

IDENTIFYING PRICE BASED DETERMINANTS OF CONSUMER  
SATISFACTION IN DISCOUNT STORES: ANALYZING THE MODERATING  
EFFECT OF SELF-CONGRUITY



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BY  
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**PLAGIARISM**

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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## ABSTRACT

Customer happiness and satisfaction have been globally accepted as critical notions for business success for decades. Recently, discount retailers have also noticed the importance of customer satisfaction to conduct an effective business plan.

The discounter business is characterized by increasing competitiveness, more market analysis opportunities, and higher consumer expectations. These factors propose the essential nature of customer satisfaction. Price and price-related variables are well-known to be major drivers of consumer purchasing choices, however; their impact on consumer satisfaction, on the other hand, is unknown.

Thus, the purpose of this research is to investigate the role of price-related factors on shopping satisfaction. Another purpose of the study is to examine the moderating effect of self-congruity on shopping in retail stores, with a sample from Turkey. In the study, data were collected using a 35-item survey which was gathered from various existing scales. The sample consists of 350 white-collar working participants who shop at retail stores and data were collected via the online survey. After presenting descriptive statics and reliability of the scales, as further correlation analysis, simple and hierhical analysis was performed to reveal the effect of different variables on shopping satisfaction. It was found that, independent variables were significant predictors of shopping satisfaction. Also, it was highlighted that shopping satisfaction was found significantly affected by the interaction term of independent variables with the self congruity.

**Keywords:** *shopping satisfaction, self congruity, price consciousness, discount market, hard discounters.*

## ÖZET

Müşteri mutluluğu ve memnuniyeti, uzun zamandır, küresel olarak kritik kavramlar olarak kabul edilmiştir. Son zamanlarda indirim perakendecileri de etkili bir iş planı yürütmek için müşteri memnuniyetinin önemini fark etmişlerdir ve bu alanda çalışmalar yürütmektedir.

Perakendecilik sektörü; artan rekabet, daha fazla pazar analizi fırsatı ve daha yüksek tüketici beklentileri ile karakterize edilir. Bu faktörler, müşteri memnuniyeti yönetiminin temel doğasını oluşturmaktadır. Bununla birlikte, fiyat ve fiyatla ilgili değişkenlerin, tüketici satın alma tercihlerinin ve davranışlarının başlıca itici güçleri olduğu iyi bilinmesine rağmen, tüketici memnuniyeti üzerindeki etkileri bilinmemektedir. Bu nedenle, bu araştırmanın amacı, fiyatla ilgili faktörlerin alışveriş memnuniyeti üzerindeki rolünü araştırmaktır. Araştırmanın bir diğer amacı ise, perakende mağazalarından alışveriş yapan kişilerin, alışveriş yaptıkları yerlerle kişisel uyumluluklarının moderatör etkisini Türkiye'den bir örneklemle incelemektir. Araştırmada veriler, mevcut çeşitli ölçeklerden toplanan 35 maddelik bir anket kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Örneklem, perakende mağazalardan alışveriş yapan beyaz yakalı 350 katılımcıdan oluşmakta ve veriler çevrimiçi anket yoluyla toplanmıştır. Ölçeklerin betimsel istatistikleri ve güvenilirliği sunulduktan sonra, ileri düzeyde korelasyon analizi olarak farklı değişkenlerin alışveriş memnuniyeti üzerindeki etkisini ortaya çıkarmak için basit ve hiyerarşik analiz yapılmıştır. Bağımsız değişkenlerin alışveriş memnuniyetinin anlamlı yordayıcıları olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca alışveriş memnuniyetinin bağımsız değişkenlerin benlik uyumu ile etkileşim süresinden önemli ölçüde etkilendiği vurgulanmıştır.

**Anahtar kelimeler:** *Alışveriş memnuniyeti, Kişisel uyumluluk, Fiyat bilinci, İndirim marketleri, Sürekli indirim marketleri.*

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Retailers represent the last chain in the lengthy input-output cycle comprising the manufacture and distribution of consumer products to people and homes. Retail shops serve as the setting for the last economic point and the start of consumption (McArthur, Weaven, & Dant, 2016). The function of retail is to sell goods and services to end consumers. There are four main functions that retailers perform. These functions are to buy and store goods, transportation of goods, to provide information about the use and sale of goods, and finally to give credit to buyers in some cases (Rosenberg, 1998). The retail structure and strategy were influenced by strong competition and market share struggles. Grocery merchants operate in slowly growing marketplaces and the struggles for market shares are thus understandable (Uusitalo, 2001). However, the success story of cheap grocery retailing has been extensively researched over the previous two decades, with studies ranging from their business strategy and internationalization tactics to customer price inference, loyalty, and value of shopping (Carpenter and Moore, 2009).

Retailers have made a huge transformation around the world, especially after the 1980s. The retailing sector was once a certain area of interest for merchants, where goods purchased and were sold to consumers by setting a margin in certain districts and places. However, today retailers have gained an international dimension with the engineering and branding methods performed in institutionalized and professional structures. (Fishman, 2008).

With the emergence of new store formats in retail, the spread of chain markets, investments in new technologies and the development of logistics services, retail trade, supply channels and retail-construction-trade connections have emerged. Since there was a significant saturation in their home market, Western retailers started to

compete fiercely against each other for sales in order to remain in business, which has culminated in a discount store format that increasingly spreads and continually grows. Over recent decades, Aldi and Lidl have developed and promoted with little convenience the "hard discounter" image, packaged items in boxes, cheap price, private label items, and little investment in technology, two leading businesses in this field (Stanton, 2018). Through their strong business principles and models, they have had good success that may provide them an early foothold in market share in developed areas, including as the United States, where supermarkets have a powerful brand and service focus (Colla, 2003). In 2002, all German supermarket stores suffered a substantial decline in revenue. However, among the major discount chains, Aldi and Lidl increased by 15 per cent (IGD Research, 2002). The popularity of discount store concept has encouraged other European countries to extend their discount activities as well. About 26,000 discount retail outlets were opened in Western Europe between 1990 and 2008, which resulted in a rise in market share from 11.1% in 1991 to 19.5% in 2008 (Voedingsuniversum, 2009).

The key factor of the success of the discounters are considered as the power of purchasing and great skill managing their own private products. Since Myers' (1967) pioneering work, study on store brand goods has piqued the attention of scholars and business professionals alike. Numerous surveys have been conducted to ascertain the characteristics of store-brand grocery product consumers (Baltas & Argouslidis, 2007). The majority of these surveys, undertaken during the 1960s and 1980s, concentrated on the socioeconomic characteristics (Goldman, 1976), personality characteristics (Myers, 1967), buying style, and information processing of store brand shoppers (Francis, 1983). These researchers concluded that customers are unlikely to purchase store labels due to their perceived low quality (Francis, 1983).

Retail formats now adjust and change to meet the demands of the market and achieve competitive advantages to increase the customer satisfaction. Discounters usually have more relative private labelling, fewer retail areas, limited selection of grocery items, smaller non-food goods for sale, and lower prices than non-discounters (ter Braak, Deleersnyder, Geyskens & Dekimpe, 2013). Baltas and Argouslidis (2007) discovered more recently that particular customer traits such as purchasing frequency, loyalty, wages, and employment were correlated with interpersonal variations in in-store brand demand. Furthermore, now while choosing a retail shop, buyers increasingly consider a variety of aspects. Consumers are getting more picky when it comes to store selection, emphasizing the value of retail shops in developing brand identities rather than just creating retail shops. Having said that, research into how consumers pick retail stores and what influences their store selection will be an essential contribution to the retail industry and its affiliates in reacting to changing customer expectations and retail sector advancements (Shahid and Farooqi, 2015).

Nevertheless, retailing in Turkey has undergone a conspicuous change, also especially since the mid-1980s, in the food axis and generally under the influence of European-based retailers. When Turkey's imports started to be liberalized, the entrance and consumption of foreign consumer products surged dramatically. The retail sector's reflection of the 1980s' liberal economic policies linked to the 1990s. Large capital corporations have expanded their interest and engagement in the retail sector in order to diversify their risks and operate in several industries (Öztürk, 2006). With their strong financial structures, know-how, initiatives, and customer services, these corporations have enhanced competition and acted as models to the other markets in the retail sector. (Sayın, 2016).

### **1.1. Aim of the Study**

The aim of the study is to identify the effect of price based characteristics of customer on shopping satisfaction from discount stores. In that perspective, value consciousness, price consciousness, sale proneness, price mavenism and odd-price perception of customers are examined. Also, another aim is formulated as whether customer's self congruity moderates the relationship with above mentioned variables and level of customer satisfaction. As a result of this, the last aim of our study will be one of the first studies to examine the effect of price-related factors on shopping satisfaction with the effect of self-congruity.

### **1.2. Significance of the Study**

Customer satisfaction has risen in prominence as a performance metric in recent years. Increased customer satisfaction, both theoretically and empirically, is linked with increased company success. As a multi-attributive construct, quality or customer satisfaction are conceptualised and assessed in customer satisfaction measurement. However there is little attention paid to the price as a predictor of customer satisfaction. On the other hand, although retailers know that the increased self congruence with shops will also increase the positive attitudes and number of revisits, they don't pay enough attention to this issue. Thus this research provides an improved understanding of the importance of price-related factors and self-congruence on shopping satisfaction. The inclusion of self-congruity and price-related factors together in the research model is considered as one of the unique aspects of the research. Also, it is believed that this unique aspect of the research will contribute to the literature.

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. Emergence of Discount Stores in Consumers' World**

#### **2.1.1. Types of Discount Stores**

Many of the retailing revolutions started with competitive policies in the form of price reduction and low pricing (Wellman, 1980). Multinational discount stores have been successful in gaining market share in international markets thanks to their well-equipped knowledge and financial strength (Ok Kim and Jin, 2001). Especially among international discount supermarkets, competition is based on price and profit margins (Burt, Sparks, 1997). In addition, with that, retail formats adjust and change their concept to meet the consumer's demands in order to achieve a competitive edge. Discounters usually sell a greater percentage of private brands, have fewer retail centers (Gijbrecchts et al., 2008), a limited selection of grocery items, a smaller selection of non-food products to sell, and offers cheaper price as opposed to competitive formats (Denstadli et al., 2015).

To keep costs down, they use a stripped-down "no-frills" store layout style, a "what you see is what you get" attitude. Under the division of discount shopping facilities, there are hard and soft discounters (Willems, Leroi-Werelds & Swinnen, 2016).

Hard discounters sell a small selection of merchandise, primarily their own brands called private labels, provide limited in-store fixtures, have limited facilities and provide limited services. Soft discounters, on the other hand, carry virtually all product ranges, sell both private labels and national products, and provide a greater variety of natural, chilled, fresh and frozen foods than hard discounters (ter Braak, Deleersnyder, Geyskens & Dekimpe, 2013). Additionally, soft discounters have

shifted their approach in recent years, offering a narrower selection of fresh produce and luxury premium goods at cheaper premiums than non-discounters (Willems, Leroi-Werelds & Swinnen, 2016).

### **2.1.2. Hard versus Soft Discounters and Their Business Cycle**

Hard discounters and soft discounters are two types of discount stores (Denstadli et al., 2005). Several variables contribute to this classification: product selection, operational costs, price level, and private label involvement (Exclusive private labels may account for more than 90% of exclusive private labels in hard discounters, but less than 50% in soft discounters) (Denstadli et al., 2005). Due to the increased susceptibility of shoppers to price in challenging economic conditions, it is believed that hard discounters would gain win more buyers when they deliver deeper discounts than soft discounters (Estelami et al., 2001). Conversely, because customers would have a better desire to go from conventional stores to hard, rather than soft, discounters if they economize on price, they have a much greater incentive to move from traditional stores to hard discounters. Additionally, hard discounters bear their own brands, which as a result, alter customer-purchasing habits dramatically. As a result, buyers are less likely to change to hard discounters. Beyond merely offering their own private label, soft discounters sell a wide range of national labels, which lets people keep purchasing their favourite national brands in certain categories. Though atmospheres of the soft discounters' store may not be as thrilling (Schmitz, 2009), they more closely resemble conventional stores, with higher-quality products but lower prices. Consumers are more likely to move from hard discounters to soft discounters as a result of the assortment claim. When there is an economic recession, whether hard discounters or soft discounters are more favoured is an unsolved question.

Notwithstanding the basic issue of whether consumers will reliably prefer hard versus soft discounters in the midst of a sustained economic downturn, one might wonder whether consumers will continue to shop at hard versus soft discounters even after the downturn has ended. According to Gijsbrechts et al. (2008), many shoppers multi-shop by visiting both conventional stores and hard discounters. Although hard discounters favour conventional supermarkets as the mixture, in practice, category-preference complementarity (i.e. each store is chosen for at least one of the product categories) predominates for the combination of hard discounters and traditional supermarkets.

The evidence provided by the authors reveals that hard discounters have a strong edge when it comes to convenience items, while supermarkets receive decent scores for other groups. This may lead to customers purchasing different types of products in different shops instead of buying everything they need in one place. It is also likely that customers will not stick to regular supermarkets because they have had the chance to adopt a hard-discount format during economic hard times, but will continue to shop at hard discounters for some of their supermarket shopping long after the recession has finished. In addition, Schmitz (2009) found that shoppers disregard the limitations of a discount store in contrast to other supermarket models. Disadvantages (such as a less exciting store experience and minimal customer service) will not factor significantly in the decision to return to conventional retailers; advantages (such as a large range that incorporates the favoured national products and reduced overall costs) will be definitive. In total, it is estimated that all discount strategies, hard and soft, will permanently capture market share due to the emergence of a slowdown in the economy. It is also an academic concern whether this long-term effect is better for hard or soft discounters.

### **2.1.3. Relationship between Discount Stores, Consumers and Cycle of Business**

In both psychological and financial terms, crisis-hit customers act differently from those that are wealthy (Dutt & Padmanabhan, 2011). Shifts in the economy have an effect on customer behaviour and preferences. Concretely, during recessions, consumers' power to afford products declines, as household income processes in the same direction as the overall economy (Stock & Watson, 1999). It was noticed that, not only the customer's power to afford products decrease but also their willingness to buy decrease during the hard economic times (Katona, 1975). A slowdown in the economy greatly affects purchasing decisions: "As consumers foresee more economic issues, it appears that human nature forces them to make two choices: lessen expenses entirely or modify the behaviour of purchasing." (Chief Marketer, 2009). In addition to that, Shama (1981) discovered that 35% of all consumers take advantage of recessions to lower their overall expenditures by searching for cheaper goods.

However, one cannot economize on quantity for FMCGs because of their necessity: people must wash their clothing, drink adequate fluids, and so on. Consumers are most likely to economize on price when shopping for food. Lamey et al. (2007) also stated that lower-priced private labels are gaining traction in harsh economic times based on annual estimates for private label shares. Furthermore, recession-affected consumers weigh up the positives and drawbacks of a product on consciously (Ang et al., 2000). Whereas much purchasing activity in FMCG categories is focused on habit, and is therefore marked by little to no consideration of alternatives, contractions influence consumers in such a way that they cause them to think more about their purchase decisions (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2001). Although the Gijzenberg et al. (2009) study did also show that customer sales are generally more liquid (i.e. less brand loyal) during hard economic times, other data gathered in a

separate study reinforces the notion that decreases in inertia in consumers' choices exists as the economic climate tightens. We should understand that during economic changes customers will discover more details and analyze options more closely.

Let's clearly state the key point: Hard economic times shake consumers out of their normal decision-making habits, which raises consumers' emphasis on costs. Since they want to save money, it becomes much more necessary for them to take into account the price (Ang et al., 2000). When looking at conventional supermarkets, discounters may be considered an appealing format because of their prices: in a crisis, consumers have a greater chance of buying at discounters than at traditional retail locations. If you swap the conventional retail format with a discount retail format, you will be able to substantially reduce the net expense of the comparable shopping basket. Based on these assumptions, it can be projected that discounter market share will rise, as the economy slows down.

#### **2.1.4. Influences of Contractions on Discounter Performance**

For the majority of shoppers, buying routines are set and routine, consisting of frequent trips to different retail outlets (Galata et al., 1999). However, when economically difficult times, shoppers are more likely to look at other shops, including others that are less pricey, causing shoppers to buy in new locations. The period the economy takes to rebound from difficult economic times often diminishes the urge to catch out cheap goods. Although it has been a common procedure for customers to make regular visits to a discount-format store during recessions, shoppers are used to doing this and will keep visiting those places. Regardless of whether or not customers can go entirely back to conventional shopping models as the economy strengthens, the question also persists as to whether or not consumers can stick to their former behavior trends. The study indicates that when things are going

well, consumers like the status quo and therefore have a tendency to keep their buying habits built long after a recession has ended (Rhee & Bell, 2002). Not only exposed to the real discounter rates allow customers to see that there is a clear price benefit in buying at discounters, but it is also likely that this form of exposure will encourage customers to realize that discounter shopping results in a clear price advantage.

## **2.2. Understanding Price-Related Determinants of Discount Store Consumers**

Consumer purchasing behavior is an important area of research that directly affects the marketing process of a firm, and it deals specifically with how consumers make decisions when purchasing a particular product, brand or service. In parallel with this, the reaction of consumers to marketing efforts is one of the most important topics studied, as marketers want to place something in consumer minds, change their attitudes and mobilize consumers (Yaraş et al., 2009). The establishment and maintenance of exchange relationships by satisfying a firm requires an understanding of purchasing behavior (Boonlertanich, 2009). Studying consumer behavior makes it possible to better understand and predict purchasing motives, frequency and purchasing issue (Stávková, Stejskal & Toufarová, 2008). Previous studies indicate that through better understanding of consumer behavior in the purchasing decision process, more can be learned about the factors affecting mutual exchange, especially improving understanding of the motives that affect consumer-purchasing behavior (Liao, Palvia & Lin, 2010).

Price is considered as the strategic marketing variable that affects consumer purchasing behavior (Konuk, 2015). Consumers' perceptions of price, quality and value are among the most important determinants in terms of purchasing behavior and product selection. (Zeithaml, 1988). Although many factors affect the purchasing decisions of consumers, it is thought that they approach the market with certain

purchasing decision styles. Among the aforementioned purchasing styles, price and quality awareness represent two important purchasing styles. Konuk (2015) evaluates price as the sacrifice of consumers to obtain the product, high prices generally negatively affect the purchase intention. Hard discounters' low price policy tries to demolish this perception and offer lower priced products to consumers. (Konuk, 2015). Price perceptions play an important role in consumers' product preferences and purchasing behaviors. In addition, quality is explained and evaluated in relation to value and psychological factors (Ene & Özkaya, 2013). In this context, it is thought that the relationship between consumers' perceptions of product quality and price has a significant influence on important consumer behaviors. The strength of the price and quality relationship increases when there is no complete information about the purchased product, that is, price is the only distinguishing factor.

Lichtenstein et al. (1993) identify seven psychological or human factors that can influence how buyers perceive price discounts. Five of these structures (value consciousness, price mavenism, price consciousness, selling proneness, and coupon proneness) are consistent with a negative role for price, whereas two are consistent with a positive role for price (price–quality schema and reputation sensitivity). Increased prices have a negative effect on purchasing probability; however, they may have a positive effect on purchase probability. (Lichtenstein, Ridgway & Netemeyer, 1993).

### **2.2.1. Value Consciousness**

Consumers trying to save money now have various options. These options include buying the advertising brand or retail-branded goods that are less expensive than manufacturer-branded products. Retail-branded products are roughly %30 cheaper than manufacturer-branded products, and customers benefit %20 to %30

while manufacturer-branded products are discounted. All of these options have a similar goal: to have value to the user.

Dick et al. described value consciousness as 'consumers' assessment of a product's quality in relation to the purchasing price (Dick, Jain, & Richardson, 1995). Since store brands are 20 to 40% less expensive than national brands, shoppers may perceive them to have a much higher 'value.' Lower-level structures should be used in a more systematic operationalization of value consciousness.

Individuals' concern about paying a cheap price for high-quality products and services and their tendency to react to coupons is referred to as value awareness (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, & Burton 1990). For some clients, quality and rewards exceed their expectations. Value-conscious customers sometimes anticipate distinct advantages from a product/service (Zeithaml, 1988). The value consciousness is linked as a notion to a buying utility since it deals with the product/service's inherent needs-satisfactory advantages (Lichtenstein et al., 1990). Pillai & Kumar (2012) explained that value-conscious client is motivated to find additional information, analyze carefully and decide precisely. Value consciousness also influences the way information is processed by consumers and the way they decide (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2014). Customer value consciousness and price/product knowledge have been favorably affected by the sense of value (Lichtenstein et al., 1990).

Customers who place a high value on things are more likely to expend effort in evaluating items, prioritizing methodical processing over the use of simple heuristics (Pillai & Kumar, 2012). They also do the math and compare several possibilities, making sure they're getting the most for their money. In addition, value-conscious clients are more confident in their convincing knowledge of price tactics and of the calibration of such information (Pillai & Kumar, 2012). In many research, a

moderating variable has the function of value consciousness as a customer-driven feature (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2014; Pillai & Kumar, 2012). The positive association between loyalty intent and purchasing habits, for instance, has a negative influence on customer value consciousness (CVC) (Zheng et al., 2017). Other research suggests that CVC moderates the association between low price guarantees and consumer post-purchase search intentions, such that the association becomes stronger as CVC increases (Dutta & Biswas, 2005).

Value-conscious consumers learn information that is not just connected to the product/service they purchase, but also to competitor products/services. Value-conscious clients are always learning about different value offers in the market and finding the best ones for them. Value-conscious consumers are driven to further increase the value that a product or service provides to them (Dutta & Biswas, 2005). This group of consumers is interested in marketing that puts a focus on value. CPV's ability to influence customers' positive attitudes and actions decreases as the degree of their knowledge and involvement increases.

### **2.2.2. Price Consciousness**

Price consciousness is an attitude construct that quantifies how much emphasis buyers place on low prices (Lichtenstein et al., 1993) Price consciousness is indeed a much broader term than value consciousness, in which consumers consider price-quality; for the price conscious, “lower price is better.” (Ofir, 2004). Value consciousness is conceptualized as a consideration for the cost of goods purchased in relation to the quality received. However, price consciousness is a more limited term that does not consider the quality of product received. Even that these two structures share certain features, the consequences for evaluating a promotional action are very different (e.g., perceived value, buying intention) (Palazón & Delgado, 2009).

The literature mostly focused on price consciousness and the identification of critical elements affecting the buying behavior of such customers (Sinha & Batra, 1999).

Price-conscious buyers focus more on the price of a product and measure carefully against the costs of the thing the possible advantages of purchasing. In addition, the demographic features of price-conscious customers are comparable. They are often considered as deal prone (Martínez & Montaner, 2006), and several things have been shown to impact consumer price awareness (including wages, product engagement, assessment of product quality, aging, socializing, and cognitive ideas about supporting budget) (Ofir, 2004).

Price consciousness has been investigated by researchers for a long time, however, visual recognition measurements have not been engaged to evaluate the style of decision-making of the consumers (Rihn, Khachatryan & Wei, 2018). In addition, it is not yet known whether researchers are exploring the potential to employ technology to study shoppers' visual recognition to pricing and purchase probability in the retail environment. Price-conscious buyers base their buying decisions on the price of the goods (Rihn, Khachatryan & Wei, 2018).

A negative link between increasing prices and purchase probability is assumed in economic theory (Chandon, Wansink & Laurent, 2000). Consumer behavior is greatly influenced by the cost of the product. In other words, the price can influence consumer's buying plans. In addition, when information saturation occurs, pricing represents the main consumer information sign (Guyader, Ottosson & Witell, 2017). Chen, Jermias & Panggabean (2012) argued that those who spend longer attention on pricing would usually be more price sensitive. Similarly, Van Loo et al., (2014) demonstrate that when visual attention to the price attribute grows, participants' utility

drops, indicating increased price sensitivity. In other respect, Behe et al., (2015) imply that low-involvement customers are more price-sensitive and hence consider prices more speedily than notably engaged customers.

Although price consciousness is primarily driven by utilitarian, reasonable considerations (Ailawadi, Neslin & Gedenk, 2001), the price-conscious view lower search costs as a result of the greater economic and psychological advantages (e.g., pleasure) associated with price seeking (Kukar-Kinney, Walters & MacKenzie, 2007). Urbany, Dickson & Kalapurakal (1996) revealed that a more price-conscious reaction for persons with reduced financial well-being might help people minimize their financial spending. If (subjective) income is cut, the cost of opportunity is also reduced; when income is large, time spent looking for cheap prices normally bears larger costs of opportunity.

In addition, consumer price consciousness (CPC) is substantially connected with a reasonably steady awareness of personality characteristics, Steenkamp and Maydeu-Olivares (2015) revealed that over the business cycles CPC remains much less constant than other consumer qualities. On the other hand, income-related structures are strongly associated with price consciousness, implying that price consciousness is situational in nature rather than a characteristic. Ailawadi, Neslin & Gedenk, (2001). Being more price-conscious means an adaptive coping approach to people who have decreased economic well-being, and this will help people minimize financial expenses. In a current study conducted in July 2020 to Canadian consumers, about half of the sample agreed or rather agreed with the situation that they have been more price-conscious while shopping for groceries in the aftermath of the coronavirus pandemic. (Grashuis, Skevas & Segovia, 2020).

### 2.2.3. Sale Proneness

The term of sale-proneness – first identified by Webster (1965). Since then practitioners and academics alike continue to be involved in and search the effect of sales marketing methods on consumer preferences. Lichtenstein et al. (1993) propose that selling-prone buyers are more likely to consider a higher value when the sales price is displayed in a sale form than an equal price that is not presented in a sale form. On the other hand, sell proneness is described as "an enhanced proclivity to react to a sales quote as a result of the way the price is portrayed having a positive effect on purchasing assessments." It is critical to note that deal-proneness refers to the psychological proclivity to acquire, not the exact buying of, products on sale (DelVecchio 2005).

On this basis, one might contend that sale-prone shoppers are more likely to display increased purchasing intentions when exposed to a discount advertisement. As a consequence, one can anticipate that consumers who are more likely to make a purchase may have lower quest intentions than consumers who are less likely to make a purchase (Lichtenstein, Ridgway & Netemeyer, 1993). In addition to this, according to some research, deal-proneness is a generic concept — a person who alters his or her purchasing attitude in response to specific discounted sales is expected to do a similar action in response to any other offer (Price, Feick, & Guskey-Federouch, 1988). In this regard, the notion is that some fundamental features cause customers to be susceptible to sale (or not susceptible) to business in general. Thus, this approach argues that there is sufficient resemblance between different forms of promotions to warrant targeting a single deal-obsessed subgroup of customers who are more likely than others to react to all forms of discounts (Lichtenstein, Burton, & Netemeyer, 1997).

Many firms have large budgetary allocations and marketers are fluctuating between short-term purchasing motivations generated by sales promotion and long-term advertising payouts identified in recent research which shape the influence of publicity (Neff, 2000). Indeed, retail stores commonly spend between one third and half their marketing budgets on their offer advertisement through specially designed flyers (IRI 2006).

Blattberg & Neslin (1990) argue that customer behaviors may be associated with varying reaction sensitivities to different forms of promotions, implying the necessity to differentiate customer reactions to different sorts of deals. Both attractive discounts and everyday low price (EDLP) strategy allow customers to save some money. However, study conducted in 1998 by Gardner and Triverdi, it was observed that when the number of sale promotion decreased and EDLP started to be used more often, customers oppose this tactic. It was also observed that, due to high negative reaction of the customers, markets stop their non coupon and no-considerable discount strategy five months later.

In terms of their quick savings from low prices these extremely sensitive individuals have traditionally differentiated themselves from others less likely to sales promotions (Blattberg & Neslin, 1990). A third group of scholars has proposed a stance in the 'middle' between these two viewpoints. Schneider & Currim (1991), for example, divide deal-seeking customers into 'active' and 'passive' deal types. They believe that customers who are actively looking for deals are more interested in to participate in the rather rigorous search necessary to react to promotions such as coupons or discounts. In-store discounts and promotions, on the other hand, are those that are produced inside the place of sale and found by the client while shopping. Such advertising methods demand the purchaser to make less effort and are connected

to passive exposure. Thus, it is observed that passive deal-seeking customers are more likely to react to in-store displays and other promotions that require minimum searching (Gázquez-Abad & Sánchez-Pérez, 2009). Another way to categorize sales promotions is by price- and non-price-based sales promotions (Shimp 1990). Price and non-pricing promotions might include various degrees of advantages for customers, according to Chandon, Wansink, & Laurent (2000). They also agree the idea that sale prone consumers might looking beyond supporting their budget. Earlier research reveals that deal-seeking customers seemed to appreciate both the activity of shopping and the result of savings (Thaler, 1985). Mano & Elliot, (1997) also implicated that, this ego-based enhancing effect implies that deal-seeking customers may see themselves as savvy shoppers with market maven inclinations.

Additionally, recent investigations (Pechtl 2004) differentiate between overt and intrinsic deal-making proclivity. These indications used to assess the sensitivity of a customer to promotions employed. The emotional, motivating and affectual part of purchasing activity is analysed on intrinsic factor (Chandon, Wansink, & Laurent, 2000). Generally, academic studies have measured consumers' behavioral responses but have neglected underlying psychological traits (Shi, Cheung, & Prendergast, 2005). Blattberg & Neslin (1990) proposed that the attitude of customers most responsive to promotional efforts must be identified and understood. In this regard, knowledge of the profile of deal-prone customers will allow us to build stronger promotional programs from the marketing management standpoint (Laroche et al. 2003). The original research of deal-prone individuals' characterization is based essentially on socio-demographic characteristics. In the same study, Webster (1965) claimed to be able to differentiate such consumers from others on the market on the basis of the consumer's demographic, socio-economic or buying attributes.

More recently, the Pechtl segment (2004) revealed that its demographic structure differs marginally in its business sectors, however such variances, such as age or gender, appeared to be too narrow for a marketing plan based on these demography characteristics. Kwon & Kwon (2007) discovered that income levels and education degree had a beneficial influence on coupons and discounts; there was also a significant gender difference when it came to dealing with coupons but not for the utilization of discounts. In addition to that, studies have demonstrated that the marketing of sales may promote behavioral reactions including brand changing, storage, acceleration of purchases, testing the product, and higher expenditure. However, Carpenter & Moore (2008) found no evidence of sex or income relationships with non-price retail promotions.

#### **2.2.4. Price Mavenism**

Price mavens is a term that considered as "narrow understanding of market mavens" in marketing literature, also gained less exposure. Historically, studies have concentrated on the factors that inspire price mavens to conduct information searches and share their expertise with others. It must also be noted that price mavens evaluate goods based on their value judgments. The term "Price Mavenism" was first described by Lichstein, Ridg, & Netemey (1993) as someone who speaks to price in many markets and different products, compiles lowest prices and price tables from other sources, talks to customers, and responds customer's requests for price information.

Market mavens are customers who are extremely knowledgeable about the industry and serve as a valuable source of insight for other consumers. Market mavens are especially important to retailers due to their effect on other customers across a broad spectrum of product categories (Clark & Goldsmith, 2005). In other words,

market mavens have been 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 (Feick & Price, 1987). Market mavens shouldn't be considered as only the source of information because they also discover new information (Higie, Feick, & Price, 1987). According to the findings of a study conducted in South Africa, market mavens tend to be an ideal audience for delivering messages about marketing shifts, messages covering various product types, and messages about new product introductions. These findings suggest that mavens could be viable targets for retailers when they successfully targeted (Abratt, Nel & Nezer, 1995).

Wiedmann, Walsh, & Mitchell (2001) discovered that market mavens are more price and value-conscious than non-mavens. Also, when market mavens and non-mavens were compared, it is found that most of the market mavens were lower educated women and most of them were a member of some sub-cultural communities (Feick & Price, 1987). Additionally, it was also observed that, market mavens are more interested in than non-mavens to follow retail brochures, mail commercials, and willingly discuss retail shop image aspects, as well as to be major users of coupons, shopping lists, and budgeting methods (Higie, Feick & Price, 1987). Price mavens are price specialists who are used to discussing prices; hence, it is reasonable to assume that they make fewer errors and hence have a lower percentage of false knowledge (Hinz, 2007). Similarly, by being price and value-savvy, price mavens aspire to be astute shoppers (Byun & Sternquist, 2010). They are not primarily concerned with costs, but rather with finding the cheapest, most high-quality goods (Kim, Jin & Park, 2011). Ivens, Müller, & Guese (2009) observed that value-oriented customers exhibit

a strong sense of value, regard themselves as pricing experts, and rate best on price-quality schemes.

Price mavenism is distinct from market mavenism in three ways. For one, price mavenism is exclusively concerned with price knowledge seeking and sharing price-related experiences activity. Second, it has typically been seen as a negative interpretation of price, implying that price is adversely correlated with purchasing probability. Finally, price mavenism is rooted in social or cultural contexts (Byun & Sternquist, 2010). As according Tatzel (2002), a person may develop into a price mavens by engaging shopping with price comparison, which provides either price or non-price advantages (such as hedonic).

A great amount of research has concentrated on the identification of general media follow-up, interaction, and demographics, but there is little knowledge about the psychological and motivating aspects of the market maven's (Walsh, Gwinner & Swanson, 2004). Identifying and comprehending the market maven's motives is critical for businesses seeking to promote their product/service features and deliver key messages to market mavens (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh & Gremler, 2004). Market mavens may be considered as a source of broad or non-specific marketplace knowledge, which makes mavens an appealing target audience to not only retailers but also other major enterprises that manufacture and/or sell a broad variety of enduring and FMCG items (Clark & Goldsmith, 2005). Walsh et al. (2004) highlighted many of these maven-specific motivators. They discovered that mavens were driven to share their knowledge with other customers for a variety of purposes, including a duty to do so; a strong desire to assist others; and an innate joy in sharing experience and information.

Market mavens may be considered as a source of broad or non-specific marketplace knowledge, which makes mavens an appealing target audience to not only retailers but also other major enterprises that manufacture and/or sell a broad variety of enduring and FMCG items (Clark & Goldsmith, 2005). According to Clarke & Goldsmith (2005), mavens can be influenced by social normative factors. Thus it is suggested that knowing the social norms of some sub-cultural groups or communities could shape and influence attitudes and values of the market mavens. However, the maven's thoughts of socially acceptable conduct are regulated by his or her characteristic attribute of strong self-esteem and social regard or status. The analysis of the literature revealed no research that attempted to contextualize market maven features within a broader theory considering personality. Researchers and marketers would be able to distinguish market mavens from others from the point of psychographic features and decision-making ways if we had a better knowledge of the wider personality traits or features of the market maven (Yolac, 2015).

#### **2.2.5. Odd-Price Perception**

Over the years, companies have been using psychological pricing to influence customer buying intention. Various organizations, often unknowingly, employ psychological techniques to determine the price of a product or service. Psychological pricing is a phenomenon in which the consumer's desires and judgment process are considered and price displayed (Asamoah & Chovancová, 2014). It is well-known that pricing is not only covering the numbers; it's interested in what the buyer believes and perceives. To a great degree, it is the impression of the price of the customer's influence on the buying behavior rather than the real price that matters. The effect of price interpretation on profitability has often outweighed the value that the price of the company is trying to convey, which is why companies that can use pricing

techniques that make them to realize the importance of psychology always succeed. (Asamoah & Chovancová, 2014). Even though some scholars cast suspicion on the practice's effectiveness, its usage has not ended (Bray & Harris, 2006).

Different firms and organizations use a variety of pricing techniques to conduct in different places such as supermarkets, retail stores, and newspaper commercials, one of the most often used and most popular pricing strategies is the price-ending (even-odd) technique (Stiving & Winer, 1997). Analysts and researchers have been analyzing the implementation of the odd-even price technique and its influence since the 1930s (Stiving & Winer, 1997; Schindler & Kirby, 1997). Ginzberg (1936) is credited with providing the first report of experimental price ending trial. The study he describes was carried out in partnership with a big catalogue retail company located in United States. While the methodology and outcomes are not clearly presented, it is evident that multiple versions of the same catalogues were generated, using either 'round' pricing or 'psychological pricing'. According to Ginzberg, the experiment's findings were "as exciting as they were confounding," with some goods showing substantial gains in sales and others showing equally substantial losses in sales.

Individuals interpret numbers differently, and they can never understand what is going on in their heads as they think prices and how this interpretation influences their behavior. According to related experimental psychology study, consumers analyze digits from left to right, halting when a difference is noticed; in an extreme scenario, £49.99 may be considered to be £10 fewer than £50.00 (Poltrone and Schwartz 1984). According to these reports, a number digit variations such as 95, 99, or 00 is the most often encountered price finishing by organizations, based on the sector, and category of the product (Gendall, 1998).

The usage of 00 is in particularly preferred by for high cost, premium or upscale companies; 95 usually preferred for medium-priced or mediocre quality products or companies; lastly cheap-priced, low-end enterprises or enterprises implying their products as a high quality usually prefer 99 as at the end of the price (Naipaul, 2001). According to empirical research, prices ending in 9 – particularly those ending in 99 – create a low-price impression to customers (Kumar and Pandey, 2021). In Anderson & Simester (2000) discovered a consistent response pattern, with the utilization of 9-ending pricing improving sales. Furthermore, their data imply that when an item is new, 9-ending prices have a greater beneficial influence on sales. This research also lends credence to the claimed 'informational' function of pricing, with customers increasingly relying on price to appraise things about which they have no prior knowledge.

It was established that, the implementation of odd prices also very common among grocery retailers (Baumgartner & Steiner, 2007). In addition to the previous information, Holdershaw supported this phenomenon and revealed the comprehensive impact of odd pricing in retailing and how its commonly accepted (Holdershaw et al., 1997). The tradition of using numbers such as \$2.99 instead of \$3 in the grocery stores is very popular and well-known pricing strategy that can be easily recognised by the customers. Additionally, marketing research shows that customers are susceptible to final price digits. For instance, although being functionally equal, a price of \$99 can elicit more desirable price expectations than a price of \$100 (Estelami, 1999).

As can be seen, there are a variety of concepts try to understand the predominance of such pricing. Attempts have been made in each instance to quantify the impact of the price ending on discounts, but the results have been incongruous. Some studies have shown strong support for the notion that 'just under' price ends

contribute to more sales, while others have found no evidence (Anderson & Simester 2000). Several alternative hypotheses might be advanced as to why empirical data on strange pricing effects has proven equivocal. Schindler and Warren (1988) proposed that unusual pricing effects may be affected by the level of attention the customer devotes to the choice. As a result, customers who are pressed for time are less likely to pay attention to each price and, as a result, are more likely to disregard the rightmost digit(s) of a cost. It has also been argued that males are less receptive to unusual pricing than women (Georgoff, 1972). Lastly, it is generally recognized that customer engagement may play a significant role in price appraisal (Zaichkowski, 1988), however participation has not been studied in the context of odd pricing.

#### **2.2.6. Self Congruity**

Self-congruity considered as a critical factor in today's environment, impacting client satisfaction, product characteristics, marketing success, brand preference, brand appraisal, and brand loyalty. Scholars concede that in the research on advertisement, psychology and customer behaviour that people only buy products that compatible with themselves (Japutra, Ekinici & Simkin, 2019).

Congruence between self-concept and brand value has an important viewpoint on interpreting customer decision-making processes. Consumers might choose not to purchase a product or shop at a specific store if they believe that their behaviors do not align with their own self-perceptions (Britt, 1960). Consumers would often need icons to assist them in sorting out the nuances of everyday life when they articulate their social identity through goods (Ericksen, 1997). Consumers frequently buy products or brands that are perceived to be similar to their own self-concept because purchase and consumption are considered as good drivers for self-expression (Graeff, 1996). According to Levy (1981), most goods reveal much about the social worlds of

those that buy them. As a result, customers want brands with representations that are consistent with their self-perceptions. According to Sheth et al. (1991), social meaning influences purchase and no-purchase decisions when customers view different commodity classes as either congruent or incongruent with the standards of the communities to which they belong or strive to be include. This was referred to as "self-congruity." (Sirgy et al., 1997). Self-image congruence has an impact on a consumer's purchasing motivation since consumers have an incentive to act in accordance with their personality (Epstein, 1980). That is, they choose brands whose pictures correspond to their own. To do so will result in dissonance, a condition of internal distress that tends to invalidate the individual's self-esteem (Sirgy, 1985). The role of self-congruity on customer behaviour has been theoretically demonstrated by Sirgy's 1982 self-image congruity principle.

According to the meagre studies on store personality (SP), the symbolic appearance of the store is crucial in assessing perceived difference, happiness, store patronage, satisfaction and loyalty attitude (Plummer, 1985; Sirgy & Samli, 1985; Freling & Forbes, 2005; Chun & Davies, 2006). The strength of these enduring brand personality characteristics in the minds of consumers stems from the human need to ease purchasing decisions by the creation of abstract symbols that function as a decision heuristic in ambiguous circumstances (Stern, Zinkhan, & Anupan, 2001). Furthermore, in concreteness, the introduction of individual qualities will add to a business concept the ability to project an impression of life than more volatile or functional elements (Gianluigi 1998). The self-congruity hypothesis provides a plausible rationale for the intensity of interactions with human-like personalities. According to this theoretical framework, if retailers can place their shops in such a way that their attitude matches that of target customers, they are more likely to excel

in attracting and keeping these buyers (Zentes, Morschett, & Schramm-Klein, 2008), thus increasing profitability (Sirgy, Grewal, & Mangleburg, 2000). However, self-image congruity studies in retailing are only in their beginnings compared to the theory's robust corroborating evidence across many product categories (Chebat, Hedhli, & Sirgy, 2009). According to Aaker (1997), attributions of brand personality are dependent on product-related relations and inferences and person-related relations and assumptions (Bosnjak, Bochman, & Hufschmidt, 2007). On the other hand, the identity of a store is determined by factors such as that of the store's name, its atmosphere, the quality of its operation, its staff, the quality of its products, and the brand names held (Baker, Grewal, & Parasuraman, 1994). In reality, all of a retailer's marketing practices can be seen as a compilation of behaviors from which trait assumption regarding its personality can be drawn, just like a person's behavior influences others' views of his or her personality (Madrigan & Boush, 2008).

Several observational research has already explored which discrete individual signs elicit the attribution of specific personality characteristics to retailers. Brengman and Willems (2009) discovered that various sources are used to judge fashion and SP for groceries. Additionally, the cues elicited for each of the SP dimensions appeared to vary within each of these store categories. Nonetheless, it was discovered that when consumers judge a store's identity, the store environment is typically prominent in their minds, but to a lesser degree for the factor 'genuineness'. Darden and Babin (1994) investigated the association between affective personality characteristics (i.e. 'pleasant', 'unpleasant', 'active', and 'sleepy') and expectations of tangible, functional efficiency (i.e. 'discount costs,' 'store employees,' 'quality,' and 'crowdedness'). The findings indicated that shops with a high volume of bargains or discounts were more likely to be associated with an unpleasant effective performance.

Congested shopping conditions due to crowd appeared to be associated with the increased operation but low pleasantness. Friendly shop employees were found to be associated with increased pleasantness and decreased sleepiness. Lastly, stores that ranked highest on service quality were eventually associated with higher pleasant and active personal characteristics. Merrilees and Miller (2001) focused on the relationship between particular image attributes of discount department stores (i.e. merchandise, staffing, store atmosphere, pricing, and location) and two of Aaker's (1997) brand personality dimensions covering 'sincerity' and 'competence'. The atmosphere of the store appeared to have a positive influence on 'competency'. Thoughts and beliefs about 'sincerity' seemed to be largely triggered by merchandising and pricing factors.

#### **2.2.7. Shopping Satisfaction**

Achieving and expanding the level of consumer satisfaction is a critical concept in retail marketing (Mägi, 2003). Despite the fact that studies show that other variables also play a part in shop loyalty, the illustrative function of satisfaction has been intensively highlighted (Anselmsson 2006). It is also a major operator of profitability due to its beneficial impacts on repurchase attitude and retail satisfaction (Keiningham et al. 2007). This should push merchants to learn more about the factors that influence customer happiness and satisfaction. According to Oliver's (2009) expectancy disconfirmation theory, contentment is contingent on perceived performance meeting expectations. The satisfaction of consumers with the shop is therefore defined as a subjective judgment after-experience in the degree to which the business responds or even surpasses expectations of the customer. The satisfaction of consumers with the shop is therefore defined as a subjective judgment after-experience in the degree to which the business responds or even surpasses

expectations of the customer (Demoulin & Zidda, 2008). Satisfaction is often an indicator and an essential antecedent of client fealty in future consumer purchases (Wong & Sohal, 2003). But as an intriguingly shown in the Nillsson, Gälings, & Marell (2013) research, even when they know they may save money with another location and may feel much more satisfied, customers remain loyal to a shop. But as an intriguingly shown in the Nillsson, Gälings, & Marell (2013) research, even when they know they may save money with another location and may feel much more satisfied, customers remain loyal to a shop. They discuss that, even buyers proceed or back to shop should'nt be considered as satisfaction. Thus, loyalty to a business does not only explain customer pleasure.

The term "kind/sort of shopping" is often used to refer to purchasing a large quantity of things (major shopping) or a small quantity of items (secondary shopping) (fill-in shopping).

It has been stated that the primary reason customers engage in major shopping is to stocking up the goods that they already have (Carpenter & Moore, 2006). So may be reasonably assumed that they put more time and energy. Because more money, time and energy/effort is invested in major shopping, customers would require more from the business and so crucial features that they will concantrate are pricing, supply quality and quality of service (Walters & Jamil, 2003). By contrast, fill-in shopping is motivated by the need to meet immediate demands such as restocking regularly eaten perishables, buying diaries, or buying things for immediate usage. This indicates a reduction in effort and time (Hales 2003), and hence when satisfaction considered access is critical for fill-in shopping, since it enables quick and uncomplicated purchasing.

Previous study has indicated that the sort of grocery shopping individuals proceed, as well as the duration of time they spend in the store, determine their satisfaction (Underhill 1999). Time constraints have been found to influence decision-making by causing individuals to conduct less sophisticated information searches, use less sophisticated choice procedures, and evaluate alternatives using different standards while under time constraints (Hastie & Dawes 2010). Similarly, it has been shown that consumers under time constraints devote minimum time and effort (Baker et al. 2002) and are prone to switch from compensatory to non-compensatory choice criteria (Payne, Bettman, & Johnson, 1988). As a result, customers concentrate on their core buying reasons under time constraints and perform less in-store exploring to save shopping time (Inman, Winer, & Ferraro, 2009). Consequently, you may claim that customers are more satisfied than browsing in the shop if they rapidly discover what they looking for and therefore spend less time in the store. However, the performance of persons under a strain of time has been demonstrated to be less pleased in a research by Caballer, Gracia & Peiró (2005). This may mean that customers are likely to make better informed decisions and hence to be more satisfied if they devote spend more energy in purchasing. In contrast, if people have less amount of time than is necessary for shopping, their pleasure and satisfaction is likely to diminish. Carpenter & Moore (2006) contend that since there are more things to buy while making major shopping, buyers need more work and effort. Therefore, timing pressures may have a distinct affect on satisfaction relying on whether customers make major or fill-in purchases.

Store layouts have been expressly created for customizable product ranges, hours of operation and atmospheres to suit customer demands (Prasad & Aryasri, 2011). A shop format may be characterized broadly as a combination of

preferences; for example, a convenient shop is characterized by high accessibility, a high price range, and a limited supply spectrum, while a supermarket is characterized by low accessibility, less cheap price point, and a massive supply scope.

Studies show, in short, that several permanent characteristics of the shop environment impact the shopping visits of consumers. However, their impacts on a trip to the grocery store experiences did not concentrate on previous concepts, which instead concentrate on how merchants handle shopping environments to affect results, such as money or time spent in shops. Previous studies have also shown that customers cite a wide range of factors in predicting future patronage of retail establishments, with cost, variety, availability, and location being the most often mentioned antecedents (Pan & Zinkhan, 2006). The significance of certain traits may vary further. According to Huddleston et al. (2009), the parameters affecting customers' satisfaction with traditional shops (supermarkets) were as follows: product variety, discount rate, quality of services, and quality of goods. However, while Huddleston et al. determining the factors was not consider the accessibility of the store; accesibility was included in Nilsson, Gärling, Marell & Nordvall's (2014) study. The findings indicated that the most significant factor affecting satisfaction with food shopping in markets was accessibility via automobile, whereas the most significant factor affecting satisfaction with convenience store shopping was proximity to home or work and extended operating hours of the markets. While store layouts are meant to accommodate the way people shop, they cannot clearly describe which store qualities contribute to a consumer's pleasure with a specific store. For instance, a consumer may perceive a shopping excursion as good or negative, or even joyful or terrifying (Arnold et al., 2005), based on the retail environment's two permanent characteristics including ambience and design. Numerous studies have also

been conducted utilizing an environmental psychology approach to determine how certain persistent and transitory components of the retail environment affect individual consumers. These studies focus, however, not on the joy of shopping but on emotion and purchasing (Esbjerg et al., 2012).

Clients seek different things from various shopping tours (Bell et al., 2011) hence, depending on their motivation for making a certain shopping trip, they probably have varying anticipation. Additionally, it has been shown that customer motivations and satisfaction differ by income, gender, family size, and age (Oliver 2009). Additionally, previous study has shown that the criteria described above have an effect on the perceived relevance of shop features (Yip, Chan, and Poon 2012). It was discovered by Diep & Sweeney (2008) that males are more influenced by practical characteristics of the business, whilst women are more influenced by the retail setting ambience. According to a research conducted by Myers & Lumbers (2008), older customers regard shopping visits as a social activity in and of itself and hence put a premium on the hygiene, lightness, and upkeep of the market industry. According to a research conducted by Myers & Lumbers (2008), older customers regard shopping visits as a social activity in and of itself and hence they put interest on the hygiene, light, and upkeep of the shop settings. Oppositely it was observed that, young people have found it easier to form an opinion about a markets based on the performance of the goods or service of the market based on price.

### **2.3. Thoretical Framework**

Large retail establishments such as supermarkets and shopping malls are required to offer consumers distinct shopping experiences. These types of purchasing experiences may result in customer satisfaction and store loyalty. Terblanche and

Boshoff (2006) argue that a positive in-store shopping experience boosts cumulative or customer satisfaction, which boosts either attitudinal or behavioral loyalty (Paul et al., 2016).

For decades, the significance of customer happiness and satisfaction to corporate performance has been widely established. While this area continues to garner management and academic research interest, few efforts have been made to quantify the irregularity in the satisfaction development cycle. The disconfirmation of expectations paradigm is the most prevalent conceptual model in the literature on contentment. The model shows that customers are satisfied when their impression of a product's performance is compared to their expectations. There is evidence to suggest that perceived performance has a significant impact on customer satisfaction (Oliver, 1997).

Consumers, on the other hand, vary in their capacity to evaluate the perceived performance of goods or services; they also vary in their perception of the effect of model predecessors on model outcomes. A meta-analysis showed that the size of the correlations reported frequently varies greatly with satisfaction and that certain variables may influence the satisfaction creation process (Szymanski & Henard, 2001).

### **2.3.1. Price Consciousness and Shopping Satisfaction**

It has been shown that price and price consciousness are significant determinants in consumer buying decisions (Rao & Monroe, 1989; Sproles & Kendall, 1986); it was also noted that they may also influence customer happiness and the moderate satisfaction inciting process.

As a result, a striking issue is whether pricing has an effect on customer satisfaction. According to previous studies, pricing has a positive effect in influencing

one's impression of quality (Lichtenstein et al, 1988). If a product is expensive, the customer is likely to anticipate it to be of good quality, which results in a greater degree of purchaser satisfaction.

Price consciousness is described as the degree whereby the customers concentrate on low prices (Lichtenstein et al, 1988) as a significant element in consumer decision-making process (Sproles & Kendall, 1986). Other factors that influence a buying choice may be less relevant in the event of high price consciousness, therefore reducing the attention the customer pays to them (Homburg & Stock, 2005). Additionally, a price-conscious customer may be more engaged in purchasing and acquire additional knowledge about products/services (Jayawardhena, 2004), while knowledge may erode the relation between recognized quality of service and comprehensive satisfaction (Chiou et al, 2002). Although Price Consciousness has been studied in detail in the literature, the following hypothesis has been tested to see its effect in our study.

H1: The Price Consciousness is a significant predictor of Shopping Satisfaction.

### **2.3.2. Value Consciousness and Shopping Satisfaction**

It is well documented in the literature that the majority of customer learning occurs as a result of prior purchasing experiences. In addition to that, the study conducted by Kwon and Jeon in 2020, aimed to analyze the relationship between value consciousness, shopping satisfaction, and repurchase intention.

The findings showed that women's self-beauty value consciousness had a positive impact on their purchasing behavior and intention to repurchase personal beauty equipment (Kwon & Jeon, 2020). The effect of Value Consciousness on shopping satisfaction is very limited in the literature. In order to understand this relationship in more detail, the following hypothesis was tested.

H2: The Value Consciousness is a significant predictor of Shopping Satisfaction.

### **2.3.3. Sale Proneness and Shopping Satisfaction**

Sales promotions may be appealing to customers who are prone to them for reasons other than price savings. Prior research shows that deal-seeking customers seem to appreciate both the act of shopping and the end result of saving money (Thaler, 1985). Garretson and Burton in 2003 conducted a research that includes three different studies by using same data. Three studies found that although highly sale-prone customers are attracted to lower costs, they also love shopping and get a feeling of accomplishment and satisfaction from buying goods on sale. Same study also revealed that, these sales promotion prone consumers also tend to enjoy shopping more than those less prone (Garretson & Burton, 2003). To understand the influence of being sale proneness on shopping satisfaction we created following hypothesis.

H3: The Sale Proneness is a significant predictor of Shopping Satisfaction.

### **2.3.4. Price Mavenism and Shopping Satisfaction**

Jeon and Park (2012) in a research of the acquisition confidence of market mavens describe that market mavens are very confident in terms of buying products based on their extensive product knowledge and direct and indirect buying experiences. The same results also revealed that these customers have such great self-confidence that they think they can choose the finest brands and goods for themselves. While mavens get joy from sharing their buying knowledge with others, they also get satisfaction from that knowledge since they know they are contributing to society. They keep looking for more knowledge in order to preserve this pleasurable feeling (Price et al., 1987). Again according to Jeon and Park, these consumers are highly confident and satisfied with their choice so that they believe they can purchase the best brands and products for them. These results led Ju et al., (2014) to think that

market mavens will have a positive impact on their post-purchase satisfaction. However, when they tested their hypotheses, they could not find a significant relationship and rejected the hypothesis. Thus, we create similar hypothesis and wanted to test it.

H4: The Price Mavenism is a significant predictor of Shopping Satisfaction.

### **2.3.5. Odd Price Perception**

Price perceptions are quantified using a single characteristic from a large number of product or service qualities. Given the centrality of price in the purchase decision and post-buy evaluation, it's surprising that pricing factors are overlooked when measuring customer satisfaction (Chetthamrongchai & Saengchai, 2019).

When discussing price perceptions, it should be noted that as soon as a customer receives information about a price, an encoding takes place from an objective (actual) price to a subjective, perceived price (Dickson & Sawyer, 1990). As a result, consumers prefer to have a belief in price rather than knowing about the actual price (Erickson & Johansson, 1985). The potential difference between the actual and perceived prices (which can be referred to as price error) and the presence of perceived threshold values are central to common pricing judgments, particularly regarding the question of whether a "good look" at the price (as indicated by a price ending in an odd number or just below a round number, e.g. 9,99 €) can be used to manipulate the price belief of a consumer (Gendall, 1998).

As a result, including pricing perception into the analysis of what affects customer satisfaction opens up a plethora of opportunities for management to improve and manage customer satisfaction and loyalty. And this does not just imply lowering the price to get a greater level of satisfaction: Due to the complexity of price perception, many pricing choices and tactics are available. For instance, it may be

feasible to improve perceived pricing fairness just via communication (Finaritra, 2021).

Several studies have been conducted on pricing perception and customer satisfaction. Keaveny (1995) finds in a qualitative research examining shifting behavior in the customer service that more than half of consumers moved due to poor pricing perception. Varki and Colgate (2001) discovered similar findings in their research of the banking sector, namely that customer satisfaction, propensity to switch, and willingness to refer the competition are all closely related to price perception.

Accordingly, we created the following hypothesis in order to measure price perception on satisfaction with our sample.

H5: The Odd Price Perception is a significant predictor of Shopping Satisfaction.

#### **2.3.6. Self-Congruity and Shopping Satisfaction**

The study conducted in retail environment resulted that behavioural intentions were affected by satisfaction and discursively motivated by personal attitudes. Beside, influence of self-congruity on behavioral intention was found higher than other variables was also noted. Therefore in the study it was expected to find positive relationship between attitudes and satisfaction of the shopper's. And as a result, it was found that customers with strong attitudes towards the store had higher overall satisfaction levels (Ibrahim & Najjar, 2008).

Additionally, the research in the area of tourism showed that self-congruity has a good effect on the satisfaction of destinations, which in turn directly and indirectly impacts destination loyalty via attachment to their destination (Yao et al., 2018). Accordingly, the following hypotheses were tested.

H6: Self congruity moderates the relationship with value consciousness and the shopping satisfaction behaviors of participants.

H7: Self congruity moderates the relationship with price consciousness and the shopping satisfaction behaviors of participants.

H8: Self congruity moderates the relationship with sale proneness and the shopping satisfaction behaviors of participants.

H9: Self congruity moderates the relationship with price mavenism the shopping satisfaction behaviors of participants.

H10: Self congruity moderates the relationship with odd price the shopping satisfaction behaviors of participants.

In addition, in our study, age and gender factors were emphasized in order to make a differential diagnosis on shopping satisfaction of sociodemographic characteristics. For this reason, the following hypotheses were also tested in order to discuss whether these factors are effective in terms of their contribution to the literature.

### **2.3.7. The Role of Gender Differences on Shopping Satisfaction**

Shopping attitudes, frequency, and patterns are linked to the personal characteristics of customers, for example, gender, age, number of people in the family, and socio-economic position. In 1987, Jansen-Verbeke found that men and women had substantial disparities in their attitudes towards shopping (Jansen-Verbeke, 1987).

In research carried out in the area of tourism, a greater incentive for women was found to shopping, eat and drink, stroll or travel. Men emphasized the incentive of a day's stroll and sponsored a bar or any other place to drink or dine. Women were

more enthusiastic about shopping and less positive about shopping features than males. Women more complained about the absence of enough shops and the placement of the shops than males. Women have emphasized more than male tourists about the aesthetics of the place and access to eating facilities. For women, other than everyday shopping expenses were found more significant than male guests. Result of the study revealed that, women spend more money and felt more satisfied than men about their purchases (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). Similarly, another research also indicates that women report more favorable shopping behavior results than males—such as satisfaction, recommendation, and desire to buy. The results of most studies indicate that women are more satisfied than males when they are engaged in the activity of shopping (Maurer Herter et al., 2014). Apart from their attitude attitude, study conducted in shopping malls also found that women were more satisfied with their shopping than men. Oppositely, the study conducted in shopping malls did not find significant differences between genders on shopping satisfaction (SS, 2018). Accordingly, the following hypothesis was tested.

H11: Shopping satisfaction significantly differs between females and males.

### **2.3.8. The Role of Different Age Groups on Shopping Satisfaction**

People's needs and expectations change according to their age. Accordingly, their demands and expectations from shopping also change. Research of 482 consumers of three distinct age groups revealed some distinctions between older, middle-aged, and younger shoppers and contributes the above statement. However, despite these distinctions, these consumers had a greater degree of similarity in their attitude to shopping and actual purchasing behavior. Except for variations in wealth and mobility, the elder shopper acted similarly to every other shopper (Wee, 2015).

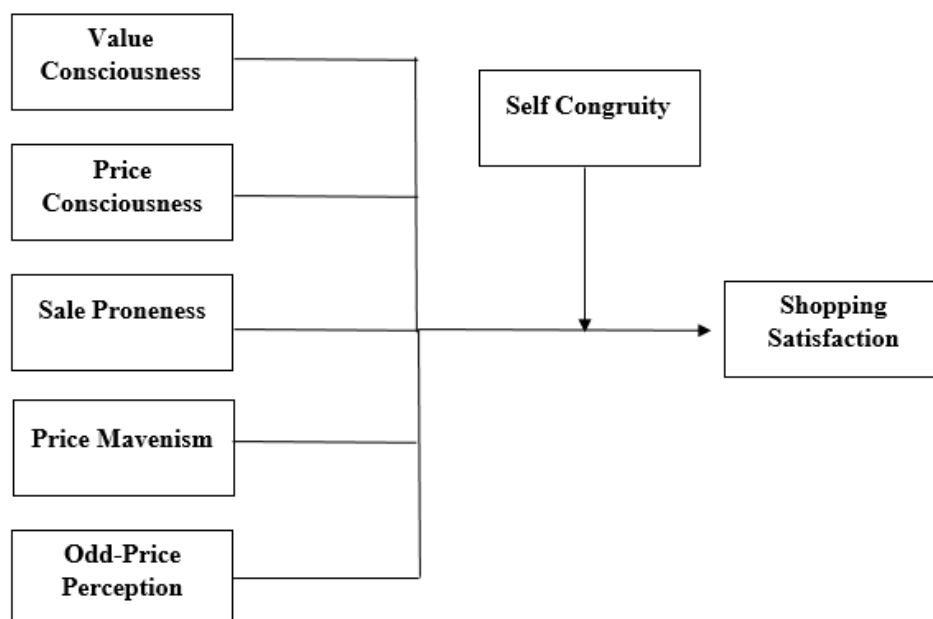
On the other hand, in another study investigating satisfaction and loyalty as well as identifying shopping mall customers, no significant relationship was found between age groups in shopping satisfaction (SS, 2018). However, contrary to the results mentioned above, it was stated that there were differences between age groups in the study conducted in the field of tourism. According to the study, the under-35 and 45-55 age group exhibited the most positive attitudes towards shopping (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). In order to examine the difference between age groups in discount markets, the following hypothesis was established.

H12: Shopping satisfaction significantly differs between age variables.

### 2.3.7 Model of the Research

According to theoretical framework, proposed research model is presented via Figure 1.

*Figure 1 : Research model*



### **3. METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1. Sample Profile**

The sample of the study consisted of 350 white-collar working participants. However, since the answers of seven participants were incomplete, seven missing data were removed from the data. The target group of 337 participants were getting involved and the participants have been randomly found through the researcher's own social network. As a non-probabilistic sampling technique, the convenience sampling method was used.

#### **3.2. Measures and Questionnaire Development**

At the stage of literature review, the scales used in the studies conducted in national and international literature on Consumer Preferences were examined, taking into the purpose of the study and the variables included in it. When the obtained articles are examined; scales have been developed on issues related to Value Consciousness, Price Consciousness, Sale Proneness, Price Mavenism, Self-Congruity, Shopping Satisfaction and Odd Price Perception. These developed scales were used to determine the purpose of the study. Seven questions for Value Consciousness, five questions for Price Consciousness, six questions for Sale Proneness, six questions for Price Mavenism were included from 'Price Perceptions and Consumer Shopping Behavior: A Field Study' conducted by Lichtenstein et al., in 1990.

Three questions for Self-Congruity were included from 'shopping well-being: Is it just a matter of pleasure or doing the task? The role of shopper's gender and self-congruity' study conducted by El Hedhli et al., in 2016. Five questions for Odd Price Perception was included from 'A Study of Perception on Psychological Pricing' study conducted by Ahmed & Buzar Baruah, in 2017. Five questions for Shopping

Satisfaction were included from ‘Shopping orientations as antecedents to channel choice in the French grocery multichannel landscape’ study conducted by Cervellon et al., in 2015. Each questions, the scale was evaluated with a 7-point Likert-type scale, and the participant chooses one to seven points as ‘I strongly disagree’ (1) and ‘Absolutely I agree’ (7).

### **3.3. Data Collection**

Prior to field study, consent of Yeditepe University Ethical Committee was taken. Survey was carried out by online survey via Google Forms program between January and March 2021. Also, each participant sent the main survey online link to their other networks. Before the questionnaire, informed consent form was sent to the participant. If they are voluntary at the research participation, they read and signed the form.

## 4. RESULTS

### 4.1. Descriptives Statistics of Participants

When the participants were evaluated by gender, it was determined that female's representation rate was higher than males [37.7% are (n=127) male, 62.3% are female (n=210)].

When the participants are evaluated by age, 10.1% (n=34) are between the ages of 18-24, 52.8% (n=178) are between the ages of 25-34, 17.5% (n=59) are between the ages of 35-45, 19.6% (n=66) is over 45 years old. It was observed that the participants were not distributed equally by age groups. The highest participation is in the 25-34 age range.

Although there is a slight difference, the distribution of married participants is higher than single ones [49.9% are (n=168) single, 50.1% are female (n=169)].

The majority of the participants are at the graduate level of education [3.6% have (n=12) primary education level, 10.7% have (n=36) high school education level, 46.9% have (n=158) graduate education level, 32.9% have (n=111) master's degree and 5.9% have (n=20) PhD degree].

When the income levels of the participants are examined, it is understood that the levels of 4.000-6.999 and over 7.000 TL are almost the same. However, when looking at the distribution, it was observed that the highest share was those with an income of over 7.000 [7.4% have 0-2.299 TL income range (n=25), 13.9% have 2.300-3.999 TL income range (n=47), 39.5% have 4.000-6.999 TL income range (n=133) and 39.2% have >7.000 TL income range (n=132)].

Table 1. shows the frequencies of the personal information of the overall participants.

**Table 2.***Distribution of Personal Information of Participants*

|                        |             | <b>N</b> | <b>%</b> |
|------------------------|-------------|----------|----------|
| <b>Gender</b>          | Male        | 127      | 37.7     |
|                        | Female      | 210      | 62.3     |
| <b>Age</b>             | 18-24       | 34       | 10.1     |
|                        | 25-34       | 178      | 52.8     |
|                        | 35-45       | 59       | 17.5     |
|                        | >45         | 66       | 19.6     |
|                        |             |          |          |
| <b>Marital Status</b>  | Single      | 168      | 49.9     |
|                        | Married     | 169      | 50.1     |
| <b>Education Level</b> | Primary     | 12       | 3.6      |
|                        | High School | 36       | 10.7     |
|                        | Graduate    | 158      | 46.9     |
|                        | Master      | 111      | 32.9     |
|                        | PhD         | 20       | 5.9      |
|                        |             |          |          |
| <b>Income</b>          | 0-2.299     | 25       | 7.4      |
|                        | 2.300-3.999 | 47       | 13.9     |
|                        | 4.000-6.999 | 133      | 39.5     |
|                        | >7.000      | 132      | 39.2     |
|                        |             |          |          |

#### 4.2. The Reliability Analysis for the Scales

In this section, reviews of reliability analyze of all variables will be observed. Firstly, the reliability analysis of the Value Consciousness Scale was done using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient method. As a result of the analysis, it was observed that the Value Consciousness Scale consisted of 7 items. Also, the Cronbach's Alpha value of the Value Consciousness Scale is .865. As a result of checking the Scale if item deleted option, it is seen that none of the Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted values are greater than 0.865. Therefore, it can be said that the scale was found to be

highly reliable (7 items;  $\alpha = .86$ ). Table 2. Shows the results of the scale that was used in the research.

Secondly, the four items were reversed in the SPSS program for the Price Consciousness Scale. ‘Reverse coding (recode)’ process was performed; 1 value was recoded as 7, 2 as 6, 3 as 5, 4 as 4, 5 as 3, 6 as 2, and 7 as 1. After that the process was finished, the reliability analysis of the Price Consciousness Scale was done using the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient method. The Cronbach Alpha value of the Price Consciousness Scale is 0.819. It can be said that the scale is highly reliable (5 items;  $\alpha = .82$ ). However, examination of individual item statistics suggested that elimination of several items would increase the reliability of the scale. Subsequent analyses indicated that alpha could be improved after eliminating each of the following items individually: ‘I will grocery shop at more than one store to take advantage of low prices’ (reverse-scored), but the final reliability for the resulting four-item scale was considered acceptable,  $\alpha = .86$  (Table 2.).

Moreover, it is useful to underline for understanding that reliability coefficient takes values between 0 and 1, and as this value approaches to 1, we can say that reliability increases (Ural & Kılı, 2005). The reliability of the scale is not reliable if it is  $0,00 \leq \alpha < 0,40$ . If the scale is  $0,40 \leq \alpha < 0,60$ , the scale is of low reliability. It is the scale is rarely reliable if it is  $0,60 \leq \alpha < 0,80$ . Also, the scale is highly reliable if it is  $0,80 \leq \alpha < 1,00$  (Kalaycı, 2008).

Furthermore, the reliability analysis of the Sale Proneness Scale was done using the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient method. As a result of the analysis, it was observed that the Sale Proneness Scale consisted of 5 items. Moreover, the Cronbach’s Alpha value of the scale is .877. As a result of checking the Scale if item deleted option, it is seen that none of the Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted values are

greater than 0.877. Therefore, it can be said that the scale was found to be highly reliable (5 items;  $\alpha = .88$ ) (Table 2).

Also, in the fourth step, the reliability analysis of the Price Mavenism Scale was done using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient method. As a result of the analysis, it was observed that Price Mavenism Scale consisted of 6 items. Moreover, the Cronbach's Alpha value of the scale is .958. As a result of checking the Scale if item deleted option, it is seen that none of the Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted values are greater than 0.958. Therefore, it can be said that the scale was found to be highly reliable (6 items;  $\alpha = .95$ ) (Table 2.).

Following the other steps, the reliability analysis of the Self-Congruity Scale was done using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient method. As a result of the analysis, it was observed that Self-Congruity Scale consisted of 3 items. Moreover, the Cronbach's Alpha value of the scale is .855. As a result of checking the Scale if item deleted option, it is seen that none of the Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted values are greater than 0.855. Therefore, it can be said that the scale was found to be highly reliable (3 items;  $\alpha = .85$ ) (Table 2).

The one item was reversed in the SPSS program for the Shopping Satisfaction Scale. After that the reversed process was completed, the reliability analysis of the Shopping Satisfaction Scale was done using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient method. As a result of the analysis, it was observed that Shopping Satisfaction Scale consisted of 5 items. Moreover, the Cronbach's Alpha value of the scale is .853. As a result of checking the Scale if item deleted option, it is seen that none of the Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted values are greater than 0.853. Therefore, it can be said that the scale was found to be highly reliable (5 items;  $\alpha = .85$ ) (Table 2).

The reliability analysis was carried out on the Odd Price Perception Scale comprising 5 items. The Cronbach's Alpha showed the questionnaire to reach acceptable reliability,  $\alpha = 0.861$ . It can be said that the scale is highly reliable (5 items;  $\alpha = .86$ ). However, examination of individual item statistics suggested that elimination of several items would increase the reliability of the scale. Most items appeared to be worthy of retention, resulting in an increase in the alpha if deleted. The one exception to this was item 5, which would increase the alpha to  $\alpha = 0.92$ . As such, the removal of this item should be considered. Therefore, we can say that the final reliability for the resulting four-item scale was considered acceptable,  $\alpha = .92$ . (Table 2.).

**Table 2.**

*Summary of Reliability Statistics of All Scale's*

|                             | Cronbach's $\alpha$ | N of Items |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|------------|
| Value Consciousness Scale   | .865                | 7          |
| Price Consciousness Scale   | .867                | 4          |
| Sale Proneness Scale        | .877                | 5          |
| Price Mavenism Scale        | .958                | 6          |
| Self-Congruity Scale        | .855                | 3          |
| Shopping Satisfaction Scale | .853                | 5          |
| Odd Price Perception Scale  | .927                | 5          |

#### 4.3. The Correlation Analysis

When the results of the correlation analysis are analyzed in general, it is seen that firstly, there is a significant and positive relationship between value consciousness and shopping satisfaction and this relationship is also very strong ( $r = 0.276$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Accordingly, as having value consciousness increases, behaviors of shopping satisfaction in individuals also increase. Secondly, when the relationships between price consciousness and shopping satisfaction are examined; it is observed that there is a strong positive relationship between price consciousness and shopping satisfaction ( $r = 0.348$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Therefore, it can be saying that having price

consciousness increases, behaviors of shopping satisfaction in individuals also increase. Thirdly, it is seen that there is a strong, positive correlation between sale proneness and shopping satisfaction. Increases in having an idea of sale proneness were correlated with increases in behavior of shopping satisfaction ( $r= 0.548$ ,  $p< .001$ ). Moreover, like other variables examined, a positive and significant relationship was found between price mavenism and shopping satisfaction ( $r= 0.428$ ,  $p< .001$ ). On the other hand, there is a strong positive relationship between odd price perception and shopping satisfaction ( $r= 0.211$ ,  $p< .001$ ). Therefore, as the level of odd price perception increases, the level of shopping satisfaction behaviors increases. Also, it is observed that there is a strong positive relationship between self-congruity and shopping satisfaction ( $r= 0.520$ ,  $p< .001$ ). Therefore, we can say that as the self-congruity level of individual increases, the level of shopping satisfaction behaviors increases. Overall, Table 3 shows the positive relationships between independent variables such as Value Consciousness, Price Consciousness, Sale Proneness, Price Mavenism, Odd Price Perception and Self-Congruity and Shopping Satisfaction.

**Table 1.**

*Correlations between Variables and Shopping Satisfaction*

| Measure                  | 1      | 2      | 3      | 4      | 5      | 6      | 7 |
|--------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---|
| 1. Value Consciousness   | 1      |        |        |        |        |        |   |
| 2. Price Consciousness   | .376** | 1      |        |        |        |        |   |
| 3. Sale Proneness        | .295** | .151** | 1      |        |        |        |   |
| 4. Price Mavenism        | .262** | .361** | .328** | 1      |        |        |   |
| 5. Odd Price Perception  | -.005  | -.099  | .111*  | .251** | 1      |        |   |
| 6. Self-Congruity        | .135*  | .220** | .449** | .602** | .297** | 1      |   |
| 7. Shopping Satisfaction | .276** | .348** | .548** | .428** | .211** | .520** | 1 |

\*\* $p< .001$

\* $p< .05$

### 4.3. The Regression Analyses

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to find predictors of shopping satisfaction behaviors. On the first step Shopping Satisfaction was entered as dependent variable and Value Consciousness, Price Consciousness, Sale Proneness, Price Mavenism, and Odd Price Perception were entered as independent variables individually. The significant regression was appeared. On the second step, all of the predictors were entered simultaneously, resulting in a significant increase in  $R^2$ ,  $F(5,312) = 45.486$ ,  $p < .001$ . The full model  $R^2$  was significantly greater than zero,  $F(5,312) = 45.486$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $R^2 = .422$ . As shown in Table 4, every predictor had not significant zero-order correlation with shopping satisfaction. Value Consciousness ( $p = .363$ ) did not have a significant partial effect in the full model, but Price Consciousness ( $p < .001$ ), Sale Proneness ( $p < .001$ ), Price Mavenism ( $p < .001$ ), and Odd Price Perception ( $p < .005$ ) did have significant partial effects. As a result, both Price Consciousness, Sale Proneness, Price Mavenism and Odd Price Perception were significant predictors of Shopping Satisfaction except Value Consciousness. Within this inference, it can be said that the hypothesis of H1, H3, H4, and H5 was accepted and H2 was rejected.

**Table 2.**

*The Multiple Regression Model Showing the Effects of Value Consciousness, Price Consciousness, Sale Proneness, Price Mavenism and Odd Price Perception on Shopping Satisfaction*

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients |                   | Standardized Coefficients | <i>t</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>R</i> | <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> |      |
|-------|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|----------|-------------|----------|-------------|----------|-----------------------|------|
|       | <i>B</i>                    | <i>Std. Error</i> | <i>Beta</i>               |          |             |          |             |          |                       |      |
| 1     | (Constant)                  | .067              | .343                      |          | 0.197       | .844     |             |          |                       |      |
|       | Value_Cons                  | .052              | .058                      | .044     | 0.910       | .363     |             |          |                       |      |
|       | Price_Cons                  | .205              | .048                      | .217     | 4.281       | .000     | 45.486      | .000     | .649                  | .422 |
|       | Sale_Pro                    | .443              | .048                      | .431     | 9.215       | .000     |             |          |                       |      |
|       | Price_Mav                   | .133              | .041                      | .164     | 3.232       | .001     |             |          |                       |      |
|       | Odd_Price_Per               | .127              | .044                      | .131     | 2.858       | .005     |             |          |                       |      |

a. Dependent Variable: Shopping Satisfaction

However, when we consider each variable and the self-congruity variable that we selected as the moderator separately, we can see that the significant determinants could change in the model.

#### **4.3.1. Moderating Effect of Self Congruity**

A multiple linear regression was calculated to predict shopping satisfaction based on interaction of Value Consciousness and Self-Congruity. To test the hypothesis that shopping satisfaction are a function of multiple abstract concepts, and more specifically whether self-congruity moderates the relationship between value consciousness and shopping satisfaction behaviors, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. In the first step, two variables were included: value consciousness and self-congruity. These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in shopping satisfaction behavior,  $R^2 = .077$ ,  $F(1, 329) = 27.540$ ,  $p < .001$ . To avoid potentially problematic high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the variables were centered and an interaction term between value consciousness and self-congruity was created. Next, the interaction term between value consciousness and self-congruity (VaCon\*SelfCo) was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in shopping satisfaction behavior,  $\Delta R^2 = .234$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 328) = 11.637$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $b = .073$ ,  $t(328) = 10.566$ ,  $p < .001$ . The table 5 shows the examination of the interaction showed an enhancing effect that as value consciousness and self-congruity increased, shopping satisfaction behavior increased. At self-congruity, shopping satisfaction were similar for value consciousness with low, average, or high. Individuals who have high self-congruity with high value consciousness had the shopping satisfaction behaviors. Hence, as a result of the interaction, it can be said that the hypothesis of H6 was accepted.

**Table 5.**

*Hierarchical Regression Model Showing the Effects of Interaction Value Consciousness and Self Congruity on Shopping Satisfaction Behavior*

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients |                   | Standardized Coefficients | <i>t</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>R</i> | <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> |
|-------|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|----------|-------------|----------|-------------|----------|-----------------------|
|       | <i>B</i>                    | <i>Std. Error</i> | <i>Beta</i>               |          |             |          |             |          |                       |
| 1     | (Constant)                  | 1.862             | .381                      | 4.881    | .000        | 27.540   | .000        | .278     | .077                  |
|       | Value_Cons                  | .339              | .065                      | .278     | .000        |          |             |          |                       |
| 2     | (Constant)                  | 2.216             | .331                      | 6.425    | .000        | 74.219   | .000        | .558     | .312                  |
|       | Value_Cons                  | .106              | .060                      | .087     | .078        |          |             |          |                       |
|       | VaCon*SelfCo                | .073              | .007                      | .520     | .000        |          |             |          |                       |

a. Dependent Variable: Shopping Satisfaction

b. Predictors: Value Consciousness

c. Predictors: Value Consciousness, VaCon\*SelfCo

Likewise with the process of other variables, testing the hypothesis that self-congruity moderates the relationship between price consciousnesses and shopping satisfaction behaviors, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. Firstly, two variables were included: price consciousness and self-congruity. These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in shopping satisfaction behavior,  $R^2 = .121$ ,  $F(1, 329) = 45.490$ ,  $p < .001$ . The interaction term between price consciousness and self-congruity was created. Secondly, the interaction term between price consciousness and self-congruity (PriCon\*SelfCo) was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in shopping satisfaction behavior,  $\Delta R^2 = .199$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 328) = 95.807$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $b = .087$ ,  $t(328) = 9.788$ ,  $p < .01$ . Table 6 shows that the examination of the interaction showed an enhancing effect that as price consciousness and self-congruity increased, shopping satisfaction behavior increased. At self-congruity, shopping satisfaction were similar for price consciousness with low, average, or high. Individuals who have high self-congruity with high price consciousness had the shopping satisfaction behaviors.

Hence, as a result of the interaction, it can be said that the hypothesis of H7 was accepted.

**Table 6.**

*Hierarchical Regression Model Showing the Effects of Interaction Price Consciousness and Self Congruity on Shopping Satisfaction Behavior*

| Model |               | Unstandardized Coefficients |                   | Standardized Coefficients | <i>t</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>R</i> | <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> |
|-------|---------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|----------|-------------|----------|-------------|----------|-----------------------|
|       |               | <i>B</i>                    | <i>Std. Error</i> | <i>Beta</i>               |          |             |          |             |          |                       |
| 1     | (Constant)    | 2.388                       | .255              |                           | 10.594   | .000        |          |             |          |                       |
|       | Price_Cons    | .332                        | .049              | .349                      | 6.745    | .000        | 45.490   | .000        | .349     | .121                  |
| 2     | (Constant)    | 2.691                       | .201              |                           | 13.389   | .000        |          |             |          |                       |
|       | Price_Cons    | .031                        | .053              | .032                      | .576     | .565        | 77.203   | .000        | .566     | .320                  |
|       | PriCon*SelfCo | .087                        | .009              | .547                      | 9.788    | .000        |          |             |          |                       |

a. Dependent Variable: Shopping Satisfaction

b. Predictors: Price Consciousness

c. Predictors: Price Consciousness, PriCon\*SelfCo

Moreover, testing the hypothesis that self-congruity moderates the relationship between sale proneness and shopping satisfaction behaviors, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. First of all, two variables were included: sale proneness and self-congruity. These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in shopping satisfaction behavior,  $R^2 = .305$ ,  $F(1, 321) = 141.640$ ,  $p < .001$ . The interaction term between sale proneness and self-congruity was created. In second, the interaction term between sale proneness and self-congruity (SaleP\*SelfCo) was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in shopping satisfaction behavior,  $\Delta R^2 = .078$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 321) = 40.396$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $b = .052$ ,  $t(321) = 6.356$ ,  $p < .01$ . Table 7 shows that the examination of the interaction showed an enhancing effect that as sale proneness and self-congruity increased, shopping satisfaction behavior increased. At self-congruity, shopping satisfaction were similar for sale proneness with low, average, or high. Individuals who have high self-congruity with high sale proneness

had the shopping satisfaction behaviors. Hence, as a result of the interaction, it can be said that the hypothesis of H8 was accepted.

**Table 7.**

*Hierarchical Regression Model Showing the Effects of Interaction Sale Proneness and Self Congruity on Shopping Satisfaction Behavior*

| Model |              | Unstandardized Coefficients |                   | Standardized Coefficients | <i>t</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>R</i> | <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> |
|-------|--------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|----------|-------------|----------|-------------|----------|-----------------------|
|       |              | <i>B</i>                    | <i>Std. Error</i> | <i>Beta</i>               |          |             |          |             |          |                       |
| 1     | (Constant)   | 1.340                       | .220              |                           | 6.096    | .000        | 141.640  | .000        | .553     | .305                  |
|       | Sale_Pro     | .572                        | .048              | .553                      | 11.901   | .000        |          |             |          |                       |
| 2     | (Constant)   | 1.826                       | .221              |                           | 8.257    | .000        | 99.683   | .000        | .619     | .383                  |
|       | Sale_Pro     | .318                        | .061              | .307                      | 5.250    | .565        |          |             |          |                       |
|       | SaleP*SelfCo | .052                        | .008              | .372                      | 6.356    | .000        |          |             |          |                       |

a. Dependent Variable: Shopping Satisfaction

b. Predictors: Sale Proneness

c. Predictors: Sale Proneness, SaleP\*SelfCo

Furthermore, testing the hypothesis that self-congruity moderates the relationship between price mavenism and shopping satisfaction behaviors, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. Firstly, two variables were included: price mavenism and self-congruity. These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in shopping satisfaction behavior,  $R^2 = .186$ ,  $F(1, 321) = 73.521$ ,  $p < .001$ . The interaction term between price mavenism and self-congruity was created. Secondly, the interaction term between price mavenism and self-congruity (PrMav\*SelfCo) was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in shopping satisfaction behavior,  $\Delta R^2 = .062$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 320) = 26.236$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $b = .063$ ,  $t(320) = 5.122$ ,  $p < .01$ . Table 8 shows that the examination of the interaction showed an enhancing effect that as price mavenism and self-congruity increased, shopping satisfaction behavior increased. At self-congruity, shopping satisfaction were similar for price mavenism with low, average, or high. Individuals who have high self-congruity with high price

mavenism had the shopping satisfaction behaviors. Hence, as a result of the interaction, it can be said that the hypothesis of H9 was accepted.

**Table 8.**

*Hierarchical Regression Model Showing the Effects of Interaction Price Mavenism and Self Congruity on Shopping Satisfaction Behavior*

| Model        | Unstandardized Coefficients |                   | Standardized Coefficients | <i>t</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>R</i> | <i>R<sup>2</sup></i> |
|--------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|----------|-------------|----------|-------------|----------|----------------------|
|              | <i>B</i>                    | <i>Std. Error</i> | <i>Beta</i>               |          |             |          |             |          |                      |
| 1 (Constant) | 2.835                       | .139              |                           | 20.425   | .000        |          |             |          |                      |
| Price_Mav    | .347                        | .041              | .432                      | 8.574    | .000        | 73.521   | .000        | .432     | .186                 |
| 2 (Constant) | 3.139                       | .146              |                           | 21.465   | .000        |          |             |          |                      |
| Price_Mav    | .048                        | .070              | .060                      | .691     | .490        | 52.768   | .000        | .498     | .248                 |
| PrMav*SelfCo | .063                        | .012              | .447                      | 5.122    | .000        |          |             |          |                      |

a. Dependent Variable: Shopping Satisfaction

b. Predictors: Price Mavenism

c. Predictors: Price Mavenism, PrMav\*SelfCo

Likewise with the process of other variables, testing the hypothesis that self-congruity moderates the relationship between odd price perceptions and shopping satisfaction behaviors, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. Firstly, two variables were included: odd price perception and self-congruity. These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in shopping satisfaction behavior,  $R^2 = .046$ ,  $F(1, 327) = 15.294$ ,  $p < .001$ . The interaction term between odd price perception and self-congruity was created. Secondly, the interaction term between odd price perception and self-congruity (OddPP\*SelfCo) was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in shopping satisfaction behavior,  $\Delta R^2 = .121$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 326) = 47.526$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $b = .101$ ,  $t(326) = 6.894$ ,  $p < .01$ . Table 9 shows that the examination of the interaction showed an enhancing effect that as odd price perception and self-congruity increased, shopping satisfaction behavior increased. At self-congruity, shopping satisfaction were similar for odd price perception with low, average, or high. Individuals who

have high self-congruity with low odd price perception had the shopping satisfaction behaviors. Hence, as a result of the interaction, it can be said that the hypothesis of H10 was accepted.

**Table 9.**

*Hierarchical Regression Model Showing the Effects of Interaction Odd Price Perception and Self Congruity on Shopping Satisfaction Behavior*

| Model         | Unstandardized Coefficients |                   | Standardized Coefficients | <i>t</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> | <i>R</i> | <i>R<sup>2</sup></i> |
|---------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|----------|-------------|----------|-------------|----------|----------------------|
|               | <i>B</i>                    | <i>Std. Error</i> | <i>Beta</i>               |          |             |          |             |          |                      |
| 1 (Constant)  | 3.370                       | .139              |                           | 24.263   | .000        | 15.924   | .000        | .215     | .046                 |
| Odd_Price_Per | .204                        | .051              | .215                      | 3.990    | .000        |          |             |          |                      |
| 2 (Constant)  | 3.580                       | .133              |                           | 26.821   | .000        | 32.858   | .000        | .410     | .168                 |
| Odd_Price_Per | -.175                       | .073              | -.185                     | -2.407   | .017        |          |             |          |                      |
| OddPP*SelfCo  | .101                        | .015              | .531                      | 6.894    | .000        |          |             |          |                      |

a. Dependent Variable: Shopping Satisfaction

b. Predictors: Odd Price Perception

c. Predictors: Odd Price Perception, OddPP\*SelfCo

#### 4.4.1. Difference Tests for Analysis between Shopping Satisfaction

The behaviors of shopping satisfaction for participants were examined and differentiation analyzes were presented according to variables such as gender, age, marital status, education level and income.

When looking at shopping satisfaction, there is no difference in gender discrimination of the participants. There is no relationship between gender and shopping satisfaction ( $r = 0.048$ ,  $p = .379$ ). In addition, as a result of Independent Samples T-test, no statistically significant difference was found between the two groups in terms of gender ( $M_{male} = 3.91$ ,  $SD = 1.30$ ;  $M_{female} = 3.77$ ,  $SD = 1.50$ ). Although many studies suggest that shopping satisfaction differ by gender, this study found that there was no difference between shopping satisfaction and gender. It can be said that shopping satisfaction behavior does not differ according to gender,

regardless of gender ( $t(335) = -.880, p = 0.363$ ). Hence, hypothesis of H11 was rejected.

**Table 3.**

*T-Test Table for Comparison of Shopping Satisfaction by Gender*

| Group  | N   | Mean | Sd.  | t     | p    |
|--------|-----|------|------|-------|------|
| Male   | 127 | 3.91 | 1.30 | -.880 | .363 |
| Female | 210 | 3.77 | 1.50 |       |      |

There is no significant relationship was found between shopping satisfaction and age characteristics of the participants. ( $r = -0.040, p = .463$ ). However, One-Way Anova Test, which is the one of the parametric tests, was used to investigate whether the behavior of shopping satisfaction varies according to the age variable. The behaviors of participants about shopping satisfaction do not differ according to the age variable ( $F(3,333) = 0.403, p = .751$ ). The homogeneity of the variances is ensured ( $p = 0.270 > 0.05$ ). For this reason, Tukey which is one of the Post Hoc test, was used to investigate the cause of the difference. Although the difference is not very large, it arises from the 18-24 age groups ( $M_{18-24} = 4.02$ ). Hence, hypothesis of H12 was rejected.

**Table 4.**

*Anova Table for Comparison of Shopping Satisfaction by Age*

|                       |                | SS      | df  | MS    | F    | Sig. |
|-----------------------|----------------|---------|-----|-------|------|------|
| Shopping Satisfaction | Between Groups | 2.489   | 3   | .830  | .403 | .751 |
|                       | Within Groups  | 685.458 | 333 | 2.058 |      |      |
|                       | Total          | 687.947 | 336 |       |      |      |

## 5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Consumer satisfaction has garnered significant interest in recent years by scholars due to its possible impact on consumer purchase intention and client retention. The reason for this high interest is considered to be that the retailers have understood that long-term future profitability targets and the continuous viability of the company can be achieved with customer satisfaction. In addition to contribution to the retention, consumer happiness also improves the purchase of additional items in the same shop (Chang & Tu, 2005). Chen-Yu and Hong (2002) showed that customer spending is the main result of a marketing strategy in order to enhance customer pleasure. Customer satisfaction is a response to expectations, following purchase, product experience, or shopping experience. The reaction is the answer from the requirements evaluation, from pre-buying anticipations, needs, or models, through the actual shopping or product experience. Consequently, client happiness and satisfaction depends on meeting or not the assumptions envisaged before a buying excursion (Juyal, 2012).

The retail satisfaction of customers may be divided into three elements: shopping systems satisfaction that includes convenience and class of outlets; customer contentment with buying systems that comprise of product choice and actual purchasing of things; and consumer satisfaction, result of product use (Westbrook, 1987).

The relationship between price-related factors and shopping satisfaction in the retail environment is a relatively less studied area of research. Although primary research has investigated shopping satisfaction from different angles, the effect of self-congruity has been ignored. However, in the few studies available, emotions play an important role in price-related factors (Zielke, 2014).

In the light of some studies results seen during the literature review, it stands out that there are similar to ours. According to the results, a strong relationship was found between price-related independent variables including value consciousness, price consciousness, sales proneness, price mavenism, odd-price perception, self-congruity, and shopping satisfaction.

It was observed that the abstract concept of our variables increased in behaviors of shopping satisfaction. In this sense, it can be considered that would be essential to find these great relationships between concepts and behaviors of shopping satisfaction in daily life, especially at the point of marketing perceptions of firms.

Also, it is widely understandable that, development of new retailers who are selling comparable products with lower prices compared with the supermarkets, encourages dissatisfied consumers to switch their preferences and eventually reduce their loyalty. Even a single price-related negative experience may cause a consumer to switch shops nearly quickly, negatively impacting store sales performance over a short period of time.

On the other hand, retailers that understand the relationships between customer satisfaction factors and sales success may avoid inadvertently generating an unpleasant experience especially to their loyal customers. Thus, knowledgeable retailers may benefit from higher sales payoffs than their rivals by making appropriate decision and implementing fair pricing strategies.

Especially, as the most important content of our topic, we selected the self-congruity as moderating variable to find out the determining effect on shopping satisfaction. Also, according to results, we found that the interaction term of independent variables and self-congruity play big role. At this point, our results are similar to the results of the studies conducted by Ibrahim and Najjar in the retail

environment in 2008 and Yao et al. in the field of tourism in 2018 and show the importance of self-congruity on shopping satisfaction.

Moreover, in addition to this relationship, the self-congruity moderating effect strengthens the link regarding this relationship. The study, which also reveals that market barges display more dissatisfaction than others after purchasing (Ju, Park and Lee, 2014), supports the relationship we found in our study. The relationship between self congruity and shopping satisfaction we found in our study was also similar to the study conducted by Ha and Im in 2012.

Also, as mentioned earlier, we found a positive relationship between price-related factors including price consciousness, value consciousness, sale proneness, price mavenism, odd-price perception and shopping satisfaction.

The effect and results of price on shopping satisfaction are mentioned in detail in the literature section. Accordingly, our results are similar to the studies in the literature and indicate that there is a strong relationship between consciousness and shopping satisfaction. Our results are similar to the work of Sproles and Kendall (1986), Chiou et al, (2002), Homburg and Stock, (2005). No study has been found that supports the opposite relationship. Results we found for Value consciousness are similar to the results of the work Kwon and Jeon conducted in 2020. The only difference between our works is that Kwon and Jeon conducted their work in the field of cosmetics. The results of our study for Sale Proneness are similar to those of Garretson and Burton's 3 studies in 2003 using the same data. All studies show that sale prone customers who shop at a discount are more satisfied with what they buy.

In the literature, Jeon and Park claim that price maven customers can be satisfied with their purchases in line with their high knowledge and awareness. Accordingly, our results support the above claim and show the effect of price mavens

on customer satisfaction. Our results show the opposite of those conducted by Ju et.al in 2014.

In the literature review, we have also examined the effect of price perception on customer satisfaction in detail, and our results are similar to previous studies in the literature. Accordingly, as Keaveny stated in his study in 1995 and Varki and Colgate's study in the banking sector in 2001, the change in price perception affects consumer satisfaction.

In addition, age and gender, which are encountered in the literature and have an effect on shopping satisfaction, are included in our study as a sociodemographic characteristics. According to the study of Jansen-Verbeke (1987), it has been observed that there is a difference between the genders and this difference is emphasized on shopping attitude, unlike our study. Similar results were found in the study conducted by Turner & Reisinger, (2001). Likewise, in this study, satisfaction was evaluated over shopping attitudes. According to the results of our study, it was seen that there was no difference in shopping satisfaction behaviors between genders.

In addition, in our study, we tried to investigate whether there is a difference in the shopping satisfaction behavior of the age variable. However, in a study conducted in the shopping mall, it was determined that the age variable did not undergo any change. Similar results were observed in our study. As a result of the analyzes made, it is striking that there is no difference between the ages.

In conclusion, as we mentioned before, shopping satisfaction is a very complex issue and can be affected by many different factors and self-congruity is one of these factors and its effect on shopping satisfaction has not been taken enough attention by researchers.

According to the extant research, self-influence congruity's on consumer behavior is mediated by a variety of self-concept reasons. Sirgy et al. (2000), for example, propose that in the retail sector, the influence of self-congruity on shop patronage might be mediated by self-consistency and self-esteem-related incentives. Similarly, it has been shown that self-consistency and social confirmation goals modulate the influence of self-congruity on shop attitude and loyalty.

Compendiously, self-congruence has a significant impact on customer behavior (Hong & Zinkhan, 1995). It contributes to good brand perceptions and influences brand choices, buying intentions, and commitment and should be taken into consideration by retailers to increase business success.

## 6. LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RECOMMENDATIONS

As with any research, the current study has limitations that should be noted. First, we stress that this model is not designed to include all possible influences on consumer satisfaction for retailers. We limit our consideration to the identified variables simply to investigate the set of links between price-related factors and shopping satisfaction and the moderating effect of self-congruity. The apparent inference is that comparable composite models should be considered further. In addition to that, further variables that influence shopping satisfaction should be included in future studies. Moreover, we did not evaluate the consumer's personality (e.g. the Big Five dimensions of human personality) when we examined the moderating influence of self-congruity in the retail environment and we were unable to add this variable into our analysis. Further studies are required to do a through multi-group, randomised study and evaluate the effect of self-congruity in detail.

Moreover, it is worth noting that the survey of the study has been analyzed by collecting data from customers of discount retail stores in a developing economy.

Therefore, there is also a potential for a cultural distortion to play a role in the results of this research, as people's expectations in an economically developing country might vary from those in an economically developed country. In fact, consumption of services is tightly connected to lifestyles and culture; for example, symbolic association linked to certain objects or colors may vary considerably across countries and cultures. As Usunier (1996) stated, service use is strongly tied with lifestyles and culture. The symbolic combination of specific things or colors, for example, is widely different in different countries and cultures. These limitations provided above create opportunities for further research.

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**APPENDIX A: Questionnaire in Turkish**

Değerli katılımcı,

Bu çalışma Yeditepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü MBA Yüksek Lisans Programı yönetiminde ve Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Özge KİREZLİ danışmanlığı tarafından yürütülmekte olan ‘İndirim Marketlerinden Müşteri Tercihlerini Etkileyen Faktörlerin Belirlenmesi’ adlı araştırmanın uygulama kısmına veri toplamak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Vereceğiniz tüm bilgiler gizli tutulacak, hiçbir kimse ve/veya kuruluşa verilmeyecektir. Soruları dikkatli okuyarak objektif, samimi, gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerinizi yansıtmanız araştırmanın amacına ulaşması için önemlidir.

Araştırmada yer alan soruların katılımcılar açısından olumsuz etkileri olması beklenmemektedir. Bu çalışmaya katılımınız tamamen isteğe bağlıdır. Çalışmadan elde edilen veriler gizli tutulacak ve bilimsel araştırma için kullanılacaktır.

Anketlere ayıracağınız zaman ve göstereceğiniz özenden dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

| Soru                  | Cevap 1 | Cevap 2     | Cevap 3     | Cevap 4       | Cevap 5 |
|-----------------------|---------|-------------|-------------|---------------|---------|
| Cinsiyetiniz          | Kadın   | Erkek       |             |               |         |
| Yaşınız               | 18-24   | 25-34       | 35-45       | >45           |         |
| Medeni Durumunuz      | Bekar   | Evli        |             |               |         |
| Eğitim Durumunuz      | İlkokul | Lise        | Üniversite  | Yüksek Lisans | Doktora |
| Aylık Gelir Durumunuz | 0-2.299 | 2.300-3.999 | 4.000-6.999 | >7.000        |         |







Aşağıda bireylerin bir ürünü satın alırken ürünlerin fiyat mavenizm ile ilgili tutumlarını yansıtan ifadeler yer almaktadır. Her maddede yer alan durumu ne sıklıkla yaşadığınızı düşünerek ‘Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum’ (1) ile ‘Kesinlikle Katılıyorum’ (7) arasında uygun olan değeri seçiniz.

| Soru                                                                                                      | Kesinlikle<br>Katılmıyorum (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | Kesinlikle<br>Katılıyorum (7) |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-------------------------------|
| 1. İnsanlar farklı ürünlerin fiyatları hakkında genelde benden bilgi isterler.                            | O                              | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                             |
| 2. Ürünlerin fiyatlarını bilmek söz konusu olduğunda çevrem tarafından uzman olarak kabul edilirim.       | O                              | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                             |
| 3. Birçok ürünün en iyi fiyata nerde satılacağını birçok insandan daha iyi bilirim.                       | O                              | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                             |
| 4. Birçok ürün hakkında fiyat bilgisi sağlayarak insanlara yardım etmeyi seviyorum.                       | O                              | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                             |
| 5. Arkadaşlarım beni iyi bir fiyat bilgisi kaynağı olarak düşünüyor.                                      | O                              | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                             |
| 6. İnsanlara farklı ürünler için önceden ortalama ne kadar ödeme yapacaklarını söylemekten zevk alıyorum. | O                              | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                             |

Aşağıda bireylerin bir ürünü satın alırken ürünlerin kendine uygunluğu ile ilgili tutumlarını yansıtan ifadeler yer almaktadır. Her maddede yer alan durumu ne sıklıkla yaşadığınızı düşünerek ‘Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum’ (1) ile ‘Kesinlikle Katılıyorum’ (7) arasında uygun olan değeri seçiniz.

| Soru                                                                                              | Kesinlikle<br>Katılmıyorum<br>(1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | Kesinlikle<br>Katılıyorum<br>(7) |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----------------------------------|
| 1. Kendimi sürekli indirim marketlerinden alışveriş yapan bir insan olarak tanımlayabilirim.      | O                                 | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                                |
| 2. Bu indirim marketinden alışveriş yapan tüketici imajı, benim kendimi nasıl gördüğümle örtüşür. | O                                 | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                                |
| 3. Bu indirim mağazasının imajı, benim benlik imajıma uygundur.                                   | O                                 | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                                |



## APPENDIX B: Questionnaire in English

Dear participant,

This study is under the direction of the Business Administration Master Program of Yeditepe University, and it is conducted by Assistant Professor Özge KİREZLİ consultancy. These questionnaires are prepared to collect data for the application part of the thesis, which is called '*identifying price based determinant of consumer satisfaction in discount stores: analyzing the moderating effect of self-congruity*'. All information you provide will be kept confidential and will not be given to anyone or organization. Reading the questions carefully, reflecting your objective feelings and thoughts are important for the research.

The questions in the study are not expected to have negative effects on the participants. Your participation in the research is entirely voluntary. The data obtained from the questionnaire will be kept confidential and used for scientific research.

Thank you in advance for your time and attention.

| Question        | Answer 1 | Answer 2    | Answer 3    | Answer 4 | Answer 5 |
|-----------------|----------|-------------|-------------|----------|----------|
| Gender          | Female   | Male        |             |          |          |
| Age             | 18-24    | 25-34       | 35-45       | >45      |          |
| Marital Status  | Single   | Married     |             |          |          |
| Education Level | Primary  | High School | Graduate    | Master   | PhD      |
| Income Level    | 0-2.299  | 2.300-3.999 | 4.000-6.999 | >7.000   |          |

I strongly disagree (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) Absolutely agree (7)

[illegible]

Statements that reflect the attitudes of individuals about price while they purchasing a product are given below. Choose the appropriate

| Question                                                                           |                         | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | Absolutely I agree (7) |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------------------------|
|                                                                                    | I strongly disagree (1) | )   | )   | )   | )   | )   |                        |
| 1. I am not willing to go to extra effort to find lower prices.                    | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   |                        |
| 2. I will grocery shop at more than one store to take advantage of low prices.     | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   |                        |
| 3. The money saved by finding low prices is usually not worth the time and effort. | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   |                        |
| 4. I would never shop at more than one store to find low prices.                   | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   |                        |
| 5. The time it takes to find low prices is usually not worth the effort.           | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   |                        |

product is on sale, that can be a reason for me to buy it.                    0                    0 0 0 0 0 0

[illegible]

I strongly disagree (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) Absolutely agree (7)

[illegible]

Statements that reflect the attitudes of individuals about shopping satisfaction are given below. Choose the appropriate value between 'I completely disagree' (1) and 'Absolutely I agree' (7), considering how often you experience the situation in each item.

| Question                                                      | I strongly disagree (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | Absolutely I agree (7) |
|---------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------------------------|
| 1. I am happy with the outcome of that shopping trip.         | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                      |
| 2. I am satisfied with this store.                            | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                      |
| 3. Overall, I am not satisfied with this store.               | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                      |
| 4. I am pleased with the outcome of that shopping trip.       | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                      |
| 5. Overall, I am satisfied with the outcome of that shopping. | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                      |

Statements that reflect the attitudes of individuals about odd price perception while they purchasing a product are given below. Choose

| Question                                                     | I strongly disagree (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | Absolutely I agree (7) |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------------------------|
| 1. It gives me the feeling that price of the product is low. | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                      |
| 2. It instills in me the motivation to buy more.             | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                      |
| 3. The price tag of 99 looks better than the tag of 100.     | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                      |
| 4. Seeing 99 makes me an impulse buyer of the product.       | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                      |
| 5. By paying 99 it gives me a discount of Rs.1.              | O                       | O   | O   | O   | O   | O   | O                      |