PARALLEL DEVELOPMENT OF MARKETING AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOR: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

This paper provides evidence of the historical allegiance of consumer behavior to marketing, demonstrating the parallel emphasis of marketing and consumer behavior with respect to substantive focus, research methodology, and influence from external disciplines. Four eras of marketing are described, each dominated by differing schools of thought. The influence of these schools of thought in shaping consumer behavior research is identified.

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INTRODUCTION

The history of consumer behavior with respect to substantive focus, research methodology, and influence from external disciplines appears to have largely paralleled the history of marketing thought. Four eras of marketing thought and research may be identified, with each influencing the focus of consumer behavior research.

The first era associated with marketing's history was dominated by the classical schools of marketing thought. These schools of thought emerged in the early 1900s as marketing divorced itself from the founding discipline of economics. The classical schools focused on aggregate market behavior and borrowed from such social science disciplines as economics and sociology. The second era of marketing thought was dominated by the managerial marketing schools which emerged in the early 1950s. The managerial schools shifted the focus of marketing to individual behavior, yet continued the tradition of borrowing from the social sciences. The third era has been dominated by the behavioral marketing schools which emerged in full force in the 1960s and continue to be prevalent in influencing marketing thought today. The behavioral marketing schools have borrowed from the behavioral sciences, including several branches of psychology, in an effort to gain better understanding of individual behavior. Finally, the fourth era is associated with what we have termed the adaptive marketing schools, and is currently emerging. The adaptive schools are shifting the focus of marketing back to aggregate market behavior and borrowing from the social sciences as well as from the behavioral sciences.

It appears that each marketing era has motivated specific types of consumer behavior research and influenced the preferred research methodologies applied to consumer behavior. Figure 1 provides a summary of specific schools of thought associated with each marketing era and identifies emphases in consumer behavior which parallel the emphases of the marketing schools. The consumer behavior emphases identified as paralleling the adaptive marketing schools represent predictions for the future of consumer research.

(INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE)

THE CLASSICAL MARKETING SCHOOLS AND PARALLEL CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

The emergence of marketing as an independent discipline, divorced from the founding field of economics, has been eloquently documented by Bartels (1962). Three schools of thought were identified as emerging in the early 1900s. These have come to be known as the classical schools of marketing thought, and are specifically referred to as the commodity school, the functional school, and the institutional school. Additionally, we include the regional school as contributing to this first era. All four schools emphasized descriptive research focusing on aggregate market behavior, and borrowed heavily from the social sciences.

Specifically, they were influenced most by demand theory in microeconomics, including concepts of consumer surplus and monopolistic competition (e.g. Marshall 1890, Chamberlin 1933); and by theories of spatial markets, trading areas, and rural versus nonrural market definitions in economic geography and economic demography (e.g. Marshall 1890, Ohlin 1931).

The commodity school has been the most enduring of the classical schools of thought. Writers identified with the commodity school have focused on the objects of market transactions as the central subject matter of marketing, and have attempted to differentiate various classes of products on the basis of their physical characteristics and associated consumer buying behavior. The commodity school is perhaps most identified with the work of Copeland (1923) who generated the still popular convenience goods, shopping goods, specialty goods trichotamy. Even earlier, however, Parlin (1912) identified a threefold classification of goods as convenience goods, shopping goods, and emergency goods. Several subsequent writers (e.g. Holton 1958, 1959; Luck 1959; Bucklin 1963; Kaish 1967) attempted to refine the Copeland classification by providing more precise definitions. In contrast, Aspinwall (1958) provided an independent classification based on the color spectrum (red, orange, and yellow goods) defined in terms of replacement rate, gross margin, degree of adjustment, time of consumption, and searching time.

In contrast with the other classical schools, the commodity perspective continues to hold the interest of contemporary marketing researchers. Most notably, Holbrook and Howard (1977) recently expanded the Copeland classification to include a fourth category which they termed preference goods. Enis and Roering (1980) and Murphy and Enis (1986) adopted and refined this classification, demonstrating its relevance to services and ideas, as well as goods; distinguishing between the consumer perspective and the marketer perspective in defining the four types of products; and relating the classification to marketing strategy.

Emerging concurrent with the commodity school, the functional school promoted a focus on marketing activities or functions as the central subject matter of marketing. Shaw (1912), generally acknowledged as the founder of the functional approach, identified marketing functions performed by middlemen to include sharing the risk; transporting the goods; financing the operations; selling; and assembling, assorting and reshipping. While not intending to provide an exhaustive list of marketing functions, Shaw's early contribution aroused the interest of other authors who sought to provide more conclusive classifications relevant to all marketing organizations rather than just middlemen. This resulted in a number of alternative classifications (e.g. Weld 1917, Cherington 1920) and an unfortunate lack of unanimity.

By the mid 1930s, Ryan (1935) reported that at least 26 books and articles had been published which dealt with marketing functions, and that 52 distinct functions had been proposed by various authors. The lack of consensus among authors advocating the functional approach lead Fullbrook (1940) to admonish that such authors had failed to recognize the distinction between the pervasive and inherent functional requirements of the marketing process (appropriately regarded as functions) and the specific activities involved in the actual performance of marketing functions (not appropriately regarded as functions). McGarry (1950), holding a similar view, proposed a classification consisting of the contactual function, the merchandising function, the pricing function, the propaganda function, the physical distribution function, and the termination function. Central to McGarry's classification was the idea that marketing functions may be accomplished via a variety of specific activities. The functional school has received little attention since McGarry's contribution. However, a relatively recent article by Lewis and Erickson (1969) attempted to integrate the functional approach with a systems perspective, and identified two major functions of marketing as obtaining demand and servicing demand.

The third school of thought, the institutional school, emerged concurrent with the commodity and functional schools, focusing on the agents or organizations which perform marketing functions. The early stimulus for the institutional school was the belief among consumers that middlemen added excessive costs to products without a concommitant addition of value. Thus, early authors evaluated the role of marketing intermediaries to determine whether the economic contributions of these organizations justified their existence. Often regarded as the founder of the instititutional school, Weld (1916) argued that middlemen such as wholesalers and retailers provided essential value added services by fostering time, place, and possession utilities (an approach also taken by Butler 1923). Further, Weld argued that marketing efficiency was enhanced through functional specialization, analogous to the efficiency achieved through production specialization. Other early authors seeking to justify the role of marketing middlemen (e.g. Breyer 1934) emphasized the role of middlemen in overcoming the various obstacles and resistances to the exchange of goods.

With the early authors having offered cogent justification for the existence of marketing intermediaries, subsequent contributors to the institutional school largely focused on the structure and evolution of channel systems. For example, Converse and Huegy (1940) discussed the potential benefits and risks associated with verticle integration; Balderston (1964) sought to provide a normative approach to optimal channel design; and McCammon (1965) identified various types of centrally coordinated channel systems and suggested reasons for their emergence. Both Bucklin (1965) and Mallen (1973) proposed theories to explain and predict the inclusion of intermediaries in channels of distribution. Bucklin introduced the principles of postponement and speculation in explaining the creation of intermediate inventories between producers and consumers, and hence the use of direct versus indirect channels. Mallen proposed the concept of functional spin-off in hypothesizing that marketers will choose to either perform functions themselves or subcontract (spin-off) to functional specialists so as to minimize the overall cost of performing the functions.

Finally, the regional school viewed marketing as a form of economic activity designed to bridge geographic or spatial gaps between buyers and sellers. The regional school is less well known than the commodity, functional, and institutional schools and is often overlooked in discussions of schools of marketing thought. However, it is another early school which emphasized aggregate market behavior and borrowed from the social sciences. Emerging somewhat later than the classical schools, it may be traced to the writings of Reilly (1931) and Converse (1943, 1949) who developed mathematical formulas termed "laws of retail gravitation" for determining the boundaries of retail trading areas and predicting where consumers would be most likely to shop. Subsequent authors also examined wholesaler and manufacturer trading areas (Vaile, Grether and Cox 1952; Revzan 1961; Goldstucker 1965). Grether (1950, 1983), a proponent of the regional approach for nearly a half century, enriched the contribution of the regional school substantially by using the regional perspective to analyze interregional trade (i.e. predict the flow of goods and resources among regions varying in resource abundance).

As the classical schools of thought continued to thrive into the 1940s and 1950s, their reliance on social science disciplines, focus on aggregate markets, and use of research methodologies appropriate to the study of aggregate markets influenced the early study of consumer behavior. Early writers investigating consumer behavior largely focused on such areas as consumption economics and retail patronage. Researchers focusing on consumption economics examined such topics as household budgeting (e.g. Katona and Mueller 1953, 1956; Foote 1961), and the phenomena of conspicuous consumption and consumption of necessities versus luxuries (Katona 1953, Katona et.al. 1971). Much of this focus is also found in work on reference group influence as a determinant of consumer behavior (e.g. Bourne 1957, Stafford 1966). Researchers focusing on retail patronage have examined such concepts as self-service (Robinson and May 1956), retail gravitation (Huff 1964), and the wheel of retailing (Hollander 1960). Research methodologies favored by early consumer researchers for investigating aggregate consumer behavior included case studies, market surveys, and analysis of census data.

MANAGERIAL MARKETING SCHOOLS AND PARALLEL CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

The classical schools, with their emphasis on describing aggregate market behavior, gave way to the managerial marketing schools, with their emphasis on controlling individual behavior in the marketplace. These schools, which may be referred to specifically as the managerial school and social exchange school, emerged in the 1950s and 1960s in the midst of the unprecedented economic boom following World War II. Due to enhanced production capability and a proliferation of new product introductions, it was found that the supply of products exceeded the demand in most markets. Thus, it was desired to control market behavior for the benefit of producers.

The managerial school of thought advocated a managerially-based approach to marketing (e.g. Howard 1957, Kelley and Lazer 1958). Pioneering authors generated such well known and enduring concepts as the marketing mix (Borden 1964); product differentiation and market segmentation (Smith 1956); the product life cycle (Levitt 1965, Smallwood 1973); and the marketing concept (McKitterick 1957, Keith 1960, Levitt 1960). Additionally, considerable emphasis was given to generating concepts and theories relevant to specific aspects of the marketing mix. Early examples include the concepts of skimming and penetration pricing introduced by Dean (1950), the hierarchy of effects model of advertising developed by Lavidge and Steiner (1961), and the "need satisfication theory of personal selling" advocated by Cash and Crissy (1957). Each of these areas and concepts continues to generate substantial research today.

Following the emergence of the managerial school by approximately a decade, the social exchange school emerged in the 1960s advocating that marketing exchanges or transactions are the central focus of marketing activity. The launching of the exchange perspective has been dually credited to McInnes (1964) and Alderson (Alderson and Martin 1965). McInnes (1964) proposed that markets result when the makers and users of products seek to satisfy their needs and wants through exchange. Alderson and

Martin (1965) proposed the "law of exchange" to explain why two parties decide to enter into a transaction. Subsequently, other authors such as Kotler (1972a) and Hunt (1976) have given more explicit focus to the exchange perspective by arguing that transactions or exchanges should appropriately be considered the central subject matter of marketing. Bagozzi (1974, 1975, 1978, 1979) refined and elaborated on the concept of exchange in attempting to develop a theory of exchange as the foundation for marketing thought and practice.

Although the managerial schools, like the classical schools, relied on the social sciences, authors associated with this era were generally influenced by more recently developed concepts and research methodologies. To illustrate, scholars associated with the managerial schools eagerly borrowed concepts and methods from the emerging field of managerial economics, which focused on the theory of the firm rather than on demand theory (e.g. Dean 1951). Most notably, marketing scholars were influenced by such economic concepts as monopolistic competition and product differentiation. Further, marketing was influenced by research in rural sociology and economic anthropology on diffusion of innovation (Rogers 1962); research in communications on opinion leadership (Katz and Lazarsfeld 1955, Katz 1957); and research in sociology on social stratification and household structure (Loomis 1936, Warner 1941, Glick 1947, Kahl 1957).

Accompanying the shift in emphasis within marketing was a similar shift in emphasis within consumer behavior. Rather than focusing on aggregate market behavior, the emphasis of consumer research shifted to individual consumers or households as the unit of analysis. Further, like marketing as a whole, consumer behavior continued to borrow from the social sciences. This resulted in a shift in substantive focus to such areas as opinion leadership and diffusion of innovation (Silk 1966, Arndt 1968, Bass 1969, Myers and Robertson 1972); brand loyalty (Cunningham 1956, Frank 1962, Harary and Lipstein 1962, Kuehn 1962); life cycle stages of households (Wells and Gubar 1966, Murphy and Staples 1979, Gilly and Enis 1982); and market segmentation on the basis of demographics and socioeconomic status (Martineau 1958, Coleman 1960, Levy 1966, Wasson 1969, Sheth 1977). Preferred research methodology included developing stochastic and other operations research models with longitudinal panel data to predict brand loyalty, and developing econometric models with cross sectional data to measure the impact of demographic and socioeconomic variables on buying behavior.

BEHAVIORAL MARKETING SCHOOLS AND PARALLEL CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

As the focus of research shifted away from aggregate markets and toward individual behavior, the marketing discipline observed that the behavioral sciences could contribute much to marketing's understanding. Thus, marketing scholars searched the literatures of various branches of psychology for concepts and research techniques appropriate to understanding individual behavior in the marketplace. At least three identifiable schools of thought emerged. These may be referred to as the organizational dynamics school, the consumerism school, and the buyer behavioral school.

Authors associated with the behavioral marketing schools have been largely influenced by economic psychology, with its emphasis on customer expectations (Katona 1951, 1953); clinical psychology, with its emphasis on subconscious motivation (Hall and Lindzey 1957); organizational behavior, with its emphasis on power, conflict, and bounded rationality (March and Simon 1958, French and Raven 1959, Emerson 1962, Pondy 1967); and social psychology, with its emphasis on the desire for cognitive consistency (Festinger 1957, Heider 1958). Consistent throughout these disciplines is the finding that it is perception, rather than objective reality, which drives human behavior. Thus, marketers concluded that much behavior relevant to marketing (e.g. among competitors, customers, and channel members) may also be driven by individual perception.

The emergence of the organizational dynamics school, with its emphasis on the behavioral orientation of channel members, is largely credited to the early work of Stern (1969), and particularly to his early papers on the topics of power and conflict in channels of distribution (Beier and Stern 1969, Stern and Gorman 1969, Rosenberg and Stern 1971, El-Ansary and Stern 1972). However, the behavioral approach to investigating interorganizational relationships in marketing may be traced to earlier work by such authors as Ridgeway (1957) and Mallen (1963). Largely receiving impetus from Stern's work, a number of authors since the early 1970s have investigated the impact of power (Hunt and Nevin 1974, Lusch 1976, Etgar 1976, Frazier 1983b), conflict (Etgar 1979, Brown and Day 1981, Eliashberg and Michie 1984), and various influence strategies (Angelmar and Stern 1978, Frazier and Summers 1984, Frazier and Sheth 1985) on channel performance and relationships. Additionally, a number of authors have endeavored to develop general models of interorganizational relations (Robicheaux and El-Ansary 1975-76, Stern and Reve 1980, Achrol et.al. 1983, Frazier 1983a). The political economy perspective introduced by Stern and Reve (1980, Achrol et.al. 1983) has provided a framework for integrating the economic focus of the institutional school with the behavioral focus of the organizational dynamics school.

The consumerism school emerged in the late 1960s in response to the growing consumerism movement in the United States. Consumerism as a social movement focused on issues of consumer welfare, sought to correct the perceived imbalance of power between buyers and sellers, and criticized specific firms and industries as being guilty of malpractice (Beem 1973, Kotler 1972b). Concerned with the implications of the consumerists' criticisms for marketing practice (Drucker 1969), a substantial amount of academic research has focused on such issues as deceptive advertising (Jacoby and Small 1975, Gardner 1976, Armstrong et.al. 1979); provision of information (Day 1976, Resnik and Stern 1977, Houston and Rothschild 1980); marketplace treatment of disadvantaged consumers (Kassarjian 1969, Ashby 1973, Andreasen 1975); and consumer satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and complaining behavior (Day 1977, Hunt 1977, Day and Hunt 1979, Oliver 1980, Churchill and Surprenant 1982, Oliver and Bearden 1983).

Again, the shift in marketing fostered a similar shift in consumer behavior. This resulted in the emergence of the buyer behavior school, which has contributed the bulk of research on consumer behavior and organizational buying behavior to date. It became accepted that buying behavior is psychologically driven. Thus, the focus of consumer behavior turned to examining the inner world of the buyer (Bauer 1960, Dichter 1964, Howard and Sheth 1969). Concepts borrowed from social, cognitive, and organizational psychology were used as building blocks in developing comprehensive models of consumer and organizational buying behavior (Andreason 1965, Nicosia 1966, Howard and Sheth 1969, Engel et.al. 1968, Webster and Wind 1972, Sheth 1973). Further, concepts borrowed from clinical psychology served as the bases of motivation research, psychographic research, and personality research (Evans 1959, Dichter 1964, Kassarjian 1971, Wells and Tigert 1971, Wells 1975). Psychological approaches to the study of attitude (Rosenberg 1956, Katz 1960, Fishbein 1967, Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) influenced attitude research in consumer behavior (Wilkie and Pessemier 1973, Sheth 1974, Mazis et.al. 1975, Lutz 1977, Locander and Spivey 1978); and research on information processing and involvement in cognitive psychology (Krugman 1965, McGuire 1976) influenced the study of consumer information processing and high and low involvement choice behavior (Bettman 1979, Olshavsky and Granbois 1979, Antil 1984). Additionally, research methodologies appropriate to the study of individual psychological phenomena have been borrowed from the behavioral sciences. Such techniques include laboratory experiments; focus group interviews, depth interviews, and projective techniques used in motivation research; and cross-sectional mail and telephone surveys used in attitude and psychographic research.

It should be noted that the behavioral schools of marketing have been largely responsible for increasing the scientific sophistication of the marketing discipline. This is particularly apparent in the study of consumer behavior. With a strong theoretical and methodological base available from the behavioral sciences, the emergence of the buyer behavior school propelled the status of consumer behavior to that of a subdiscipline with adequate maturity to assert its independence from marketing. This has been evidenced by the establishment of a separate association for the study of consumer behavior (the Association for Consumer Research) and an interdisciplinary journal devoted to consumer research (Journal of Consumer Reserach).

ADAPTIVE MARKETING SCHOOLS AND PARALLEL CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

Most recently, marketing has begun to shift its emphasis back to the study of aggregate market behavior. Substantial attention has recently been focused on environmental opportunities and threats, such as those generated by regulation, technology, and global competition. This has generated the adaptive marketing concept, derived from management thinking which maintains that it is better to adapt the organization to fit environmental realities than to attempt to adapt the environment to fit the organization (Toffler 1985). Schools of thought identified with this era may be referred to as the macromarketing school and the strategic planning school. Researchers associated with these schools of thought have continued to borrow from the behavioral sciences, but have also borrowed concepts from business strategy and the social sciences relevant to the study of environmental contingencies and global markets. Such concepts include environmental scanning (Steiner 1979), stakeholder analysis (Freeman 1984), and competitive analysis (Porter 1980, 1985).

The macromarketing school emerged as a result of the growing interest across business disciplines in the impact of business on society and the impact of societal forces on business. Macromarketing specifically pertains to marketing theory and research which examines the consequences of marketing on society, examines the consequences of societal forces on marketing, adopts the perspective of society, and/or studies marketing systems at the societal level (Hunt and Burnett 1982). While previous schools of thought (particularly the managerial school) recognized environmental factors as influencing marketing, they generally regarded these factors as uncontrollable (McCarthy 1960). In contrast, the macromarketing school sought to explicitly analyze and understand societal needs and concerns and the impact of these needs and concerns on marketing as a social institution. While this perspective may be traced to early writings by Holloway and Hancock (1964) and Fisk (1967), the macromarketing school did not emerge in full force until the latter 1970s. Development of this school of thought largely followed from the University of Colorado's organization of the first in a continuing series of macromarketing seminars (Slater 1977) and the founding of the Journal of Macromarketing.

The strategic planning school is currently emerging as the newest school of marketing thought (Sheth and Gardner 1982). Authors associated with this perspective have emphasized the importance of analyzing environmental dynamics, and of dynamically adapting the organization to environmental requirements. Many contributions to the strategic planning school have come from consulting firms and their clients. Such contributions include product portfolio models developed by the Boston Consulting Group and General Electric; experience curve analysis by the Boston Consulting Group; and the Profit Impact of Marketing Strategies (PIMS) program, initiated by General Electric and currently under the management of the Strategic Planning Institute. Further, an increasing number of academic writings in marketing are now taking strategic planning and environmental management perspectives (e.g. Abell 1978, Montgomery and Weinberg 1979, Anderson 1982, Cook 1983, Henderson 1983, Sheth and Frazier 1983, Wind and Robertson 1983, Zeithaml and Zeithaml 1984, Day 1986). The entire Spring, 1983 issue of the Journal of Marketing was devoted to articles focusing on marketing strategy (Cunningham and Robertson 1983); and an increasing number of marketing texts are taking a strategic planning focus (e.g. Luck and Ferrell 1979, Jain 1981, Cravens 1982).

We predict that at least four areas of consumer research will emerge in response to the adaptive marketing orientation. First, as markets have become increasingly global (Levitt 1983), a growing emphasis has been given to international marketing. This has resulted in numerous researchers being drawn to the study of cross-cultural influences on consumer behavior (Sheth and Sethi 1977, Plummer 1977, Green et.al. 1983, Belk 1984a, Sherry 1986). We predict that this emphasis will increase in the future.

Second, with maturing markets and intensified competition, the emphasis of marketing appears to be shifting away from acquiring new customers and toward retaining existing customers (Albrecht and Zemke 1985, Desatnick 1987). Thus, we predict that the focus of consumer research will shift as well. For example, interest in consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction may be expected to increase. In particular, indepth research on complaining behavior, word-of-mouth communication, and other consumer responses to dissatisfaction is predicted (Richens 1983, Resnik and Harmon 1983, Bearden and Mason 1984, Folkes 1984).

Third, with maturing markets, interest in the competitive environment has intensified (Kotler 1980). Thus, we predict that the focus of consumer research will shift toward examining consumer perceptions of marketing competitors. The need for such research has already become apparent as marketing has sought to take a customer-oriented approach in defining product-markets and analyzing market structure (Day et.al. 1979, Srivastava et.al. 1984). Additionally, with much competitive activity currently devoted to psychological positioning (Ries and Trout 1986), consumer research can facilitate the evaluation of positioning efforts by studying consumer perceptions of competitive advertising and competitive pricing, and by studying such phenomena as comparison shopping.

Finally, with the accelerated pace of competitive and technological change, the trend in marketing practice has been toward using behavior modification strategies rather than persuasion strategies in attempting to influence consumers (Markin 1977, Nord and Peter 1980). Thus, we predict that the future emphasis of consumer research may be less on the study of perceptions, cognitions, and attitudes and more on the study of actual behavior and behavior modification techniques. Early focus on behavior modification has included research on foot-in-the-door techniques (e.g. Scott 1977, Hansen and Robinson 1980) and research on the effectiveness of incentives in fostering purchase and repeat purchase behavior (e.g. Scott 1976). Additionally, some recent articles have taken a classical conditioning perspective (Gorn 1982, Allen and Madden 1985, Bierley et.al. 1985). Evidence of a growing interest in actual consumption behavior is provided by several recent calls for research on consumption experience (Jacoby 1978, Sheth 1982, Holbrook and Hirschman 1982, Belk 1984b, Holbrook 1985, Sheth 1985), and current interest in naturalistic inquiry (Hirschman 1986).

Along with these forecasts, however, we also predict that as the adaptive perspective gains support in marketing, consumer behavior may be faced with a serious dilemma. As an integral part of marketing, the subdiscipline of consumer behavior will undoubtedly attempt to provide research relevant to marketings' needs. This will necessitate an emphasis on aggregate consumer behavior and increased borrowing from the social sciences (Kollat et.al. 1972, Sheth 1972, Nicosia and Mayer 1976, Engel 1980, Kassarjian 1982, Sheth 1982, Zielinski and Robertson 1982). However, it is likely that many consumer researchers will hesitate to abandon the focus on individual behavior and the scientific traditions learned from the behavioral sciences. Thus, it is not certain that consumer behavior will automatically follow marketing as it has in the past. It is perhaps more probable that consumer research will become polarized. While marketing continues to study consumer behavior from its own perspectives and investigate topics relevant to its own needs, the science of consumer behavior may emerge as an independent discipline continuing to focus on individual consumer behavior.

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FIGURE ONE

MARKETING AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOR FOCUS ON:

RELIANCE ON:	AGGREGATE MARKET BEHAVIOR	INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR
SOCIAL SCIENCES	Era One Classical Marketing a. Commodity School b. Functional School c. Institutional School d. Regional School Parallel Consumer Behavior a. Consumption Economics b. Retail Patronage	Era Two Managerial Marketing a. Managerial School b. Social Exchange School Parallel Consumer Behavior a. Brand Loyalty b. Opinion Leadership c. Family Life Cycle d. Demographics and Socioeconomics
BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES	Era Four Adaptive Marketing a. Macromarketing School b. Strategic Planning School Parallel Consumer Behavior a. Global Consumer Behavior b. Retaining Existing Customers c. Consumer Perception of Competition d. Behavior Modification and Focus on Behavior	Era Three Behavioral Marketing a. Organizational Dynamics School b. Consumerism School c. Buyer Behavior School Parallel Consumer Behavior a. Consumer Buying Behavior b. Organizational Buying Behavior c. Motivation Research d. Personality and Psychographics f. Attitude Research g. Information Processing h. Involvement