

**DOKUZ EYLÜL UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
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**HEDONIC CONSUMPTION: CONFIRMATION OF THE
SCALE AND ANALYZING THE EFFECTS OF
DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND
AN APPLICATION IN İZMİR BY USING LISREL**

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this master's thesis titled as **“HEDONIC CONSUMPTION: CONFIRMATION OF THE SCALE AND ANALYZING THE EFFECTS OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND AN APPLICATION IN İZMİR BY USING LISREL”** has been written by myself without applying the help that can be contrary to academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that all materials benefited in this thesis consist of the mentioned recourses in the reference list. I verify all these with my honor.

.././.....

Ezgi KARATAŞ

ÖZET

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

Hedonik Tüketim: Ölçeğin Doğrulanması ve Demografik Özelliklerin Hedonik Tüketim Üzerine Etkisinin İncelenmesi ve İzmir İlinde LISREL Kullanılarak Yapılan Bir Uygulama

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Günümüzde pazarlamanın ulaştığı noktada, tüketici odak noktası olmuş ve tüketici istek ve ihtiyaçlarını anlamak giderek önem kazanmıştır. Tüketiciler sadece rasyonel şekilde davranmadıkları için tüketici istek ve ihtiyaçlarını anlamak oldukça zordur. Tüketiciler, tüketim deneyimlerinde aynı zamanda haz almak da isterler. Haz alma isteği yeni ve popüler bir terim olan hedonik (hazcı) tüketim kavramının ortaya çıkmasına neden olmuştur.

Tüketicileri anlamada, hedonik tüketim davranışlarını çözümlemek çok önemlidir. Hedonik tüketimin ölçülmesinde kullanılan pek çok ölçek bulunmaktadır. Bu ölçekler içinde en bilineni Arnold ve Reynolds (2003) tarafından geliştirilen ve hedonik tüketim nedenlerini maceracı, memnuniyet, rol, sosyal, değer ve fikir olarak altı grupta toplayan ölçektir. Bu çalışmanın amacı hedonik tüketim ölçeğinin doğrulanması ve demografik özelliklerin tüketicilerin hedonik tüketim davranışları üzerine etkisini ölçmektir.

Çalışmanın teorik bölümü tüketici davranışı kavramı, tüketici davranış modelleri, tüketici karar süreci aşamaları, tüketici davranışlarını etkileyen faktörler, tüketim çeşitleri, hedonik tüketim ve hedonik tüketimin nedenleri üzerine yapılan literatür taramasını kapsamaktadır.

Literatür taramasını temel alarak oluşturulan anket uygulaması İzmir ilinde 255 katılımcıya uygulanmıştır. LISREL kullanılarak yapılan doğrulayıcı faktör analizi sonuçlarına göre, Arnold ve Reynolds (2003) tarafından önerilen altı hedonik tüketim nedeninin beş faktöre (maceracı ve memnuniyet, rol, sosyal, değer ve fikir) indirgenmesi önerilmektedir. Ayrıca SPSS 16.0 kullanılarak demografik faktörlerin hedonik tüketime etkisi ölçülmüş ve demografik faktörlerden sadece cinsiyetin hedonik tüketimde anlamlı fark yarattığı belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Tüketici Davranışı, Hedonizm, Hedonik Tüketim, Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi

ABSTRACT

Master's Thesis

Hedonic Consumption: Confirmation of the Scale and Analyzing the Effects of Demographic Factors and an Application in Izmir by Using LISREL

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At the point where today's marketing reached, the consumer has become the focus point and understanding the needs and wants of consumers come into prominence. It is very hard to understand the needs and wants of consumers because they do not just behave in a rational manner. They also try to take pleasure from their consumption experiences. The desire of pleasure taking created a new and popular concept which is called as hedonic consumption.

To understand consumers, it is very important to understand their hedonic consumption behaviors. There are a number of scales that measures hedonic consumption. The most popular of those scales are the scale of Arnold and Reynolds (2003)'s scale which suggests that the reasons of hedonic consumption can be grouped under six categories as: adventure, gratification, role, social, value and idea. The aim of this study is confirmation of the hedonic consumption scale and investigation of the effect of demographics on hedonic consumption behavior of consumers.

The theoretical parts of the study covers the literature review on the concept of consumer behavior, consumer behavior models, stages in consumer decision process, factors affecting consumer behavior, types of consumption, hedonism, hedonic consumption and reasons of hedonic consumption.

With taking the literature review into consideration, a questionnaire was prepared and an application was made to 255 participants from Izmir. Based on confirmatory factor analysis, using LISREL, it was suggested that the original scale of Arnold and Reynolds (2003) which includes six reasons of hedonic shopping should be grouped under five dimensions (adventure and gratification, role, value, social, idea). Also, the effect of demographic factors on hedonic consumption was analyzed by using SPSS 16.0 and it was found that only gender created a significant difference on hedonic consumption.

Keywords: Consumer Behavior, Hedonism, Hedonic Consumption, Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

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ABBREVIATIONS

US	unconditional stimulus
CS	conditional stimulus
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
N. P.	No Publisher
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
LISREL	Linear Structural Relationships Statistical Program
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
CFI	Comparative fit index
GFI	Goodness of fit index
SRMR	Standardized root mean square residuals
AGFI	Adjusted goodness of fit index
AdvGra	Combined factor of Adventure and Gratification

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INTRODUCTION

At the term of scarcity of production, the attention was given to production. After mass production, sales became important. As competition increased, marketing orientation was focused and with today's societal sensitivity, marketing focus has been on societal marketing (İslamoğlu, 2008). With the changes in marketing, the focus point is shifted from product to consumer. Today, the businesses need to give importance to the needs and wants of their customers to be successful at their highly competitive environments.

As time passes, the behaviors of consumers also changed, as they started to make their consumptions not for just rational reasons. The consumption behaviors became more emotional. Consumers rather than just buying and consuming what they need, they started to look for taking pleasure from their choices and consumption behaviors. In this case, it was seen that the concept of hedonic consumption became an ever-increasingly researched topic.

This study which aims to make a confirmation of the hedonic consumption scale and investigate the effect of demographics on hedonic consumption behavior of consumers includes three chapters.

First chapter includes topics of consumer behavior concept, interdisciplinary approaches in consumer behavior explanatory (traditional) and descriptive (modern) consumer behavior models, evaluation of five stages of consumer behavior (which are problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and postpurchase behavior), cultural, social, personal and psychological factors affecting consumer behavior, values in consumer behavior and types of consumer behavior.

At the second chapter of the study, pleasure, paradox of hedonism, theories of hedonism, traditional versus modern hedonism, hedonic consumption and reasons of hedonic consumption topics were covered.

In the third chapter, to measure the effect of demographics on hedonic consumption and confirmation of the hedonic consumption scale which was developed by Arnold and Reynolds (2003), a questionnaire was applied to 255 participants at four shopping centers (Agora, Carrefoursa Karşıyaka, Forum Bornova and Kipa Gaziemir). The shopping centers were chosen from members of The Council of Shopping Centers. That chapter includes the importance and objective of the study, hypotheses that are going to be tested with the data gathered from application of questionnaire, data collection instruments and sampling design process, preparation of the questionnaire, conceptual model between independent and dependent variables, analysis of data, findings of confirmatory factor analysis and testing of the hypothesis.

The questionnaire was developed using the hedonic consumption scale suggested by Arnold and Reynolds (2003) and utilitarian consumption scale which was developed by Babin, Darden and Griffin (1991). The frequencies of demographic data were given and reliabilities and normalities of data were measured. After those tests were conducted, a first order and second order confirmatory factor analysis was made for testing the validity of hedonic consumption scale. After confirmation the effect of demographic factors on hedonic consumption were analyzed.

At the end of the study the results were interpreted and conclusion and recommendations for future researches were given.

CHAPTER ONE

CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

1.1. THE CONCEPT OF CONSUMER

The Latine words “consumere; con sumere”, mean “to use up entirely, to destroy” and “consumare; con summa” mean “to sum up, to bring to completion”. The English word consumption, which derives from those two words, entails both the act of destruction (which explains why it often seems to make more sense to speak of “consuming a meal”) and an act of creation (reaching a peak, achieving a promised fulfillment). So consumption has a two-sided meaning as both destroying (using up), and creating (making full use of) (Clarke, Doel and Housiaux, 2003: 2).

People in their daily lives; spend a big part of their time with consumption and the activities related with consumption. “Consumer”, as the consumption unit that constitutes market in marketing, has a broad description as “*individuals and groups that have a need to be satisfied, and the power and want to satisfy that need*” and includes lots of different parties as individuals, families, production and selling firms, corporations, public institutions and non-profit organizations (Mucuk, 1998: 74). From another view, consumer is “*any person who performs any of the prepurchase, purchase, or postpurchase activities*” (McNeal, 2007: 11). Also the term consumer is defined in Consumer Protection Law with article number 4077 in Turkish Constitution as “*real person or legal entity that owns, uses or utilizes a product or service, for noncommercial or nonprofessional purposes*” (www.mevzuat.adalet.gov.tr/html/862.html).

According to Aytuğ (1997: 16), consumers are the focus point of marketing and firms can only be successful when they manufacture products or services according to the needs and wants of consumers and when they satisfy their consumers. Consumers determine the actions of businesses, because consumers buy the services or products that the firm offers and they are the ones that accept or reject the marketing mix offered by the firm to the market.

Consumers make purchases on their own wishes. Their purchases are to satisfy the needs and wants. They decide according to the decision criteria that they have already developed and they evaluate their choices at the end of consumption own by own (İslamoğlu, 2003: 5)

The intensive competition forces the businesses and organizations to study consumers and consumer behavior. In these studies, the researchers look for the answers of the questions as listed below (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 2004: 6).

- ~ What do the consumers think about our and our competitors' products?
- ~ How do the consumers use our and our competitors' products and services?
- ~ What are the consumer's attitudes towards our products and advertisements?
- ~ What do the consumers think about their roles in society and in their families?
- ~ What are the fears and dreams of consumers about themselves and about their families? etc.

1.2. CONSUMER BEHAVIOR CONCEPT

Behavior is “*all the actions that are in an organism and made by an organism*” (Özkalp et al., 2006: 297). Also it is defined by Wittig (2001: 13) as “*the observable or measurable response of a person or animal*”. Throughout human history, people have sought ways to make sense of the world, and there have been many attempts to formalize the understanding of behavior. Some psychologists would interpret ‘behavior’ to mean both overt responses and conscious experience, that is, actions and thoughts or feelings; while others would be more restrictive,

omitting thoughts and feelings because they cannot be directly observed. (Glassman and Hadad, 2009: 2 – 3).

Each person looks and sees the world from his or her own point of view and behaves in a unique manner. For example; the meaning and value of a house is different for an architect, for a commission merchant, for a thief or for an artist. The commission merchant thinks about money that will be on hand at the end of the sale of a house. The thief thinks about how the house will be opened and how many valuable items can be found in the house. The architect thinks about the structure of the house and how to decorate the house. In hence, the behaviors of them will change according to those views (Özkalp et al., 2006: 15).

Using systematic approaches, it is possible to forecast the behaviors of people. The behavioral sciences help to observe and generalize the behaviors (Özkalp and Kirel; 2001: 18).

American Marketing Society defines consumer behavior as *“the dynamic interaction of affect and cognition, behavior, and the environment by which human beings conduct the exchange aspects of their lives”* (http://www.marketingpower.com/_layouts/Dictionary.aspx?dLetter=C). The domain of consumer behavior is illustrated in Figure 1.

Consumer behavior, as an applied science, tries to answer the questions below (Odabaşı and Barış, 2002: 16);

- ~ Who are the consumers of our market?
- ~ What, when, why and from where do they buy?
- ~ With whom is the purchase decision related?

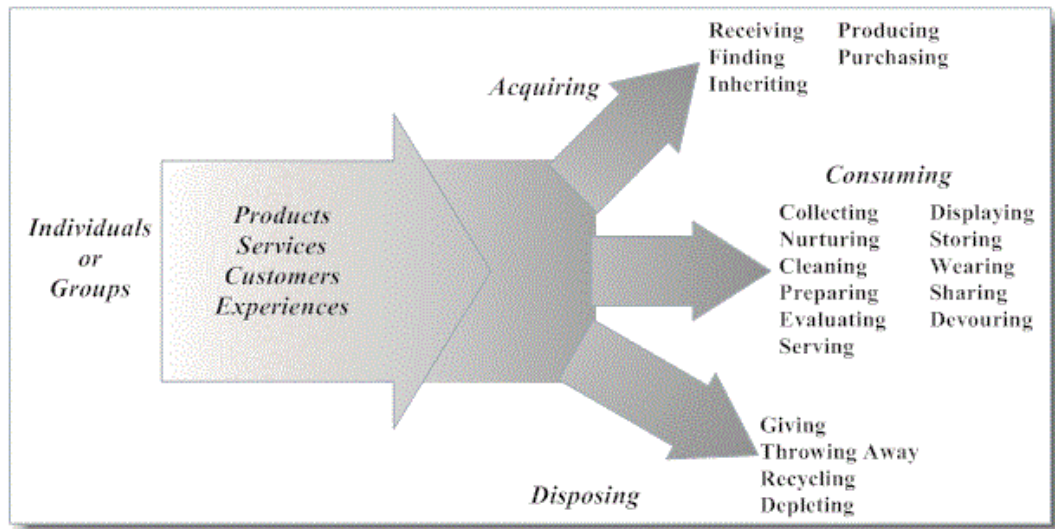


Figure 1. The Domain of Consumer Behavior

Source: Arnould, Price and Zinkhan, 2002, p. 6

- ~ What is the amount and frequency of the consumers' purchases?
- ~ How do the consumers use and dispose their purchases?

There are lots of studies, books and researches on consumer behavior that tries to investigate and explain consumer behavior. There are many reasons to study consumer behavior. According to McNeal (2007: 12–22), the most important reasons are as listed below;

a. Most of the behaviors of people are consumption behavior

A person, in his/her daily life, goes to school, goes to work, sleeps, eats, takes bath, drives, plays games with friends etc. and in all those activities, he / she thinks about some goods and services, asks others, buys and uses some goods and services.

b. Consumer behavior is practiced for 24 hours in 7 days throughout a year.

Starting from birth, consumers are using goods and services in all of their activities, so consumer behavior is practiced all the time throughout consumers' lives.

c. Consumer behavior can be for benefits of other people

When people are purchasing, they look for the product or service which will make them happy, satisfied, contented, successful, safe and healthy. Consumer behavior may also be for the benefit of others like consuming on behalf of children (when mom or some other caretaker purchases for all the needs of babies), on behalf of family (includes buying food, clothing, shelter etc. as household), on behalf of coworkers (for example, buying coffee, copiers, meals for coworkers), on behalf of impaired (this may mean buying for impaired family members or friends, for those in hospitals and nursing homes, and for those who can barely function independently but have their own household.), etc.

d. Consumer behavior is for self image

When people are making a purchase, one of the main factors influencing their purchase decision would be how they see themselves. Products, in most of the cases brands, are identified with the images or personalities of people who use them. Consumer behavior, because of the products and services used, is interrelated with self image.

e. **Consumer behavior is important to understand and improve the lives of people**

People in their lives have pleasing, gratifying and rewarding consumption activities as watching a film, buying the foods that they like, and taking gifts for the people they love, whereas they also have some unpleasant consumption tasks as going to dentist to have a tooth out, paying tax of their car and operating a funeral for a person. But in all of those activities, they look for making their activities easier and with minimum time loss. So studying consumer behavior results with the benefits for people by understanding their needs and wants better and improve the lives of them.

f. **Consumer behavior directs marketers**

When marketers understand the needs and wants of consumers, they would try to behave according to those results. Because of that reason, consumer behavior helps the marketers to be more successful in their market by directing them to behave according to the wishes of consumers.

1.3. INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACHES IN CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

Consumer behavior, as a new and young field, is being improved day by day and is being affected from number of disciplines. People from different sciences and departments (such as communication, economics, sociology, psychology, educational sciences etc.) are studying on consumer behavior. Consumer behavior, depending on the area of research, will be affected from those departments in different ways and at different levels. The disciplines that are using consumer behavior can be grouped according to their focus on micro versus macro consumer behavior. *Macro approach (social approach)* is needed for the consumption matters that are met by the society like making the distribution of the economic resources of the society and using those resources. The studies that are based on macro approaches would be for the wealth of society as making population planning, anti-drug strategies, solution of the traffic

problem, etc. In *micro approach (individual approach)* the consumer behavior is mainly built on business success. As an approach that is based on individual consumers, the success of businesses and marketing depends on their application of consumer behavior with a scientific way (Odabaşı and Barış, 2002: 40; Solomon, 2007: 34; Solomon, Bamossy and Askegaard, 2006: 24).

The basic fields of science working on consumer behavior and the level of their focus on consumer behavior are illustrated below.

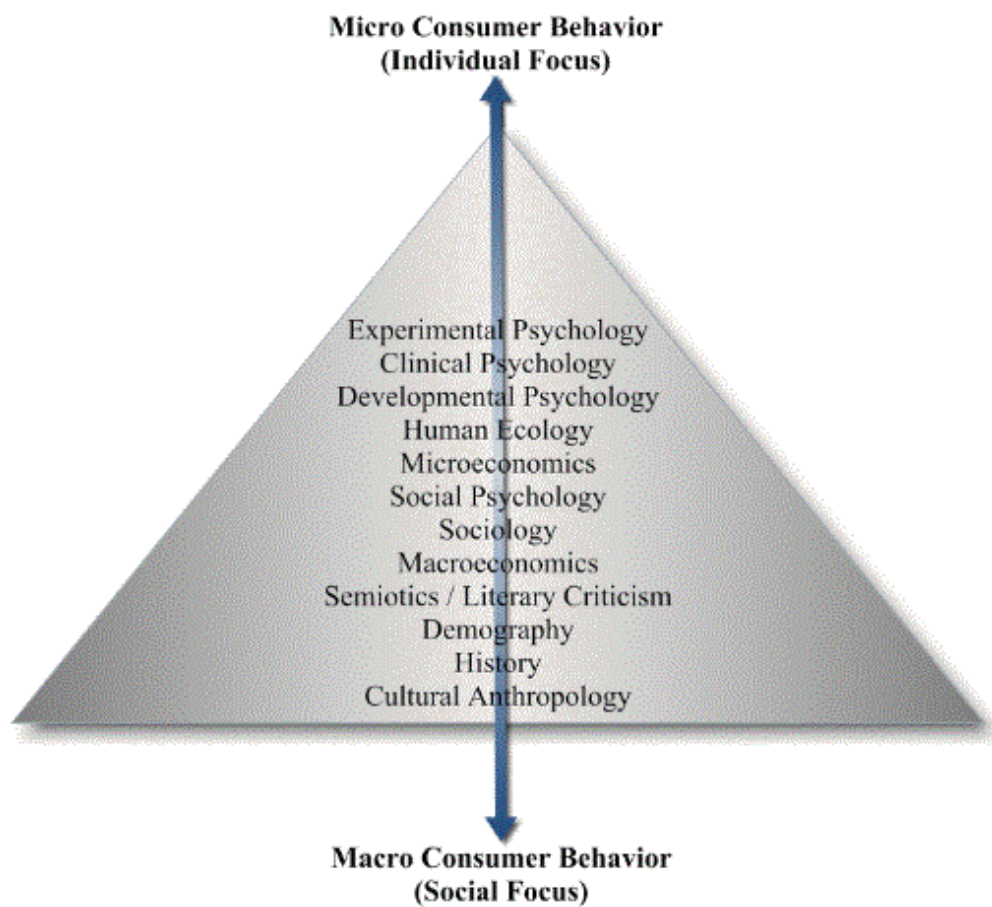


Figure 2. The Pyramid of Consumer Behavior

Source: Solomon et al., 2006, p. 24

The pyramid shows some of the disciplines that studies consumer behavior. The disciplines as experimental psychology, clinical psychology and developmental psychology studies micro consumer behavior because they are working on individuals. On the other hand, as disciplines switch to social focus, they move from

micro consumer behavior to macro consumer behavior. For example, disciplines such as history and anthropology make investigations that interest the society rather than individuals.

1.4. CONSUMER BEHAVIOR MODELS

A model is “*simplification of reality with unnecessary detail discarded so that the fundamentals can be seen clearly*” (Hannagan, 2002: 21). Also according to Macmillan and Tampoe (2000: 148) a model is “*the representation of reality as understood by the model builder*”. It attempts to identify the main and secondary influencers associated with an issue and then to hypothesize the causal links between these different influencers so that possible future outcomes can be determined. When the issue is investigated from consumer behavior perspective “consumer behavior model” is “*the rational way that describes or defines how the consumers carry out the consumption actions and the ways those behaviors arise*” (İslamoğlu, 2003: 9).

To define and explain consumer behavior, a number of models were developed. Consumer behavior models can be grouped under two main categories as *explanatory or traditional models* and *modern or descriptive models*. The explanatory models describe the consumer behavior based on motivations: Marshall’s Economic Model is based on economic motivations, Pavlov’s Model is based on learning theory, Freud’s Model is based on psychological motivations and Veblen’s Model is based on social psychology. Different than explanatory models, the modern models take the consumer buying decision process as a problem solving process which is being affected from internal and external factors (İslamoğlu, 2003: 10 – 15).

1.4.1. Explanatory (Traditional) Models

Explanatory models are Marshall’s Economic Model, Pavlov’s Learning Model, Freud’s Psychoanalytical Model and Veblen’s Socio-Psychological Model.

1.4.1.1. Marshall's Economic Model

According to the economists; people, as consumers, are rational units and are conscious when making consumption decisions. The model says that, consumers have profound knowledge on the brands and products, and because they are rational, they behave in a way that would provide the highest satisfaction on the basis of their limited budget. At the process, they act by the equalization of marginal benefit principle, which means that consumers would buy the product till the ratio, which is found by dividing the product's marginal benefit over the cost of the product, equals to the ratio of another product. Because of that reason, consumers will purchase the products that have the lowest prices.

The main criticism to this model is, it does not include the psychological, sociological and emotional effects on the consumer's preferences.

1.4.1.2. Pavlov's Learning Model

The Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov, at the turn of twentieth century, started to understand the physiology of digestion and took Nobel Prize in 1904 for his studies. While he was studying on the topic, he noticed what he called as "psychic salivation" which is "*salivation of a dog before it was actually given food*" (Glassman and Hadad, 2009: 116).

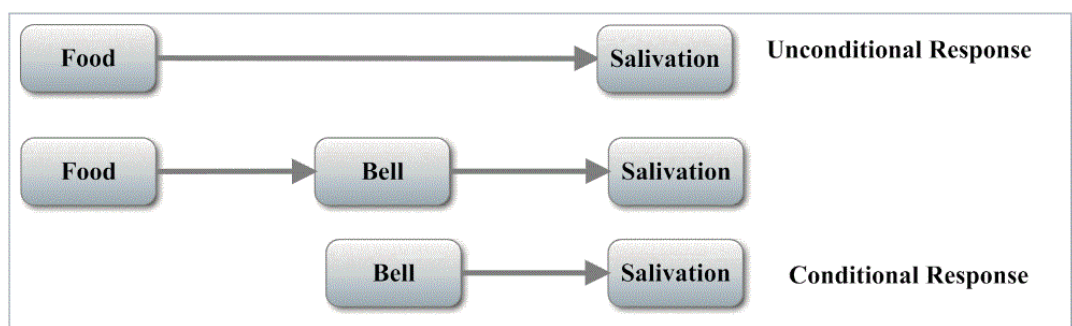


Figure 3. Unconditional and Conditional Responses

Source: Jordan, Carlile and Stack, 2008, p. 22

In the Figure 3, the Pavlov's well known classical experiments are illustrated. According to Pavlov, when a dog salivates to the smell of the food, it will be "unconditional response" because the dog will naturally react to the food which is "unconditional stimulus (abbreviated as US)". When prior to providing a food, if a bell is rung after some repetitions the dog will salivate and will act in a "conditional response" when it hears the ring which has become a conditional stimulus (abbreviated as CS). (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 2002: 148)

The types of conditional responses can be defined as (Wittig, 2001: 110);

- ~ ***Simultaneous conditioning:*** CS and US are represented exactly at the same time. For example, bell and the food will be represented meanwhile.
- ~ ***Delayed conditioning:*** CS comes first and stays until US is presented. For example, bell comes first and is rung until the food is presented.
- ~ ***Trace Conditioning:*** CS comes and goes before US is presented. For example, the bell will ring and then the food will be presented.
- ~ ***Backward conditioning:*** US comes before CS. For example, food will be presented before the bell is rung.
- ~ ***Temporal conditioning:*** CS in this situation is a constant time period such as five minutes. The food is presented every five minutes.

In Pavlov's Learning Model, learning is based on reflections. According to him, people are learning passively and having some reflections. For that reason, it faced with criticisms. The people's behaviors are passing through a mental evaluation process rather than physiologic conditioning.

The Pavlov's experiments are important for consumer behavior researches for three reasons (Koç, 2007: 110–111):

a. Repetition

At the beginning of Pavlov's experiments, ring and meal pairing was made many times for dogs to get accustomed to salivate after bell is rung. That situation is similar for customers, too. For an advertisement to create an effect on customers or to be learned by customers, the message of advertisement should be repeated many times. Also, one more effect of repetition is it creates liking. Repetition overcomes ambiguity, foreignness and the situation of not recognizing. When an advertisement is repeated, consumers will feel more familiar to the product or service.

b. Stimulus Generalization

When Pavlov was making researches on dogs, he noticed that the dogs were making generalizations and they were salivating to the sounds similar to the ring. In consumer behavior and marketing implications, the stimulus generalization principle is practiced by using the famous people in advertisements. In general, when consumer sees a famous person in an advertisement, he/she also remembers the brand and the products of that brand. Secondly, the businesses use generalization principle by using the same brand name when introducing a different product to the market. When consumers see a brand they already know on a new product, they will evaluate the product according to the previous experiences of themselves with that brand.

c. Stimulus Discrimination

The businesses want their product to be unique. They try to create a powerful brand image and avoid generalizations and confusion with other brands. For that reason, they use differentiation and try to create an image pointing out differences to consumers. Firms, to create stimulus discrimination and to

avoid stimulus generalization, use comparative advertisements and give messages like “want our brand from stores”.

In Pavlov’s learning model, there is a reflective conditioning and learning. According to that theory, people learn passively and develop reactions. That theory is under criticism because, a big portion of people’s behaviors are given after a mental evaluation process rather than physiologic conditioning.

1.4.1.3. Freud’s Psychoanalytical Model

Sigmund Freud, as a physician, in his early studies at the beginning of 1900s, was studying on dealing with some mental illnesses, like hysteria and neuroses, and when he was developing therapeutic techniques, a theory of personality emerged from his studies. The theory and the model was then printed in his book “Ego and The Id” in 1923 (Glassman and Hadad, 2009: 234; Wittig, 2001: 213–214).

Freud combined basic needs and wants and the influence of the society in a three phased model as (Feist and Feist, 2006: 27– 31; Glassman and Hadad, 2009: 234–236; Macionis, 2008: 118–119):

- ~ **Id:** The most primitive part of the mind, called as “das Es” which is translated to English as “id”, represents the human beings’ basic drives (biological drives) which are unconscious and which demands to be satisfied immediately. The id strives to reduce tension by satisfying the basic needs. When looked from that perspective, because its core is seeking pleasure, it works according to “*pleasure principle*”.

- ~ **Ego:** “Das Ich” or translated to English as “ego” not just interested in biological needs but also takes the society’s approval into consideration. A person can not be thought separate from society in real life so ego works according to “*reality principle*”. Ego needs to solve the conflict

between the pure biological needs and the views of society so it has a complex task.

- ~ **Superego:** “Das Uber-Ich” which is called as “superego” in English, is the cultural values and norms internalized by an individual. It works according to “*moralistic and idealistic principles*”, because it represents the moral and ideal aspects of personality.

Most of the time the conflict between superego and id makes people feel under stress. There are some basic incentives for a person like sexual incentives which is called by Freud as “lipido”. This psychic energy is the motivation for all aspects and can be transformed from its original instinctive form through socialization. The lipido has two parts as (Cloninger, 2004: 41):

- ~ **Eros** – the life instinct- which motivates life–maintaining behaviors and love.
- ~ **Thanatos** – the death instinct – which is the ultimate release from tension of living.

A portion of consumer’s consumption behaviors are psychological and changing consumption patterns can be a result of being dissatisfied psychologically. Using Freud’s Model can help consumer researchers to find the subliminal reasons of such changes (İslamoğlu, 2003: 13).

1.4.1.4. Veblen’s Socio–Psychological Model

Thorstein Veblen, in his book “The Theory of the Leisure Class” which was published in 1975, mentioned the role of culture in explanation of consumption behaviors and he thought that just the economic understandings would not be enough to explain the complexities of modern life and consumption behaviors of people. (Mansvelt, 2005: 36–37). Veblen defines the person as a social identity, who is affected from the cultural values of the society he/she is in and who moves according

to the standards and norms of the group and culture which he/she is included (Aytuğ; 1997: 23–24; İslamoğlu, 2003: 14).

According to Veblen, the motivation behind the consumption is “emulation” and “to be accepted from others and upper classes”. The leisure class wants to be emulated according to him and the other social classes emulate it as cited in Ritzer (2001: 210–211).

Tıǧlı and Akyazgan (2003: 24) say that people compete with each other by buying infrequent items and a product’s prestige is a function of the social status of its users. People consume to reach the reference group’s values and standards by surpassing their own groups. In other words Veblen’s socio–psychological model determines the main reason of consumption behavior as conspicuous consumption which means “the purchase of expensive luxury goods whose functional advantage, over their non–luxury counterparts is insufficient to warrant the price premium”. Conspicuous consumption is intended to capture the way in which knowledge of what a person consumes becomes a simple and immediate means of comparing one person with another because it is a way to show off one’s position in the network of one’s social circle (Ammi, 2007: 249)

1.4.2. Modern (Descriptive) Models

There are a series of modern models in literature and they have similarities and differences when analyzed. The similarities are as listed below (İslamoğlu, 2003: 15):

- a.** Modern models take the buying decision as a process that includes lots of steps.
- b.** Modern models take the consumer decision process as a problem solving process.

- c. Modern models assume that the consumer buying process is being affected from external and internal factors.
- d. Modern models do not take all consumer buying processes as having the same importance level of problem solving.

The main difference of those models is that, when looking at the process each of them try to take a more closer view to the external and internal environments of the process by taking different factors into consideration. (Koç, 2007: 249). The basic descriptive models are explained below.

1.4.2.1. Nicosia Model

In Nicosia model, which was developed in 1966, the consumer buying behavior is shown in a flow diagram. The steps are summarized under four stages and show how a consumer may respond to the communication related to a new product as given below.

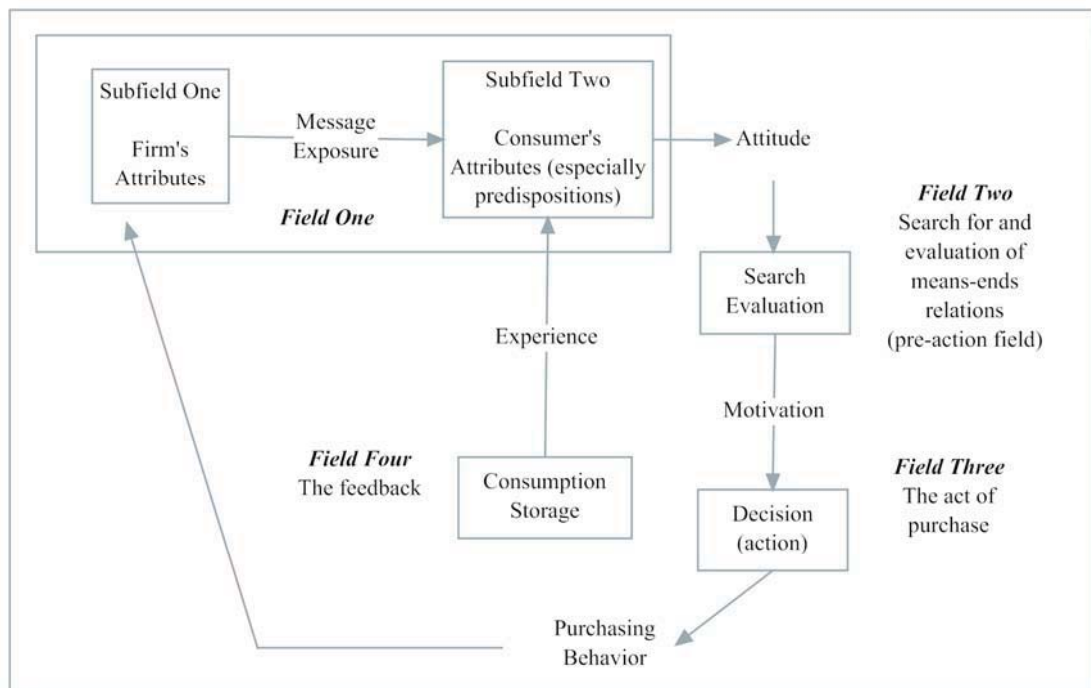


Figure 4: Nicosia Model of Consumer Behavior

Source: Swarbrooke and Horner, 2007, p. 42

The first field of the model includes the organization's attempts to communicate with consumers, and the consumers' tendency to act in a certain way. The second field is searching relevant information and evaluation of brand and firm alternatives. After the consumer is motivated to buy from a particular firm/brand, the act of purchase occurs and the third phase finishes. The final field consists of feedback from the purchase experience, as; one feedback can be sent to the firm as sales and profit and second feedback can be sent to the memories of consumers for creation of experience (Majumbar, 2010: 228–229; Swarbrooke and Horner, 2007: 42)

The main criticism about Nicosia model was that it was not offering any detailed explanation of internal factors which may affect the personality of consumers and how the consumers develop attitude towards brands (Aytuğ, 1997: 24–25; Gilligan and Wilson, 2003: 242; Koç, 2007: 251).

1.4.2.2. Engel, Kollat and Blackwell Model

This model was first introduced in 1968, and in 1973 and 1978 it was revised by the researchers. The model was created to describe the increasing knowledge concerning consumer behavior. There are five stages in the latest version of the model which are as; Input, Information Processing, Decision Process, Decision Process Variables and External Influences; which could be seen in the Figure 5. The starting point of the model is consumer's perception of a want that must be satisfied. After the perception process, the external and internal information search takes place till the end stages of the process (Gilligan and Wilson, 2003: 242; Koç, 2007: 250–251).

According to the model, there are five important steps of consumer decision making (Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell, 1978: 21–32);

- a. **Problem recognition:** The recognition occurs when an individual perceives a difference between ideal state and actual state of affairs,

because of two basic sources: (1) external stimuli of some sort and (2) motive activation.

- b. Search:** When the problem is recognized, the consumer must look for available alternatives for action. The first step is an internal search to determine whether the needed information is available in the memory of consumer. If not, external search is activated. At that step it is very important to clarify how people make sense of incoming information. The active memory that collects information can *expose* the information (like the shopping of a housewife; as she walks between the shelves and exposed to a variety of stimuli), can *attend* the information (like when the housewife scans the shelves, her eyes may stop at a display of a tomato soup) or message *reception* may occur (like the housewife can see the brand that she bought previously and can remember her experiences about that brand).
- c. Evaluative criteria:** *“The specifications and standards used by consumers to evaluate products and brands like the desired outcomes from choice”* are called as evaluative criteria and the evaluative criteria is directly affected from motives. The evaluative criteria is linked to a product or brand with the beliefs. Once beliefs are changed, it will affect the attitudes. Intentions intervenes attitudes and behavior.
- d. Choice:** Choice is *“the final selection made from the available alternatives”*. Choice will generally follow the intention but perceived unanticipated circumstances can serve as a barrier like change in income, unavailability of chosen product, etc.

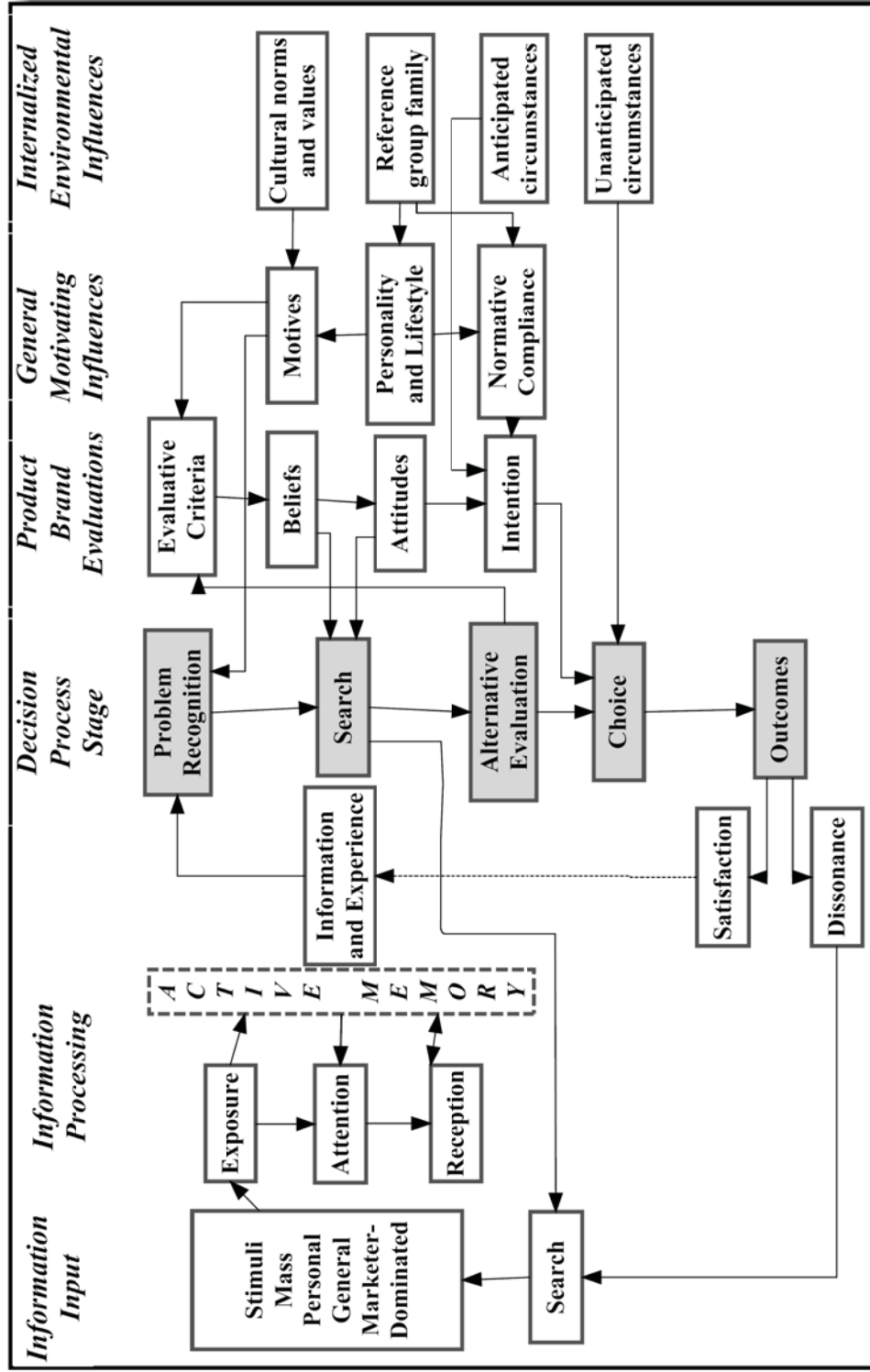


Figure 5. Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell Model of Consumer Behavior

Source: Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell, 1978, p. 32

- e. **Outcomes:** Two outcomes of choice is satisfaction and post decision dissonance. In post decision dissonance, the consumer believes that the unchosen alternatives have desirable attributes. In such situations, post decision search for information is not unusual.

It was said by researchers that this model can be applied to all levels of consumer problem solving and can involve all types of consumer choice strategies. For a strategist, strategy and result relation is very important. The model received lots of criticisms, because there is no explanation in the model about when and why the positive or negative results will occur and how the positive and negative results would be used (Gilligan and Wilson, 2003: 242; Koç, 2007: 250–251).

1.4.2.3. Howard and Sheth Model

This model consists of four parts whereas Engel, Kollat and Blackwell Model consists of five parts. The model is summarized as an information process. According to Tek and Orel (2008: 184), the model says that each consumption behavior is a unique behavior. For example, there are huge differences between buying a tooth paste, a tennis racket, a computer and an automobile because the consumer buying process does not occur at the same density in all purchases.

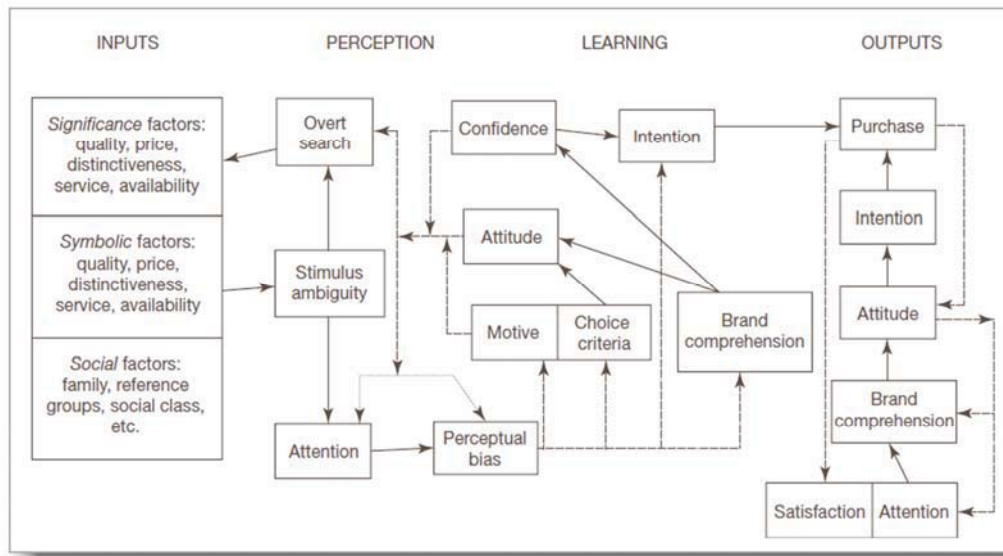


Figure 6. Howard–Sheth Model of Consumer Behavior

Source: Varey, 2002, p. 48

The model relies on four major components as (Aytuğ, 1997: 25; Majumbar, 2010: 228–229; Naik and Reddy, 1999: 15–16; Varey, 2002: 48);

- a. **Inputs:** Input consists of three types of stimuli in consumer's mind which are *significance factors* (which are the physical characteristics of a brand as quality, price, availability, etc.), *symbolic factors* (which are the verbal or visual product characteristics furnished by the marketer in the form of product or brand information) and *social factors* (that includes the social environment of consumer like family, social class or reference group). These stimuli together provide a set of information about the product category or specific brands in the minds of consumers.

- b. **Perception:** Perception deals with the way that people perceive the information collected in the first phase. If the information collected does not create attention in the minds of consumers, the consumer is unclear about the meaning of information gathered (stimulus ambiguity), or the information gathered does not match with prior experiences of the consumer (perceptual bias) than an overt search for information about the product would be needed.

- c. **Learning:** This phase includes all the stages from motivation to buy a product, to consumers' satisfaction of buying the product. The motives are '*representatives of goals that the buyer seeks to achieve in buying practice*'. Also attitudes towards the products and brands results, in an arrangement of an order of preference regarding the brands and products. To feel confidence when a brand is chosen, the match of choice criteria with consumers' preferences, the knowledge about the existence and characteristics of the brands and the intention to buy leads the consumers to buy.

- d. **Output:** The last part includes outputs, which include not just the purchase itself but also the implications for perception and learning and includes a set of responses from attention to purchase.

1.4.3. General Consumer Behavior Model

According to Aytuğ (1997: 24) the above models, including explanatory models, are accepted as important approaches to define consumer behavior. However, explanatory models define the behaviors from only one perspective. For that reason, explanatory models are viewed as inadequate. At the same time, they are considered to be simplified models creating practical benefits for researchers.

In the models it was assumed that when a consumer was attracted, he/she would automatically have a desire for a product and would purchase. Later, it was realized that after consumers recognize a need, attention and interest are more likely to arise (Varey, 2002: 47–48). According to Koç (2007: 249), although marketing researchers aim to present simpler consumer behavior models, it is not possible to do so, since there are many factors impacting consumer behavior. So, the researchers started to work on modern models that include as many variables as possible affecting consumer buying behavior.

It is possible to show a general consumer behavior model by combining explanatory and modern models, as shown in Figure 7. The model is designed to tie together many of the ideas on consumer decision making and consumption behavior. The shown four factors affect the consumer buying behavior and lead consumers to exhibit a certain type of behavior. It suggests that cultural, social, psychological and personal factors affect the buying behavior of consumers, which is a process that includes five steps as; problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and post purchase evaluation. Also, those factors are resources that provide information to businesses for market segmentation, target marketing and development of right marketing mixes for target market(s) (Odabaşı and Barış, 2002: 49).

According to İslamoğlu (2003: 18–19), there is a need for such a consumer behavior model because;

- ~ The new model shows all the stages and the factors affecting the stages.
- ~ The new model can help to define the needed information for marketing decisions.
- ~ The new model shows how to measure the variables that affect the consumer behavior
- ~ The new model helps to improve marketing strategies.

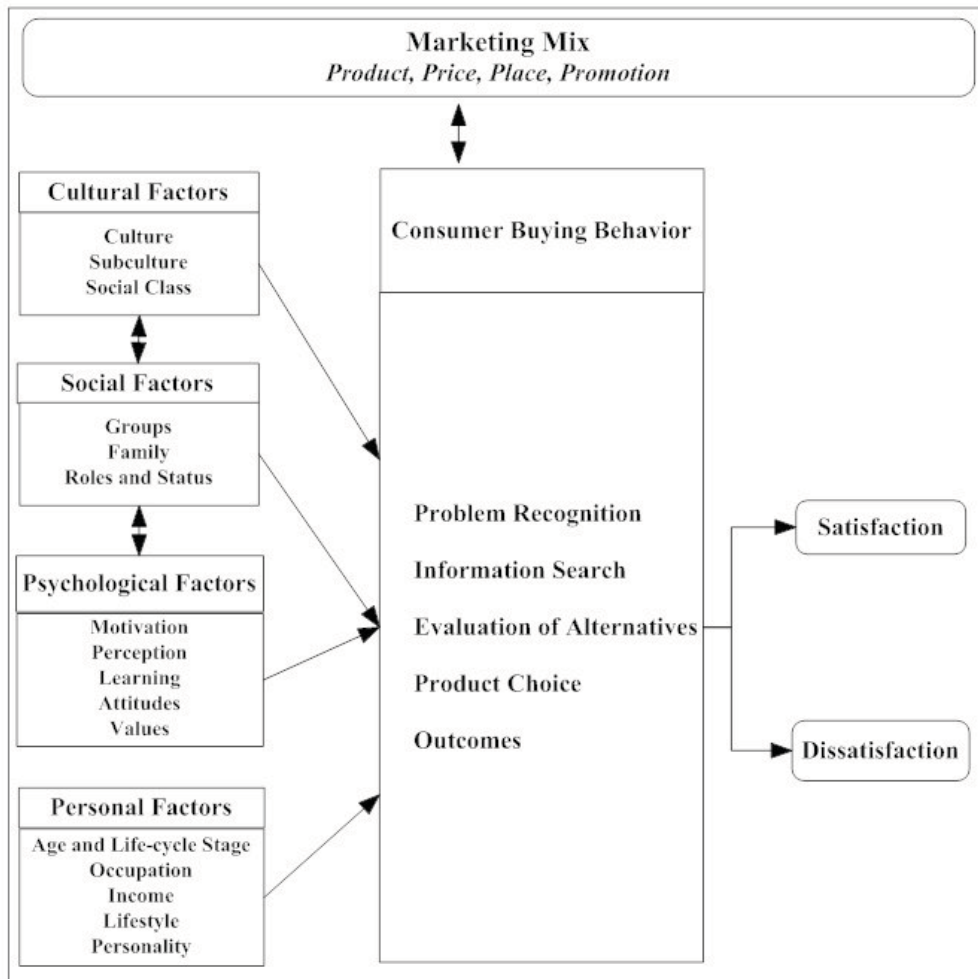


Figure 7. General Model of Consumer Behavior

Source: Odabaşı and Barış, 2002, p. 50

1.5. STAGES IN CONSUMER DECISION MAKING

After the factors that influence the buyers were taken into consideration, the process of how buyers give decision is the next step that needs to be evaluated. The process can be seen briefly at Figure 8.

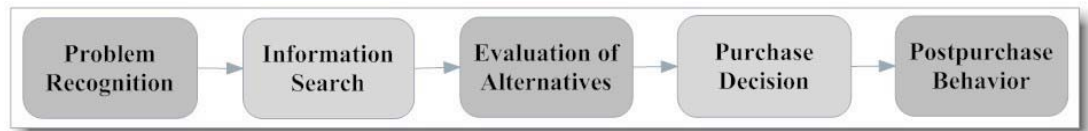


Figure 8. Buyer Decision Process

Source: Kotler and Armstrong, 2008, p. 147

1.5.1. Problem Recognition

The first stage of buying process is to recognize a problem. According to Hawkins, Best and Coney (2004: 504) problem recognition is “*the result of discrepancy between a desired state and an actual state that is sufficient to arouse and activate the decision process*”. An actual state is “*the way an individual perceives his or her feelings and situation to be at the present time*”. A desired state is “*the way an individual wants to feel or be at the present time*”. The problems can be active as consumer is aware of or will become aware or can be inactive as the consumer is not aware in normal course of events.

Solomon et al. (2006: 263 – 264) suggests that there are different ways for a need to be recognized. Firstly, when a consumer meets with a different or better product, it means that his/her actual state remains the same but the ideal state increases because of the changes of reference object that is aimed to own. This situation is called “opportunity recognition”. Secondly, the actual state can decrease by running out of a product, by buying a product that turns out not to satisfy needs adequately, or by creating new needs. These situations are called “need recognition”.

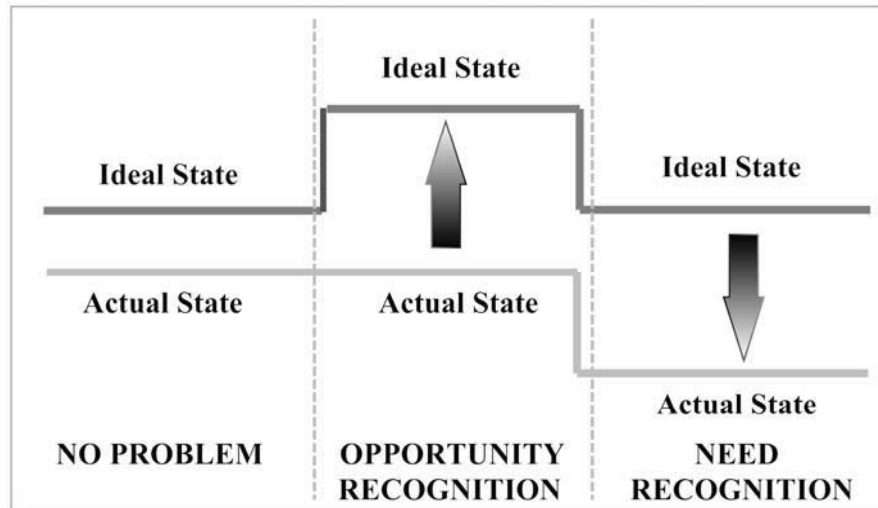


Figure 9. Problem Recognition: Shifts in Actual or Ideal States

Source: Solomon et al., 2006, p. 264

1.5.2. Information Search

After a need is recognized, people start to search whether there is a solution to their problem and if there is what it is. For a consumer to give a decision, he/she needs some information like (İslamoğlu, 2003: 30 – 31);

- ~ what the alternative solutions are
- ~ the appropriate evaluation criteria to solve the problem, and
- ~ the performance of each alternative and evaluation criteria.

According to Tek and Orel (2008: 193), the level of information search is based on the risk he/she perceives in buying the product or service. Risk may change from person to person. There are six basic types of risks a consumer may perceive:

- a. **Functional risk** is the risk about the performance of the product or service and creates the question “Is the product or service I buy will perform good?” in the minds of consumers
- b. **Physical Risk** is the risk about the damages the product can give to consumers.
- c. **Financial Risk** is about the budgets of consumers and whether they can afford to pay the product or service, or not.
- d. **Social Risk** is the risk about how the product or service will be evaluated by the social environment of the consumer.
- e. **Psychological Risk** is the risk about whether the consumers are relieved by buying the product.
- f. **Time Risk** is about the time consumers charge while buying the product or service.

To reduce the risk, people need to make search. When people are searching they can make internal/external search, prepurchase/ongoing search and deliberate/accidental search. The details are as written below.

1.5.2.1. Internal versus External Search

Internal search includes the search of internal sources that is comprised from the information of people from experiences and learning which is stored in the memory of the consumer. If the internal sources are enough, there would be no need to make external search. Like if a person is accustomed to buy a brand when a related need occurs, he/she will again buy from the same brand (Odabaşı and Barış, 2002: 359).

When the information from internal search is not enough to give a buying decision, consumers choose the way of making external search. İslamoğlu (2003: 33) lists the sources of external information as social groups (friends, reference groups, neighbors), newspapers, magazines, journals, books, professional people or organizations, experts, and the sales people of the brand and competitive brand.

1.5.2.2. Prepurchase versus Ongoing Search

When a person searches the information after he/she recognizes a need is called “prepurchase search”. The main objective is making a better purchase decision and getting the highest satisfaction from the product. Some people, to stay up to date and follow what happens in the market enjoy collecting information although they do not plan to buy the product in near future. This kind of search, which is called as “outgoing search”, helps people to build a bank of information for future use (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004: 556).

1.5.2.3. Deliberate versus Accidental Search

If the relevant information was searched on a previous occasion or experienced, it means that the information is a result of directed learning and it is a “deliberate search”. On the other hand, even though one does not look for any information, he/she would see an advertisement, hear a radio program, or see the package of a product. Without looking for any information, the consumer is ornamented by his/her environment. That kind of information collection is called “accidental search”. (Solomon, 2007: 309)

1.5.3. Evaluation of Alternatives

During the evaluation stage, consumers are assumed to examine information about the attributes of the alternatives and integrate this information into the evaluations of the alternatives. When evaluating the alternatives, there are a number of criteria for consumers as; the properties of products and services (like functional

and psychological), the importance of each criteria for the consumer, brand image (which can be defined by American Marketing Association as “*perception of a brand in the minds of persons*” – (http://www.marketingpower.com/_layouts/Dictionary.aspx?dLetter=B)), consumer’s utility function for each product property, and the attitudes that are developed by different evaluation methods on different brands (Tek and Özgül, 2005: 185–186).

Of the five stages of the classic consumer decision–making process, it is the evaluation stage that has received the most attention from consumer researchers with the means of evaluative content and evaluation strategy. The reason of it is that much more effort in a purchase decision occurs at the stage of evaluation of alternatives to focus the right opportunity to buy (Rathneshwar and Mick, 2005: 22–23).

1.5.4. Purchase Decision

As the consumer evaluates the alternatives on his/her mind, he/she gives a temporary decision on the product/service he/she chooses. The decision is called temporary because the ultimate decision can be different from the decision given. There are lots of reasons that may change the decision of consumer, delay or wear off, like not being able to find the decided brand and buying an alternative brand; the economic situation may change and the budget may be insufficient to buy the chosen product, another need may become important or the perceived risk of buying the chosen product may be high. There are two dimensions of perceived risk as potential negative results and the probability of those results to occur. The consumers will give the final decision by taking the risks and other conditions into consideration and make the last evaluation and then buy the product and service (Oluç, 2006: 766–767).

1.5.5. Postpurchase Behavior

Postpurchase behavior, also called as outcomes, is “*the total of feelings or attitude a person has after purchasing a product*”. The feeling would be based on

expectations, experiences, perceived quality of purchased product or anything that is related to the usage of the product (Solomon et al., 2006: 328–331).

As a result of purchasing a product or service people may feel satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Oxford Dictionary (2007: 550) defined satisfaction as “*the feeling of pleasure that you have when you have done, got or achieved what you wanted*”, and dissatisfaction as “*the feeling of not being satisfied or pleased*”. There are possible outcomes of feeling satisfied or dissatisfied as summarized in Figure 10. According to Day (1977), whether consumers are satisfied or dissatisfied they have the chance to take no action. If they decide to take action, they can take some form of public actions or private actions. When satisfaction occurs, the consumer can take public actions by contacting firm to offer congratulations and making favorable reports to consumer agencies about the firm and private action by using item more often and making advises to others to use the item. When dissatisfaction occurs, the public actions are seeking redress directly from firm, by legal actions to obtain redress or complaining the firm to business agencies and private actions are decision of stop buying product or brand and warning friends about the product and seller (Day, 1977).

When consumer decides that the product purchased is no longer of use, he/she can keep the item, temporarily or permanently dispose of it (See Figure 11). Consumers can keep the item for three reasons as; use it to serve original purpose (like furniture equipments can be used for many times for same purposes), convert it to serve a new purpose (a beautiful chocolate box can be used to put accessorizes) or store it (to keep the seasonal clothes in wardrobe to use at coming year). The product can be thrown away (as throwing ended plastic water bottle away), given away (as giving old furniture to a person that is in the need of), traded (trading a white furniture to have discount for a new one) or sold (directly to consumer, through middleman and to middleman), if consumer wants to permanently get rid of it. Lastly, the consumer has the option to get rid of item temporarily by renting it (renting the summer house for a certain time period) or loan it (loaning a night dress to a friend to use at a wedding ceremony).

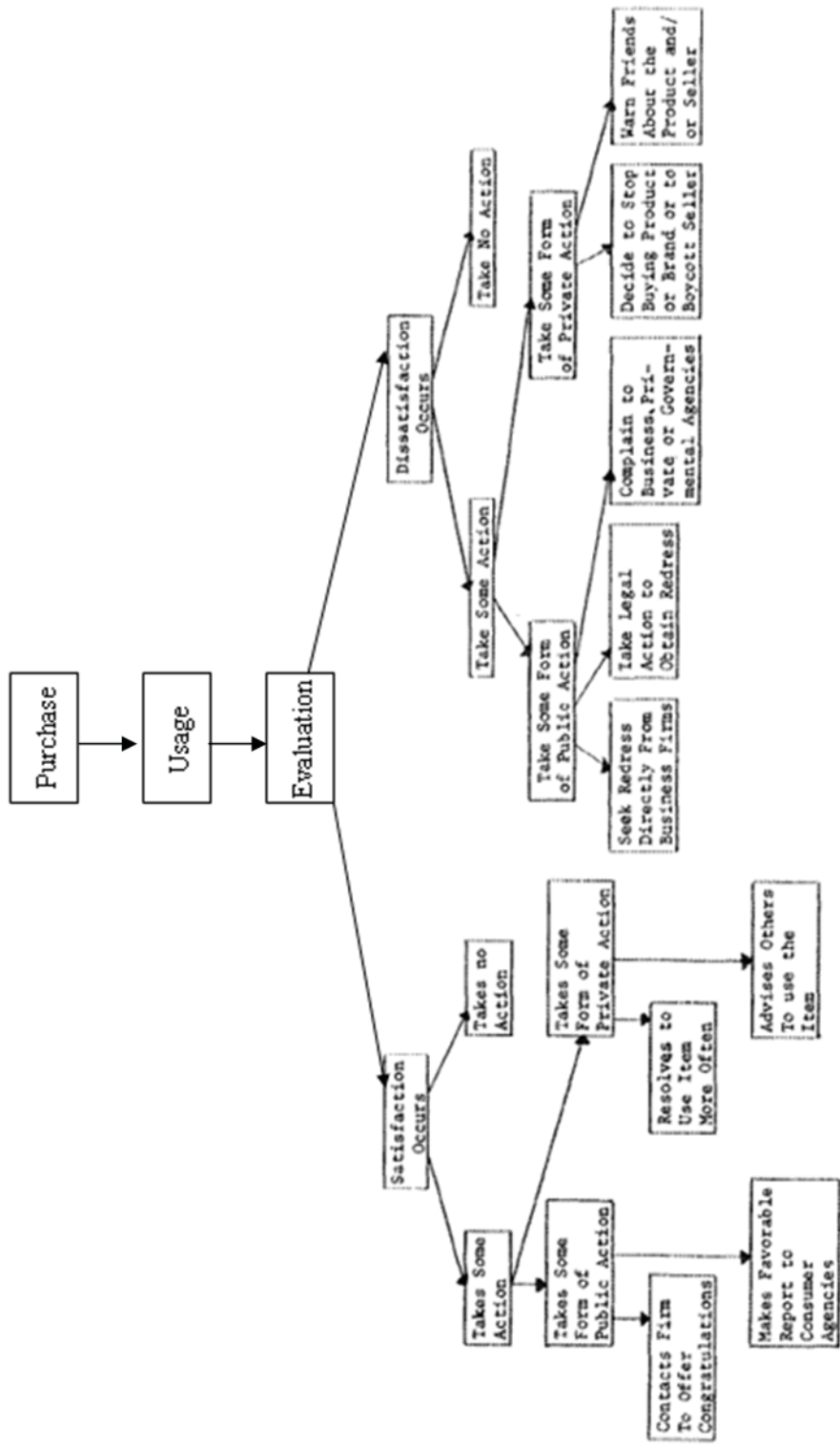


Figure 10: Post-evaluation responses

Source: Day, 1977, p. 153

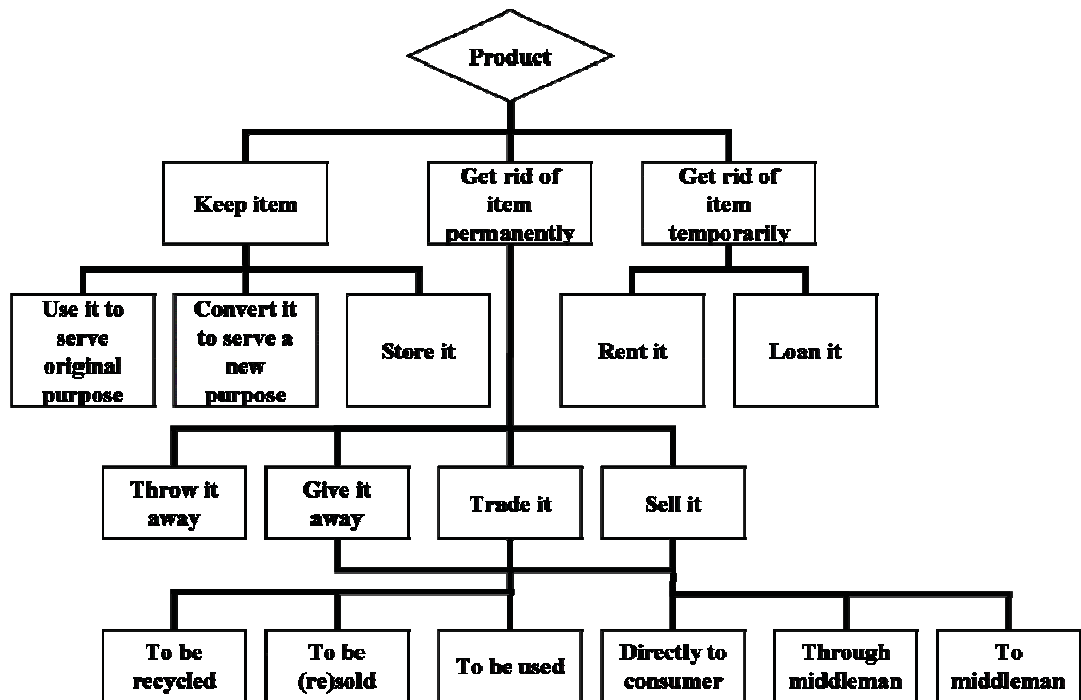


Figure 11: Consumers' disposal options

Source: Solomon et al., 2006, p. 334

1.6. FACTORS AFFECTING CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

According to Koç (2007: 31), people's behaviors emerge from a range of factors. A change in the conditions (whether it is a small change or not) could result in a big change in the final behavior. Therefore buying behavior should be evaluated considering the factors that affect consumer buying behavior. Factors influencing consumer behavior can be grouped under four categories as; cultural factors, social factors, personal factors and psychological factors.

1.6.1. Cultural Factors

Cultural factors can be grouped under three categories as: culture, subculture and social class.

1.6.1.1. Culture

Solomon (2007: 542) defines culture as “*the accumulation of shared meanings, rituals, norms and traditions among the members of an organization or society*”. Culture is the most basic cause of a person’s wants and behavior, because a child grows in society, learns the elements of the society’s culture, which can be summarized as symbols, language, values, beliefs and norms (Macionis, 2008: 62), from their family or from the educational institutions (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008: 130).

All the people, for instance, are affected from culture in their eating habits like when to eat (not between meals), where to eat (in a busy restaurant, because the food is likely to be good), what is appropriate to eat (like eating pancakes at breakfast, hot and healthy foods at dinner), what to serve to guests (like at a dinner party: a formal sit down menu, at a picnic: barbecued hamburgers, at a wedding: champagne). Culture also provides insights about dressing like what to wear in the house, what to wear at school, at work, at a fast food restaurant, etc. (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2010: 368–369).

The market researchers take culture into consideration because culture shapes the ideas of consumers and his/her aspect to the world. He/she would be under the pressure of culture when giving a buying decision. Thus, the products or services that are subject to buying process would be chosen, if they are culturally conceded.

1.6.1.2. Subculture

Subculture is defined by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004: 438) as “*a distinct group that exists as an identifiable segment within a larger, more complex society*”. The nationalities, religions, racial groups and geographic regions can be viewed as subculture. Every consumer may belong to so many subcultures based on similarities of elements of subculture. Figure 12 is a simplified way to describe the relationship of culture and subculture.

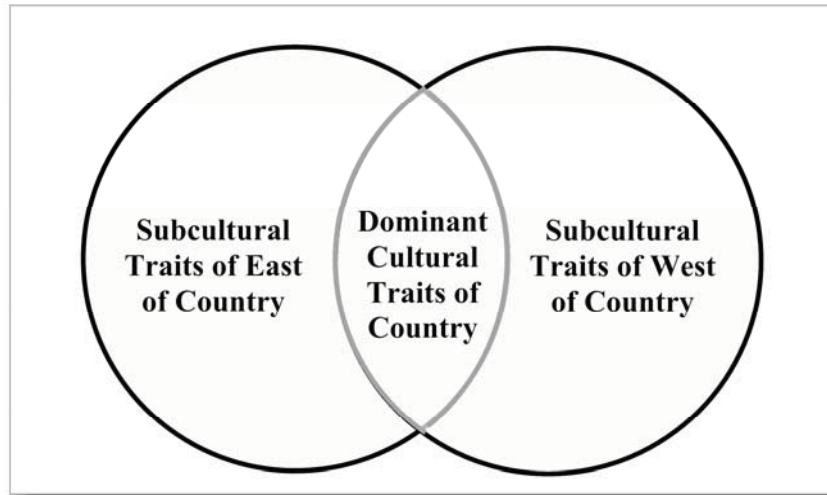


Figure 12. Relationship Between Culture and Subculture

Source: Modified from Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004, p. 438

The figure depicts that, each subculture has its own unique traits, yet both groups share the dominant traits of the overall culture. Generally, a subculture has three dimensions as race, nationality and religious belief. For example, although the Arabic people who live in Turkey are a part of Turkish culture, they carry cultural characteristics of their own race. At the same time, the Arabic that live in Turkey and that live in Egypt again have different cultures. The reason is; they have national and geographic differences. One of them is under the influence of Turkish culture and the other is under Egyptian culture (İslamoğlu, 2003: 168–169)

1.6.1.3. Social Class

Social classes are “*relatively permanent and ordered divisions in a society whose members share similar values, interests and behaviors*” (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008: 134). According to Duran (2009), social class concept is important when studying consumer behavior, because social class helps the researchers to understand consumers’ consumption structures, purchase preferences, brand loyalties, ways of collecting information and ways of spending their leisure time (<http://mustafaduran.wordpress.com/2009/03/21/pazarlama-acisindan-sosyal-sinif-kavrami/>)

Drummond, Ensor and Ashford (2001: 46) say that, the influence of social class on consumer behavior is important, because lower class people generally are being viewed as more culture-bound. In some cultures, it is easy to move from one social class to another but in some closed cultures it is more difficult.

1.6.2. Social Factors

A person's buying behaviors can also be influenced heavily from its group, family and social role and status, which can be called totally as social factors.

1.6.2.1. Groups

Taylor, Peplau and Sears (2006: 308) in their book listed the types of social groupings as written below:

- ~ *Social categories*, are grouped together according to shared attributes such as; teenage boys, unemployed heads of households, truck drivers etc.
- ~ *Audience*, do not need to be aware of each other and interact. For example, people who are watching the same TV channel at the same program on a recent day.
- ~ *Crowd*, called for the people who come proximity for a common situation or event, like the fans of a football team or people waiting together in front of a bank branch to be opened.
- ~ *Team*, called for a set of people who interact regularly for a particular purpose, as work groups, sport team etc.
- ~ *Formal organization*, who are larger aggregates of people who come together to accomplish a goal and work together to succeed that goal.

It is a sense for every people to belong to somebody, which means to be a member of a group. According to Macionis (2008: 166) groups are “*two or more people who identify and interact with one another*”. Based on this definition, a social category such as all professional football players does not constitute a group, because all people in this category do not know each other, have face-to-face contact or influence one another. However, the players of a football team can be named as a group because they interact regularly. Similarly, all students in third class of university can not be named as group, but the students in a class are a group because of the interaction they have. It means that not all the sets of people who come together somehow can be viewed as a group. There need to be shared values, goals, interaction and communication in a group.

In marketing, groups need to be taken into consideration because group members influence each other on their buying processes. Bearden and Etzel (1982: 184) proposed that group influence on product and brand decisions is a function of two forms of "conspicuousness."

- a. The first condition, affecting product decisions, is that the item must be "exclusive" in some way. Exclusivity can be evaluated with distinction between luxuries and necessities. Necessities are possessed by virtually everyone, while luxuries have a degree of exclusivity.
- b. Second, for group influence to affect brand decisions, the item must be "seen or identified by others." This can be operationalized in terms of where an item is consumed. Publicly consumed products are seen by others, while privately consumed products are not.

Combining the concepts of public-private consumption and luxury-necessity items produces four conditions: (a) publicly consumed luxuries, (b) publicly consumed necessities, (c) privately consumed luxuries, and (d) privately consumed necessities. The below is the matrix that shows conditions.

		Product		PUBLIC	
		Brand		<i>Weak Reference Group Influence</i>	<i>Strong Reference Group Influence</i>
N E C E S S I T Y	<i>Strong Reference Group Influence</i>	Public Necessities		Public Luxuries	
		Influence: Weak Product and Strong Brand Examples: Wristwatch, automobile, man's suit	Influence: Strong product and Brand Examples: Golf clubs, snow skis, sailboat		
	<i>Weak Reference Group Influence</i>	Private Necessities		Private Luxuries	
		Influence: Weak Product and Brand Examples: Mattress, floor lamp, refrigerator	Influence: Strong Product and Weak Brand Examples: TV game, trash compactor, ice maker		
		PRIVATE		L U X U R Y	

Figure 13. Combining Public–Private and Luxury–Necessity Dimensions with Product and Brand Purchase Decisions

Source: Bearden and Etzel, 1982, 185

a. Publicly consumed luxury

“A product which is consumed in public view and not commonly owned or used” is called as publicly consumed luxury like the golf club membership. In this case deciding both whether to buy the product or not, and which brand to buy, consumers are likely to be influenced strongly by others.

b. Privately consumed luxury

Privately consumed luxury can be defined as “*a product consumed out of public view and not commonly owned or used*” like trash compactors. In many cases, because it will not be used near other people, the brand is not socially important, but ownership of the product does convey a message about the owner. For that reasons, the consumers are influenced strongly from each other for the product whereas it will not be seen by others, so influence for the brand of the product should be weak.

c. Publicly consumed necessity

The products at that group, like wrist-watch are “*products consumed in public view that virtually everyone owns*”. Influence for deciding whether to own the product should be weak because it is a necessity but, because it will be seen by others, influence for the brand of the product should be strong.

d. Privately consumed necessity

“*A product consumed out of public view that virtually everyone owns (e.g., mattress)*” is called as privately consumed necessity and purchasing behavior is largely governed by product attributes rather than by the influences of others. In this group, neither products nor brands tend to be socially conspicuous and are owned by nearly all consumers, so influences should be weak for both of the two criteria.

1.6.2.2. Family

Schiffman and Kanuk (2010: 333) define family as “*two or more persons related by blood, marriage, or adoption who reside together*”. When a parent and their one or more children come together it is called as “nuclear family”, if at least one grandparent lives with them, it is called as “extended family”. The key group

that affects the consumer's behavior is the family. The families have the influence on range of decision, like the parents who have the last word to buy a toy for their child in a certain amount, where the spending properties lie and how a person makes a product decision (Verstage, 2005: 133). The below table shows the roles of family members on decision making processes. It provides further insight into how family members interact in consumption behaviors.

Table 1. The Eight Roles in the Family Decision Making Process

<i>Role</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>Influencer</i>	Family member(s) who provide information to other members about a product or service
<i>Gatekeepers</i>	Family member(s) who control the flow of information about a product or service into the family
<i>Deciders</i>	Family member(s) with the power to determine unilaterally or jointly whether to shop for
<i>Buyers</i>	Family member(s) who make the actual purchase of a particular product or service
<i>Preparers</i>	Family member(s) who transform the product into a form suitable for consumption by other family members.
<i>Users</i>	Family member(s) who use or consume a particular product or service
<i>Maintainers</i>	Family member(s) who service or repair the product so that it will provide continued satisfaction
<i>Disposers</i>	Family member(s) who initiate or carry out the discontinuation of a particular product or service

Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004, p. 355

Looking at the roles in family decision making process provides researchers further insights on the interaction of family members in their consumption related roles. For example; a father may go for shopping to buy the ingredients of cake his daughter loves. The daughter will play the influencer role. When father is passing the snack food aisle, he can pick out an interesting new chocolate candy. When he makes that selection, he does not directly involve the influence of other family members. At that situation, he is a decider, a buyer and in a sense a gatekeeper. When he comes home, his wife opens the packages and prepares the cake with the ingredients bought,

so she has the preparer role. When the daughter comes home from school, as user, she eats the cake her mother serves as maintainer. And as the last one, the first person that goes out of home throws away the packages of used ingredients will be the disposer (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004: 353 – 354).

1.6.2.3. Status and Roles

According to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2002: 372) status is defined as “*a person’s relative rank, prestige, or standing in a group*”. There can be number of basis of social status in a society like age, occupation, work seniority, education or performance. Status is a concept that expresses a meaning as the “have”s are being distinguished from “have not”s in the society. The ones with high social status distinct themselves from others in two ways; with economic capital that includes the business management and finance and with cultural capital which expresses the ones total cultural stage in his/her society. Also a role is “*activities people are expected to perform according to the persons around them*” and the roles of a person carries a status reflecting the general esteem given to it by society (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008: 139). Because roles and status are affecting the decisions of people, it should be taken into account when describing consumer behavior.

1.6.3. Personal Factors

A buyer’s decisions are also influenced by personal factors and personal factors can be grouped as age, life–cycle stage, occupation, economic situation, lifestyle and personality.

1.6.3.1. Age and Life–Cycle Stage

The goods and services people prefer like food, clothes, furniture and recreation change as the ages of people change. The preferences are also shaped according to people’s stage in their life cycle. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008: 139)

According to Perreault and McCarthy (2002: 148), the life-cycle stages of people are given below.

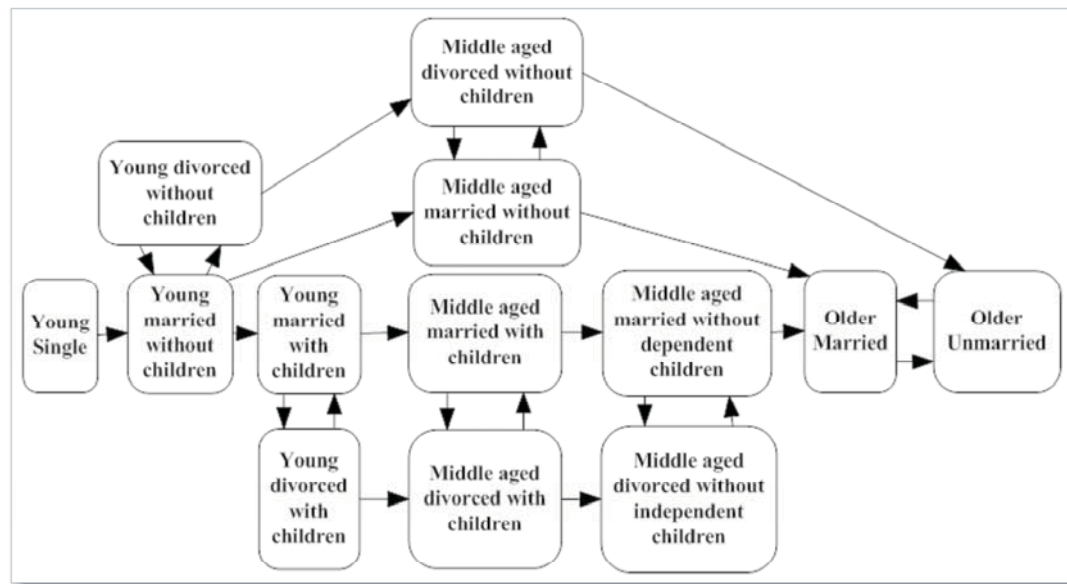


Figure 14. Stages in Modern Family Life Cycles

Source: Perreault and McCarthy, 2002, p. 148

Figure 14 shows a summary of stages in the family life cycle as a flow from one stage to the next one. It starts with being a single and afterwards getting married. Those singles and young couples are more open to try new products and brands—and they are careful, price-conscious shoppers. They use to buy discretionary items more than older and middle aged ones. Younger couples —especially those with no children— are accumulating durable goods, such as automobiles and home furnishings rather than food. As those couples have children, the spending patterns change and shift to soft goods and services, such as education, medical, and personal care. If parents are divorced, their spending will not be like other singles because generally mother has custody of children and father pay child support and larger percent of their income will be paid on housing, child care, and other necessities—with little left for discretionary purchases. If a single parent remarries, the family life cycle may start over again.

Once children become teenagers, the spending patterns will shift to buy more food as teenagers eat more, pay more to education, and parents are forced to reallocate expenditures to cover expenses by spending less on durable goods, such as appliances, automobiles, household goods, and housing. Teens play an increasingly important role in shopping and shaping family purchases.

Finally, senior citizens' —people over 65— income is lower than in their peak earning years, but most do have money to spend. Older people also have very different needs like health care services.

The life cycle stage shows marketers the changes in family structure and income. According to the family structure, income and changing needs; people will have different demands at each stage of life cycle so consumer researchers need to observe and evaluate those changes when looking at the factors affecting consumer behavior (Durmaz, 2008:47 – 49; Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: 147 – 149)

1.6.3.2. Occupation

According to Tek and Orel (2008: 178) occupational groups can be grouped as: the blue collar workers and the white collar workers with having different decision making processes and different information sources. Solomon (2007: 462) suggests that occupational prestige is a way to evaluate the “worth” of people.

Occupation is important for consumer behavior researchers because marketers when defining their target markets frequently think in terms of specific occupations such as “Teachers are our best customers for summer cruises”. Also people at the same occupations tend to have similar consumption patterns and that helps marketers to define their marketing mixes (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004: 378 – 379)

1.6.3.3. Income

A person's economic situation will affect product choice. A market is "*combination of people who are willing and able to buy a product*" (Keegan and Green, 2005: 230). So to be the ones that are "able to buy", people need to be at the appropriate income level for that product.

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2008: 78) marketers should pay attention to income and income distribution. The upper class consumers are not affected by current economic events and they are a major for luxury goods. The middle class is somewhat careful about spending but can afford the good life. The working class spends nearly all income to food, clothing and shelter and tries to save with the remaining part. Finally underclass persons must calculate their incomes one by one when making even basic purchases as bread. Changes in economic situation and income patterns have a large impact on the marketplace and need to be considered when studying consumer behavior.

1.6.3.4. Lifestyle

Lifestyle is described as "*how one lives*". Lifestyle affects the products one buys, how he/she uses those products, what he/she thinks about that product, and how he/she feels after using the product. The lifestyle of a person is a function of inherent individual characteristic that is shaped by the interactions that people experience at the stages in their life-cycle (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 2004: 429–430).

The people in same social and economic circumstances may follow the same consumption patterns nearby; each person draws a unique image that is shaped according to his/her lifestyle. For example; a typical college student may dress like the other students in same school but he/she indulges a passion for marathon running, stamp collection etc. that makes him/her unique. (Solomon, 2007: 209)

Demographics, social class, income, personality, values and motives, household life cycle, culture and past experiences affect the lifestyle (Preez, Visses and Zietsman, 2007). When demographics are taken into consideration age, occupation, marital status is important for determining lifestyle. For example; people who are young and single have specific behaviors; they like to make aerobics and drink alcohol whereas, people at middle age like to read and work on gardening (Tekinay, 2000). Also, income is very important to determine the consumption behaviors of consumers. Consumers can buy products and services at the extent of their income.

As defined previously, lifestyle is shortly “how one lives” (Odabaşı and Barış, 2002: 219). It includes the activities, interests, likes/dislikes, attitudes, consumption behaviors and expectations of people. With those ingredients, it affects the purchases (how, when, from where, what and with whom he/she is going to purchase) and consumption behaviors (where, with whom, how, when and what he/she is going to consume) of people. Below figure shows the factors affecting the lifestyle and the interaction of lifestyle with behavior.

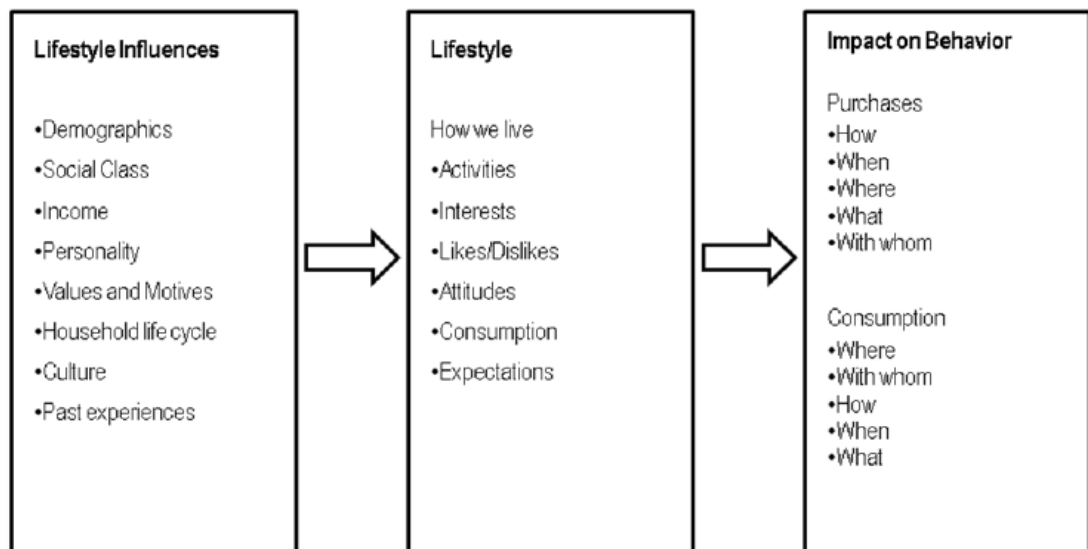


Figure 15. Factors Affecting Lifestyle

Source: Hawkins, Best and Coney, 2004, p. 98

According to the Guide of Understanding Turkey 2010 of Ipsos Turkish Office, which is a global market research company that makes lifestyle and trends

researches in Turkey every year, there are five lifestyle categories in Turkey as (http://www.ipsos.com.tr/staticfiles/files/Ipsos_KMG_Turkiyeyi_Anlama_Kilavuzu_Ozet_Bulgular_vff.pdf);

a. Urban Moderns

Urban moderns, which represents nearly 7,5 million people in Turkey, are heavily high school and university graduated and generally open-minded and interested in new technologies. This group, who heavily live in big cities and heavily in Marmara and Aegean regions, has the highest level of newspaper reading rate, has high socio-economic conditions, and believes that Turkish economic and political conditions are deteriorating. The people in that group are relatively interested in television advertisements and they say that those advertisements are very helpful when they are buying a product. That group has the highest brand loyalty.

b. Unhand Citizens

The unhand citizens, who are dispersed to countryside and urban region equally, includes the people that are generally male, live in Marmara, Eastern and Southeastern regions, and has low reading habits. This group has the highest tendency to violence and carrying arms. A main characteristic of this group is their tendency to buy the product that they see in advertisements.

c. Rural Impassive

The most distinctive characteristic of that group is their impassiveness or opposing to all alternatives presented when the research is being made. Nearly 50% of that group is primary school educated and 10% is illiterate and they heavily live in rural regions. This group has no bearing on newspapers and advertisements in different media channels.

d. Urban Traditional

This group has the highest education rate after urban moderns and represents nearly 22 million people in Turkey. They are tied to traditional values, heavily women, trust in the army, are concerned with the economic and political course, have 40% internet using rate. The urban traditionals, who are skeptical to advertisements, scan product catalogs carefully and price is very important for them when shopping.

e. Urban Status Quos

The urban status quo group includes the individuals that believe Turkey is at a process of improving itself both economically and politically. The people in this group are heavily tied to traditional and religious customs, have low reading habit but are interested in television and radio advertisements and are not very open-minded.

1.6.3.5. Personality

Personality was defined as “*patterns of behavior which are characteristic of an individual and which tend to be consistent across situations and over time*” by Glassman and Hadad (2009: 340). Although there are definitions of personality belonging to different researchers, the theorists of personality have not agreed on a single definition of personality. Each theorist studies personality from a different perspective. The theories of personality are listed in Table 2.

Also like people, it is suggested in literature that the brands have personalities, too. The owner of that theory Aaker (1997: 347– 356) says that there are five dimensions of brand personality:

a. Sincerity: Domestic, honest, genuine, cheerful

Table 2. Personality Theories

Researcher	Theory
Psychodynamic Theories	
Freud	Psychoanalysis
Adler	Individual Psychology
Jung	Analytical Psychology
Klein	Object Relations Theory
Homey	Psychoanalytic Social Theory
Fromm	Humanistic Psychoanalysis
Sullivan	Interpersonal Theory
Erikson	Post- Freudian Theory
Humanistic/Existential Theories	
Maslow	Holistic-Dynamic Theory
Rogers	Person-Centered Theory
May	Existential Psychology
Dispositional Theories	
Allport	Psychology of the Individual
Eysenck, McCrac and Costa	Factor and Trait Theories
Learning Theories	
Skinner	Behavioral Analysis
Bandura	Social Cognitive Theory
Rotter and Mischel	Cognitive Social Learning Theory

Source: Tabulated from the studies of Feist and Feist, 2006

- b. Excitement:** Daring, spirited, imaginative, up-to-date
- c. Competence:** Reliable, responsible. dependable, efficient
- d. Sophistication:** Glamorous, pretentious, charming, romantic
- e. Ruggedness:** Tough, strong, outdoorsy. rugged

Both from the consumers' perspective and brands' perspective, personality should be studied in marketing because people can not be thought of without their

personality. In addition, they will try to match their personality with the personalities of brands, models or objects.

1.6.4. Psychological Factors

Psychological factors can be listed as motivation, perception, learning, attitudes and values.

1.6.4.1. Motivation

According to Koç (2007: 132), our needs come from a physiological or psychological absenteeism or deprivation. In other words, people have two types of needs as: “physiological needs” and “psychological needs”. The hemostatic balance is *“the moment that when a person has no physiological need, as thirst or hunger, and has no psychological need as belonging, love, etc.”*. Wittig (2001: 172) defined motivation as *“the conditions which initiate, guide, and maintain behaviors usually until a need has been satisfied”*. From the definition, it can be understood that consumers try to reach hemostatic balance with the help of motivation.

Motivation concept has been subject to many researches from past and there are a number of theories on motivation in literature. Some of those theories are Clayton Alderfer’s “ERG theory” which groups the needs of a person under three categories as existence needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs, David McClelland’s “Acquired Needs Theory”, which identifies three themes important for understanding individual behavior as; need for achievement, need for affiliation and need for power, Frederick Herzberg’s “Two Factor Theory” in which the needs are grouped as hygiene factors and motivator factors and lastly Abraham Maslow’s “Hierarchy of Needs Theory” (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 2002) which groups the needs as “self actualization needs, esteem needs, social needs, safety needs and physiological needs”. The Maslow’s theory can be illustrated with a pyramid given in the below figure.

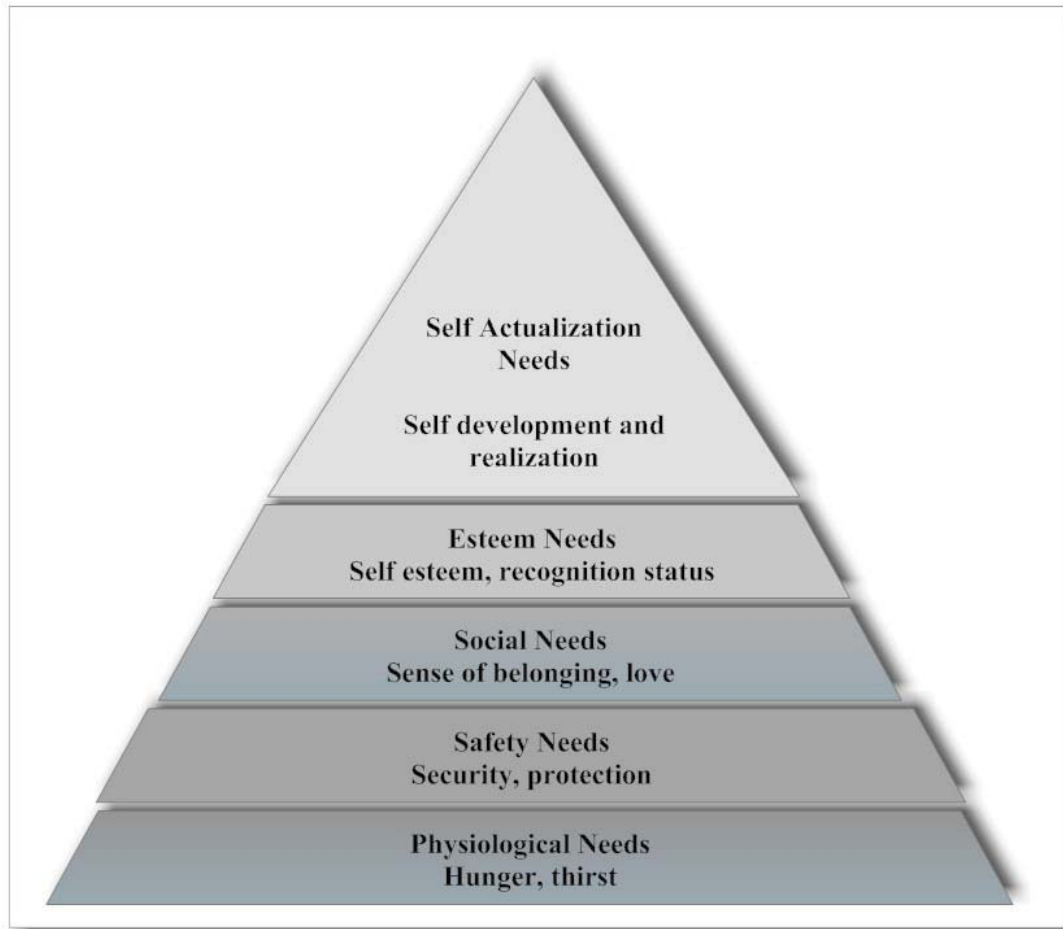


Figure 16. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Source: Kotler and Armstrong, 2008, p. 143

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory identifies five distinct levels of individual needs as a pyramid and assumes that some needs are more important than others. When the most important need is satisfied, it will stop being a motivator and people will try to satisfy the next most important need according to the level at pyramid. (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 2002: 155).

Motivation is the basic force that leads consumers to make consumption (Durmaz, 2008: 62). Researches designed to probe consumers' hidden motivations, underlying emotions and attitudes towards brands and buying situations are helpful for marketers to understand consumer behaviors (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008: 142).

It is important for a market researcher to study on motivation because motivation is the starting point of purchase decision. And also, every person would be motivated by satisfying different needs and satisfying those needs at different levels. So the marketers need to know the levels of motivation and goods and services that will satisfy the consumers.

1.6.4.2. Perception

When people are being motivated, they will be ready to get into reaction but as every individual looks to the world from his/her own perspective, they would perceive the world different from each other. Looking at the world from different perspectives means “*feeling, sensing and perceiving different*”. According to Solomon (2007: 49) sensation is “*the immediate response of our sensory receptors (eyes, ears, nose, mouth, fingers) to basic stimuli such as light, color, sound, odor and texture*” and perception is “*the process by which people select, organize, and interpret these sensations*”. The perceptual process can be seen from the below figure.

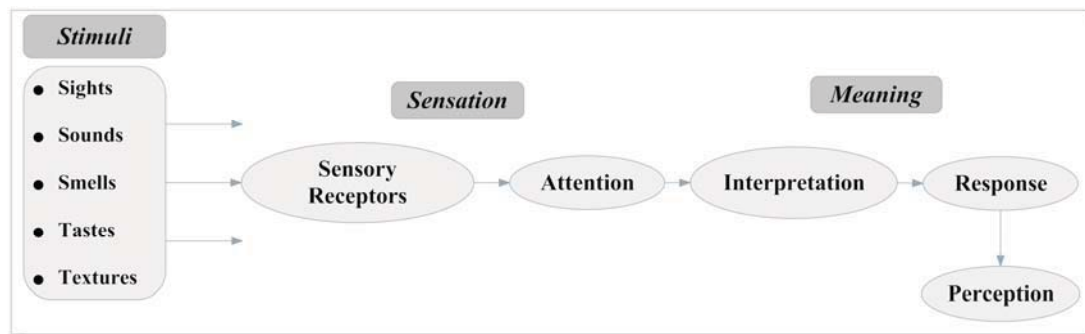


Figure 17. An Overview of Perceptual Process

Source: Solomon et al., 2006, p. 37

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2010: 203–204) consumers usually perceive things that they need and want and block the perception of unnecessary, unfavorable or painful stimuli. For example, a person will not perceive the advertisements of household appliances before he/she is at the marriage preparation process. When she/he decides to get married, she/he perceives most maybe all of

those advertisements. Also the perceived image of a product or service is more important to its ultimate success than are its actual physical characteristics.

1.6.4.3. Learning

According to İslamoğlu (2003: 58) learning is “*the permanent change in a person’s behavior as a result of an experience or application*”. With the light of that description learning has three main characteristics as;

- ~ Learning is a change in behavior
- ~ Learning is a result of experience
- ~ The behaviors that are acquired through learning are permanent.

Güney (2009: 12) suggests that learning is a term that is used to express the *cognitive changes* (learning the information about terms, principles, laws, theories and problem solving processes), *sensual changes* (learning the information on belief, intention and senses), and *psychomotor changes* (learning the information by focusing on brain and muscle coordination through testing, trying and repetition).

Implicit learning occurs when consumers are not aware that they are learning while being exposed to messages. They do not recognize that they learn but the effects of learning show up in the preferences, likings and behaviors of consumers. On *explicit learning*, people are fully aware of the messages they learn and they can systematically manage that message (Rathneshwar and Mick, 2005: 331–336).

Understanding the concept of learning and how it is formed, how it works will help to design more effective marketing activities in order to change target customers’ behaviors. For example, customers can purchase the product after they see and learn it from commercials (Koç, 2007: 102).

1.6.4.4. Attitudes

Attitude is “*predispositions to respond in a positive or negative way to someone or something in one’s environment*” according to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2002: 29). For example, the consumers who are interested to buy an electronic product might hold attitudes such as “The Japanese make the best electronic products in the world”, so to buy the best those consumers having positive attitudes towards Japanese electronic products will tend to prefer a Japanese brand (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008: 144–145). Peter and Olson (1999: 122–140) suggest that consumers’ attitudes will be always towards a concept grouped under two types;

- ~ *Attitude towards physical and social objects*; including products, models, brands, sales people, store, marketing objectives of the firm, imaginary objects as ideas etc.
- ~ *Attitude toward their own behaviors and actions*; like their past experiences or their plans about future.

The characteristics of attitude are listed below (Durmaz, 2008: 80–81);

- a. Attitudes are not innate, they are gained by experiences.
- b. Attitudes are not temporary, they are permanent.
- c. Attitudes provide a consistency on the relationship between person and the object.
- d. Attitudes create familiarity between the object and person. Once attitudes developed, the person can not look at the object objectively.
- e. Creating a positive or negative attitude towards an object is just possible when the object is compared with another object.

- f. Like individual attitudes, there are also societal attitudes towards values, groups and objects.
- g. Attitude is generally not a type of reaction but is a tendency to show a reaction.
- h. Attitudes result in positive or negative behaviors.

According to Hawkins, Best and Coney (2004: 386–391) attitude has three components as cognitive component (that captures a consumer’s knowledge and perceptions about the product or service), affective component (that focuses on a consumer’s emotions and feelings with respect to a particular brand or service) and behavioral component (which includes beliefs about specific attributes or overall object (see in Figure 18). All three components tend to be consistent which means that a change in one component will be followed with a change in other two components.

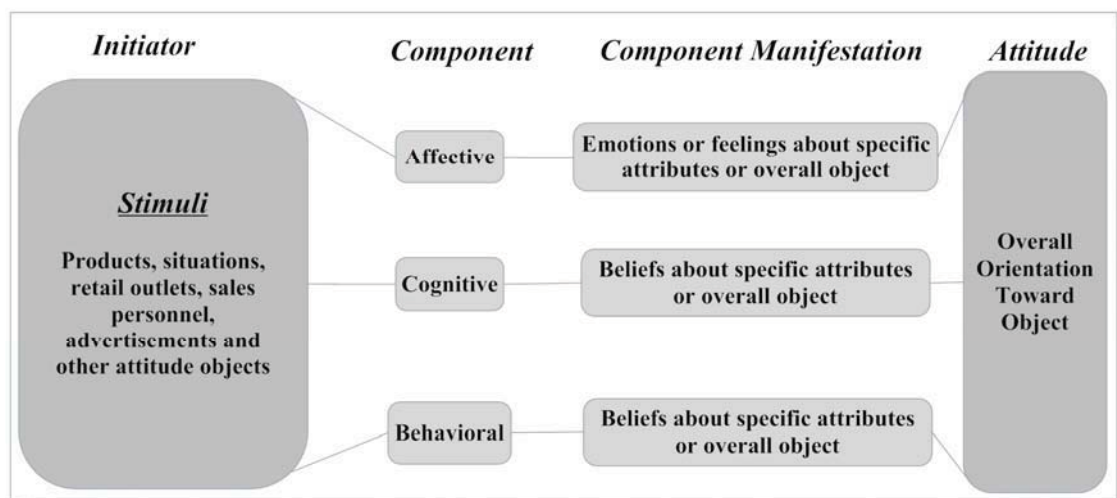


Figure 18. Attitude Components and Manifestations

Source: Hawkins, Best and Coney, 2004, p. 388

“Functional theory of attitudes”, which is developed by psychologist Daniel Katz in 1960, proposes four attitude functions as (Maio and Haddock, 2010: 38; Oskamp and Schultz, 2005: 88–89; Solomon, 2007: 234 – 235);

- a. **Knowledge function:** Represents the ability of attitudes to organize information about attitude objects and most likely to change in situations that become complex for attitude holder because of a changed situation or a new information
- b. **Utilitarian function:** Exists in attitudes that maximizes rewards and minimizes punishments obtained from attitude object on the basis of whether the object provides a pleasure or pain. For example, if a person likes the taste of pizza, that person will have a positive attitude towards pizza and when he/she tries a hot sauce and it stabs his/her tongue, he/she will have a negative attitude towards sauce.
- c. **Value–expressive function:** Expresses the consumers’ central values or self–concept. Because of that reason it is also called as “social–identity function”. For example, a person might cycle to work, because she values health and wishes to preserve the environment.
- d. **Ego–defensive function:** Exists in attitudes that serve to protect an individual’s self–esteem. For example products that promise to help a man to be seen more masculine, may be appealing to his insecurities to his masculinities like smoking Marlboro cigarettes.

An attitude can serve one or more than one of those functions, but generally one of them is dominant. Marketers, by focusing on the dominant function of a product or service and defining what benefits it provides for consumers, can emphasize those benefits in communications, packaging and advertisements to be preferred by consumers (Solomon, 2007: 235).

1.6.4.5. Values

Macionis (2008: 66) defines value as “*the specific thoughts or ideas that people hold to be true*”. Briefly they are, by being based to distinguish the good and bad, helps to make choice and judgments between alternatives. People in different cultures, different social groups, and different environments have different values.

Not just one value, but the total of values affects the behaviors of consumers. The values, that are related to each other and that are similar, constitute value systems of consumers. The value systems can be used in consumer behavior as demonstrated below (Odabaşı and Barış, 2002: 217);

- ~ Determining who the target market is,
- ~ Introducing what the target market’s interests and hobbies,
- ~ Defining the best way of communication and best strategies for the target market
- ~ Observing the values that stimulate the target market with reasons of them.

1.7. VALUES IN CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOR

Value can be defined as “*anything (material or non material) socially desired or desirable which satisfies a human need, leading him to a higher ideal of life*”. Also philosophers say that a value is “*a state of human mind, a mental disposition, an attitude or an emotionalized state of mind towards some idea, thing or tradition carrying positive and negative charges in itself*” (Shulka, 2004: 5).

Values are developed from life experiences and affects people’s buying behaviors and their strategies for making new choices. For example, for people who

value fun and enjoyment, a computer is a means to play video games whereas, for people who value self-respect it defines a goal of self-reliance. Values have the potential to help understand consumer's motivations and may underline rationality or psychological sides of buying behaviors. (Kahle, 1996: 135 – 136)

In consumer behavior, understanding the consumer value concept is very important and there has been an ongoing effort to understand the concept. In some studies the values are differentiated from each other. (See Figure 19).

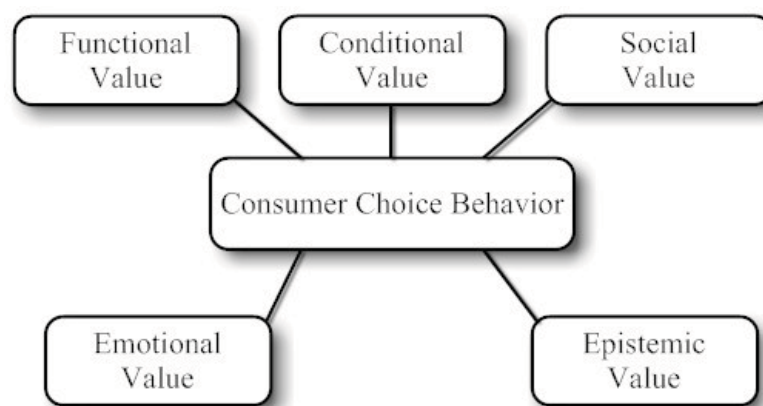


Figure 19. Five Values Influencing Consumer Behavior

Source: Steth, Newman and Gross, 1991, p. 40

There are three propositions when that model is used as (Steth, Newman and Gross, 1991: 40);

- a. Consumer choice is a function of multiple consumption values.
- b. The consumption values make differential contributions in any given choice situation.
- c. The consumption values are independent.

According to the model, functional value is said to be primary driver of behaviors of customers and is the perceived utility acquired from functional,

utilitarian or physical performance of the goods. Functional value can be derived from the characteristics of the product as reliability, durability and price. Secondly, the social value is the perceived utility from people's association with one or more specific social groups and suggests that the social value is a result of negative or positive stereotypes from demographic, socioeconomic and cultural–ethnic groups. Thirdly, emotional value is the perceived utility acquired from one's capacity to arouse feelings or affective states. Goods and services are generally linked with emotional values and that type of value is often associated with emotional responses. Fourthly, the epistemic value is the perceived utility from one's capacity to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and satisfy a desire for knowledge. One acquires epistemic value when she is bored from current brand (such as trying a new coffee brand), is curious (like visiting a new café), or has a desire to learn (as experiencing a new café type for learning the different tastes). And the last value; conditional value can be defined as “*the perceived value acquired by a product or service as a result of specific situation or set of circumstances facing the choice maker*” (Steth, Newman and Gross, 1991: 40).

According to another differentiation, there are two dominated views at value researches; the view focuses on product value and shopping value (Chen and Dubinsky, 2003). According to Zeithaml (1988: 13), on the basis of his exploratory studies, there are four different product value definitions for customers as;

- a. ***Value is low price.*** If the price of a good is low, it means that the product is a valuable one. If there is a discount, coupon or promotion, these customers feel that the product is valuable.
- b. ***Value is whatever a person wants in a product.*** The benefits the customers perceive from the product is the most important component of value. For instance, for a mother value is what her kids can drink. Or for a single person, value for a detergent is its little containers because then there is no waste.

- c. ***Value is the quality one gets for the price he /she pays.*** That type of customers tries to find the quality they estimate according to the money they pay.

- d. ***Value is what one pays for what he/she gets.*** These customers try to maximize the things they can have from a product. For example, value for a drink is how many drinks you can get out of a certain package. If it is a concentrated one it is more valuable because when one waters it, he can get more of it.

Shopping value is defined as “*the evaluations of a shopping experience with a store which focuses on the process of obtaining the desired products, rather than the products themselves*”. Shopping value is a more general view than product value because it recognizes both a utilitarian outcome resulting from some type of conscious pursuit of an intended consequence and an outcome related more to spontaneous hedonic responses. It reflects the distinction between performing an act "to get something" as opposed to doing it because "you love it". For example participating in competitive events can result people's gain extrinsic rewards such as monetary awards or prizes but they both give intrinsic, personal and emotional rewards as getting a good time, having fun, and feeling at an adventure etc. (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994)

From those statements, it can be said that the shopping value can be observed intensively under two headings as “utilitarian value” and “hedonic value”. These two values need not be (and usually are not) mutually exclusive: toothpaste may both prevent cavities and provide pleasure from its taste. Nor need these two values can be opposite: a consumption activity that gives pleasure now may in fact be bad in an instrumental sense (e.g., smoking), while another that gives no pleasure may in fact be instrumentally valuable (e.g., going to the dentist) (Batra and Ahtola, 1991: 161).

1.7.1. Utilitarian Value

The utilitarian orientation has been described as “*a tendency to emphasize the perceived functional value or physical performance features (e.g., quality and value) of products in choice behavior*” (Sheth, Newman and Gross, 1991). It indicates the consumer behavior that evaluates whether the buying behavior is successful or not with respect to satisfaction of need that cause consumer to shop. In other words, the consumer is in a duty oriented and rational attitude (Carpenter, Moore and Fairhurst, 2005: 44).

Time pressure is very decisive for today’s customers. They feel that they are under significant levels of time pressure and for sustaining their daily lives, they need to complete all necessary tasks. Thus, for them, shopping sometimes means to buy what is needed, as a kind of *to do list*. So consumers try to acquire utilitarian value (Batra and Ahtola, 1991: 161). The utilitarian view of shopping is the acquisition of products in a purposeful and efficient process and means a product is purchased in a deliberate and efficient manner (Christiansen and Snepenger, 2002). Utilitarian motivation shows that shopping starts from a mission or task, and the acquired benefit depends on whether the mission is completed or not, or whether the mission is completed efficiently during the process. If so, the utilitarian value would be acquired (To, Liao and Lin, 2007).

A consumption behavior can result as a consequence of utilitarian and hedonic shopping values at the same time, however when shopping is thought to be a work or duty, shopping is completed when they buy what they need. They experience utilitarian value more than hedonic value throughout the shopping trip (Jin, Sternquist and Koh, 2003).

The utilitarian value focuses on product and rather than the whole consumption process or other variables that affects the process (To, Liao and Lin, 2007).

1.7.2. Hedonic Value

Researchers generally consider consumers to be logical problem solvers. However, if the shopping experience is evaluated only as the acquisition of goods and services, intangible emotional benefits are overlooked. For example, dressing is a need and people acquire utilitarian values from buying a cloth but considering that clothing is a product to which most consumers have emotional attachment, research on hedonic shopping value related to the purchase of clothing might help us to understand the true drivers of consumer activity (Jin, Sternkuist and Koh, 2003).

Hedonic value can be defined as “*an overall assessment of experiential benefits and sacrifices, such as entertainment and escapism*”. The emotional and psychological worth of the purchase is reflected through hedonic value derived from the shopping experience. Entertainment, having fun, joy and/or the excitement of shopping, or the escape from everyday activities that is provided by the experience are examples that result in hedonic value (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982).

Consumers attain hedonic value when they impose a hedonic meaning to the goods and services. The products acquire hedonic meanings when they are associated with the specific feelings or when they facilitate or perpetuate feelings. The hedonic meanings can be shown in a quadrant consisting of four emotional elements as shown in the below figure. For example, the excitement of an amusement park ride is made up of pleasure and arousal components, whereas the contentment associated with drowsing a sunny resort beach consists in pleasure and sleepiness components. (Arnould, Price and Zinkhan, 2002: 131)

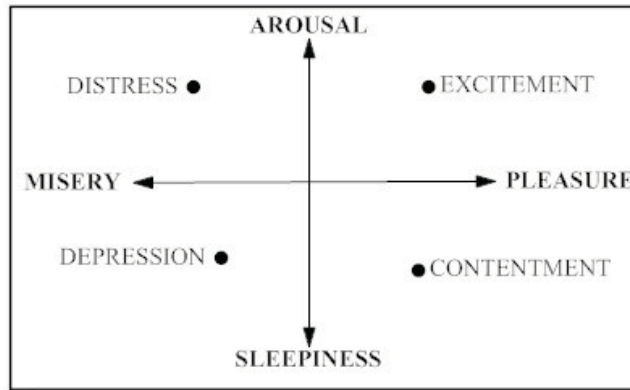


Figure 20. A Circumplex Model of Affect

Source: Russell, 1980, p. 1164

1.7.3. Differences Between Utilitarian and Hedonic Value

According to the explanations above and under the ideas of different researchers, the differences between hedonic versus utilitarian values can be summarized as below.

- ~ Functional values are considered the primary driving force of consumer choice for utilitarian values whereas, for hedonic value is the expressive and emotional values that need to be focused on (Wang et al., 2000).
- ~ The utilitarian values force consumers to behave in a logical manner and make their purchase decisions logically. In the utilitarian view, the consumers are the deciders who act like a machine. The hedonic values forces consumers to behave according to their emotions and feelings and that idea suggests that consumers have a multi-emotional capacity and that capacity tends them to buy the goods and services that they see, feel, taste, smell, hear and interact emotionally (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982).

- ~ The basic point of utilitarian value is to end the shopping duty whereas hedonic value shopping is a way to get satisfaction from life (Ariely and Carmon, 1997).
- ~ The utilitarian value symbolizes an economic concept whereas the hedonic value symbolizes a behavioral concept that is related to personal experiences (Carpenter, Moore and Fairhurst, 2005: 45).
- ~ Utilitarian value of a product or service is based on the level of usefulness while hedonic value is based on the level of pleasure. (Chaudhuri, 2006: 106).
- ~ Utilitarian values are objective, tangible, measurable and rational meanwhile hedonic values are subjective, intangible and sensitive (Lantos, 2011: 385).

1.8. TYPES OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

The decision making process can be characterized by considering the total effort going to *decision making process*. The decisions consumers make can be grouped under three categories as a continuum which simply starts with habitual decision making to extreme side – extended problem solving – and between those two extremes, there is limited problem solving. The properties of these two extreme decision making processes are given in the below figure. (Solomon, 2007: 305)

Habitual decision making is “*a purchase decision process involving little or no conscious effort*”. The habitual decision making process can be used when decisions are not very important to customers and when customers are loyal to a brand and store. For example; when customers are buying laundry detergent, they spend a small amount of time in store and they prefer the products they bought in the past. Limited problem solving is “*a purchase decision process involving a moderate*

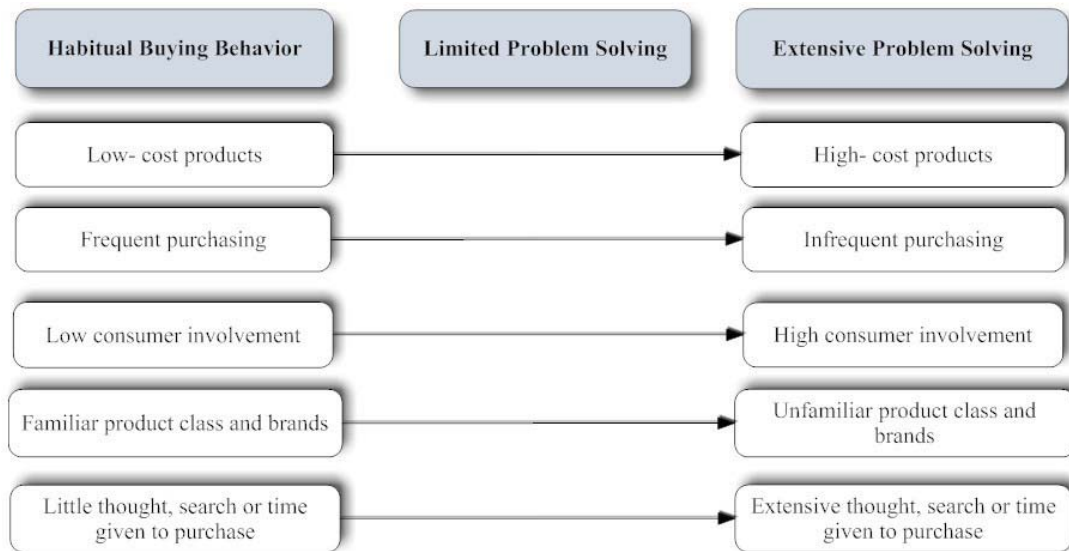


Figure 21. A Continuum of Buying Decision Behavior

Source: Solomon, 2007, p. 306

amount of effort and time". Customers are engaging in this type of process if they have a previous experience with the product or when the risks perceived from the product/service is at a moderate level. Lastly, *"a purchase decision which customers devote considerable time and effort to analyzing alternatives"* is called as extended problem solving and that type of process has a high amount of risk. For example; lasic eye surgery involves both financial risks because it has an operation cost, physical risk of having an operation from eyes, and social risk because it can change a person's appearance (Levy and Weitz, 2007: 105 – 106).

The behavior of a consumer varies according to the *decisions* he/she gives. So, the buying behaviors of consumers can be grouped under four categories with respect to decision types given. According to Kotler (2002), people in general need to be in complex and expensive purchases with more participation and deliberation. So, the buying decisions vary to four groups according to involvement and degree of differences among brands based on Henry Assael' s distinction that he made in his book of *Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action* in 1987.

	High Involvement	Low Involvement
Significant Differences Between Brands	Complex Buying Behavior	Variety Seeking Buying Behavior
Significant Differences Between Brands	Dissonance Reducing Behavior	Habitual Buying Behavior

Figure 22. Types of Consumer Behavior

Source: Taken from Kotler, 2002, 97 in which was modified from Henry Assael, Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action (Boston: Kent Publishing Co., 1987), p. 87.

Consumers apply complex buying behavior when product is expensive, bought infrequently, risky to buy and self-expressive and when they are involved in purchase and there are significant differences among brands. Generally, when consumers are in a complex buying behavior, they have to pass from a learning process, like when a consumer is going to buy a personal computer; he/she needs to learn the meanings of terms like “GHz, VGA, and GB”. Dissonance reducing buying behavior applies when the product is expensive, bought infrequently and risky and when there are no significant differences between brands. For example; when consumers are buying carpet, there are no huge differences between the alternative products. Sometimes dissonance can be experienced because of hearing the favorable opportunities of the unbought alternative. Consumers apply variety seeking buying behavior when they switch brands because they want variety such as cookies. The involvement to buy the product is low because risks are low at that type of buying but variety and differences between brands are high. Lastly when the product is low-cost and frequently purchased like salt or bread, buyers have habitual buying behavior. Buying those brands is as a habit for consumers (Kotler, 2002: 97– 98; Kotler and Armstrong, 2008).

Different than that distinction some researchers, such as Hirschman and Holbrook (1982), Babin, Darden and Griffin (1994) and Voss, Spangerberg and Grohmann (2003), suggest that there are two types of consumption called as utilitarian consumption and hedonic consumption.

1.8.1. Utilitarian Consumption

Utilitarianism is the belief that society should seek to achieve the greatest good for the greatest number (Roemer, 1998: 127). Utilitarianism internalizes the principle that thinks the quantity (or expected quantity) of good that is produced is the only thing that should matter, and people should strive to make this quantity (or expected quantity) as large as possible. People should consider their alternatives, and if an alternative brings about a larger quantity of good, that is the option that should be chosen. To determine which alternative does the most good, people are to subtract the bad each does from the good it does, and choose the one that has the highest sum (Kraut, 2007: 11).

Utilitarian consumption, which is derived from the term “utilitarianism”, involves consumers engaging in shopping out of necessity to obtain needed products, services, or information with little or no inherent satisfaction derived from the shopping activity itself (Lunardo and Mbengu, 2009: 435). According to Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) consumption with a work mentality, may be useful in explaining the "dark side of shopping" alluded to earlier. The consumers that are making utilitarian consumption may find value only if the shopping chore is completed successfully (get everything done) and, even better, if done in a fastidious manner (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994: 646).

1.8.2. Hedonic Consumption

In recent years, when consumers have indefinite competing options when they are making consumption, the sensory experiences they receive from products and services become more of issue. It became more important for customers to buy the products and services that will give hedonic value to them. On such an occasion,

a new concept starts to come into prominence which is called as “hedonic consumption”. Hedonic consumption can be simply defined as “*the multisensory, fantasy and emotional aspects of consumers’ interactions with products*” (Solomon, 2007: 50–51). The concept will be evaluated in depth in the second chapter of this study.

CHAPTER TWO

HEDONIC CONSUMPTION

2.1. PLEASURE AND HEDONISM

Hedonism is based on the concept of pleasure, so, before hedonism is discussed, *pleasure* and *types of pleasure* should be emphasized.

2.1.1. The Term of Pleasure

According to Fisiak and Krygier (1996: 25); the word *please* is a descendant of Old French word *plaisir*, which in turn descends from the Latin verb *placere* “to be pleasing or agreeable” and first was used in the 14th century in the sense “to seem good to one, be one’s will or pleasure”.

Pleasure is defined by Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English as the “*feeling of happiness, enjoyment, or satisfaction that you get from an experience*” (<http://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/pleasure>). Pleasure can be in two ways. First, the pleasure can be felt in the end of the activity. One may speak of the pleasure he/she gets at the end of various activities like eating, engaging in sexual intercourse, etc. Second, pleasure can be felt when making an activity. Golf, for instance, gives great pleasure to many millions of people, but to play golf for pleasure is not to play for some end independent of the activity itself (Rudebusch, 1999: 5; Graham, 2004: 51).

Pleasure has been a neglected, shunned or even tabooed topic regardless of the fact that it has been advanced as the final criterion for human morality, as the basis of economic decisions, as, indeed, the ultimate goal of human action under various names as satisfaction, happiness, positive emotion, etc. (Russell, 2003: 161).

According to Warnock (2003: 41 – 42), pleasure will be perceived as greater or less according to dimensions of pleasure. Those dimensions are intensity,

duration, certainty or uncertainty, propinquity or remoteness, fecundity (the chance it has of being followed by sensations of the same kind: that is, pleasures, if it be a pleasure: pains, if it be a pain), purity (the chance it has of not being followed by sensations of the opposite kind: that is, pains, if it be a pleasure: pleasures, if it be a pain) and as a last the number of persons to whom it extends. Bumin (2002: 154) suggests that pleasure arithmetic is “*measuring all dimensions of pleasures to make up an ethical balance sheet*”.

2.1.2. Types of Pleasure

Erich Fromm, in his book “Man for Himself: An Inquiry into the Psychology of Ethics”, determined the types of pleasure deeply by defending the idea that the analysis of differences between types of pleasure is the crucial point of the relationship between pleasure and ethics. According to him types of pleasure are as (Fromm, 1947: 182 – 190; Fromm, 1993: 213 – 220):

a. Relief from painful tension

Hunger, thirst, sexual satisfaction, sleep are that kind of pleasure sources and the psychological necessity to fulfill those are felt as want for short term, but if not satisfied for a long time they give a painful tension. The satisfaction that arises from relief from painful tension is the most common type of pleasure and there is no other type of pleasure for some people.

b. Relief from psychic tension

It includes the desire of demands of his/her body, but actually irrational psychic needs to allay anxiety or depression. A well known example is about thirst that the need for drinking is often due to psychically conditioning. Also sleeping which is a desire about tiredness can be caused by psychic conditions such as repressed anxiety, fear or anger. Those two types of pleasure are a result of psychological scarcity.

c. Abundance pleasure

A person may derive pleasure from eating a meal because of relief from hunger tension whereas; derive pleasure from tasting a meal that he/she likes. Those two examples are differentiated because not tasting that meal will not create a tension as hunger. Satisfaction of an abundance pleasure is not an obligation but a statement of freedom and creation.

There are two more pleasures which are less complex than first three ones. One is *gratification* which accompanies accomplishment of any kind of task one has set out to do. A person can be gratified by both in a good game of tennis as in success of a business so gratification does not depend on whether the activity is specific or not. And the fifth and last type of pleasure is *relaxation*, which is effortless but pleasant. (Fromm, 1947: 182 – 190; Fromm, 1993: 213 – 220)

Different than Fromm's view in literature there is another classification related to the types of pleasure mentioned by a number of researchers (Jordan, 2000: Jordan and Macdonald, 1998 and so on) that works in different sciences. According to that second classification, which is made according to the product attributions, there are four types of pleasure as physical (physio / sensory) pleasure, social (socio) pleasure, psychological (psycho) pleasure and ideological (ideo) pleasure.

a. Physical (physio) pleasure

Physical (physio) pleasure is concerned with physical body, everything from psychological need or benefit, through sensory organs' feedback as touch, taste, smell, hearing and sensual pleasure. The analyses that are made to evaluate people's characteristics according to physical pleasure can be based on external body characteristics (such as weight, height, body shape, etc.), body personalization (such as hairstyle, clothing, tattooing, etc.), and reactions to physical environment. For example, tactile pleasures can come from holding and touching product during interaction as holding a soft

plushie, or olfactory pleasures could come from smell inside a new car (Chen, 2006: 140; Piller and Tseng, 2010: 194)

b. Social (socio) pleasure

Social (socio) pleasure refers to the enjoyment derived from relationship with others, which might mean relationship with friends, loved ones, and like-minded people whereas can be relationship with society as a whole. The analyses that are made to evaluate people's characteristics according to social pleasure can be based on sociological characteristics, social status, self-image, social life-styles and social relations. Products can facilitate social interaction in various ways, like mobile phones and e-mails help people to keep touch. Socio-pleasure can be derived from changes in technology. For example, socio-pleasure is gained when people became able to express and retrieve information in social networking web sites as Twitter and Facebook. Also, socio-pleasure is gained from perceived value derived from uniqueness of output and pride of authorship like owning a special piece of jewelry. (Chen, 2006: 140; Gabriel and Lang, 2006: 105; Piller and Tseng, 2010: 194; Westerink et al., 2008: 14)

c. Psychological (psycho) pleasure

Psychological pleasure pertains to cognitive and emotional reactions of people. The analyses that are made to evaluate people's characteristics according to psychological pleasure can be based on special talents and difficulties, personality traits, social confidence and learned skills and knowledge. On account of product, the psychological pleasure will be evaluated by looking at cognitive demands of using the product and emotional reactions following experiencing the product. For example, a product that allows the user to complete a task easily and quickly, will give more psycho-pleasure than the one that gives error frequently. For example, for a housewife, a vacuum cleaner which sounds powerful and has a well

suction force gives psychological pleasure, as helping to chore by being faster and more practical.

d. Ideological (ideo) pleasure

Ideological pleasure relates to people's value and the analysis approach can be personal ideologies, religious beliefs, social ideology, aesthetic values and aspirations. It defines how people see and how they like to see themselves and driven by potential ownership of and experience gained through a product. For the people who are concerned about environmental issues, a product made from recyclable materials would be seen as a source of ideological pleasure.

In general, these four types of pleasures (physical pleasure, social pleasure, psychological pleasure and ideological pleasure) are mixed within the products. For example, a person can experience each four pleasures when using a computer mouse. If the mouse has useful functions as scrolling ball, easy to use, ergonomic, easy to hold etc. the person who uses it will derive physio-pleasure. When color, form and image is appropriate to the social status of user, than it will give socio-pleasure. When it is wireless, optical and fun to use, the one using that mouse will feel psycho-pleasure. And if the aesthetic of mouse is suited to the values of user, it will create ideo-pleasure (Bramley et al., 2005: 66). The details of the example can be seen in the below figure.

Physio-pleasure	Physics	Useful functions (scrolling ball, wireless, optical, rolling ball) Ergonomics Easy to use (large button, 2 buttons, scrolling ball)
	Tactus	Good in hand (light-weight, texture or sensorial pleasing feeling, volume size, small, form) Easy to hold (weight, volume, texture) Feel comfortable against the hand (material, hand sweat-resistance, for use for over several hours)
Psycho-pleasure	Technology	Wireless, optical
	Operation	Easy to use at the first attempt (guessable, compatibility) Fun to use Scrolling ball location up (finger)
Socio-pleasure	Product image	Color, form, high-tech image
Ideo-pleasure	Color	Aesthetic pleasure (curve & streamline mouse form)

Figure 23. Four Criteria for Experiencing Pleasure Using a Mouse

Source: Bramley et al., 2005, p. 66

2.1.3. The Term of Hedonism

In order to comprehend the meaning of hedonism, it is necessary to understand the roots of the word and theory. Eros, the Greek god of sexual love, was one of the earliest deities and he was a figure of many famous romances and tragedies (Littleton, 2005: 488 – 491). The most famous myth called as “Beauty and the Beast”, that Eros appears as central character is the romance between him and Psyche, who is the most beautiful young woman in the realm and enslaved by Aphrodite (Haase, 2008: 246). According to the myth, Aphrodite, the goddess of beauty, love and sexuality, was jealous of the beauty of Psyche and commanded her son Eros to strike Psyche with his arrow for her to fall in love to the ugliest man of the world. But Psyche and Eros were already in love. Despite all the pains Aphrodite gives to them as punishment, Psyche experienced desire, love and sexuality in a context of conflict, danger and pain; they have reunited and had a daughter whose name is Hēdonē (Voluptas). With that fairytale, mythology tells people that happiness, love and desire coexists with pain, danger and death (Gritzner, 2010: 1).

As most ideas, the origin of hedonism goes back to Ancient Greek. By the mid 400s B.C., Greece was at Hellenistic Age and was interested on topics as

democracy, architecture, painting, poetry, drama and totally the increase of quality of life and welfare. As a beginning to attend on hedonism, Socrates asked “What is good?” to his students. And it was Aristoppus who concluded that the good was simply pleasure (hēdonē) (Flocker, 2004: 22–23). Hedonism, which is developed at that age suggests that pleasure is the supreme wellness and is the main principle of life (Odabaşı, 2006: 107) and is the only good in life (Imelda and Nabor–Nery, 2003: 17). From *hēdonē*, the Greek root for pleasure, hedonism is the general term for any philosophy that says pleasure is equal to good and pain is equal to evil (Soccio, 2010: 182). One of the most widely accepted idea of what happiness is pleasure (White, 2006: 41). A hedonist only acts to maximize pleasure and minimize pain (Kizza, 2010: 35).

According to Loukides and Fuller (1996:250), three elements of hedonism are

- a. Pleasure is intrinsically good and pain is intrinsically evil
- b. Happiness is achieved when there is a surplus of pleasure over pain
- c. People should attempt to maximize happiness while minimizing unhappiness.

With the light of those elements, hedonism can be defined as “*the view that what is good for any individual is the enjoyable experience in her life, what is bad is the suffering in that life, and the life best for an individual is that with the greatest balance of enjoyment over suffering*” (Crisp, 2006: 102).

2.2. THE PARADOX OF HEDONISM

Hedonism claims that human life does not need any greater meaning that provided by the pursuit of pleasure and the avoidance of pain. However, there are many criticisms on whether a person can accept that all he/she wants from life is pleasure. Although the hedonist view regards the world as a paradise when the

maximum pleasure and avoidance of pain has been achieved, it is often thought of as more a nightmare than a dream come true according to anti-hedonists (Bennett, 2010: 9 – 10).

There are mixed feelings about the merits of hedonism as; some praise it as natural and healthy, but others think that hedonism is equal to overindulgence and moral decay. On one view, hedonism is associated with good taste and the art of living whereas on the other view with addiction, superficiality, irresponsible behavior and short sighted egoism (Veenhoven, 2003: 438).

2.2.1. Negative View

The main lines in negative criticism of hedonism can be grouped under two headings as the environmental argument and individual level argument. The environmental argument suggests that hedonism is bad for environment and holds that it gives rise to over-consumption. The over consumption will add to the ongoing depletion of natural resources and will be a cause of destruction of the environment. On the other hand, hedonism aims to maximize pleasure and pleasure induces an unrealistic outlook to society, increases the conspicuous consumption.

The individual argument offers again two lines of criticism. First is that hedonism undermines health by pursuit of sensory pleasures such as drinking alcohol beverages, smoking tobacco, eating sweets and abundant sex. Second line of individual level criticism is that it reduces happiness in the long term because pleasure might fade with time and this would leave the pleasure seeker unsatisfied or might lead into addiction, addiction may lead a loss of reality control and can lead one into risky experimentations (Veenhoven, 2003: 438–440)

Consider how a consumer decides which songs to play at a jukebox. A consumer may choose to listen to several songs over time rather than choosing the song that gives the highest enjoyment. There is a range of possible listening behaviors the individual can engage in as listening to the favorite song every trial to

refraining completely from listening to the favorite. That type of behavior is defined as melioration which occurs when an individual overconsumes the favorite until its enjoyment level is decreased. Similar to Veenhoven's view Kahn, Ratner, and Kahneman (1997: 85–86) think that hedonism, on the light of given example, will result to overconsumption and waste.

As Veenhoven (2003) and Kahn, Ratner, and Kahneman (1997) take the consequences of hedonism into consideration, there are some researches made for introducing the negative views from psychological perspective. For example, Timmerman (2005: 144–146) suggests that people occasionally reject additional pleasure itself, not only for any contingent side effects but simply for what it is, or there is too much of it. Strong sensual stimulation can be like: intense food, being tickled, sexual pleasure. In these examples beyond a certain point, pleasure exceeds the limit of what people can bear.

2.2.2. Positive View

Advocates of hedonism argue that pleasure is a natural signal people should not disregard. Pursuit of pleasure is something that comes naturally to homo-sapiens that lead people to behave in beneficial ways. Hedonism contributes happiness because happiness is seen to result from a positive balance of enjoyable experiences over unpleasant ones and this balance is likely to be more positive if one reaches out to the pleasure. Also it affects people indirectly as, enjoyment and happiness enhances one's capacity to cope with problems of life and enjoyment makes people more sociable (Veenhoven, 2003: 440–441).

According to Bennett (2010: 9–10), hedonism has advantages as it refuses to entertain the concerns about the meaningless of human existence since it claims that human life does not need any greater meaning than that provided by the pursuit of pleasure and the avoidance of pain. Also humans have sources of pleasure ready to hand and can reach to maximum pleasure by good food, sleep, exercise, play and so on.

The researchers, whereas they had shared their views on hedonism, also tried to find strategies to avoid paradox and maximizing pleasure. For instance, Timmermann (2005) suggests three strategies for avoiding paradox. First strategy is that, the hedonists should maintain that pleasure is good despite the fact that human beings are incapable of appreciating goodness under all circumstances. Secondly, the hedonist might be tempted to advocate a ‘negative’ version of the theory and say that ‘the good’ is really absence of pain, and different kinds of pleasure are just different ways in which pain can be absent. Thirdly, the hedonist could argue that at a certain point a further increase in pleasure becomes unpleasant and is rejected as such.

Thaler (1985) proposed a set of happiness–maximizing strategies, which he termed “hedonic editing”.

- ~ First strategy suggests that, if a person has two good events to enjoy, he/she should use them on separate occasions. This is because the multiple gains will result with greater pleasure when two are experienced separately.
- ~ Secondly, if a person has two bad events to experience, it would be better to experience them at close times, because multiple losses will yield less total pain if they are experienced as one integrated loss than if they are experienced separately.
- ~ Thirdly, when a person has a big bad event and small good event to experience, those two should be experienced separately. This is because utility of a separate small gain can exceed the utility of a reduction from a large loss. So, people will experience their pains less.
- ~ As a fourth and the last strategy, if a person has a big good event and a small bad event to experience, he/she should experience them at close proximity, and so the negative utility of a separate small loss can exceed the negative utility of a reduction from a large gain.

2.3. THEORIES OF HEDONISM

First efforts to analyze the terms pleasure and pain had been made by Ancient Greek philosophers. There are important theories on happiness and the effects of pleasure and pain on happiness in the studies made in those years. The views of Ancient Greek philosophers can be generalized as (Odabaşı, 2006: 108);

- a. Two motives that are opposite to each other – pleasure and pain – play essential role in people’s lives.
- b. It can be said that the supreme good (summon bonum) and desire at a person’s life is maximization of pleasure and minimization of pain.
- c. The tendency of egoist hedonism is the basic tendency.
- d. There needs to be a measurement tool to evaluate a specific action and measurement of pleasure and pain.

Although generalization can be made on the hedonistic theories, there remain essential differences between the philosophers. The theories of Aristoppus, Epicurus and Spencer are analyzed below.

2.3.1. Aristoppus’ s Theory

Cyrene, which was founded by Greek colonists, is the town on the coast of North Africa where Libya is now. In the past, it was a prosperous city with flowers, fruits, lush vegetables, marble temples, public square, huge and luxurious homes. Aristoppus was born in Cyrene in 435 BC and died in 350 BC and is generally recognized as the founder of the so-called Cyrenaic school of hedonism. Aristoppus is said to have first journeyed to Athens for Olympic Games and heard about Socrates, who is the first philosopher that went for discussion of what good is, He

became a member of Socrates' followers and eventually did some teaching himself (Flocker, 2004: 22–23; O'Keefe, 2001; Soccio, 2010: 183–184).

Aristoppos argued that pleasure is the principal motive for living and that pleasure is always good, regardless of its source. He thought that all people seek pleasure, whether they are aware or not. He suggested that the meaning of life can only be realized by observing our actual behavior. It means that physical pleasures are more valuable than mental, intellectual pleasures. It is the physical pleasure that makes people's lives dynamic, exciting and wealthy. Not only that but also, according to him, the pleasures of future could not emerge yet and the past had disappeared so actual pleasures of the moment are much more desirable than future and past ones. So he said that people should go for near-term pleasures rather than long-term ones. Aristoppos believed that human should act to maximize pleasure and not worry about future. The sentences as "Eat, drink and be merry, for tomorrow we die.", "Live for today." and "Don't worry, be happy." are present examples of Aristoppos philosophy of hedonism. He believed that people should commit their lives to pleasure, besides he defends they should use good judgments, have self-control as what he calls as pleasure of mind- intellectual pleasure. As a third dimension, Aristoppos view of hedonism is an egoistic hedonism because he defended the notion that each person should pursue his own pleasure, perhaps because each person could never experience the pleasures of any other person and for every person own pleasure is what is valuable to him/her, because that is what every person seeks for him/herself (Feldman, 2004: 30 – 31; Sayre and King, 2010: 249; Soccio, 2010: 182; Watson, 1895: 19 – 26; Weber, 1998: 46 – 48).

2.3.2. Epicurus' s Theory

Epicurus (341–270 BC) was born on the Greek Island of Samos and he spent most of his life in Athens. Epicurus did not teach in a building but rather he bought a garden and disseminated his ideas there so this place was called as *Kepos (Garden)*. The garden was an unusual place because it welcomed everyone, like women and men or the ones who have different social status (slaves, housewives, aristocrats).

People were learning at the same place different than other schools at those days. According to his ideas, philosophy is nothing than investigation of opportunities and tools that provides the *happiness of the self* (what he calls as eudaimonia). Epicurus spent no time to any issue, especially to the ones that are absolutely theoretical, other than his philosophy definition. To reach that target, first of all the nature needs to be investigated totally (*physics*), than the *ethics*, which investigates what people try to reach and avoid, comes after physics, and than the information tools should be investigated to find whether the action will be right by using our logic – *canonical*. The basic of those three principles is ethics and the other two are just for reaching the ethics at Epicurus views (N.P., 1980: 96 – 97; Soccio, 2010: 183).

Like Aristoppus, Epicurus also adopted to take pleasure from life and to escape from pain. To reach that object he distinguishes between three types of desires as (O’Keefe, 2001);

- ~ ***Natural and necessary desires***; like desires for food, drink, shelter and the like. The desires under that group are easy to satisfy, hard to ignore or eliminate, and when satisfied they give high pleasures to the owner. They are necessary for human lives, limited naturally (for example if a person is hungry he/she can eat limited amount of food until he/she gets a full stomach, then it will be out of capacity). Epicurus propounded that one should try to fulfill these desires.
- ~ ***Vain desires***; like desire for power, wealth, fame and the like. They have no natural limit and that situation makes those desires hard to satisfy (for example, when a person desires power, no matter how much he gets, he will want more). These desires are not natural and shaped with the views of society. Epicurus thinks that these desires should be eliminated.
- ~ ***Natural but unnecessary desire***; is the desire for luxury food. Although food is a necessity, one does not need a particular food to survive. The main point for natural desire is to satisfy the need. Epicurus suggested

that becoming dependent on such good leads to unhappiness, but if available, one should satisfy them.

Epicurus thinks that happiness can be attained by eliminating the pain caused by unfulfilled desires and anxiety that occurs because of the fear that one's desires will not be fulfilled in the future. The anxiety and pain are fundamental obstacles to happiness. For instance, if a person is anxious about getting sick, no matter how healthy he/she is, that person can not be happy. Epicurus claims that in some sense, freedom from pain, a condition he calls aponia, and freedom from anxiety, a condition he calls ataraxia, are as pleasant as life can get and when the state of aponia and ataraxia has been reached, no further removal of pain is possible and maximum pleasure has thus been achieved. Epicurus, because of this perspective to hedonism, is called as negative hedonist (Barkman, 2009; Prevos, 2004).

2.3.3. Spencer's Theory

Herbert Spencer (1820 – 1903) is an English sociologist and philosopher. He is an early advocate of the theory of evolution. He had worked on principles of biology, psychology, morality and sociology in his studies. He was a *Social Darwinist* who defends the theory that persons, groups, and races are subject to the same laws of natural selection as Charles Darwin had perceived in plants and animals in nature. According to Spencer the life of humans in society was a struggle for existence ruled by survival of the fittest (<http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/559249/Herbert-Spencer/6811/The-synthetic-philosophy-in-outline#ref145510> (<http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/551058/social-Darwinism>)).

Spencer's book of Ethics is one of the most extensive and systematic investigations of pleasure principle. The main point of Spencer's principle of pleasure and pain is evolution. He suggests that the pleasure and pain are biological functions that take people to act for the good of himself / herself. According to him, every pleasure increases the vitality whereas every pain decreases the vitality and

every pleasure raises the tide of life and every pain reduces the tide of life. Also near the biological function of pleasure, Spencer asserts a sociological function of pleasure. When people shape their actions for fulfillment of the social life requirements, whether they want or not, all the necessary activities will be pleasant and all the activities that contradict to those necessities will be painful in time (Fromm, 1993: 207 – 209; Spencer, 1897: 71).

The theories of hedonism discuss the boundaries of “luxury” and “necessity” from different researchers’ views. For that reason those two words are going to be evaluated to have a better understanding of theories.

2.4. TRADITIONAL HEDONISM VERSUS MODERN HEDONISM

Necessity is “*an event that occurs in the face of all oppositions and hindrance and is impossible of prevention*”. When an event is regarded as necessity, it is infallible and no other event can then and there be. So necessities should be evaluated in one’s own particular perspective. A person can not avoid getting hungry by wearing a thick cloth; only if he/she eats something he/she can avoid his/her necessity. Necessary items are essential items that one can not abandon and that are indispensable for reaching minimum standards of living. For example food, clothing, medical care are basic for life and impossible to be avoided, denied or prevented. (Hickok, 1859: 327 – 330; Ratneshwar and Mick, 2005: 146)

From an economical perspective, necessities tend to have an inelastic demand, which means that whether the price of the necessary items increases, the demand for those items will not decrease. The reason lies also at above paragraph that, the necessities are impossible to abandon. Individuals can not discard to go to doctor if the consultation becomes expensive, for instance (Mankiw, 2009: 90).

The word luxury has its origins from the Latin word “luxus” which means *excess*. As can be understood from the Latin meaning, luxuries are objects of desire that provide comfort, superfluity, abundance and ease conditions (Ratneshwar and

Mick, 2005: 146). The words that help to define the word luxury can be listed as; comfort, expensive, pampering, not practical, extravagant, unique, not ordinary, craftsman, allure, special, made well, quality, design, reputation, what I want, pleasant, beyond the basics, the best, sensual, privileged, exclusive, freedom etc (Danziger, 2005: 27).

According to Okonkwo (2007: 7), the luxury is best defined by the fashion icon Coco Chanel with his words “Luxury is the necessity that begins where the necessity ends.”. Also Paison (2006: 158), with his example supports the idea of Okonkwo. He assumes that the basic necessities of life (like food, shelter, water and clothing) for 100 years are ready for all humans. If everything is a necessity, there will be no need to work for a single day in life. But people, when they fulfill all their needs continue to work again because the luxuries start after that fulfillment process.

From economical view, different than necessities, the luxuries have elastic demand. It means that when the price of luxuries increases, the demand for that kind of item will decrease. For example, when the price of sailboats increases, the quantity of sailboats demanded falls substantially (Mankiw, 2009: 90) .

It can be said that the definition of luxury depends on the person whom is asked to define the luxury. What is luxury for one person can be a necessity for another (MacNiven, 1993: 135). Haworth – Attard (2009: 140) gives the example in his book through a conversation:

- ~ For a teenage girl: Lip gloss – necessity. Important for self-esteem.
For her mother and father: Lip gloss – luxury. Too young for make up.
- ~ For a teenage girl: Cell phone – necessity. Keep up with peers.
For her mother and father: Cell phone – luxury. Results brain damage.

According to Danziger (2005: 22) the luxury items have four dimensions as shown in Figure 24.

- ~ Firstly, luxury is defined by the brand of the product, so if the brand is not a known, expensive, or high society oriented brand, it is not a luxury. Brands like Mercedes– Benz, Rolls–Royce, Rolex, Prada, Gucci are among the brands that most of the customers mentioned as luxury.

- ~ Second one, people tend to describe luxury as specific attributes, qualities, and features. For example, when people go for travel or fine dining, when the decoration, atmosphere, service personnel and other amenities become more attended and specialized, they tend to call those places as luxury.

- ~ Thirdly, another perspective on luxury is that people think luxury as more of what you want than what you need. For example, a Subaru branded car can get a college student to school, but his insistence to his parent for buying a new Mercedes can be called as luxury.

- ~ Fourth and lastly, the ultimate expression of luxury is defined as the power to pursue intangibles as time, space, simplicity, dreams, and so on. It is the ultimate experiential dimension of luxury. Different than the first three dimensions, this dimension turns people inward to find the luxuries of life. For example, luxury can be defined as “having the feeling that one can do what he/she wants, when he/she wants” at that fourth dimension.

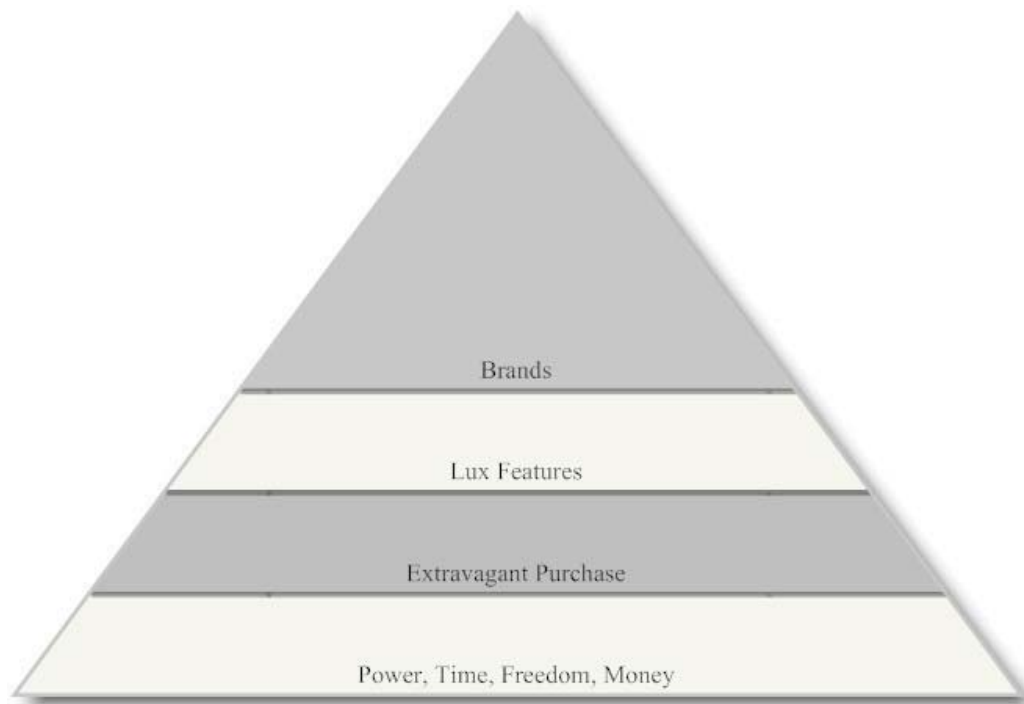


Figure 24. Four Dimensions of Luxury

Source: Danziger, 2005, p. 22

There is a distinct difference between luxury and necessity as told in the previous part. From necessities, people derive satisfaction, whereas from luxuries they derive pleasure. The actions of satisfying needs and pursuing pleasures are not all same. Even though the much human activity is of a kind which yields both satisfaction and pleasure, these two derive from different aspects of human. The first relates to a lack that needs to be filled so that some sort of imbalance can be balanced, whereas, the second aims to experience greater stimulation (Corrigan, 2006: 15). The concepts *traditional hedonism* and *modern hedonism* helps to make the distinction and to maximize both pleasure and satisfaction.

2.4.1. Traditional Hedonism

Traditional hedonism focused on the maximum enjoyment of pleasurable objects and activities such as food, drink, music, game, etc. Traditional hedonists suggest that the search for pleasure is intrinsically good (Corrigan, 2006: 15– 16). It is characterized by feelings and emotions making people feel nice (Babacan, 2001).

According to Campbell (2005: 65), in traditional societies the search for pleasure equals to the search for sensations. For members of a small elite group, who has power and wealth and whose regular satisfaction of needs are guaranteed (such as they are not going to get hungry or lack shelter); the scarce commodity is not the good but the end sensation itself. Because their needs are guaranteed, in time, they experience a loss of pleasure in their lives. By the way, they try to recreate artificially the cycle of need– satisfaction experience. For example, satisfaction may be obtained from eating a meal, but pleasure comes through the Romans habit of making self ill consciously, so that they might be able to continue to enjoy the pleasures of eating by eating over and over again. But that situation again could not be continued till the end. For instance, the sense of taste is only capable of distinguishing the four categories of salt, sweet, bitter and sour. On the other hand the arts, such as music, poetry, drama, do seem to have more potential for gratifying the hedonists, because they offer greater variety. Therefore it is the aesthetic dimension of experience which seems to offer the greater premise for pleasure seeking (Hobbs, 1997: 141).

2.4.2. Modern Hedonism

The shift from traditional hedonism to modern hedonism bases on the shift of primary concern from sensations to emotions. The modern hedonists think that the pleasure should be hold separate from physical satisfaction. It takes place on the illusory level. The idea that pleasure can be obtained from not certain activities but from illusions, daydreams and fantasies is dominated between modern hedonists. The pleasure, when it gets rid of certain activities, will have an endless potential and will be unlimited. When compared with traditional hedonism, pleasure in traditional hedonism will be found in very particular experiences whereas in modern hedonism pleasure can be found in all or any experiences because of the unlimited condition. (Babacan, 2001; Campbell, 2005: 69 – 71; Corrigan, 2006: 15– 16; Odabaşı, 2006: 113 – 115).

The differences between traditional and modern hedonism can be seen in the below table.

Table 3. Traditional versus Modern Hedonism

Traditional Hedonism	Modern Hedonism
Search for pleasure tied to specific practices	Search for pleasure in any or all experiences
Pleasure tied to sensations	Pleasure tied to emotions
Emotions not under the control of subject	Emotions controlled by subject
Pleasure derived from control of objects and events	Pleasure derived from control of the meanings of objects and events

Source: Corrigan, 2006, p. 16

2.5. HEDONIC CONSUMPTION

Everyday, consumers make many buying decisions. The researchers analyze on consumer's purchases to find out what they buy, where they buy, and how much they buy. But learning the whys of consumer buying behavior is not so easy. The answers are often locked deep within the consumer's mind which is called as buyer's black box (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008: 130 – 131). According to Rosinsky (2004: 5), consumers spend money on the things they need and also they want. Danziger (2004: 4) suggests that in the later decades of twentieth century, essentials (needs) have captured far less of the consumer's budget which means that consumers shift away from necessity driven spending. Gaining insight into consumer motivation is the best predictor of consumer behavior in such a changing and shifting market structure, because by understanding why consumers behave as they do, researchers can have a look into the future. Hedonic consumption or shopping for pleasure is one of the strongest motives among consumers to shop.

The term *hedonic consumption* dates back to two articles published in 1982 by authors Hirschman and Holbrook. The authors developed an experiential view of hedonic consumption which takes the aesthetic of products as novels and art as basis. But different than their research the resulting propositions were used by other researchers to all product classes (Hiraoka, 2009: 30). According to Hirschman and Holbrook (1982), "hedonic consumption designates those facets of consumer behavior that relate to the multisensory, fantasy and emotional aspects of one's experience with products".

Also in their study, they tried to explain the dimensions of their definition. By multisensory, they try to explain the receipt of experience in multiple sensory modalities including tastes, sounds, scents, tactile impressions and visual images. Another point is that, consumers do not only respond to external multisensory impressions by encoding the taken sensory inputs, but they also respond to multisensory impressions within themselves. For example, people when they smell perfume can both take just its smell, whereas she/he can generate internal imagery containing sights, sounds and tactile sensations, all of which are also experienced. Those images can be historic images as remembering a memory with a friend who used that perfume, whereas it can be a fantasy image which is a result of consumer's response by producing a multisensory image not experienced before (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982).

Solomon et al. (2006: 15) suggests that consumers have different reasons to make consumption; hence they may have different relationships with a product. In this respect, the hedonic consumption can be said to be the reason of those differences. The types of relationships can be as:

- ~ *Self-concept attachment* – the product helps to establish the user's identity.
- ~ *Nostalgic attachment* – the product serves as a link with a past self.
- ~ *Interdependence* – the product is a part of the user's daily routine.
- ~ *Love* – the product elicits bonds of warmth, passion or other strong emotion.

Similar to the ideas of Solomon et al., Hirschman in 1983 proposed that some consumption types are entirely hedonic and as a result an experience seeking phenomenon. Accordingly, she decomposed experience seeking into three alternatives (Spangenberg, Voss and Crowley, 1997):

- ~ *Cognition seeking* which aims to desire to stimulate or activate thinking.
- ~ *Sensation seeking* which aims to desire to experience consumption through one or more of the five senses and
- ~ *Novelty seeking* which aims to look for unique, fresh sources of stimulation through consumption.

Spangenberg, Voss and Crowley (1997) also suggest that, in any discussion on hedonic consumption two components should not exceed without reference: mood and mental imagery. Mood can be described as “*a feeling or state of longer duration and lower intensity than emotions*” and moods are experienced without being aware of its time of origin, cause, influence or even presence. Consumers might use hedonic consumption as a way of changing undesirable moods and/or achieving highly desired moods (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994). Secondly, mental imagery may be stimulated by hedonic components of consumption experience. Two possible forms of mental imagery (historical and fantasy imagery) suggested by were Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) whom were told before at that heading.

In Turkey, the hedonic consumption concept is first mention by Babacan (2001), in “Hedonik Tüketim ve Özel Günler Alışverişlerine Yansıması” and as many foreign researchers the connection of hedonic consumption and special days were evaluated in that research and as a result, she suggested that before special days, hedonic consumption has a structure that makes consumers happier, leads people to make extra consumptions and directs people to make impulse buying.

Christodoulides, Michaelidou and Li (2008), at their studies investigated the psychometric properties of Vigneron and Johnson’s Brand Luxury Index scale. Their participants were actual consumers of luxury brands in Taiwan as one of the fastest growing market for luxury brands and they found that luxury products are predominantly hedonic. Husic and Cicic (2009) studied on factors that determine luxury consumption on 198 participants. They explain the luxury consumption according to the effects of perceived conspicuous value, perceived unique value,

perceived social value, hedonic effect and perfectionism effect and suggest that hedonist consumers are more interested in their own thoughts and feelings, and thus will place less emphasis on price as an indicator of prestige. Similarly, Lee and Hwang (2011) examined the influences of psychological characteristics (materialism, uniqueness, hedonism, and perfectionism), and demographic characteristics (gender, age, and income) on attitudes toward luxury restaurants. As a result of their study they found that people buy luxurious products and services as a type of hedonic shopping. In those studies, the main principle is that one buys luxury/prestige good for pleasure and emotional responses such as sensory pleasure, aesthetic beauty and excitement.

From another perspective, a group of consumption which is made from consumers named as market mavens (and defined as “*individuals who have information about many kinds of products, places to shop, and other facets of markets, and initiate discussions with consumers and respond to requests from consumers for market information*” by Feick and Price in 1987), can be called as hedonic consumption. That idea comes up with the researches showing that individuals scoring highest on the maven scale were found not only to engage in more information search and provide others with more information, but also to enjoy shopping more (Slama and Williams, 1990).

It can be said that, the concern of the researches on hedonic consumption can be because of the variety of the disciplines and topics that works on concept. As the studies of social sciences researchers on hedonic consumption, researchers from other disciplines as medicine have studies on that concept. For instance, Cota et al. (2006) focused on the role of the cannabinoid and opioid systems for the homeostatic and hedonic aspects of eating behavior and includes their anatomical and functional interactions. As a result of their research, they express that, the originating point of obesity is hedonism, and they suggest that making hedonic consumption can be a reason of illnesses. Audebert, Deiss and Rousset (2006) analysis hedonism in meat consumption and develop four hedonism scales as overall hedonism, eating meat hedonism, red meat hedonism and white meat hedonism. Using these scales, they

measured French women's attitudes towards meat. Also Gonzalez-Pinto et al. (2003) studying the reasons of manic disorder suggest that the reasons of mania can be depression, dysphoria, hedonism, psychosis and activation.

Even though hedonic consumption and value is popular in different disciplines, mainly the topic has covered many times by marketing and consumer behavior researchers. For example, Laverie, Kleine and Kleine (1993) examined the relationship between emotions and values in consumption experiences. According to them, hedonic value relates to interest, surprise and enjoyment, private self relates to interest and fear and public self is related with shame and decrease surprise.

Hopkinson and Pujari (1999) made a study that analyses the sources of meaning for kayak sport amongst its consumers. Analyses were performed in order to discover whether kayak paddlers are motivated in the same way, or whether there are systematic differences according to gender, age, level of experience, or paddling discipline. As a result, they propose five dimensions for hedonic consumption as relationship to environment (social and natural), challenge or personal growth, communities, addiction and danger.

Christiansen and Snepenger (2002) designed their study to investigate whether tourists enjoy shopping because they are far from home or whether the mall which tourists are shopping is a better mall for shopping. The measures were made based on four aspects of shopping experiences: hedonic and utilitarian value, the novelty of shopping and the encouragement of social interaction. As a result of their study, which includes 123 tourists and 265 locals, the tourists viewed shopping at the mall they were visiting as a tourist as a more pleasurable experience and make more hedonic consumption.

Some researches combine hedonic consumption with other social disciplines. For example, Guido (2006) conducted a study on a sample of roughly 700 customers of two different shopping centers, focuses on verifying the existence of hedonic and utilitarian values over the Big Five factors of human personality. Results showed

that, openness to experience, agreeableness, and extroversion traits are correlated to the hedonic shopping value, so that people who have those type of personality make more hedonic consumption; whereas, emotional stability, and conscientiousness traits are correlated to the utilitarian shopping value that tend those groups to utilitarian shopping. Similarly, Hartman et al. (2006) made a study to answer two questions: whether web-consumption behaviors can be classified into two behavioral domains—utilitarian and hedonic. The second research question asked whether these two domains can be predicted by adolescents' personal values and innovativeness. At the end of their study, which includes 190 responses, they found that participants were enjoying themselves while improving their skills, passing of time to explore themselves and having a pleasurable time which means that they were behaving hedonically.

As can be shortly seen from above examples, various disciplines and researchers take the topic hedonic consumption into consideration. As time passes, the topic becomes more popular for researchers.

2.6. REASONS OF HEDONIC CONSUMPTION

According to Ünal and Ceylan (2008: 268), the first comprehensive study on the reasons of shopping was made by Tauber in 1972. Tauber (1972) distinguishes two groups of reasons that motivate people to make shopping; *personal motives* and *social motives*. Personal motives can be summarized as:

- ~ ***Role Playing:*** A person internalizes the behaviors of their part of a certain position in society as mother, housewife, and student as required and is motivated to participate in those activities. For instance, grocery shopping is part of housewives' personal roles.
- ~ ***Diversion:*** Shopping can offer customers diversion from their routine daily life and have a good time.

- ~ ***Self gratification:*** People can go shopping for different emotional states and moods as; search for diversion, make social interactions, or get out of depression. In any of those reasons, it is a way of self gratification.
- ~ ***Learning about new trends:*** An individual learns about new trends and movements when he/she visits the store.
- ~ ***Physical activity:*** Shopping can provide people to make exercise in today's urban areas with high traffic and mass transportation.
- ~ ***Sensory stimulation:*** Retail institutions provide many benefits for shoppers with creating atmospheres that has sensory stimulations as sound, smell, scent, etc.

Also according to him, the social motives can be listed as (Tauber, 1972);

- ~ ***Social experiences outside home:*** Retail institutions are centers of social activities. In general, shopping can provide an opportunity for consumers for a social experience outside their homes.
- ~ ***Communication with others having similar interest:*** People like to share their interests and many hobbies center on products or services, such as boating, collecting stamps, car customizing, and home decorating. Stores that offer hobby-related goods serve as a focal point for people with similar interests to interact.
- ~ ***Peer Group Attraction:*** The patronage of a store sometimes reflects a desire to be with one's peer group or a reference group to which one aspires to belong. For example, recording studios are the places of teenagers that play amateur music.

- ~ ***Status and Authority:*** Some customers try to have an opportunity to command attention and respect when shopping. For example, people who buy expensive clothes and durables want to have master- servant relations when they enter such a store.

- ~ ***Pleasure of Bargaining:*** Many shoppers do not like to bargain. Others, however, appear to enjoy the process believing that by bargaining, goods' prices can be reduced to a more reasonable level.

After Tauber's study, many other researchers focused on the reasons of shopping. If the reasons are solved, it will help the marketers and consumer researchers to make better evaluations and make improvements at their studies (Ünal and Ceylan, 2008). For instance, Batra and Ahtola (1991) suggested theoretically that consumer attitudes have distinct hedonic and utilitarian components and product categories differ in the extent to which their overall attitudes are derived from these two components. As a result of their study, they found that, these two attitude dimensions do seem to exist; are based on different types of product attributes. In further research, Crowley, Spangenberg, and Hughes (1992) found the Batra and Ahtola scale severely lacking when applied to product categories as opposed to specific products. Babin, Darden, and Griffin (1994) also mentioned 53 shopping variables and described two opposite sides of consumption as; hedonic and utilitarian consumption. They reported development of a scale based on the hedonic and utilitarian evaluation of shopping as an activity.

The evaluations of the *reasons of shopping* lead the researchers to search for the *reasons of hedonic consumption*. As told above, the hedonic consumption concept was first used in literature at the study of Hirschman and Holbrook (1982). Before their study, the terms "hedonic consumption" and "utilitarian consumption" were handled together and/or used as a part of other research topics. After that study, the concept became subject to detailing and the studies focused on the reasons of hedonic shopping. The main research at the reasons of hedonic shopping was made by Arnold and Reynolds (2003). They evaluated the reasons under six headings as;

adventure shopping, social shopping, gratification shopping, idea shopping, role shopping and value shopping.

2.6.1. Adventure Shopping

The shopping motivation labeled as adventure shopping refers to “*shopping for stimulation, adventure and the feeling of being in another world*”. In the study of Arnold and Reynolds (2003), the respondents reported that they go shopping for the sheer excitement and adventure. Some of the comments of the respondents are as “It gets me all excited.”, “When shopping, being in a different place helps me get away from my everyday life”. The words that describe the adventure experience are as adventure, thrills, stimulation, excitement, and entering a different universe of exciting sights, smells, and sounds.

2.6.2. Social Shopping

The category labeled as social shopping refers to *the enjoyment of shopping with friends and family, socializing while shopping, and bonding with others while shopping*. The respondents say that the shopping experience give them a chance to spend time with friends and family and generally people tend to shop with the people they love (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003).

2.6.3. Gratification Shopping

People generally mention that shopping helps them to forget their problems, get out of stress and make them feel good. At those suggestions, the third reason of hedonic shopping can be listed as gratification shopping which refers to shopping for stress relief, shopping to alleviate a negative mood, and shopping as a special treat to oneself.

2.6.4. Idea Shopping

Fourth category labeled by Arnold and Reynolds (2003) is called as idea shopping which refers to shopping to keep up with trends and new fashions, and to see new products and innovations. The respondents at their studies mentioned that they generally shop to keep up with the latest trends and fashions. They go to shopping sometimes for just to get an idea on products, to see the new things entered the market and they view that kind of shopping as a hobby.

2.6.5. Role Shopping

The people gives each other many gifts at special days like mothers day, valentine day, thanksgiving day and also at their normal days to show each other their respect, love and share the values with each other. For most customers, shopping for others is a pleasurable event and they try to be unique with the gifts they buy. As fifth category, Arnold and Reynolds (2003) define role shopping as *“shopping which reflects the enjoyment that shoppers derive from shopping for others, the influence that this activity has on the shoppers’ feelings and moods, and the excitement and intrinsic joy felt by shoppers when finding the perfect gift for others”*.

2.6.6. Value Shopping

The final category is labeled “value shopping,” which refers to shopping for sales, looking for discounts, and hunting for bargains. The people that make hedonic consumption for that reason mentioned that when they bargain and have the product from lower price that makes them to feel more pleased from the shopping experience. Also some people just match the discounts and buy their products at discount periods so that they feel more pleased and satisfied from the shopping experience (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003).

CHAPTER THREE
AN APPLICATION ON CONFIRMATION OF THE HEDONIC
CONSUMPTION SCALE AND ANALYZING THE EFFECTS OF
DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS ON HEDONIC CONSUMPTION

3.1. IMPORTANCE AND OBJECTIVE OF THE THESIS

The term hedonic consumption was first defined in the study of Hirschman and Holbrook (1982). After them, the term was evaluated in detail in other studies of different researchers. For example, Feick and Price (1987) evaluated the consumers that are called as “market mavens” who try to inform others for finding the best price at their consumption behavior. Babin, Darden and Griffin (1994) defined 53 consumption variables in their study. With those variables, they determined the two opposite side of consumption; hedonic and utilitarian. Similar to that distinction Batra and Ahtola (1990) determined that the products can also be categorized as hedonic products and utilitarian products according to whether they carry hedonic or utilitarian aspect. Crowley, Spangenberg, and Hughes (1992), in their study, applied the Batra and Ahtola (1990)’s scale to a wide variety of product categories and distinguished the problematic items to make the scale a more effective one.

Generally, these studies are on determination of hedonic consumption behavior, hedonic and utilitarian motivations of consumption and hedonic and utilitarian products. Different than all those studies, Arnold and Reynolds (2003) tried to identify reasons of hedonic shopping and developed “reasons of hedonic shopping scale” to be used in future researches.

The other studies in literature generally use the above studies’ scales and link the hedonic shopping with different topics. For example, Christiansen and Snepenger (2002) tried to defined the reason of difference of buying from own country and the visited country by looking from hedonic and utilitarian perspective by using the scale of Batra and Ahtola. Carpenter, Moore and Fairhurst (2005) used Babin, Darden and Griffin (1994)’s scale to extend the empirical research on the role of hedonic versus

utilitarian shopping value across new contexts including retail branding and the apparel category. To, Liao and Lin (2007) tried to investigate the Internet shopping motivations from both utilitarian and hedonic perspectives by using Arnold and Reynolds (2003)'s scale.

In Turkey also, there are lots of academic articles and thesis on hedonic and utilitarian consumption. The first academic research in Turkey on this topic is the study of Babacan (2001). In the study, she identifies the behaviors of consumers on special days as Valentine's Day, mother's day and New Year's Day. Altunışık and Çallı (2004) examine information/knowledge use of consumers in impulse buying and hedonistic purchases. In their study, Özdemir and Yaman (2007) aimed to evaluate the consumers' consumption habits on the basis of taking pleasure from shopping and to differentiate the female and male consumers on that basis.

Istanbul and Erzurum cities were compared in the study of Ünal and Ceylan (2008) according to their hedonic shopping motivations. A group of consumers' shopping behaviors were analyzed in the study of Erkmen and Yüksel (2008) in the category of hedonic, utilitarian, compulsive and impulsive patterns. Saydan (2008) made a study to determine what the utilitarian and hedonic benefits that motivated consumers in the selection of automobiles that is considered as an investment and that financially constitutes the largest volume-purchasing amount after the dwelling purchase in the world.

A study on differentiation of hedonic shopping in respect to gender, income and size of settlement was made by Aydın (2010). Enginkaya and Ozansoy (2010)'s study was based on to discover adolescents'' shopping patterns and choice criteria in the context of hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivation.

Similar to previous studies made by Özdemir and Yaman (2008) and Aydın (2010); Kükrer (2011) made a study on gender differences of university students on hedonic consumption. Lastly, Özgül (2011) made evaluations of consumers' socio-

demographic characteristics in terms of hedonic consumption and voluntary simplicity lifestyles.

As seen above, the studies in Turkey on hedonic consumption are generally on demographic aspects of consumers and use the hedonic consumption scale suggested by Arnold and Reynolds (2003). Taking the crucial practical importance of understanding buying behaviors and demographics of consumers into account, the aim of this study is confirmation of the hedonic consumption scale and investigation of the effect of demographics on hedonic consumption behavior of consumers.

3.2. HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

3.2.1. Hedonic Consumption versus Utilitarian Consumption

In literature, it has been suggested that the terms hedonism and utilitarianism are opposite to each other. Also in consumer behavior, there are number of researches who emphasize this contrast more. For example, Babin and Attaway (2000: 96) suggest that the positive emotions towards a retailer affect the hedonic consumption rather than utilitarian consumption whereas negative emotions affect the utilitarian consumption rather than hedonic consumption so that they are behaving as contrasting terms.

Similarly, Childers et al. (2001: 514) suggest that consumers can choose the interactive media for hedonic aspects of shopping (such as enjoyment or fun) whereas others choose for utilitarian aspects (such as usefulness or evaluation of product related issues). Also, Overby and Lee (2006) found that in the first usage of internet, hedonic motivators are more important than utilitarian motivators whereas the utilitarian motivators have a higher impact when they make other purchases. So, they are at opposite sides.

Jones, Arnold and Reynolds (2006) suggested that the hedonic shopping value has a positive affect on positive word of mouth whereas utilitarian did

not. Besides, hedonic shopping value did not have a significant influence on re-patronage intentions, the utilitarian shopping value had.

With the support of those and similar researches the first hypothesis of the research is as given below.

H1₀: There is no relationship between hedonic and utilitarian consumption.

H1: There is a relationship between hedonic and utilitarian consumption.

3.2.2. Hedonic Consumption and Gender

The relationship between hedonic consumption and gender has been an issue for many researchers. Babacan (2001) suggested in her study that women are more hedonistic at shopping than men are and in the analysis she made, she found that women give more importance to special day consumptions than men do. Similar to those findings, Özdemir and Yaman (2007) found that hedonic consumption behavior differs in terms of gender because women see shopping as a more pleasure giving activity than men do.

Kükrer (2011), in her study, tested the effect of gender at hedonic consumption for university students. She found that there is a significant relationship between hedonic consumption and gender and that the female students were behaving with more hedonic motivations when making consumption than male students did. Fischer and Arnold (1990), in their study, tried to investigate the gender role at Christmas shopping and found that women were more involved and volunteering, spent more time to Christmas shopping because they took more pleasure from that type of special day shopping than men did.

Similarly, Kim (2006) tried to develop a better understanding of inner city consumers by examining their hedonic and utilitarian motivations behind shopping. In their examination of gender effects, they found that there is a

difference in all shopping motivations for both inner and non-inner city consumers with respect to gender.

Regarding to given literature about the effect of gender on hedonic consumption, the second hypothesis of the study is developed as shown below.

H2₀: Hedonic consumption does not differ according to gender

H2: Hedonic consumption differs according to gender

3.2.3. Hedonic Consumption, Age and Marital Status

People have different consumption behaviors at different ages. For example, when they are younger, they try to buy more trendy products whereas when they become older they lean to healthier products. There are many researches in literature that support the given idea.

Similarly, Wang et al. (2000), in their study searched the influence of hedonic values on consumer behavior and found that age and responsiveness to promotion stimuli have a significant positive relationship which means that as age increase, responsiveness to promotion stimuli increases.

Berman and Evans (2007) suggests that, one of the demographic factors that affect consumer behavior is age and the consumption behavior of consumers change as they become older. Also, the behaviors of consumers change as their marital status change. According to Özgül (2011), as age increases, the tendencies of adventure and idea shopping of those customers decrease. Similarly, customers who are younger and single tend to make more adventure and idea shopping than the older ones whereas the married ones give more importance to value shopping for saving from their shopping.

In the light of that information, third hypothesis is going to test the relationship between hedonic consumption and age and fourth is going to test the relationship between hedonic consumption and marital status.

H3₀: Hedonic consumption does not differ with respect to age.

H3: Hedonic consumption differs with respect to age.

H4₀: Hedonic consumption does not differ with respect to marital status.

H4: Hedonic consumption differs with respect to marital status.

3.2.4. Hedonic Consumption and Income

Consumer behavior is a function of both willingness and ability to purchase a product. Therefore, personal income is important in predicting consumer behavior. Consumers who can afford to just basic needs (needs for food, shelter and security) tend to make less hedonic consumption compared with higher level incomes.

Aydin (2010), in his study tried to differentiate hedonic shopping in respect of gender, income and size of settlement. He found that the differentiation of interest on hedonic shopping according to income is statistically significant. He found a positive relationship between high income people and hedonic shopping, where as a negative relationship between low income and hedonic shopping.

Wang et al. (2000), when searching the influence of hedonic values on consumer behaviors found that personal income moderates the relationship between hedonic values and brand consciousness. Teller et al. (2008) tried to investigate the impact of hedonic and utilitarian shopping values on retail agglomeration issues and found that hedonists are represented by a higher number of females, earn lower individual incomes and are less educated compared to utilitarian customers.

Depending on these studies, the fourth hypothesis is going to test relationship between income and hedonic consumption.

H5₀: Hedonic consumption does not differ with respect to income.

H5: Hedonic consumption differs with respect to income.

3.2.5. Hedonic Consumption and Education Level

Fewer studies focused on the effect of education in consumer behavior than other demographic factors (Becker and Murphy, 2006: 1). According to Aydın (2010), education system dictates a specific world view to its members and tends them to behave at a similar manner. Also, Kükreç (2011) suggests that the ones at same educational level will have specific consumption behaviors. Özgül (2011) found similar results in his research and said that the people with high education levels will behave more hedonically.

Using those data, the last hypothesis is about the relationship between hedonic consumption and education level.

H6₀: Hedonic consumption does not differ according to education.

H6: Hedonic consumption differs according to education.

3.3. DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS AND SAMPLING DESIGN PROCESS

In this study, primary and secondary data have been used for collecting data. Secondary data, which is listed in the “References” part at the end of the thesis, is taken from various books, periodicals, journals, theses and internet sources.

For the aim of the study, to test the hypothesis, it was decided to use a questionnaire, which is applied at the shopping centers, as primary data. To apply the questionnaires, firstly a sampling design should be made. According to Proctor (2005: 108) a sample developing process includes five steps: Defining the target population, developing a frame, selecting a sample design, determining the appropriate sample size and selecting appropriate sample members. The process can be seen at below figure.

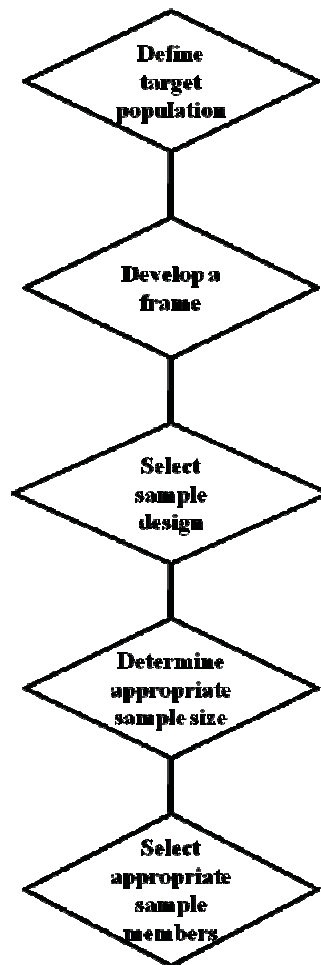


Figure 25. Steps in developing sample size

Source: Proctor, 2005, p. 108.

As the first step in process given, firstly the target population is going to be decided. Because it is very hard to reach all the shopping centers, the shopping centers in Izmir were restricted according to the map which is prepared by “The Council of Shopping Centers and whose web address is http://www.ampd.org/images/tr/karayollari/AVM_70X100_IZMIR-ANKARA-2.jpg.

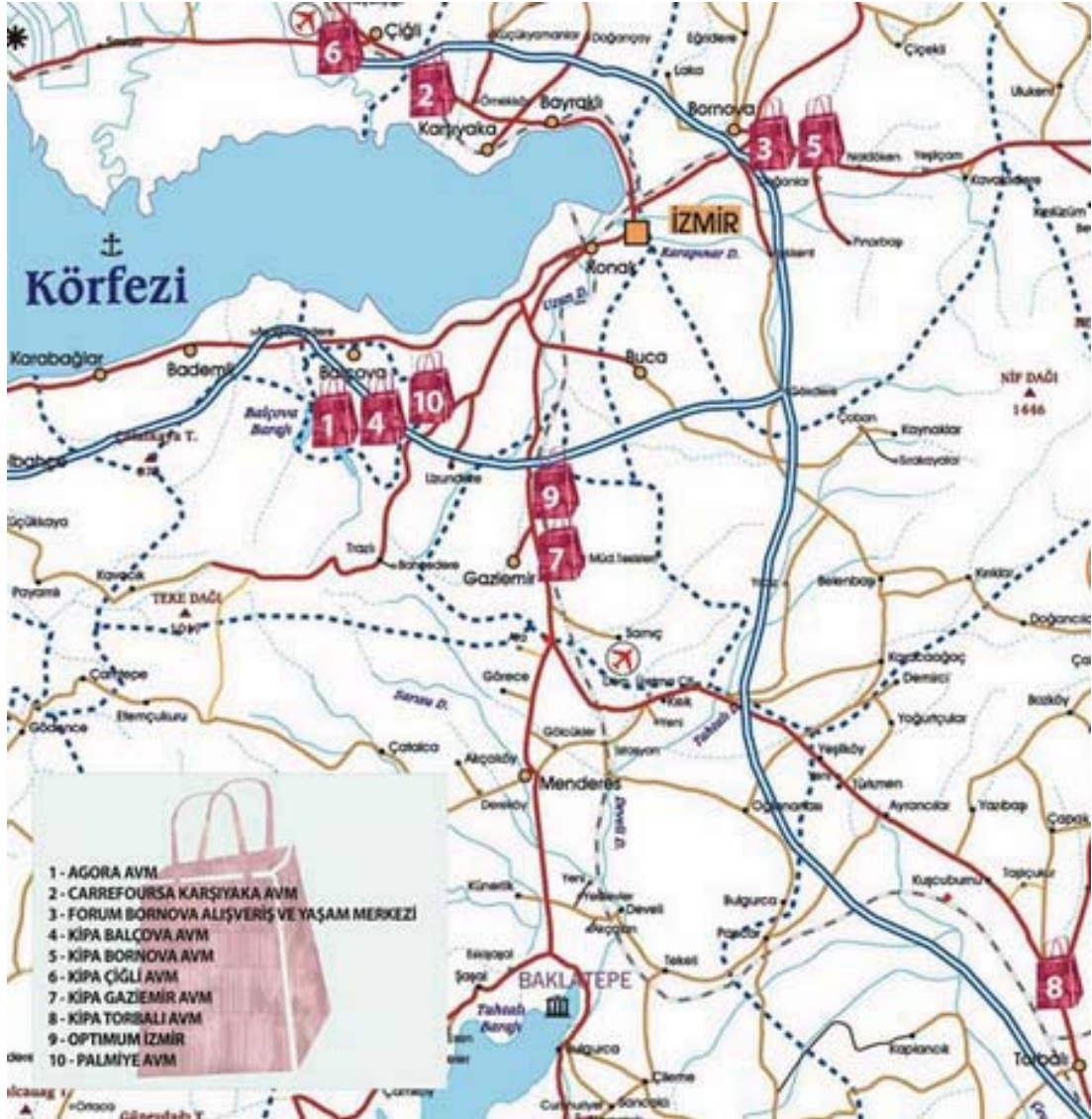


Figure 26. Map of the Shopping Centers at Izmir

Source: http://www.ampd.org/images/tr/karayollari/AVM_70X100_IZMIR-ANKARA-2.jpg

To generalize, according to the map, there are four main districts that the shopping malls are coexisted as; Bornova, Balçova, Gaziemir and Karşıyaka. It was decided to take one shopping center from each district and the one that is going to be taken was chosen according to the highest number the council was assigned at the list. For example; there are three shopping malls at Balçova and they are numbered as; “1” is Agora shopping mall, “4” is Kipa Balçova shopping mall and “10” is Palmiye shopping mall. Because Agora has the highest number (number “1”) it was

decided to apply the questionnaire at Agora. Agora, Carrefoursa Karşıyaka, Forum Bornova and Kipa Gaziemir were chosen from given four districts using the above mentioned selection method.

Before distributing the questionnaire, a pilot study was made with 30 participants: 20 from academic staff of Dokuz Eylül University, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences and 10 from people outside of the university who are not researchers. The pilot study participants were chosen as that to see both the opinions of professional researchers and other people. Depending on the feedbacks, the questions were revised and the misunderstandings were corrected. After those amendments, the questionnaires were distributed.

In this research, convenience sampling, nonprobability sampling technique has been followed. According to Weiers (2011: 125), members of such samples are chosen primarily because they are both readily available and willing to participate. Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009: 27) suggest that the advantage of convenience sampling is the ease with which participants can be recruited. Data was collected between the dates of 14–21 June 2011. There are thirty structured questions in the questionnaire. The questionnaire was applied face to face. Also, the voluntarism was essential and the participant could give up fulfillment any time he/she wants.

After deciding the sampling technique, the next step is deciding the sample size. Sample size has a significant impact on the reliability of analysis, model fit and statistical power (Shah and Goldstein, 2006). In the study, the main type of analysis to be used is confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling. According to Raykov and Marcoulides (2006: 30) the sample size for structural equation models is a topic that has received a considerable amount of attention in the literature but there is no easily calculation rule to be used. To give an idea to researchers as a rule of thumb, sample size would desirably be more than 10 times the number of free model parameters. According to Kline (1998), a sample is small when sample size is 100, medium between 100 and 200 and large when higher than 200 and a sample size of 200 or even much larger may be necessary for a very

complicated path model and a 10:1 ratio may be a realistic target. Shah and Goldstein (2006) in their research, reviewed 38 confirmatory factor analysis model and 75 structural models and found that the mean of sample sizes for them were sequentially 245.4 and 246.4.

Between the given dates according to the sample size selection process, 285 questionnaires were collected however only 255 of them are found to be appropriate for analyzing; 21 out of 30 unanalyzed questionnaires were incomplete and 9 were double marked. It is assumed that the participants answered the questions correctly and realistically and they represent intended population.

3.4. PREPARATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire includes three parts. In the first part, the questions are on general consumption behaviors. These questions are for measuring the tendency of consumers to make hedonic shopping and their shopping periods. In the second part, there are questions on reasons of hedonic and utilitarian shopping. Lastly, third part includes demographic questions.

3.4.1. Questions on Reasons of Hedonic Shopping

The questions of hedonic shopping were taken from the study of Arnold and Reynolds (2003), which groups the reasons of hedonic consumption under six categories as; adventure shopping, social shopping, gratification shopping, idea shopping, role shopping and value shopping. The Likert type scale is used to measure hedonic shopping behavior questions ranging from “I totally disagree” to “I totally agree”. Eighteen questions used to measure six categories of hedonic shopping are shown below.

Table 4. The Questions on Reasons of Hedonic Shopping

Reason of Hedonic Shopping	Item
<i>Adventure shopping</i>	To me, shopping is an adventure I find shopping stimulating Shopping makes me feel like I am in my own universe
<i>Gratification shopping</i>	When I'm in a down mood, I go shopping to make me feel better To me, shopping is a way to relieve stress I go shopping when I want to treat myself to something special
<i>Role shopping</i>	I like shopping for others because when they feel good I feel good I enjoy shopping for my friends and family I enjoy shopping around to find the perfect gift for someone
<i>Value shopping</i>	For the most part, I go shopping when there are sales I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop
<i>Social shopping</i>	I go shopping with my friends or family to socialize I enjoy socializing with others when I shop Shopping with others is a bonding experience
<i>Idea shopping</i>	I go shopping to keep up with the trends I go shopping to keep up with the new fashions I go shopping to see what new products are available

Source: Arnold and Reynolds, 2003, p. 93.

3.4.2. Questions on Utilitarian Shopping

The questions of utilitarian shopping were taken from the study of Barbin, Darden and Griffin (1994). The Likert type questions sorts from “I totally disagree” to “I totally agree” is used for measurement. Four questions used to measure utilitarian shopping are shown below.

Table 5. Questions on Utilitarian Shopping

Type of Shopping	Item
<i>Utilitarian</i>	I accomplished just what I wanted to on this shopping trip
	I couldn't buy what I really needed
	While shopping, I found just the item(s) I was looking for
	I was disappointed because I had to go to another store(s) to complete my shopping

Source: Barbin, Darden and Griffin, 1994, p. 651.

3.4.3. Demographic Questions

Third part of the study includes five demographic questions as; age, gender, personal monthly income and education level. Age (18–24, 25–34, 35–44, 45–54 and 55 and above), gender (male, female), personal monthly income (0–1200, 1201–2400, 2401–3600, 3601–4800 and 4800 and above), marital status (single, married) and educational level (primary school graduate, intermediate school graduate, high-school graduate, associate degree graduate, university graduate and post graduate) are nominal types of questions.

3.5. CONCEPTUAL MODEL BETWEEN INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Conceptual model has been developed after reviewing literature survey on hedonic and utilitarian consumption and lifestyle segmentation. This model helps to examine the relationship between independent and dependent variables of concern. Independent variables are demographics and dependent variable is hedonic and utilitarian consumption. The model can be seen in detailed in the below figure.

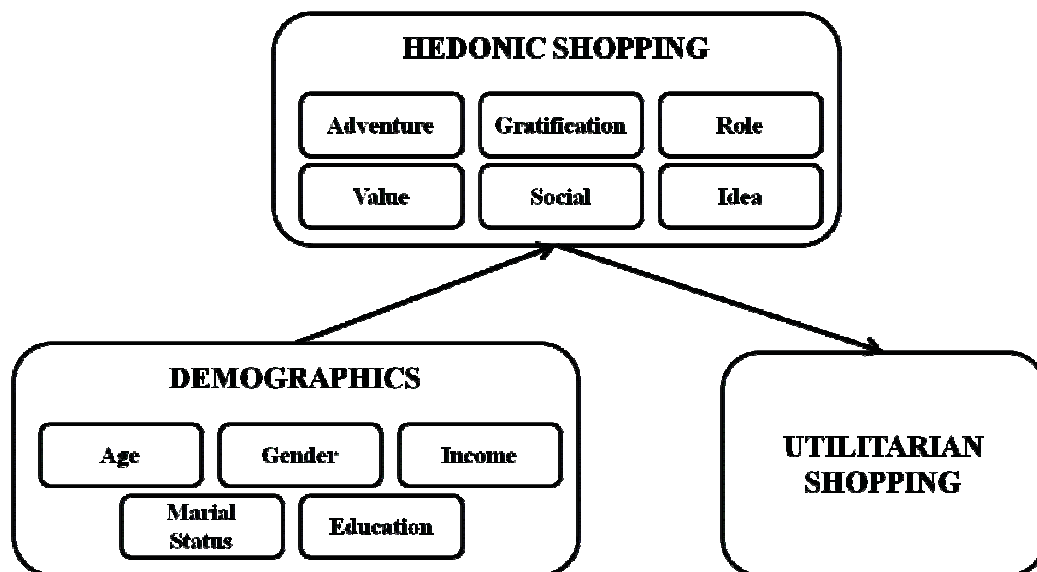


Figure 27. Conceptual Model between Dependent and Independent Variables

3.6. ANALYSIS OF DATA

In this part of the thesis, firstly the characteristics of the participants are going to be evaluated. Secondly, collected data is going to be evaluated according to its reliability and normality. After those analyses, a confirmatory factor analysis is going to be used to test the hedonic consumption scale in Turkey and lastly, a structural equation model is going to be constituted according to the model developed above part.

3.7. FINDINGS

3.7.1. Demographic Characteristics of Sample

Demographic characteristics of the sample are going to be evaluated according to age, gender, income, education level, and marital status.

3.7.1.1. Age

Age distribution of the participants is as shown below figure. According to the figure 35% are between ages 18 – 24, 38% are between ages 25 – 34, 15% are between ages 35 – 44, 7% are between ages 45 – 54, and lastly 5% of the participants are 55 ages or above. Nearly three fourths of the sample is younger than 35 showing that the participants are generally young.

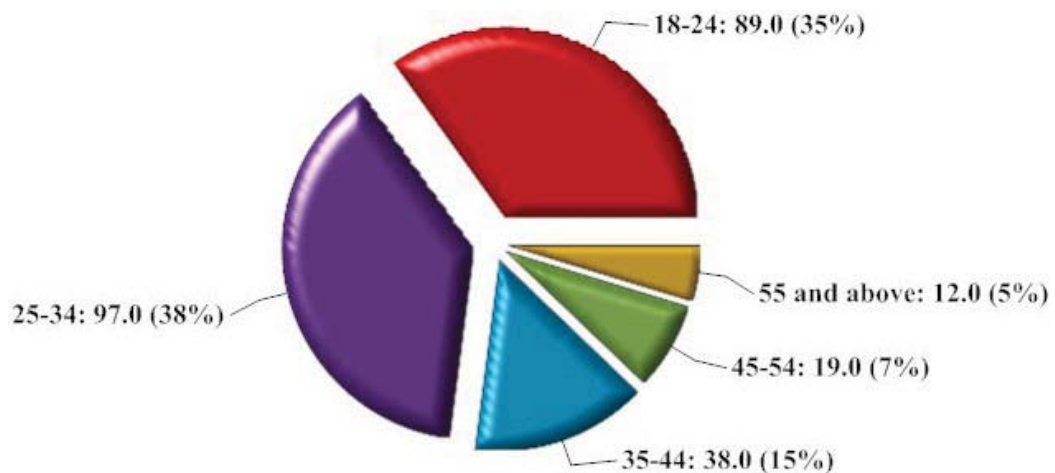


Figure 28. Age distributions of participants

3.7.1.2. Gender

62% of participants are woman and 38% of them are man. The numbers and percentages of gender distribution can be seen in Figure 29.

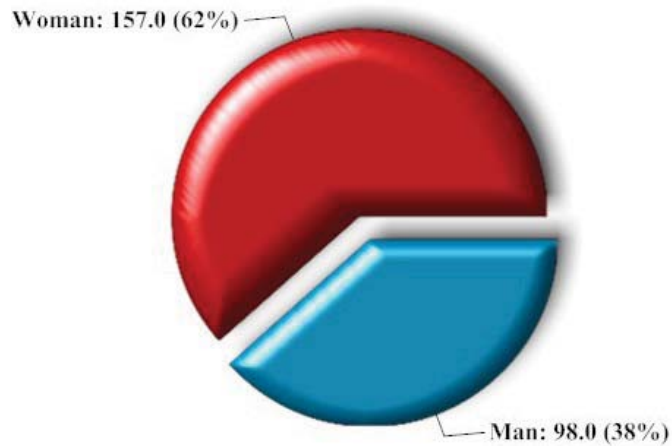


Figure 29. Gender distributions of participants

3.7.1.3. Income

The participants' income distribution can be seen in the below figure. Shortly, 38% of them have an income of between 0–1200 TL, 41% of them have 1201–2400 TL income, 13% of them have 2401–3600 TL income, 4% of them have 3601–4800 TL income and 4% of them have an income of 4800 TL and above. The sample is generally composed of low income participants.

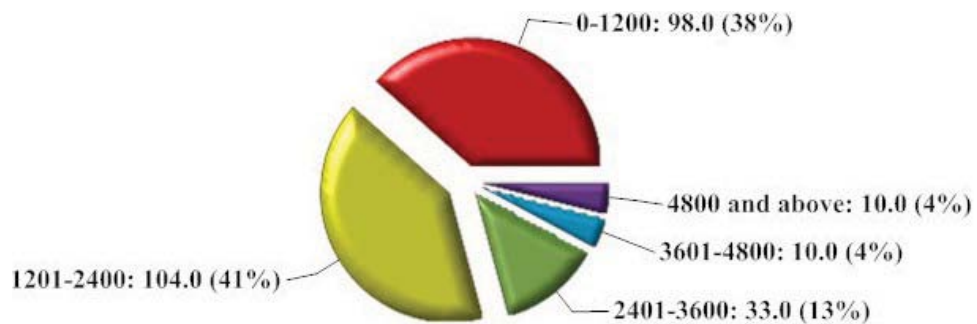


Figure 30. Income distributions of participants

3.7.1.4. Marital Status

Another demographic factor that is going to be taken into consideration is marital status. 36% of participant are married and the remaining part, 64 %, are single. The figure demonstrates the distribution of those two.

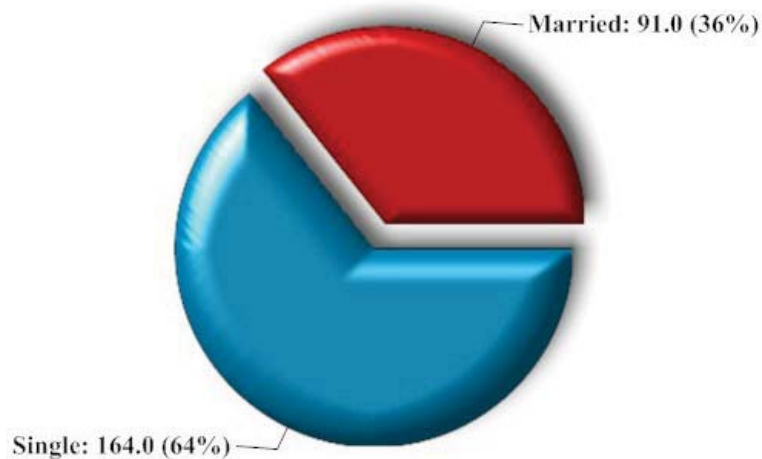


Figure 31. Marital status distributions of participants

3.7.1.5. Education Level

Last demographic factor is education level of participants. As can be seen from the below figure, 1% of participants are primary school graduates, 1% of them are intermediate school graduates, 16% are high-school graduates, 13% are associate degree graduates, 40% are university graduates and 29% are post graduates.

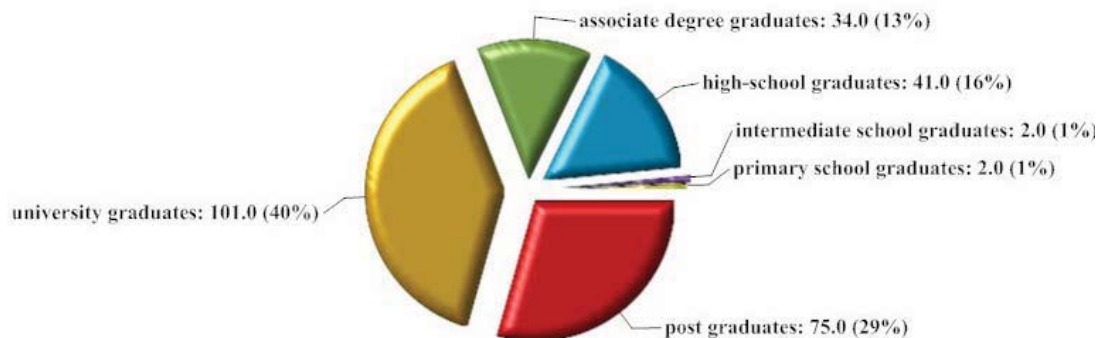


Figure 32. Education level distributions of participants

3.7.2. Consumption Habits of the Sample

Three questions were asked to participants to determine their consumption habits. First one is for determining whether they are making unplanned

consumptions or not. The question is “Do you make unplanned, suddenly decided shopping or not?” The results are as shown below. According to given results 6.67% of the participants are always making unplanned shopping, 26.27% of them are usually shopping without plan, 43.14% of them are sometimes buying without plan, 20.78% of them are rarely making unplanned buying and 3.14 of participant never make unplanned shopping.

Table 6. Consumption habit question – Unplanned shopping

	Frequency	Percent
Always	17	6.67
Usually	67	26.27
Sometimes	110	43.14
Rarely	53	20.78
Never	8	3.14

Second question is for evaluating whether they give up buying a needed thing for buying something that they like and get pleasure from. According to the results 2.75% of the participants always, 14.50% of them usually, 39.61% of them sometimes, 30.59% of them rarely and lastly 12.55% of them never give up buying a needed thing for buying something that they like.

Table 7. Consumption habit question – Giving up

	Frequency	Percent
Always	7	2.75
Usually	37	14.50
Sometimes	101	39.61
Rarely	78	30.59
Never	32	12.55

Third, and the last question for evaluation of consumption habit is “How many times do you go shopping on average?” 26.27% of participants go shopping

once a month or less, 38.04% of them go shopping 2–3 times a month, 17.25% of them go shopping once a week, 15.29% go shopping 2–3 times a week and 3.15% go shopping everyday. The results can be seen in the below figure.

Table 8. Consumption habit question – Frequency of shopping

	Frequency	Percent
Once or less at a month	67	26.27
2-3 times at a month	97	38.04
Once at a week	44	17.25
2-3 times at a week	39	15.29
Everyday	8	3.15

3.7.3. Reliability Analysis of Data

Reliability refers to the consistency of the measure over time or with different samples (Greasley, 2008: 105). According to Hinton et al. (2004: 356 – 357), there are numbers of ways to calculate reliability of a questionnaire and the most popular of those ways is the Cronbach’s Alpha. The calculation of Cronbach’s Alpha is based on the number of items, such as the number of questions on a questionnaire, and the average inter-item correlation. The value of Cronbach’s Alpha changes from 0 to 1. Leech, Barrett and Morgan (2005: 67) suggests that Cronbach’s Alpha should be above 0.70. Also, a high alpha, which is greater than 0.90 means the items are repetitious or there are more items in the scale than are really necessary for a reliable measure of the concept.

Also, Hinton et al. (2004: 364) suggest that despite there are debates on Cronbach’s Alpha value, the evaluation can be generalized according to below scheme:

- 0.90 and above shows excellent reliability
- 0.70 to 0.90 shows high reliability

- 0.50 to 0.70 shows moderate reliability
- 0.50 and below shows low reliability.

When the questions at hedonic consumption questions are analyzed, the Cronbach's Alpha value is 0.856 which means that the reliability of hedonic consumption questions is high.

Table 9. Cronbach's Alpha for hedonic consumption questions

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.856	18

When the items are evaluated individually, the “Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted” shows the values of the overall alpha if that item isn't included in the calculation (Field, 2005: 674). The overall alpha is 0.856, so that all values in this column should be around that value. None of the items here would affect the reliability with big differences if they are deleted. It again is an evidence of the questionnaire's overall reliability.

Table 10. Cronbach's Alphas if Item Deleted for Hedonic Consumption Questions

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Adventure1	52,29	119,642	0,469	0,848
Adventure2	51,51	117,527	0,598	0,843
Adventure3	52,00	115,768	0,613	0,841
Gratification1	51,95	114,801	0,594	0,842
Gratification2	52,02	113,555	0,670	0,838
Gratification3	52,17	116,944	0,568	0,843
Role1	51,81	117,825	0,505	0,846
Role2	51,58	118,929	0,508	0,846
Role3	51,95	117,336	0,476	0,848
Value1	51,58	124,945	0,277	0,856
Value2	51,59	122,889	0,336	0,854
Value3	52,23	126,675	0,171	0,861
Social1	52,31	120,969	0,412	0,850
Social2	52,27	121,263	0,408	0,850
Social3	52,10	121,341	0,408	0,850
Idea1	52,51	121,629	0,382	0,852
Idea2	52,58	121,590	0,389	0,851
Idea3	52,28	118,849	0,482	0,847

The Cronbach's Alpha value for questions of utilitarian consumption is 0,654. It means that the reliability of those questions are at moderate level. The results can be seen from below table.

Table 11. Cronbach's Alpha for utilitarian consumption questions

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.654	4

As the Cronbach's Alpha value is 0,654, the "Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted" values need to be below or close to that value. When table is analyzed it can be seen that all four values are below that value which means that if any of item is deleted the reliability of those questions will decrease. None of questions should be deleted.

Table 12. . Cronbach's Alphas if Item Deleted for Hedonic Consumption Questions

	Item-Total Statistics			
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Utilitarian1	9,600	8,351	0,410	0,603
Utilitarian2	9,259	7,641	0,441	0,582
Utilitarian3	9,251	7,338	0,459	0,569
Utilitarian4	9,114	7,944	0,428	0,590

3.7.4. Testing the Normality of Data

Table 12 shows the normality tests for data that is going to be used in the analysis. Whether there are different assumptions for kurtosis and skewness of data to be analyzed, in general it can be said that the values 2–3 are the acceptable borders for kurtosis and 7–8 are for skewness to say that the data is distributed normally (Kline, 2005: 50; Şimşek, 2007: 74). As can be seen from the below table, all the items in the questionnaire have the values of kurtosis and skewness in between the given ranges. For that reason, it can be said that the data is distributed normally.

Table 13. Kurtosis and Skewness of Data

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
General Consumption Question1	-0,021	0,153	-0,263	0,304
General Consumption Question2	-0,113	0,153	-0,340	0,304
General Consumption Question3	0,591	0,153	-0,550	0,304
Adventure1	0,169	0,153	-0,939	0,304
Adventure2	-0,608	0,153	-0,452	0,304
Adventure3	0,004	0,153	-1,005	0,304
Gratification1	-0,060	0,153	-1,117	0,304
Gratification2	0,039	0,153	-1,094	0,304
Gratification3	0,144	0,153	-0,904	0,304
Role1	-0,424	0,153	-0,825	0,304
Role2	-0,510	0,153	-0,494	0,304
Role3	-0,121	0,153	-1,177	0,304
Value1	-0,587	0,153	-0,327	0,304
Value2	-0,476	0,153	-0,766	0,304
Value3	0,006	0,153	-1,047	0,304
Social1	0,136	0,153	-0,856	0,304
Social2	0,108	0,153	-0,746	0,304
Social3	-0,198	0,153	-0,789	0,304
Idea1	0,349	0,153	-0,812	0,304
Idea2	0,426	0,153	-0,694	0,304
Idea3	0,133	0,153	-0,985	0,304
Age	1,009	0,153	0,411	0,304
Gender	0,478	0,153	-1,785	0,304
Income	1,267	0,153	1,475	0,304
Marital	-0,601	0,153	-1,652	0,304
Education	-0,776	0,153	-0,019	0,304
Valid N (listwise)				

3.8. STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING (SEM)

The studies in business administration social sciences generally include some models which are a combination of several different items. The techniques such as multiple regression, factor analysis, multivariate analysis of variance, and other techniques help researchers to make analysis but they all have a common limitation as taking only a single relation at a time. Structural Equation Modeling becomes a popular technique recently to solve that limitation. Its popularity comes from its characteristic of providing researchers with a comprehensive method for the quantification and testing substantive theories and relations simultaneously (Hair et al., 2009: 602 – 603; Raykov and Marcoulides, 2006: 1).

According to Byrne (2000: 3), structural equation modeling (SEM) is a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory approach to the analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon. It is a multivariate technique combining aspects of factor analysis and multiple regressions that enables the researchers to simultaneously examine the interrelations between measured variables and latent variables. SEM includes two important aspects as:

- a. The causal processes under study are represented by a series of structural equations and
- b. These structural relations can be modeled pictorially to see clearer conceptualization of theory.

Wallenburg and Weber (2005: 175), suggests that in general a structural equation model is a two step approach:

- The measurement model is assessed with the objective to ensure that each scale measures what it intends to measure – confirmatory factor analysis

- The structures are tested – structural equation modeling.

The steps of a structural equation modeling can be seen in the figure below. According to Kaplan (2000: 7–8), firstly a theory should be represented if available. Then according to the given theoretical perspective, a model should be specified with the borders of research. After the model is specified, a sample should be selected and the measures should be obtained on the chosen sample. The next step is estimation of the parameters of the model. After estimation, goodness of fit should be evaluated and if needed modifications should be made on the model. After the modification, the reporting should be done to discuss the model.

The data collected from sample is tested according to whether it fits the suggested model by using a number of goodness of fit statistics. Some of them can be listed as chi – square (χ^2), ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom (χ^2 /df), standardized root mean square residuals (SRMR), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and so on. According to Şimşek (2007: 14) there can be no limitation on which goodness of fit statistic to use. It depends on the research and the sample. First of all, the chi–square value is expected to be meaningless but the χ^2 generally results meaningful. For better estimation the χ^2 /df value can be used. If the ratio is below 5 the model is an acceptable model and if it is below 2 it means the model is a good model. Also, GFI, AGFI and CFI should be

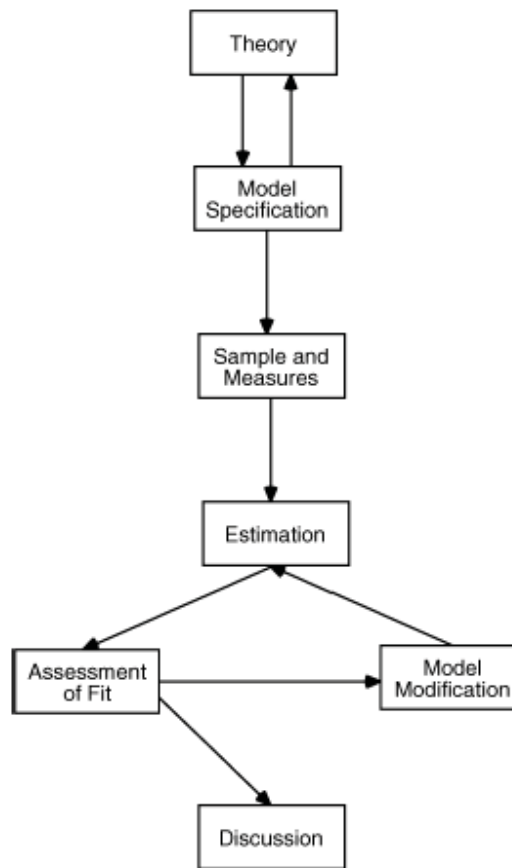


Figure 33. Conventional Approach to Structural Equation Modeling.

Source. Kaplan, 2000, pp. 8

higher than 0.90 for an acceptable model and for a good model they should be higher than 0.95. The values of RMSEA, RMR and SRMR should be below 0.8 for an acceptable model and below 0.5 for a good model.

3.9. CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS – TESTING THE MODEL

3.9.1. First Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis

At the confirmatory factor analysis of hedonic consumption scale, the ways from latent variables (Adventure and Gratification is combined as AdvGra, Role, Value, Social and Idea) to observed variables (ADV1, ADV2, ADV3, GRA1, GRA2, GRA3, ROL1, ROL2, ROL3, VAL1, VAL2, VAL3, SOC1, SOC2, SOC3, IDE1, IDE2 and IDE3) can be seen in the below figure. The standardized solution shows

each observed variable's explanation power of its latent variable. Standardized parameter values need to be lower than 1, because any relationship coefficient between a latent variable and observed variable can not be higher than 1 (Şimşek, 2007:85). When the standardized solution of a given model is reviewed it can be seen that there is no value higher than 1.

Also from another perspective, researchers can compare the relative importance of each observed variable on its latent variable. In the model the path from GRA2 to AdvGra has 0.93 parameter value, GRA1 has 0.80, GRA3 has 0.77, ADV3 has 0.67, ADV2 has 0.65 and ADV1 has 0.52. It means that when compared with each other, the variable that has the highest value (here GRA2) is the most important variable for latent variable AdvGra. For Rol latent variable ROL2 (with value of 0.91), for Value latent variable VAL2 (with value of 0.82), for Soc latent variable SOC3 (with value of 0.75) and lastly, for Ide latent variable IDE3 (with value of 0.82) has the highest values and are the most important observed variables for each latent variable.

T – value is the ratio between the estimate and its standard error. The t – value is 1.96 at 0.05 level and LISREL automatically takes that value (Şimşek, 2007: 86). According to Jöreskop and Sörbom (1993: 4), if a t – value exceeds a certain level, it can be said that corresponding parameter is significant. When the results are evaluated (see Table 13), it can be seen that there is no value under 1.96. It means that the corresponding variables really influence hedonic consumption.

Also when the goodness of fit statistics are evaluated it can be said that χ^2/df level is $243.21/124 = 1.961$ which is below two and means that the model is a good model. The results can be seen from below LISREL output part – Figure 34.

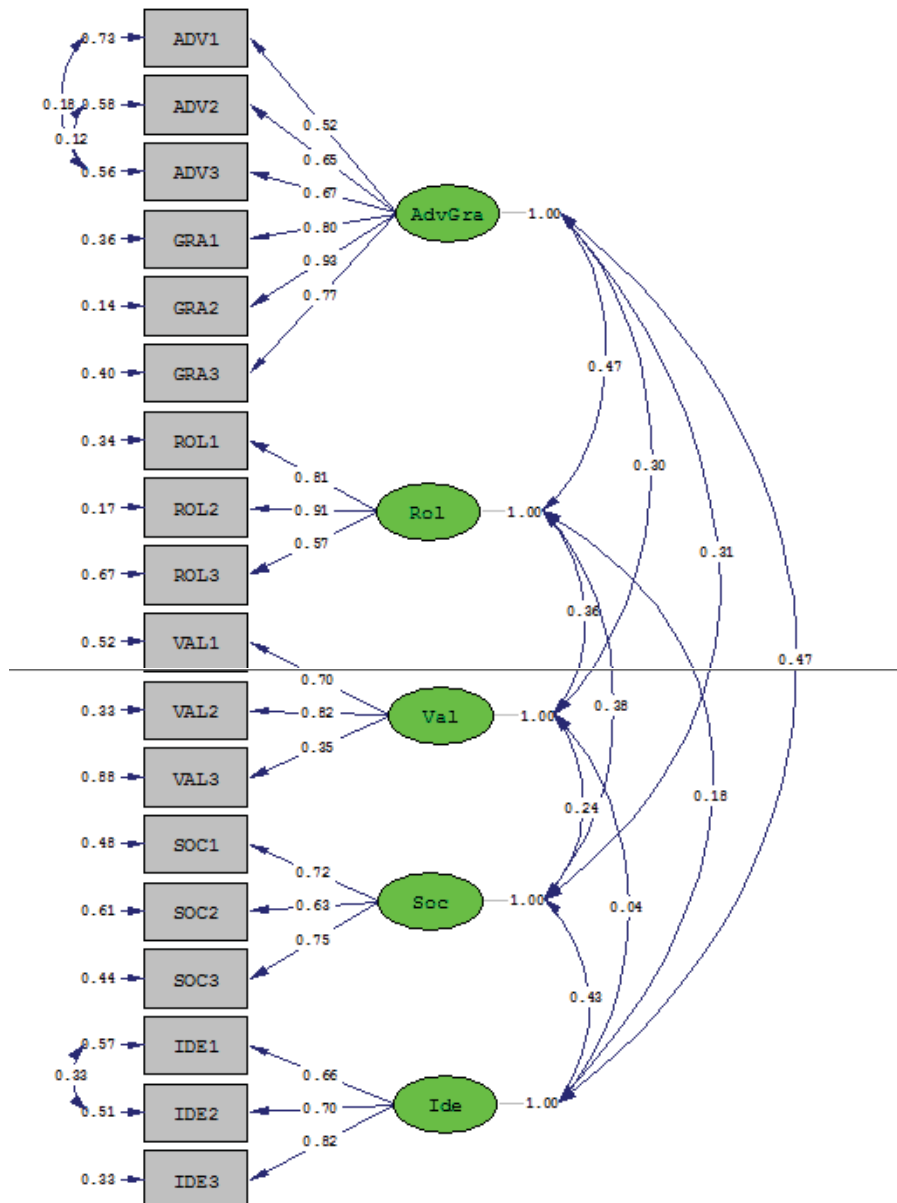


Figure 34. First Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Standardized Solutions

Goodness of Fit Statistics

Degrees of Freedom = 124

Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 243.06 (P = 0.00)

Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 243.21 (P = 0.00)

Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 119.21

90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (78.77 ; 167.44)

Figure 35. Chi – square / degrees of freedom result for first order confirmatory factor analysis

Table 14. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Reason of Hedonic Shopping	Item	Variance Explained (R²)	t values	Standardized Solutions
<i>Adventure shopping</i>	To me, shopping is an adventure	0.30	9.15	0.55
	I find shopping stimulating	0.46	11.82	0.68
	Shopping makes me feel like I am in my own universe	0.49	12.41	0.70
	When I'm in a down mood, I go shopping to make me feel better	0.64	14.86	0.80
<i>Gratification shopping</i>	To me, shopping is a way to relieve stress	0.82	18.17	0.91
	I go shopping when I want to treat myself to something special	0.59	13.99	0.76
	I like shopping for others because when they feel good I feel good	0.66	14.30	0.81
<i>Role shopping</i>	I enjoy shopping for my friends and family	0.82	16.47	0.91
	I enjoy shopping around to find the perfect gift for someone	0.33	9.41	0.57
	For the most part, I go shopping when there are sales	0.49	9.43	0.70
<i>Value shopping</i>	I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop	0.67	10.56	0.82
	I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop	0.12	5.03	0.35
	I go shopping with my friends or family to socialize	0.52	11.13	0.72
<i>Social shopping</i>	I enjoy socializing with others when I shop	0.39	9.63	0.63
	Shopping with others is a bonding experience	0.56	11.57	0.75
	I go shopping to keep up with the trends	0.43	9.33	0.66
<i>Idea shopping</i>	I go shopping to keep up with the new fashions	0.48	9.96	0.69
	I go shopping to see what new products are available	0.67	11.49	0.82

The RMSEA value is 0.062 which is below 0.08. It shows that the model is an acceptable one. Also the CFI is 0.96 that shows the model is a good model and GFI is 0.90 which is above the acceptable range.

Minimum Fit Function Value = 0.96
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.47
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.31 ; 0.66)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.062
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.050 ; 0.073)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.050
Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.93
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.96
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.75
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.96
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.96
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.91
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.90
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.87
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.66

Figure 36. RMSEA, CFI and GFI results of first order confirmatory factor analysis

From all given results it can be said that the model is a good model. In other words, as a result of confirmatory factor analysis, it is possible to interpret that the variables on hedonic consumption are measuring hedonic consumption. Besides, the reasons of hedonic consumption can be grouped under five factors as: Adventure and Gratification, Role, Social, Idea and Value.

First two factors (adventure and gratification) is combined, because when two were entered the model separately, the model didn't give any solution. When the data is controlled from SPSS data file, it was seen that the factor distributions were giving similar solutions at factor analysis too (See Table 15).

Table 15. Factor Loadings of Data

	Rotated Component Matrix				
	1	2	3	4	5
Gratification2	0,874				
Gratification1	0,814				
Gratification3	0,786				
Adventure3	0,735				
Adventure2	0,677				
Adventure1	0,598				
Idea2		0,885			
Idea1		0,865			
Idea3		0,723			
Role2			0,864		
Role1			0,819		
Role3			0,685		
Social2				0,764	
Social3				0,762	
Social1				0,729	
Value2					0,826
Value1					0,821
Value3					0,506

This result is also similar with previous studies. For example, in the main article (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003), the results showed a similar relation between gratification and adventure but they did not take the relation into account and separate those two factors as independent. Also Özgül (2011), in his study on hedonic consumption and voluntary simplicity lifestyle found that the gratification and adventure shopping are at the same factor and for avoiding complication, he dropped gratification factor out of his study. Similarly, Erkmen and Yüksel (2008) used a different scale in their study but the questions were having the same statements. In their study; the statements under adventure and gratification were resulted in the same factor. Similar to those findings, Ceylan (2007) in his thesis combined the gratification and adventure factors according to the results of his data. As a result of all those explanations, it was suggested that the hedonic consumption scale should be analyzed as 5 – factor scale.

3.9.2. Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis

At this second stage all the factors that are at above part's latent variables are going to enter a second model which shows how they explain the upper level latent variable – Hedonic Consumption.

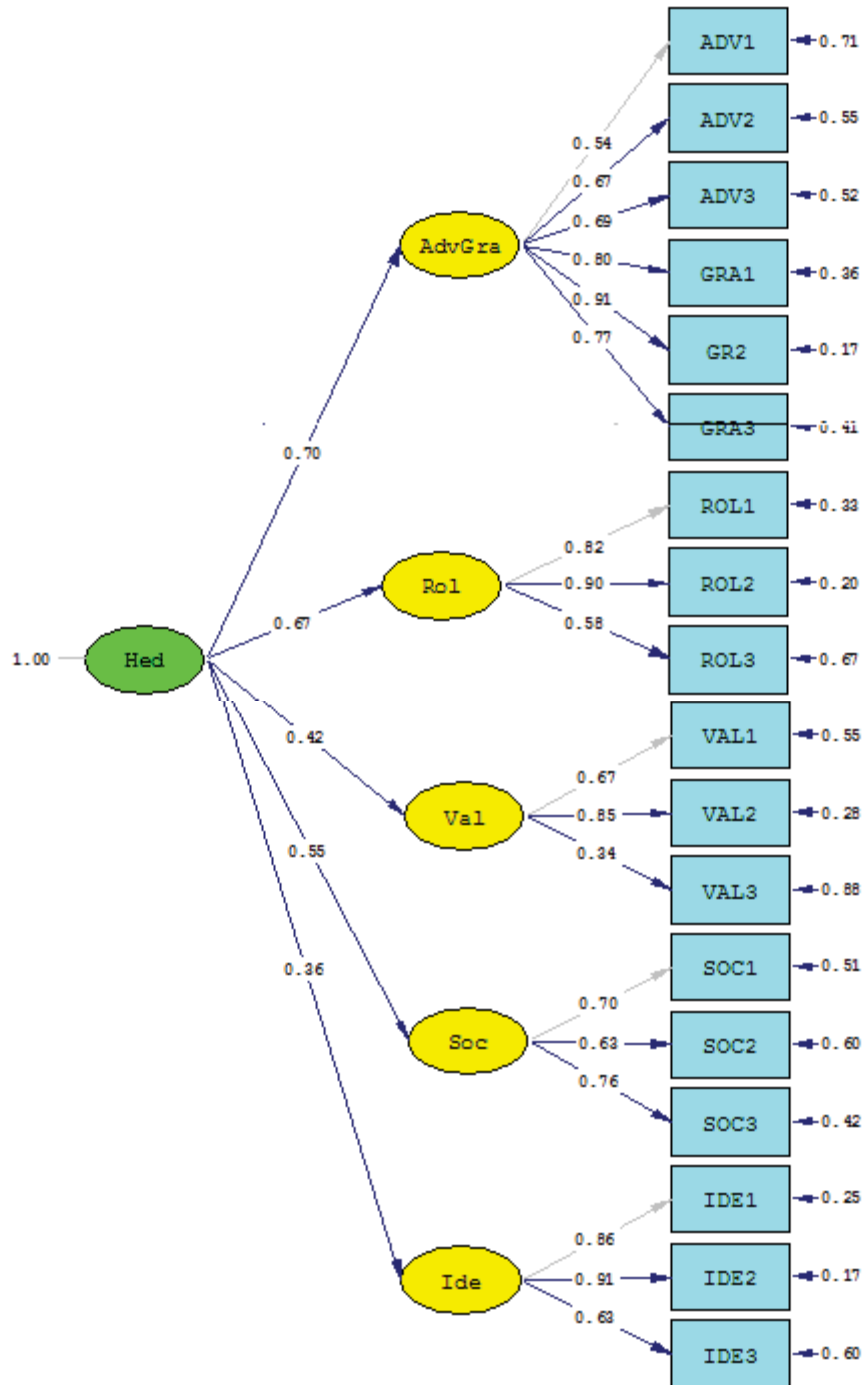


Figure 37. Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Standardized Solutions

Also when the goodness of fit statistics are evaluated it can be said that χ^2/df level is $283.43/130 = 2.180$ which is below five and means that the model is an acceptable model. The results can be seen from below LISREL output part – Figure 38.

Degrees of Freedom = 130
 Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 291.73 (P = 0.00)
 Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 283.43 (P = 0.00)
 Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 153.43
 90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (108.64 ; 205.97)

Figure 38. Chi – square / degrees of freedom result for second order confirmatory factor analysis

The RMSEA value is 0.068 which is below 0.08. It shows that the model is an acceptable one. Also the CFI is 0.95 that shows the model is a good model and GFI is 0.89 which is above the acceptable range.

Minimum Fit Function Value = 1.15
 Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.60
 90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.43 ; 0.81)
 Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.068
 Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.95
 Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.89
 Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.85
 Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.68

Figure 39. RMSEA, CFI and GFI results of second order confirmatory factor analysis

According to R^2 results for second order confirmatory factor analysis which are shown below, the change in hedonic consumption is explained most by AdvGra latent variable (with a value of 0.49) and at least by Ide variable (with a value of 0.13).

AdvGra = 0.70*Hed, Errorvar.= 0.51 , R ² = 0.49
(0.11) (0.14)
6.59 3.65
Rol = 0.67*Hed, Errorvar.= 0.55 , R ² = 0.45
(0.088) (0.11)
7.63 5.11
Val = 0.42*Hed, Errorvar.= 0.82 , R ² = 0.18
(0.10) (0.19)
4.22 4.39
Soc = 0.55*Hed, Errorvar.= 0.70 , R ² = 0.30
(0.094) (0.15)
5.82 4.76
Ide = 0.36*Hed, Errorvar.= 0.87 , R ² = 0.13
(0.081) (0.12)
4.41 7.48

Figure 40. R² results for second order confirmatory factor analysis

3.10. TESTING THE HYPOTHESIS

At this part of the study the hypothesis recommended are going to be analyzed by using SPSS 16.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences).

3.10.1. Hedonic Consumption versus Utilitarian Consumption

The first hypothesis of the thesis is to test whether there is a negative relationship between hedonic and utilitarian consumption. According to Sipahi et al. (2008: 143) “the statistical analysis to determine the degree and direction of relationship between two variables” is called as correlation. Pearson correlation coefficient is the method that is commonly used to make that determination.

All factors of hedonic consumption are combined as a new variable which is called as “Hed”. As a result of correlation matrix the Pearson correlation between hedonic consumption and utilitarian consumption was resulted as -0,150 which is above 0.05 level. It means that there is a negative significant relationship between hedonic consumption and utilitarian consumption. So $H1_0$ (There is no

relationship between hedonic and utilitarian consumption.) is rejected and **H1** is supported according to the results.

Table 16. Pearson correlation coefficient for hedonic consumption and utilitarian consumption

		Correlations	
		Hedonic	Utilitarian
Hedonic	Pearson Correlation	1	-0,150*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<i>0,017</i>
	N	255	255
Utilitarian	Pearson Correlation	-0,150*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<i>0,017</i>	
	N	255	255

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

When each factor is taken separately, the results are as shown below. The AdvGra (with -0,257 Pearson correlation coefficient at 0.01 level) and Role shopping (with -0.113 Pearson correlation coefficient at 0.05 level) have a negative relationship with utilitarian consumption whereas the remaining factors do not have significant relations.

Table 17. Pearson correlation coefficients for factors of hedonic consumption and utilitarian consumption

		Correlations					
		AdvGra	Role	Soc	Val	Ide	Uti
AdvGra	Pearson Correlation	1	0,464**	0,250**	0,230**	0,377**	-0,257**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
	N	255	255	255	255	55	255
Role	Pearson Correlation	0,464**	1	0,333**	0,254**	0,177**	-0,113*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000		0,000	0,000	0,005	0,041
	N	255	255	255	255	255	255
Soc	Pearson Correlation	0,250**	0,333**	1	0,255**	0,343**	0,070
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000		0,000	0,000	0,263
	N	255	255	255	255	255	255
Val	Pearson Correlation	0,230**	0,254**	0,255**	1	-0,027	0,019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000		0,668	0,764
	N	255	255	255	255	255	255
Ide	Pearson Correlation	0,377**	0,177**	0,343**	-0,027	1	-0,054
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,005	0,000	0,668		0,388
	N	255	255	255	255	255	255
Uti	Pearson Correlation	-0,257**	-0,113*	0,070	0,019	-0,054	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,041	0,263	0,764	0,388	
	N	255	255	255	255	255	255

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
 **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

3.10.2. Hedonic Consumption and Gender

The differentiation of hedonic consumption with regard to gender was analyzed by using independent sample t – test. According to the Levene’s test which shows homogeneity between woman and man, as $F= 0.005$ and $p= 0.945$

($p > 0.05$), both of the variances are accepted as equal. The results can be seen at Table 18.

Table 18. Levene's Test for Equality of Variances for Gender

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		Independent sample t test		
	F	Sig.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	0,005	0,945	4,859	0,000
Equal variances not assumed			4,864	0,000

Variations of the women and men's hedonic consumptions which are similar were found sequentially with means 3.21 and 2.82 (See Table 18). As a result of independent sample t – test, because $t = 4,859$ and $p = 0,0000$ at $\alpha = 0.05$, it can be said that the women make more hedonic consumption than men do. With regard to those results, $H2_0$ (Hedonic consumption does not differ according to gender) was rejected and **H2** is supported.

Table 19. Independent sample t – test results for hedonic consumption and gender relation

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Woman	157	3,21	0,61
Man	98	2,82	0,61

3.10.3. Hedonic Consumption, Age and Marital Status

The differentiation of hedonic consumption with respect to age groups was analyzed by using One-Way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance). According to the analysis, as can be seen in Table 19, as $f = 1,607$ and $p = 0.173$, difference is not significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. So $H3_0$ is supported and **H3** rejected.

Table 20. ANOVA results for age and hedonic consumption relationship

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2,613	4	0,653	1,607	0,173
Within Groups	101,601	250	0,406		
Total	104,214	254			

There is no significant relationship so that for all age groups the hedonic consumption mean is determined as 3.06. Beside there was not found any significant difference, the mean of 35 – 45 age group, with a value of 2.84, is below the total mean 3.06. Also, the 45 – 54 age group with 3.24 mean is above total mean.

Table 21. Descriptives for age groups

Descriptives								
95% Confidence Interval for Mean								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
18-24	89	3,062	0,675	0,072	2,920	3,205	1,440	4,670
25-34	97	3,108	0,627	0,064	2,982	3,235	1,500	4,780
35-44	38	2,847	0,687	0,111	2,621	3,072	1,330	4,670
45-54	19	3,246	0,413	0,095	3,047	3,445	2,440	4,060
55 and above	12	3,060	0,544	0,157	2,715	3,406	1,940	4,000
Total	255	3,06	0,641	0,040	2,982	3,140	1,330	4,780

The relationship between marital status and hedonic consumption is analyzed by using independent sample t – test. The results show homogeneity between married and single ones with $F= 2,898$ and $p= 0.090$ ($p>0.05$) by analyzing using Levene’s test. The results can be seen in Table 22.

Table 22. Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances for marital status

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	2,898	,090	-0,139	253	0,890
Equal variances not assumed			-0,145	209,857	0,885

As the significance of the equal variances assumed for married and single participants is 0.890 which means that the difference is not significant; H_0 is accepted and H_1 is rejected..

The hedonic consumption does not differ according to age and marital status separately. By looking at researches from literature, also the differentiation of hedonic consumption for singles and married ones at different age groups were analyzed. Before making analysis a correction was made at data. There are just three participants in 45–54 age group and 55 and above age group for single status so that they are added to 35 – 44 age groups.

Table 23. ANOVA results for marital status and hedonic consumption relationship

Marital		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Married	Between Groups	0,342	2	0,171	0,501	0,608
	Within Groups	30,001	88	0,341		
	Total	30,342	90			
Single	Between Groups	3,690	2	1,845	4,232	0,016
	Within Groups	70,174	161	0,436		
	Total	73,864	163			

As can be seen in Table 22, $F= 0.501$ and $p= 0.608$ ($p>0.05$), hedonic consumption is same for all age groups. However, for single participants, as $p=0.016$ ($p<0.05$) it can be said that the hedonic consumption differs according to age groups for singles. At the Bonferroni test which can be used to determine the significant differences between group means in an analysis of variance setting, both the values of 18–24 age and 25–34 age groups are considerably higher. It means that the single’s hedonic consumption behaviors are higher for younger participants.

Table 24. Bonferroni test results for age and marital status combined effect on hedonic consumption

(I)		(J) age_2		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
Marital	age_2			(I – J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Single	18-24	25-34		-0,107	0,110	0,997	-0,374	0,160
		35 and above		0,432	0,180	0,052	-0,002	0,867
	25-34	18-24		0,107	0,110	0,997	-0,160	0,374
		35 and above		0,539*	0,185	0,012	0,091	0,988
	35 and above	18-24		-0,432	0,180	0,052	-0,867	0,002
		25-34		-0,539*	0,185	0,012	-0,988	-0,091

3.10.4. Hedonic Consumption and Income

One-Way ANOVA was used for measuring the differentiation of hedonic consumption with regard to income. The results of analysis can be seen in Table 24. According to the results, difference is not significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ because $p = 0.943$ which is above 0.05. For that reason $H5_0$ is accepted.

Table 25. ANOVA results for income and hedonic consumption relationship

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0,318	4	0,080	0,191	0,943
Within Groups	103,896	250	0,416		
Total	104,214	254			

3.10.5. Hedonic Consumption and Education Level

Similar to the results of the relationship between income and hedonic consumption, as the p value is 0.834. $H6_0$ is accepted because there is no significant differentiation in hedonic consumption between education groups.

Table 26. ANOVA results for education level and hedonic consumption relationship

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0,873	5	0,175	0,420	0,834
Within Groups	103,341	249	0,415		
Total	104,214	254			

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of this study is confirmation of the hedonic consumption scale and investigation of the effects of demographics on hedonic consumption. Before analysis, part a literature review was made on concept of consumer behavior, models of consumer behavior, stages in consumer decision process, factors affecting consumer behavior, types of consumption, hedonism, hedonic consumption and reasons of hedonic consumption and the first two chapters of the study reviews the related literature.

As shortly, it can be said that to understand consumers who are the focus point of today's marketing, both the rational and emotional reasons of their consumption need to be studied. Consumers make utilitarian consumption when they tend to make rational consumptions, whereas they make hedonic consumption for their more pleasure seeking consumptions.

In the study, depending on the related literature, a questionnaire was prepared. The questionnaire includes three parts. First part includes three questions on general consumption tendencies. Second part includes question on hedonic consumption, which are taken from Arnold and Reynolds (2003)'s hedonic consumption scale and questions on utilitarian consumption, which are taken from Barbin, Darden and Griffin (1994)'s utilitarian consumption scale. Last part of the questionnaire includes five demographic questions as: age, gender, personal monthly income and education level.

The field of application of questionnaire was restricted to four shopping centers in Izmir (Agora, Carrefoursa Karşıyaka, Forum Bornova and Kipa Gaziemir). The shopping centers were chosen from the members of The Council of Shopping Centers. 285 participants were chosen by using convenience sampling, which is a non-probability sampling technique, and questionnaire was applied between dates of 14–21 June 2011 with voluntarism principal. 255 of 285 questionnaires were found

to be appropriate for analyzing because of participants' double marks for one question and missing questions.

When the participants are evaluated, it can be said that 62% of them are women and 64% of them are single. 25–34 age group has the highest participants which has a percent of 38. 41% of the participants have a budget between 1201 TL and 2400 TL which means that they are generally from middle income class. Lastly, when education levels are analyzed, the highest share is university graduates which constitute 40% of participants.

The next part is on consumption habits of the sample. Three questions were asked to participants to determine their consumption habits. First question is for determining whether they are making unplanned consumptions or not. The highest rated choice is "Sometimes" which includes 43.14%. Second question is for evaluating whether they give up buying a needed thing for buying something that they like and get pleasure from. Similar to the answers given to the first question, the highest rated choice is "Sometimes" with a rate of 39.61%. Third question is for measuring the tendency of their consumptions. According to the results 38.04% of them go shopping 2–3 times a month.

After analysis of demographic factors, by using SPSS 16.0 the reliabilities were evaluated. The hedonic consumption scale's Cronbach's Alpha value was 0,856 which mean that the reliability of hedonic consumption scale is high. None of the variables in that scale needed to be deleted since their "Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted" values are similar or below the value of 0.856. The Cronbach's Alpha value of utilitarian consumption questions is 0,654, which means that the reliability of utilitarian consumption questions is at moderate level. The values of "Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted" were below the value of 0,654 and it means that none of questions should be deleted.

As next step, the normality of data was evaluated by looking the kurtosis and skewness results. All the values for kurtosis were below 2 and for skewness below 7

which are the acceptable borders. For that reason, it can be said that the data is distributed normally.

The part that provides basis for the aim of the study is confirmatory factor analysis by using LISREL. And as the questions of hedonic consumption were entered the model, it did not give any result for 6 factors, which is given at Arnold and Reynolds's scale and the number of factors were decreased to five factors by combining the factors of adventure shopping and gratification shopping. The results showed a high goodness of fit to model with that combination. As a result of all those explanations, it was suggested that the hedonic consumption scale should be analyzed as a 5 factor construct.

After the confirmatory factor analysis was conducted, the hypotheses were tested by using SPSS 16.0. At the *first hypothesis* of the study, it was found that there is a negative significant relationship between hedonic consumption and utilitarian consumption. So $H1_0$ (There is no relationship between hedonic and utilitarian consumption.) is rejected and $H1$ is supported according to the results. The detailed analysis using Pearson Correlation showed that "adventure and gratification" and "role shopping" have a negative relationship with utilitarian consumption whereas the remaining factors do not have significant relations.

As *second hypothesis*, the differentiation of hedonic consumption according to gender was tested and a significant difference is observed. When the means were evaluated, it was found that, similar with literature, women make more hedonic consumption than men do. The *third hypothesis*, which is on differentiation of hedonic consumption according to age, *fourth hypothesis*, which is on differentiation of hedonic consumption according to marital status, *fifth hypothesis*, differentiation of hedonic consumption according to income and *sixth hypothesis*, differentiation of hedonic consumption according to education were tested using independent sample t – test and ANOVA and no significant difference is found. As those results are evaluated, among other demographic factors considered in the analysis, only gender was found to create significant difference on hedonic consumption.

As the research was applied at four shopping centers, in future researches comparisons can be done in different geographical places. For example, the hedonic and utilitarian consumption tendencies for metropolitan, city, town and village consumers can be analyzed. As consumers are at different geographical places with different geographical and population sizes, their tendency of going shopping, their chance of making comparisons between brands and their opportunity for collecting information from different sources might change. So, their consumer behaviors would change too. Similarly, the comparison can be made for places that are culturally different from each other, such as comparison of consumers from different geographical regions. As culture changes, it affects the behaviors of consumers. Also, the comparisons for hedonic consumption can be made for different factors that affect consumer behavior. For example, comparison of tendencies and frequencies of hedonic and utilitarian consumption can be made for consumers that have different personalities, at different life-cycle stages and having different lifestyles.

Also, from the findings achieved, some useful suggestions can be given for the marketing managers of businesses. It can be said that consumers are sometimes making unplanned consumption and during those consumptions, they tend to buy something that they are going to take pleasure from. It means that, the marketing managers can design their store atmosphere so that the consumers can combine the impulse buying behaviors with hedonic buying behaviors. For example, managers can divide the hedonic products to a shelf that is closer to cash point. So that, consumers can pay attention to those products, when they are waiting in payment queue. Also by surprise discounts and surprise additional gifts at cash points, consumers can be attracted because of both feeling amazed and reducing stress. This application of design in the store atmosphere will increase their sales and customer satisfaction so that customers will visit the store more frequently.

When the second order confirmatory factor analysis results were evaluated, it was seen that the hedonic consumption was explained mostly by Adventure and Gratification factor, secondly by Role factor, thirdly by Value, than by Social and

lastly Idea factor. It means that consumers generally make hedonic consumption for stimulation, adventure and feeling of being in another world by making adventure shopping experience and try to forget their problems, get out of stress relief and alleviate a negative mood by making gratification shopping. For those reasons, the managers can tend to increase the purchases of consumers and pleasure they get from their experience by creating challenging store designs which consumers are going to feel as they move away from their daily routines. Also by organizing some competitions or sweepstakes, the consumers may be satisfied from the adventure side of shopping.

The results showed that there is a significant negative relationship between hedonic consumption and utilitarian consumption. That result can be used to direct consumers to make ongoing purchases. The managers by using information technology systems can collect the previous purchases of the consumers and from those data, they can group their consumers as utilitarian consumers and hedonic consumers. This data will provide the managers to discriminate their promotional campaigns with respect to hedonic and utilitarian consumers and they can discriminate the messages and information they include in their marketing communications with these two different groups.

The application part of that study was made at chosen four shopping centers. The people that go to those shopping centers were assumed to have similar consumption patterns so that managers can use the given data for making a generalization of people that are visiting their stores. Also by making different researches at suburbs and rich neighborhoods, the consumption behaviors of those groups can be compared and some different types of promotions for those different consumer groups can be offered.

As last recommendation the scale can be applied to samples with different demographic factors. By that way the decrease of five factors from six factors can be confirmed by repetitions.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1. Questionnaire Form

Değerli Katılımcı;

Bu anket, tüketicilerin yaşam tarzlarının hedonik (hazcı) ve faydacı tüketim davranışları üzerine etkisini incelemek amacıyla yapılmakta olup ankete vermiş olduğunuz yanıtlar sadece bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacaktır. Anketin tamamını cevaplamak yaklaşık on dakika sürmektedir. Sorularda yanlış veya doğru cevaplar bulunmamaktadır. Lütfen size uygun gelen cevabı işaretleyiniz.

Araştırmaya katılıminız için teşekkür ederim.

Ezgi KARATAŞ

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İngilizce İşletme Yüksek Lisans Programı Öğrencisi

BÖLÜM 1: Bu bölümdeki ifadeler genel tüketim alışkanlıklarınızı anlamaya yöneliktir. Size uygun olan kutucuğa "X" işareti koyunuz.

1. Planlamadan, ani kararlar vererek alışveriş yapar mısınız?

Her zaman Çoğu zaman Bazen Nadiren Hiçbir zaman

2. Beğendiğiniz ve satın almaktan haz duyduğunuz bir ürünü almak için ihtiyacınız olan bir ürünü almaktan vazgeçer misiniz?

Her zaman Çoğu zaman Bazen Nadiren Hiçbir zaman

3.Ortalama ne sıklıkta alışverişe çıkarsınız?

Ayda 1 defa veya daha az Ayda 2-3 defa Haftada 1 defa Haftada 2-3 defa Her gün

BÖLÜM 2: Bu bölümdeki ifadeler tüketim davranışınızı belirlemeye yöneliktir. Her bir ifadeye ne derece katıldığınızı gösteren kutucuğa "X" işareti koyunuz.

	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılmıyorum ne katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1 Bana göre alışveriş bir maceradır.					
2 Alışveriş yapmak beni canlandırır.					
3 Alışveriş yaparken kendi ayrı dünyamdaymışım gibi hissedirim.					
4 Keyifsiz olduğum zamanlar kendimi daha iyi hissetmek için alışverişe çıkarım.					
5 Benim için alışveriş bir tür stres atma yöntemidir.					
6 Kendimi özel bir şey için eğlendirmek istediğimde alışverişe giderim.					
7 Başkaları için alışveriş yapmayı severim, çünkü onlar iyi hissettikleri zaman ben de iyi hissedirim.					
8 Ailem ve arkadaşlarım için alışveriş yapmaktan zevk alırım.					
9 Birilerine hediye alırken mükemmeli bulmak için mağaza mağaza dolaşmaktan zevk alırım.					
10 Genellikle indirim zamanlarında alışverişe çıkarım.					
11 Alışveriş yaparken indirimleri arayıp bulmaktan zevk alırım.					
12 Alışveriş yaparken pazarlık yapmaktan zevk alırım.					
13 Alışverişe sosyalleşmek için ailem veya arkadaşlarımla çıkarım.					
14 Alışverişe gittiğimde diğer insanlarla kaynaşmaktan zevk alırım.					
15 Başkaları ile alışverişe çıkmak birleştirici bir deneyimdir.					
16 Alışverişe son eğilimlere / trendlere ayak uydurmak için çıkarım.					
17 Alışverişe yeni moda ayak uydurmak için çıkarım.					
18 Alışverişe piyasada mevcut en son ürünleri görmek için çıkarım.					
19 Alışverişlerimde sadece planladıklarımı yaparım/alırım.					
20 Gerçekten ihtiyacım olan şeyleri alamadığım olur.					
21 Alışveriş yaparken yalnızca aradığım ürünleri incelerim.					
22 İstediklerimin hepsini aynı mağazadan satın alamadığımda, başka bir mağazaya gitmek beni hayal kırıklığına uğratar.					

BÖLÜM 3: Bu bölümdeki ifadeler demografik özelliklerinizle ilgilidir. Size uygun olan kutucuğa "X" işareti koyunuz.

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