchase intention. Also reports that brand awareness has a strong influence on purchase intention. Wilson (1981) confirmed in his study the importance of brand awareness, stating that there is a positive relationship between the position of the brand in the consumer's mind and purchase intention of the brand.

CONCLUSION

The conclusions of this study are based on the findings from test of hypothesis. This study concludes that brand awareness has a significant role in influencing purchase intention. Brand awareness relates to the strength of a brand in the memory of consumers; brands with higher level of awareness would be more likely to be purchased. Brand awareness influences products to be within consumer’s consideration set where which the brand has the likelihood to be purchased. Hence, consumer’s familiarity towards a brand can be influenced by brand awareness. It has also been proven that brand awareness influences consumer purchase intention. Organizations must therefore ensure that consumers are familiar with their brand through the use of recall cues (such as jingles), repetitive advertising and publicity. It has been established that brand image influences customer loyalty; hence organizations must develop favourable associations about their brand which will make customers have pleasant experiences with its usage.

REFERENCES

Albanese, J. S. (1987). The nature of preferences: An exploration of the relationship between economics and psychology. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *8*(1), 3-18.

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

Allender, W. J., & Richards, T. J.(2012). Brand loyalty and price promotion strategies: an empirical analysis. *Journal of Retailing, 88*(3): 323-342.

Ambler, T. (1997). Do brands benefit consumers? *International Journal of Advertising, 23*(7): 166-198.

Ayman-Nolley, S. (1999). A Piagetian perspective on the dialectic process of creativity. *Creativity Research Journal*, *12*(4): 251-267.

Baalbaki, S. S. (2012). *Consumer Perception of Brand Equity Measurement: A New Scale* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of North Texas, Texas.

Baker, W. J., Hutchinson, W., Moore, D., & Nedungadi, P. (1986). Brand Familiarity and Advertising: Effects on the Evoked Set and Brand Preferences. *Advances in Consumer Research, 3*(13): 637-42.

Bruner, G. C. (1988). Problem Recognition Style and Information Source Importance: Study and Replication. *Akron Business and Economic Review*, *19*(1): 41-45.

Bullmore, J. (1984). The brand and its image revisited. *International Journal of Advertising*, 13(2): 235-238.

Cardy, R. L., Miller, J. S., & Ellis, A. D. (2007). Employee equity: Toward a person-based approach to HRM. *Human Resource Management Review*, *17*(2): 140-151.

Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., & Guido, G. (2001). "Brand personality: How to make the metaphor fit? *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *22*(3): 377-395.

Chan, T. Z., & Wildt, A. R. (1994). Price, product information, and purchase intention: An empirical study. *Journal of Academic Marketing Science*, *22*(1): 16-27.

Davies, G., Chun, R., da Silva V., & Roper, S. (2001). The personification metaphor as a measurement approach for corporate reputation. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *4*(2): 113-127.

Dawar, N. (2004) What Are Brands Good For? *MIT Sloan Management Review*, *46*(1): 31-37.

De Chernatony, L., & Dall'Olmo R., F. (1998). Defining a Brand : Beyond the Literature with Experts Interpretations. *Journal of Marketing Management, 14*(5): 417-443

De Chernatony, L. (1999). Brand Management through Narrowing the Gap between Brand Identity and Brand Reputation. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15(3): 157–79.

De Chernatony, L., Drury, S., & Segal-Horn, S. (2003). Building a services brand: stages, people and orientations. *The Services Industries Journal. 23*(3), 1–21.

De Chernatony, L. (2003), From Brand Vision to Brand Evaluation: Strategically Building and Sustaining Brands. *European Journal of Marketing*, *42*(6): 537–552.

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

Foxall, G. R. (1987). Situated consumer behavior: A behavioral interpretation of purchase and consumption. *Research in Consumer Behaviour*, *3*(1): 383-414.

Frazer, C. F. (1983). Creative strategy: A management perspective. *Journal of Advertising, 12*(4): 36-41.

Gardner, B. B., & Levy, S. J. (1955). The product and the brand . *Harvard Business Review*, *33*(4): 33-39.

Ghalam, N. Z. (1997). Attitudes toward women, work and family. *Canadian Social Trends, Autumn*, *46*(8). 11-13.

Grubb, E. L., & Stern, B. L. (1971). Self-concept and significant others. *Journal of marketing research*, *8*(3): 382-385.

Gupta, N., Shaw, J. D., & Delery, J. E. (2000). Congruence between technology and compensation systems: Implications for strategy implementation. *Strategic Management Journal*, *22*(4), 379-386.

Halliday. J. (1996). Chrysler Brings Out Brand Personalities with '97 Ads. *Advertising Age*, *27*(5): 3-7.

Isaac, S. K., Moses, C., Taiye, B., Chikodi, M., Agarana, F. E., Moyosoluwa, D. D., & Nifemi, O. (2023). Minimizing Smes Problems in Nigeria for Economy Sustainability Using Quantitative Technique.

Isaac, K. S., Ibidunni, A., Kehinde, O. J., Ufua, D., Elizabeth, K. B., Oyo-Ita, D., & Mathias, C. M. (2020). The role of multinational corporations in global economic practice: Literature review. *Journal of Management Information and Decision Sciences*, *23*(5), 619-628.

Isaac, K. S., Ibidunni, A., Kehinde, O. J., Elizabeth, K. B., Oyo-Ita, D., Mathias, C. M., & Boluwatife, O. F. (2020). Covid-19: Impact on Global Economy, Steps Taken and Way Forward. *Journal of Management Information and Decision Sciences*, *23*(5), 612-618.

Kehinde, S. (2023). The Three-Decade Journey of Nation-State Formation: Examining Strategic Planning Models and Policy Frameworks Tailored for the Sequential Stages of Nation-Building, Emphasizing the Significance of Each Phase in the Overall Development and Sustainability of a Nation-State. *Qeios*.

Kehinde, S., Moses, C., Taiye, B., Oladele, K., Obembe, N., Simon-Ilogho, B., ... & Kehinde, T. (2023). Blockchain Technology Adoption In Developing Countries And Its Effect On Their Achievement Of Sustainability Goals. *Journal of Southwest Jiaotong University*, *58*(6).

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

Keller, K. L. (2001). Building customer-based brand equity: A blueprint for creating strong brands. *Marketing Science Institute*, *10*(4): 1-38.

Keller, K.L. (2003). Brand Synthesis: The Multidimensionality of Brand Knowledge. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *29*(2): 595-600.

Lowry, M. K. (1993). You just can't talk to these kids. *Business Week*, *19*(6): 104-106.

Macdonald, E. K., & Sharp, B. M. (2000). Brand awareness effects on consumer decision making for a common, repeat purchase product: A replication. *Journal of Business Research, 48*, 5-15.

Nowak, G. J., & Phelps, J. (1994). Conceptualizing the integrated marketing communications' phenomenon: an examination of its impact on advertising practices and its implications for advertising research. *Journal of current issues and research in advertising*, *16*(1): 49-66.

Nurrenbern, S. C. (2001). Piaget's Theory of Intellectual development revisited. *Journal of Chemical Education*, *78*(8): 11-17.

Oliver, R. L., & Swan, J. E. (1989). Consumer Perceptions of Interpersonal Equity and Satisfaction in Transactions: A Field Survey Approach. *Journal of Marketing*, *53*(5): 21-35.

Rajagopal, G. (2006). Insights from research Brand excellence: measuring the impact of advertising and brand personality on buying decisions. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 14*(2): 143-154.

Seetharaman, A., Nadzir, Z. A., & Gunalan, S., (2001). A conceptual study on brand valuation. *Journal of Product and Brand Management 10*(4): 243-256.

Shehely, P. (2010). Conceptual framework for exploration of brand equity perception from bottom of the pyramid (bop) market perspective. *International Journal of Research in Business Management, 1*(5): 1-10.

Vigneron, F., & Johnson, L. W. (1999). A review and a conceptual framework of prestige seeking consumer behaviour. *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, *99*(1); 12-16.

Wentz, L. (1993). Unilever Brands 'Alive and Kicking' Chairman Assures. *Brandweek*, *64*: 39.

Copyright at authors some right reserved this work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.