

AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CUSTOMER
SATISFACTION, REPURCHASE INTENTION, AND THE FACTORS AFFECTING
PURCHASING BEHAVIOR: AN EXAMPLE OF ELECTRIC OVEN PURCHASES
BY TURKISH CONSUMERS



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BY

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PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
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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

Turkey is one of the largest white goods production bases in the world, especially in electric oven production. With the increasing awareness of health, attention to eating habits and cooking equipment began to increase. The high number of players in the sector and imports are the main factors that increase the competition in the market. By examining the consumers satisfaction, repurchase intention, and factors affecting oven purchasing behavior, companies can have the opportunity to position themselves ahead of the competition. This research was based on a survey that was conducted with 384 participants in Turkey. According to the analyses, customer satisfaction was found to strongly affect repurchase intention for the electric oven product group. Quality and consumer ethnocentrism have an effect on both customer satisfaction and repurchase intention. Brand and product features have an indirect effect on repurchase intention and after-sales services have a direct effect on the repurchase intention. One of the interesting findings of the research is that the price consciousness has no effect either directly or indirectly. Moderation effects of gender and education level were determined.

Keywords: *Marketing, consumer behavior, brand, price, quality, product features, country of origin, consumer ethnocentrism, customer satisfaction, repurchase intention, confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modeling, white goods, household appliances, durable goods, consumer durables, electric oven,*

ÖZET

Türkiye, beyaz eşya sektöründe ve özellikle elektrikli fırın üretiminde dünyanın önemli merkezlerinden bir tanesidir. Yükselen sağlık bilinciyle birlikte, beslenme alışkanlıklarına ve pişirme ekipmanlarına olan ilgi de artmaya başladı. Sektördeki oyuncu sayısının fazla olması ve ithalat, pazardaki rekabeti artıran temel unsurlar olarak öne çıkmaktadır. Şirketler, tüketicilerin memnuniyetini, yeniden satın alma niyetini ve fırın satın alma davranışını etkileyen faktörleri inceleyerek kendilerini rekabette öne çıkarma fırsatına sahip olabilirler. Bu araştırma için Türkiye'de 384 katılımcı üzerinde anket yapılmıştır. Analizlere göre, tüketici memnuniyetinin elektrikli fırın ürün grubu için yeniden satın alma niyetini güçlü bir şekilde etkilediği tespit edilmiştir. Kalite ve tüketici etnosentrizminin hem müşteri memnuniyeti hem de tekrar satın alma niyeti üzerinde etkisi bulunmaktadır. Marka ve ürün özellikleri, yeniden satın alma niyeti üzerinde dolaylı bir etkiye sahiptir ve satış sonrası hizmetler, yeniden satın alma niyeti üzerinde doğrudan bir etkiye sahiptir. Araştırmanın ilginç bulgularından biri de fiyat bilincinin doğrudan veya dolaylı olarak etkisinin olmamasıdır. Cinsiyet ve eğitim düzeyinin düzenleyici etkileri tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Pazarlama, tüketici davranışı, marka, fiyat, kalite, ürün özellikleri, menşe ülke, tüketici etnosentrizmi, müşteri memnuniyeti, yeniden satın alma niyeti, doğrulayıcı faktör analizi, yapısal eşitlik modellemesi, beyaz eşya, ev aletleri, dayanıklı tüketim malları, dayanıklı tüketim malları, elektrik fırın,

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASS – after-sales services

AVE - average variance extracted

CB-SEM covariance based structural equation modeling

CFI - comparative fit index

CI - confidence interval

CI-CFA -confidence interval – confirmatory factor analysis

COE- consumer ethnocentrism

COO - country of origin

CR- composite reliability

CS – customer satisfaction

df – degrees of freedom

GFI – the goodness of fit index

n - sample size

NFI - Bentler-Bonett normed fit index

NNFI -Bentler-Bonett non-normed fit index

PLS-SEM -partial least squares based structural equation modeling

PF – product features

R² - coefficient of determination

RFI - Bollen's Relative fit index

RI – repurchase intention

RMSEA - root mean square error of approximation

SEM - structural equation modeling

Sig. - significance

SQRT-AVE - Square root of the average variance extracted

SRMR -standardized root mean square residual

Std.Dev.- standard deviation

TLI - Tucker-Lewis index

TURKBESD - Turkish White Goods Manufacturers Association

UL- upper limit (as of a confidence interval, CI)

USD - the United States Dollar

1. INTRODUCTION

In the introduction section, the purpose, importance, and scope of this research are explained in detail.

1.1. Objective of Research

In today's society, the perception of healthy eating is rising steadily, and cooking habits are adapting in the same manner. Since Covid-19, many aspects of people's experiences of being human, customer, or citizen have been permanently changed and this change is expected to continue for a while. Now every company must understand and be a part of the healthcare ecosystem that dominates this new thinking (Accenture,2020, p.5). This topic appears to be at the top of all research and articles written during the Covid-19 pandemic.

Cooking equipment started to gain importance as much as the foods chosen for nutrition. Much new cooking appliances, which are easy to use and clean, have entered our lives by adding health fears. Depending on the changes in consumer and shopping habits, it has caused both the differentiation of product usage and the diversification of expectations about health and hygiene in products.

The city lifestyle, time spent in traffic, workloads, and shrinking family structures have taken away from mealtimes. Advances in technology have made people's lives easier. The sources they refer to when evaluating products have diversified and changed. Everything has accelerated. The social environment and media tools have become more important. Environmental awareness increased. In the new area, trying to get the best price for everything has started to become the new normal. With the increased variety

and options, the comparability of prices has increased. Covid-19 has triggered a global supply chain crisis that has put high inflation on everyone's agenda. Price sensitivity has increased in this context. Depending on these, significant differences are observed in customer experiences, brand-customer contact points, sales, and communication channels (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 10).

Refrigerators, freezers, washing machines, dishwashers, ovens, built-in appliances, and other cooking products are products in the category of white goods (Öztürk, 2016, p.7). White goods are the most important products that make our daily life easier. The consumer's durable purchase decision is more sensitive to his expectations about prices, income, and general economic situation than the purchase of non-durable goods (Andre, 1983, p.1).

The primary aim of this thesis is to collect data and produce information by researching "Consumer Behaviors" in general, and " An Analysis of the Relationship Between Customer Satisfaction, Repurchase Intention, and the Factors Affecting Purchasing Behavior of Customers in Turkey" in particular. In this thesis, the impacts of the brand, price, quality, product features (PF), after-sales services (ASS), consumer ethnocentrism (COE) on customer satisfaction (CS), repurchase intention (RI), and mediation effect of CS and moderation effects of sociodemographic factors are investigated.

1.1. Importance of Research

Turkey is the world's second-largest white goods production center (Öztürk, 2016, p. 7). New investments continue to be made every day, and the sector is growing (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 2). In addition to white goods, Turkey is on its way to becoming

a major player in other kitchen equipment. Especially in Eskişehir, Kayseri, Maraş, and Manisa provinces, large investments are made, and their production capacities are increasing day by day. Turkish white goods products are sold to almost every country in the world (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 2).

White goods brands also have brown product lines. Marketing activities can be carried out both on the umbrella brand and on the sub-product. A lot of research has been done on white goods in general. However, the number of studies conducted for sub-product groups is limited, and especially for ovens, there are none. This is insufficient to reflect the differences in purchasing behavior of consumers in sub-product groups. The penetration of the oven remains quite low when compared to other product groups. The oven replacement frequency is also higher than other product groups. It is expected that the growth in oven sales will be higher than other product groups. The interviews with the sector representatives revealed that when buying ovens, the brand is not an as important factor as other white goods products. In this thesis, the oven group was selected by evaluating the information (import, export, number of brands, renewal rates, health perception, and energy efficiency, etc.) received from the marketing professionals in the sector.

Through this process, it was investigated how Turkish consumers choose an oven, one of the most essential domestic appliances, their satisfaction and RIs using scales previously developed by other researchers.

The purchasing decision processes of a sufficient number of consumers have been researched, the variables affecting this process have been questioned, and the factors affecting the decisions of consumers in Turkey, which is an important market in the

world kitchenware sector, have been determined. These outputs will make meaningful contributions to the literature and the sector.

The findings of this study are beneficial for oven producers and their suppliers, especially to their marketing departments. Because understanding CS, RI and their antecedents are crucial issues for professionals of marketing in companies.

1.2. Scope of Research

The master thesis consists of 6 main parts. In the first part of the thesis, the objective, importance, and scope of the study are included under the title of the introduction.

In the second part, information and figures about the white goods sector are given, and the importance of the sector for both Turkey and the world is emphasized.

In the third part, a literature review was made on the model, the variables in the master's thesis and comments were made to guide the research.

In the fourth part, questionnaire design, research model, scales, sample selection, participants, hypotheses, and data collection methods are explained and discussed.

In the findings section, the tests, analysis methods, and results of the theses are explained using tables.

There is the last section on the discussions, conclusions, limitations, implications, and recommendations to shed light on future studies.

2. WHITE GOODS MARKET

In this section, Turkish and global white goods market sizes, the importance in the economy, competition and growth dynamics are explained.

2.1. Global White Goods Market

The white goods sector is classified as one of the subgroups of the durable consumer goods sector. Refrigerators, dishwashers, freezers, washing machines, ovens, and dryers are defined as the white goods group (Öztürk, 2016, p.7).

The turnover of the white goods industry in the world was 247 billion USD in 2019 with the sales of 493 million products. The global white goods industry is expected to maintain its strong growth rate in the next 5 years, as it did in the past. From 2019 to 2024, an average of 2.9% growth in sales value and 2.5% growth in sales volume are expected. Ultimately, it is predicted that the global white goods industry will reach a turnover of 285 billion dollars and sales of 557 million units by 2024 (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 2). According to the report of the European Union White Goods Manufacturers Association, global sales in 2020 exceeded the pre-pandemic figures (Applia, 2021, p.30).

In developed countries, the white goods sector continues to grow due to the need to renew existing products. On the contrary, in developing countries, sales are made for first-time shopping (Kaya, 2018, p. 7). For example, Electrolux estimates that 75% of sales in the United States are from replacements (Wilkie et al., 2013, p. 79). The world's most populous country, China, has given support to white goods buyers for the first time in recent years, but despite these incentives, the desired penetration rate could not be achieved (Kaya, 2018, p. 7).

China is the world's largest producer of white goods. Turkey, the world's second largest and Europe's largest white goods producer, is an important player in this market. China and Turkey as well as Germany, Italy, the United States, and Poland; Countries such as the United Kingdom have also maintained their competitiveness in the global white goods market (Öztürk, 2016, p. 7). The world's top five white goods exporters are China, Mexico, Turkey, Poland, and Germany (Milar, 2019, p.14). Worldwide production of white goods has shifted to developing countries as it did with the textile sector in the past.

China is the largest exporter, supplying half of the world's oven exports (Öztürk, 2016, p. 11). Turkey exports to more than 150 countries. The Turkish white goods sector ranks 7th in exports in the world ranking (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 2). The USA ranks first in oven imports. Although Germany is an important exporter, Germany ranks second in imports. In recent years, it is seen that the exports of Mexico and Poland have increased, while the exports of Italy have decreased (Avcıoğlu et al., 2018, p. 5).

According to the turnover of 2020, Haier is the world's largest producer with a turnover of 32 billion USD. Haier is followed by LG, Whirlpool, and Midea. Arçelik ranks 8th in the world with a turnover of 6.25 billion USD ("Major home appliances companies revenue ranking 2019," 2020).

2.2. Turkish White Goods Market

Turkey, which started mass production of white goods in 1955, based on the assembly industry, closed the 50-year gap, and became the second-largest producer in the world after China and the first largest producer in Europe (Milar, 2019, p.14; Öztürk, 2016, p. 14). Today, it is among the leading sectors of the Turkish economy with its

advanced technology, export sales, employment, and innovative structure (Öztürk, 2016, p. 14).

The Turkish white goods sector is one of the competitive sectors in the world and it has successfully become a worldwide brand. The white goods sector is writing a success story by exporting 4,5 billion USD and a foreign trade surplus of 4 billion USD (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 2). The sector finds its place among the strategic sectors that have foreign trade surplus (Milar, 2019, p. 14).

Approximately 96% of the white goods sold in the domestic market are produced in Turkey. Seventy-six percent of the production in terms of pieces is exported and 50-55% in USD terms (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 2). The sector exports to 150 countries and EU countries constitute the biggest export market. (Öztürk, 2016, p. 14).

The white goods sector grew by 10.8% in the 2016-2020 period and achieved a growth of 12% in exports. White goods exports increased by 4 million units and reached 22 million units in 2020 (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 57). When analyzed based on product groups, the oven group was both the most imported and exported product group on the basis of amount (Avcıoğlu et al., 2018, p. 14).

From 2017 to 2019, domestic market sales decreased from 8,5 million units to 6,7 million units. By 2020, it experienced a significant leap and reached 7,8 million units (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 62). The first purchase request and the purchases made with renewal/change are the factors that affect the sales of white goods in Turkey. It can be examined under 3 headings as new house sales, marriage & divorce, and the need for replacement. It is estimated that the changeover period for white goods products in

Turkey is 8-10 years. In 2017, the share of replacement demand in white goods sales increased by 10 points to approximately 40% (Kaya, 2018, p. 9).

The dynamic construction sector, young population, increasing urbanization, and increasing sales in export markets are effective in the growth of the white-goods sector (Kaya, 2018, p. 7).

The ownership rate of the washing machine and refrigerator in Turkey has approached 100%. On the other hand, the ownership rate of the oven, dishwasher, dryer, and air conditioner is still low (Kaya, 2018, p. 7).

The White Goods Industry creates jobs for 60,000 people directly and 600,000 people indirectly. The number of employments in the sector among all employees in Turkey is the 2,1%. With another calculation, one out of every 50 employees works in the white goods sector (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 67).

The white goods sector sells to its consumers with its widespread dealer network. There are around 15,000 white goods dealers and 3,500 authorized service centers in Turkey. The authorized service network is one of the most important elements of consumers' trust in the sector. Thanks to authorized services, repairability increases in addition. CS is raised to higher levels (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 73).

The white goods sector stands out as the sector that makes the largest investment in R&D and has the highest number of patents (Öztürk, 2016, p. 38).

Twenty-four percent of electricity consumption in Turkey originates from household consumption. White goods products constitute 50% of the electricity consumption in homes. Therefore, 12% of energy consumption in Turkey comes from

household appliances. Replacing old products with energy efficient products will provide significant energy savings (Kaya, 2018, 8).



3. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, the variables used in the model and important definitions, concepts related to them, other research findings, and theoretical background in the literature are explained from the 4Ps perspective of marketing.

3.1. Brand

The brand definitions have been changed in many ways over the years, depending on how they are viewed and perceived. This mostly depends on the academic background of the author or originator of these various definitions (Heding et al., 2009, p.9). The American Marketing Association's definition of the brand is "A brand is a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's goods or service as distinct from those of other sellers (American Marketing Association, 2020)".

Brands are not just symbols or names. They are much more and are unique and utmost of the main factors in the relationship between consumers and the firms (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015, p. 243). Brands are the intangible ideas, beliefs, perceptions, and expectations in the consumers' minds which can affect the future of the firm (Kotler & Pfoertsch, 2006, p.4)

Marketers need to clearly position their brand in the minds of their target customers. If they cannot find a way to differentiate, at the lowest level, marketers can position the brand according to the product characteristics (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015, p.244). If consumers' perceptions of the difference between brand alternatives for a product group are very low, there is brand parity. Parity can be considered the opposite of differentiation (Muncy, 1996, p.411). In any case, there is an obligation for companies to create and position a brand strongly.

“The marketing battle will be a battle of brands, a competition for brand dominance”. Firms and other investors will see the brand as a company’s most important asset to win this battle (Aaker, 1991, p.9). Everybody strongly will accept the importance of the brand for the success and future of the firm (Kotler & Pfoertsch, 2006, p. 14). All brands are remembered when customers buy and experience the brand, whether or not they are satisfied afterward. When brands are remembered positively, it is easier for consumers to repurchase, and it is more profitable for firms (Kotler & Pfoertsch, 2006, p. 5).

The brand serves a variety of different functions for both firms and consumers (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.322). Each party finds things in the brand that will make their work and life easier and maximize their expectations. There are some examples of the meaning of brand for both parties.

For the consumers, the brand differentiates the product from alternative products. It protects the firm and consumers from competitors. It gives confidence to consumers about the source and quality of the product (Aaker, 1991, p.19). Thanks to brands, consumers know who the manufacturer is and the responsible party. They may place responsibilities regarding the performance of products or services on the manufacturer or the intermediary. (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.322). A brand is an agreement, a promise, between the company and its consumer. It is a tool that determines the expectations of the customer and reduces the risks. (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.322). Brands support people in making important decisions as well as in making unimportant ones. It makes you trust the Mercedes brand you know, the Bordeaux wine you drink, and others (Kotler & Pfoertsch, 2006, p. 4).

As the life of consumers becomes more rushed and complex, the simplicity, speed, and risk reduction ability of brands in making decisions are very important and invaluable (Suri & Monroe, 2003, p. 102).

Brands can also be a crucial tool for consumers to express themselves and their identities. It can even be an important part of their Identity. It can demonstrate who consumers want to be or who they are. (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.322).

Brands play important roles and perform important functions for companies. As the simplest benefit, they support the organization of inventory and accounting records and simplify product processes (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.322).

A brand also offers the firm legal protection for unique features or aspects of the product (Louro & Cunha, 2001, p. 857). This prevents competitors from imitating the products and creates a strong competitive advantage for the company. Creates an entry barrier for competitors as well.

When talking about brands, people think of brands such as Coca-Cola, Apple, Ikea, Starbucks, and Nokia. The brands of these companies represent a very valuable asset for companies and become a valuable tool that enhances their growth and enhances their lasting success (Kotler & Pfoertsch, 2006, p. 14). Brands have been extensively recognized as having financial value because of their potential to generate future cash flows (Rao et al., 2004, p. 126).

A trusted brand indicates a certain level of quality so that satisfied buyers can easily buy the product once again. After gaining the loyalty of customers, it may turn into their desire to buy more expensive products. (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.322). Successful companies develop special strategies to establish this bond with their customers (Butz &

Goodstein, 1996, p. 67). From this perspective, brand awareness and loyalty can create another strong competitive advantage for firms (Louro & Cunha, 2001, p. 849). Thanks to the strength of the brand and loyalty to the brand, its sales, and revenues increase, it becomes less sensitive to the marketing activities of the competitors, and a stronger stance is displayed against the threats of the competitors (Delgado-Ballester & Luis Munuera-Alemán, 2001, p. 1238).

A literature review of the theoretical background has been made about the brand, CS and loyalty, RI variables and their relationships with each other, and it has been used in the establishment of the model. Brand positioning is achieved by revealing and communicating similarities and differences from competitors. As a result, a successful customer value proposition is created and consumers' needs are satisfied (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 298;304). Muncy (1996) found in his study that the differences between brands have a very strong effect on loyalty and a moderate effect on price. Zboja and Voorhees (2006) found that brand trust and satisfaction from the brand have an impact on RI from retailers. In a study conducted by Onurlubaş in 2018 among white goods consumers in Istanbul, it was determined that brand awareness and loyalty positively affect purchase intention. In his study, Veloutsou states that brand relations establish a mediator link between satisfaction and loyalty. In the research conducted by Aydın in 2016 on white goods consumers, brand love has a positive effect on RIs. In the study conducted by Dülek and Saydan on female participants in 2019, it was determined that brand awareness and brand attitude in white goods products have a significant effect on purchase intention. In a study conducted by Dörtyol (2015) on 1122 homes in Sivas province, the brand comes second after quality in purchasing decisions. According to the

results of Moraga et al.'s research in 2008, the satisfaction-loyalty relationship is very important in product-brand combination. The effect of satisfaction on loyalty is weaker than product-brand adoption than brand adoption alone. The more the brand is used in the adoption of products, the greater the impact on loyalty will be. As the income of families increases, the importance they attach to the brand also increases.

However, when the marketing professionals in the white goods sector were interviewed, it was learned that the effect of the brand on the purchasing decisions of the electric oven group is very limited.

In light of this information, in this research, the effect of the brand, CS, and RI variables which have positive effects in different product groups, and mediator effects of other sociodemographic factors on the electric oven product group will be investigated. No previous research has been done in this wide context for the electric oven product group, and this study investigating the relationship between brand and other variables will fill an important gap in the literature and sector.

3.2. Price

The price is more than a number on the labels of the products. The price may come in different names such as fee, subscription fee, rent, salaries, and commissions. When consumers pay or want to pay a price, different sub-dimensions of the price also exist such as discounts, discount coupons, rebates, installment sales, bundle products, free miles, and credit card points.

The rise in the use of technology has also brought about a rapid change in prices in today's fast-paced world. Increased internet usage, increased chain stores, and monopolization of online shopping sites continuously put pressure on companies to lower

prices. The Internet has been radically changing the way consumers and firms interact for a while. Consumers can instantly check prices from thousands of sellers, control prices even at points of purchase, set prices themselves, and can now get some products for free. This situation severely affects the price, which is the only P of the marketing mix that companies receive from consumers, and ultimately the financials and sustainability of companies (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015, p. 288; Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 484; Johnston & Mora Cortez, 2018, p. 32).

Price affects not only the financials of the companies but also the brand image. For this reason, the use of price is a very important part of marketing management. Price is an area that companies must manage systematically and consciously (Forsyth, 2009, p. 40). Managing the price correctly means understanding the costs thoroughly (Zimmerman & Blythe, 2017, p. 230).

Price is not just a cost that consumers bear. Price also represents quality in the perception of consumers. Price in some cases provides originality and prestige to consumers regardless of price and quality. (Forsyth, 2009, p. 41). In this case, how will the correct price be determined? Firms should first determine their pricing goals and targets. They should analyze the following factors that affect the pricing of the product and then create their pricing strategy.

The main factors in the pricing strategy are the customer, competitors, distribution channels, government, environment, and costs. The most important factor in pricing is the customer. It is vital for marketing managers to understand how customers buy (Zimmerman & Blythe, 2017, p. 236). How consumers create their price perceptions is the most important priority of marketing (Keller, 2013, p. 193).

There are different types of pricing methods that can be used according to pricing strategies and objectives. Customer value pricing, cost-based pricing, and competition-based pricing are the major pricing strategies (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015, p. 291-300; Phillips, 2011, p.44-48). There are other detailed ones such as markup pricing, perceived value pricing, target return pricing, value pricing, going rate pricing, everyday low pricing, and auction type pricing (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 497-502). Market skimming, and market penetration strategies can be chosen for the new product launches (Kotler & Armstrong, 1996, p. 365-366).

With the almost full adoption of the internet in our lives, companies are now working on issues such as dynamic pricing. In this way, companies segment their customers according to different perceptions, needs, and demands and apply dynamic pricing (Keller, 2013, p. 1983). In this way, they can both not lose customers and optimize their profits.

Price is one of the most important market cues and high prices reduce the probability of purchasing because price represents a sacrifice for the consumer. In the study of Lichtenstein et al. in 1993, they mentioned the dual effect of price. The high price means high quality for some consumers, and this increases the purchase probability for consumers. The quality message that the price of the product gives to other people positively affects the purchase intention. In addition, the prominence and status effect of high prices on other people plays a positive role in prestige-sensitive purchase intention. For some customers, price plays a negative role and reduces purchase intention. Likewise, it has a negative effect on purchase intention due to low-quality perception. In

his research, Wolinsky (1983) suggests that prices can act as signals that precisely differentiate the quality levels on hand.

In Munchy's (1996) study, the hypothesis that consumers will tend to lower prices if there is brand parity was moderately supported. A 12-year study conducted by Steenkamp and Olivares (2015) on 1411 Dutch consumers found that consumers see themselves as price-conscious, quality-conscious, and loyal to the brand, and price conscious is the most sensitive variable to environmental conditions. Price wars and the general state of the economy can be given as examples. In the same study, it was observed that quality consciousness increased with increasing age, but there was no change in price consciousness. It has been revealed that quality consciousness has decreased over time. In Morrit's (1999) doctoral research, satisfaction, and quality are found mediators of RI and perceived price. In addition, the brand was found to be the moderator of the same variables, but no moderator effect was found between perceived price-quality. The study by Anderson (1996) finds "a positive association between changes in CS and changes in price tolerance but a negative association between the level of CS and the level of price tolerance". Despite the high satisfaction levels of consumers, if the quality of the closest product is attractive in competitive product categories, the price tolerance (maximum price) may be lower.

Ofir's 2004 study says that according to behavioral pricing, consumers have a U-shaped price acceptability function and have lower and upper price thresholds. However, it is seen that consumers exhibit behaviors that do not comply with these thresholds in theoretical and experimental studies. Involved customers will not risk themselves on price because they examine the brands and their differences in detail. Involvement has a

positive effect on the acceptability of the price. The same study showed that high-income customers exhibited U-shaped behavior, while low-income consumers were product dependent. Consumers with a lower price acceptance level are more price conscious. Price is an important factor in purchasing behavior.

Research by Conseguera et al. (2007) suggests that perceived price fairness affects CS and loyalty, and CS and loyalty are two major ancestors of price acceptance. Price acceptance is the maximum amount the consumer is ready to pay. They also find it surprising that the effect of price on satisfaction has been so little studied. When consumers think of the value of the product, they usually think of the price. Consumers also show repurchase behavior when they think the price is reasonable. Although consumers are satisfied with the product, if they do not feel that their sacrifice is worthwhile, they will not repurchase it.

According to the research results of Bindroo et al. published in 2016; consideration set size and price consciousness together have a moderating effect on satisfaction and RI. The increase in the consideration set numbers reduces the relationship between satisfaction and RI in those who are highly price-conscious (seeking low prices), while there is no change in the others.

The effects of price on quality, satisfaction, loyalty, and RI are affected by many different issues, especially product groups. It will be the first such comprehensive study to include the 4Ps of marketing for the oven product group in Turkey.

3.3. Quality

Product planners should think at three levels when designing their products or service. The first and most fundamental one is "core customer value". It should answer

the question "What is the buyer really buying". At the second level, the planners must convert this core value into an actual product or service. They should improve the brand name, design, and quality level of the product, and in the final stage, planners must create the "augmented product" around the actual product and core benefit. They should do this by adding and offering extra services and benefits (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015, p. 225-226). As it is seen from the product design, quality is one of the main components of the product and marketing as well. Firms deliver the promises with the product and the world around it. Quality is the most important tool for delivering CS and customer value. Quality goes one step ahead and requires more attention when examining the purchasing behavior of customers, especially in durable consumer goods with years of use.

There are many different definitions for quality. Quality according to the technical definition made by the American Society for Quality is "1) the characteristics of a product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs; 2) a product or service free of deficiencies." (American Society for Quality, n.d.). Zeithaml (1988, p. 2) broadly defines quality as "superiority or excellence". Although this is a technical definition, it is also a customer-oriented definition (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 156). Since it implies the needs and satisfaction of the consumers.

According to Garvin (1987, p. 104), the definition of quality should be divided into manageable parts so that quality can be better understood and included in the scope of strategy. Therefore, managers can use this model to manage the quality areas within the strategy they desire. In this context, he suggests an eight-dimensional model. These are "performance, features, reliability, conformance, durability, serviceability, aesthetics, and perceived quality". Perceived quality deserves an explanation here since it is different

from the actual and objective quality. “Perceived quality is defined as the consumer's judgment about the superiority or excellence of a product” (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 5). Brucks et al. (2000, p.361) made another study to elaborate on the quality definition of durable products and six dimensions emerged in this study. These six suggested dimensions are “ease of use, versatility, durability, serviceability, performance, and prestige” (Brucks et al., 2000, p.361). When the two groupings were compared, it is the same in terms of content, although there are differences in the names except for the two areas. Ease of use in Brucks, and conformance in Garvin are the differences.

Various studies show that in addition to technical quality, subjective factors such as perceived quality, price, design, and brand image, all have an influence on customers' perception of quality (Lieb et al., 2008, p. 1). It can be said that companies only serve quality with all mentioned dimensions when they meet or exceed the expectations of consumers. These companies that always meet the needs of their customers are defined as high-quality companies (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 156). Companies have realized that if they want to be successful strategically, they need to abandon their internal quality definitions and become market and customer oriented (Brucks et al., 2000, p. 359; Zhang, 2001, p. 720). But this is not easy. The general concept of quality is insufficient to understand, make the right decision and meet customer needs. Therefore, it will be a better basis to proceed by using the sub-dimensions of quality and examining their relations with other marketing variables (Brucks et al., 2000, p.373; Zeithaml, 1988, p. 22).

PF are one of Garvin's (1987) definition of 8 dimensions of quality. PF also directly affect the quality perception of the product. Fornell (1992) found a high

correlation between quality and satisfaction in the research on the national database for the period covering 1989-1991 in Sweden. CS is not the same across industries, and in some industries, it is even more important for loyalty. In the research conducted by Selnes in 1993 CS, brand reputation and loyalty were strongly correlated with product quality. Research on mobile phones in Slovenia by Snoj et al highlights the need to focus on product quality in order to increase perceived value. In the research conducted by Aburumman and Nieto on PF, CS, and loyalty in the electronic appliances industry in 2019, it was determined that PF have a positive effect on both CS and loyalty. According to the results of the research conducted by Bayır (2020) among white goods brands in Turkey, the quality also affects satisfaction. In another study conducted by Mutlu (2019), it was found that satisfaction with PF increases loyalty. In the study of Dörtyol (2015), quality was found to be the first factor affecting purchasing decisions and as the income group increases, the importance given to quality also increases. Quality becomes an important factor due to the expensive and long-term use of white goods. Although the brand also represents the perception of quality, the perception of quality can override the brand when making a decision.

For the oven product line, the effect of quality on CS and RI and the mediator effects of sociodemographic factors will be explored in this research. Although other studies have been carried out for general white goods, this research for ovens will be the first.

3.4. After-Sale Services

According to Kotler and Armstrong's (2015, p. 246) product planning definition, companies try to find answers to the question of what customers actually buy at the most

basic level. It's called core customer value. Afterward, the actual product, which includes elements such as brand, packaging, design, quality, and then the augmented product, which includes elements such as ASS, product support, and warranty are designed. Each layer contributes to the design and construction of this core value.

Brand performances and strong brand positioning are based on the advantages created by the performance of products. If there are deficiencies in the performance of the products, it is not possible to solve this with the brand. Five important benefits and attributes that determine brand performance are "primary ingredients and supplementary features, product reliability, durability, and serviceability, service effectiveness, efficiency, empathy, style, design, and price (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.113).

When determining the needs and satisfaction of customers, it is seen that customers are generally concerned about three issues with the durables. These are the reliability of the product and the frequency of failure, downtime, repair, and maintenance costs. (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.444). According to Murali et al. (2016, p. 69), after-sales services should consider activities, such as guaranteeing the continuous operation of the product in case of failure, solving problems faced by customers, supporting customers during product use, assisting customers at the end of the product lifecycle, increasing CS. Generally, ASS involve many activities and may be provided in various formats such as technical advice, maintenance/repair, spare parts delivery, product upgrading, and so on.

Service quality can be defined as the ability of a company to meet or exceed customer expectations. Especially important in services is the quality perceived by the customer. Customers consider quality together with product reliability and after-sales service reliability (Güllülü & Bilgili, 2011, p. 24). The service has four key features.

These features are "intangibility, inseparability, variability, and perishability" (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015, p. 237; Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 442). Alongside the promised quality products, customers increasingly expect the delivery of certain non-physical services throughout the entire product lifecycle (Murali et al., 2016, p. 69). Customers evaluate the quality of service on multiple dimensions. These dimensions are for service businesses, but many of them are also about judging the service component of a product. It shows that customers perceive all five dimensions of service quality to be very important, regardless of the type of service being evaluated. These are tangibles, reliability, responsiveness assurance, and empathy (Walker & Mullins, 2014, p. 253; Murali et al., 2016, p. 69; Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 442).

The distribution and ASS quality of a product play a major role in the purchasing decisions of consumers (Güllülü & Bilgili, 2011, p. 25). When differences in physical products cannot be easily created, the key competitive advantage can be in value-creating services and increasing the quality of these services. It is not enough to produce and sell the product. Therefore, companies tend to make a difference with services instead of the physical features of their products in order to gain a competitive advantage.

Transportation, delivery, assembly, maintenance-repair of products, training of customers, consulting customers, returns, after-sales customer service. Companies that make good quality products but provide poor service in today's global business world are seriously disadvantaged (Güllülü & Bilgili, 2011, p. 23; Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 394).

The profit brought by the ASS to the businesses is more than the product sales. This profit can reach three times the profit obtained on the first sale of a product during its lifetime (Güllülü & Bilgili, 2011, p.26).

Durable consumer goods need to be supported with ASS due to their longevity and being operated in different geographical regions and conditions. (Güllülü & Bilgili, 2011, p.26). The white goods sector is one of the first sectors that come to mind in terms of ASS (Cıranoglu, 2019, p.68).

White goods are an important part of our daily life, by helping us continue our lives. Their costs also have an important place in the budget relatively. In this context, the speed, quality, and cost of the service are very important for consumers and can be decisive at the decision point. (Cıranoglu 2019, p.68). Producers and marketers should determine these needs of consumers correctly and put them in order of interest and importance.

Studies conducted by Kuo et al on mobile services in 2009, on automobiles by Shokoohyar et al. (2020), and on home appliances by Murali et al (2015) have shown that ASS affect CS, loyalty, and RI. In the research conducted by Cıranoglu on the Turkish white goods industry in 2019, it has been seen that ASS have a positive effect on CS. According to the results of the research by Güllülü & Bilgili (2011), it has been determined that technical quality and functional quality have an effect on CS. In their study on service quality, Zeithaml et al (1996), consumers' behavioral intentions show that they are affected by the quality of service and solving service problems has an impact on consumers' remain-or-defect behavior and thus on firm financials. In the research conducted by Pul (2019) on customer complaints in the white goods sector, 83% of consumers stated that they do not intend to buy the same product again if the information is not provided in case of need.

According to the results of the research done by Korkmaz (2001), it is seen that the participants evaluate and consider the ASS activities in the purchasing process. While consumers buy domestic brands, they give more importance to ASS. ASS are very important for white goods since products may require support for installation and can be used for many years. By definition, white goods represent a wide range of products, and not every product requires the same degree of ASS. This may affect the satisfaction and RIs of consumers differently for each sub-product group.

For the oven product line, the effect of ASS on satisfaction and RI and mediator effects of sociodemographic factors will be explored in this research.

3.5. Consumer Ethnocentrism

According to the Cambridge Dictionary, ethnocentrism is "the belief that the people, customs, and traditions of your own race or country are better than those of other races or countries" ("Ethnocentrism", n.d.). Prejudices of consumers against imported products or preferring domestic products are named under different concepts such as economic nationalism, consumer ethnocentrism (COE), and cultural prejudices against foreign products. The basis of all these terms is the concept of ethnocentrism (Sharma et al., 1995, p. 26).

Some important factors affecting ethnocentric tendencies are patriotism, conservatism, cultural similarity, openness to cultures, individuality/collectivism, interest in traveling abroad, gender, age, income and education level, international relations, the production quality of the country, and economic conditions in the country (Özdemir et al., 2018, p.357-359).

The definition of consumer ethnocentrism that Shimp and Sharma came up with in their study on consumer behavior in 1987 is "the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products". Important consequences of consumer ethnocentricity include overestimating domestic products or underestimating foreign products, feeling a moral obligation to buy domestic products, and preferring domestic products first (Sharma et al., 1995, p. 27; Huddleston et al., 2001, p. 238). The consumer's pride in the domestic product, and the intention to contribute to the country's economy by purchasing a domestic product at the time of purchase will have a negative effect on the tendency to purchase imports (Arslan, 2020, p.3309).

Almost all of the foreign ovens sold in Turkey are imported from the EU and the USA. However, important foreign brands also have production in Turkey. Therefore, understanding the COE together with the COO is important for this research, especially for the ovens. COO can broadly be defined as "any influence, positive or negative, that the country of manufacture might have on the consumer's choice processes or subsequent behavior" (Elliott & Cameron, 1994, p.50).

In some studies, the COO is defined as an external factor that reduces risk or gives a clue about quality in consumer decision-making. The image of the country the product belongs to and the trust in that country are as effective as other factors when consumers make their purchasing decision (Arslan, 2020, p.3309; Hui & Zhou, 2003, p. 137). In some other research, the COO appears to be a more important factor that determines the purchasing behavior of consumers than the brand and price or quality (Watson & Wright, 2000, p. 1151; Arslan, 2020, p.3306). In some studies, the brand and

other external factors precede the COO in quality perception and become more important (Hui & Zhou, 2003, p. 135). COO has different influences between well-known brands and lesser-known brands (Koubaa, 2008, p. 151). Research on this topic has produced mixed results (Maheswaran, 1994, p. 354).

Due to increasing globalization, international production, and outsourcing, it is difficult to know where the products are produced and the COO. Parts of the products come from different countries and the final product is created in one country (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 262). Consumers sometimes think of the country of the product's brand as the COO of the product, regardless of the country in which the product is manufactured. For example, consumers view the Sony Walkman as a Japanese product, regardless of whether it was manufactured in Malaysia (Chao, 1998, p.1). Although these complexities, according to a study, a significant portion of consumers said that they were curious about the COO of the product they would buy (Elliott & Cameron, 1994, p.51).

COO, perceived quality, perceived risk, data processing, and purchase intentions are all related to each other (Elliott & Cameron, 1994, p.51; Arslan, 2020, p.3307).

In the research conducted by Kouba (2008), it was seen that the COO has an effect on the brand. In the study conducted by Hong and Wyer in 1989, the COO indirectly makes an evaluation of the quality of the product. The research by Monica et al (2020) found that the COO has a positive effect on CS and loyalty. In a study conducted by Elliot and Cameron in 1994, it was determined that the COO effect comes after PF, price, and quality. If there is no distinctive quality difference between the products, the COO is used as the quality index. Similar results were obtained in the study conducted by Hui and Zhou in 2001.

According to the results of the research conducted by Köroğlu and Yıldız among Turkish white goods consumers in 2022; the country image has a positive effect on product judgment and willingness to buy, and a negative effect on COE; COE has a negative effect on willingness to buy domestic products, and product judgments have a positive effect; It has been concluded that COE and product judgments have a mediating role in the relationship between country image and willingness to buy domestic products. As a result of the meta-analysis by Guo and Zhou covering 15.585 samples between 1987 and 2014, it was revealed that COE had a positive effect on domestic product judgment and willingness to purchase domestic products, while it had a negative effect on foreign product judgment. However, there was no negative effect on the willingness to buy foreign products. In addition, it has been seen that the effects of COE on domestic and foreign product judgment and willingness to buy domestic and foreign products are moderated by the economic level of countries, culture, and consumer type. Yen's (2018) research results showed that there is a relationship between the willingness to buy domestic products and perceived brand image, perceived price, and ethnocentrism. According to the results of the same research, COE has a significant moderating effect between other variables and willingness to buy domestic products. In the research conducted by Wang and Chen on Chinese consumers in 2004, the perception of quality is at the top of the criteria and when consumers evaluate domestic products as lower quality, the effect of ethnocentrism on consumer willingness to buy domestic products tends to be weaker. In a 2001 study of Polish consumers by Huddleston et al, CE, COO and the necessity of the product affect perceived quality. According to Özdemir et al.'s (2018) research on the Turkish white goods sector, there is a weak negative relationship

between COE and perceived brand personalities and purchase intention. On the other hand, a high positive correlation was observed between the perception of brand personalities and purchase intention. In the research conducted by Bayır (2020), RI differs according to domestic/foreign white goods brand preference. According to Watson and Right's (1999) study, high COE consumers evaluate the products of countries they see as culturally close, more positively. According to the results of their research by Elliott and Acharya (2003), although the correlations between the COE and the perceived quality of local products and the choice of local products were positive, the results were found to be only moderate. As a result, it is thought that for the majority of the population, consumer ethnocentrism cannot be an important factor affecting the selection process.

For the oven product line, the effect of COE on CS and RI and the mediator effects of sociodemographic factors will be explored in this research. Although other studies have been carried out for general white goods, such a study for ovens will be the first.

3.6. Customer Satisfaction

The first definition of satisfaction in The Cambridge Dictionary is "a pleasant feeling that you get when you receive something you wanted, or when you have done something, you wanted to do" and the second definition is "satisfaction is also the condition of having a desire or need to be fulfilled" ("Satisfaction", n.d.). According to Kotler & Keller's (2016, p. 153) definition of satisfaction is "a person's feelings of pleasure or disappointment that result from comparing a product or service's perceived performance (or outcome) to expectations".

Many theories have been developed over time to explain CS, such as expectancy-disconfirmation, value-precept, attribution, equity, comparison level, evaluation congruity, dissonance, and contrast theories. Expectancy-disconfirmation is the most accepted theory among researchers (Yüksel, & Yüksel, 2008, p. 95).

CS has a central place in the world of marketing. It results from marketing activities and is very important. Satisfaction serves to associate processes that result in purchasing with post-purchase concepts such as repurchasing, attitude change, and brand loyalty. The centrality of the notion was in the making of profits through the satisfaction of consumer needs and wants (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982, p. 491).

The literature on satisfaction says there are different types of expectations (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982, p. 492). Consumers shape their expectations in relation to the brand's past shopping experiences, cumulative experiences of past consumptions, publicly available information, marketing communications, ideas from friends, peers, marketers, information from competitors, and other alternatives (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.155; Yi & La, 2004, p.355). Consumers' expectations from products and services also affect their level of satisfaction.

The ultimate goal of companies is to provide high CS and at the same time to offer acceptable profits to other stakeholders who provide resources (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.153). It is critical for companies to maintain and increase the loyalty of their existing customers for their profitability (Walker & Mullins, 2014, p. 276; Awan & Rehman, 2014, p. 19; Yi & La, 2004, p.368; Bindroo et al., 2016, p. 115). In addition, companies are under pressure to balance CS on the one hand and productivity on the other (Aaker, 1991, p. 26). The quality of products and services, CS, and company

financials are closely related. As the quality increases, CS increases, which affects prices, costs, and profitability (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.157). This situation leads companies to question the effects on sales and profitability if they increase the quality of products and services in order to increase CS (Walker & Mullins, 2014, p. 275).

However, in today's challenging competitive world, it is not possible to be successful by focusing only on CS. While focusing on satisfaction, it is necessary to successfully manage and develop other internal and external areas such as product, quality, perceived value, corporate image, etc. to survive (Hu et al., 2009, p. 121).

CS depends on factors such as product performance, quality, price, distribution, service quality, and emotion (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.156; Aimee, 2019, p. 828-832). If the expectations are set too high, the level of satisfaction may remain low even if a high-quality service or product is offered to the consumers.

There is a strong probability between the satisfaction of consumers and their repurchase behavior. Loyalty and satisfaction are strongly correlated. Satisfaction will make the consumers less sensitive to the offerings of competitors. When consumers are satisfied with the product or service, their loyalty will form, and they will tell other people good things. They will become brand advocates (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.151; Aimee, 2019, p. 828; Awan & Rehman, 2014, p. 20; Fečiková, 2004, p. 57). This will have a positive impact on the financials of the companies.

CS is considered the predecessor of RI. However, it is now being discussed that a high CS level does not cause higher repurchases. For this reason, it can be said that the relationship between CS and RI has become more complex (Yi and La, 2004, p.352; Bindroo et al., 2016, p. 115). In the article published by Jones & Sasser in 1995, it has

been shown that there is not always a relationship between the level of satisfaction and repurchase, according to the results of the analysis for different product groups.

According to the research conducted by Mittal and Kamakura (2001) on 100.040 automobile users, it is seen that consumers have different thresholds according to their characteristics, and the repurchase rates are different between different customer groups at the same satisfaction level. Women's satisfaction scores are higher than men's, and those with high school or lower education have higher satisfaction scores than those with a university or higher education level.

In the study conducted by Anderson and Sullivan (1993) on 22.300 customers covering the years 1989-1990, contrary to what is said in the literature, it has been found that expectations do not affect satisfaction. Perceived quality that falls below expectations has a higher impact than quality that exceeds expectations. According to the results of Churchill and Suprenant's 1982 study, neither disconfirmation nor initial expectations for durable goods affected satisfaction. on the contrary, satisfaction was determined only by the performance of the product.

3.7. Repurchase Intention

One of the definitions for purchase intention is “the decision to act or physiological action that shows an individual's behavior according to the product” (Rezvani et al., 2012, p. 206).

The decision process of buyers has five stages: “need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision, and post-purchase behavior”. The purchasing process starts long before the purchasing process and continues much later. Consumers often skip or rearrange some of these stages in their routine purchases. While

consumers are in the evaluation stage, they rank the alternatives and form their purchase intentions. (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015, pp. 152-154). A significant number of studies confirm that intentions; and more specifically purchase intentions are positively associated with behavior (Morwitz, 2012, p. 188). Psychology and marketing research have come up with three main topics for the reasons for the differences between stated intentions and actual purchases. (1) stating intentions with systematic biases, (2) changes in explanatory variables that cause actual intentions to change over time, (3) the imperfect relationship between intentions and action (Sun & Morwitz, 2010, p. 356).

The consumer will either be satisfied or not after purchasing the product. They will exhibit post-purchase behaviors that are of interest to marketing professionals (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015, p.154). Regardless of what the products are, the main marketing concern is to increase the likelihood of repurchasing (Aaker, 1991, p.203). Consumers' stated purchase intentions are a primary source of input for marketers. Marketers use this information when evaluating the impact of marketing activities on consumer behavior and predicting future sales (Morwitz, 2012, p. 182-183; Yi & La, 2004, p. 352). Despite reaching their desired CS level, the companies did not achieve the repurchase they sought. Higher CS and satisfied customers do not guarantee higher repurchase behavior. The re-purchase behavior is affected by cumulative satisfaction rather than individual periodic satisfaction (Yi and La, 2004, p.353-354).

Purchasing intentions can be used as a tool to predict sales in the short run, but not in the long run. In the meta-analysis study, a high correlation is found in the short run, but it decreases as the maturity gets longer (Morwitz, 2012, p. 207; Morwitz et al., 2007,

p. 361). A positive linear relationship was found between purchase intentions and purchasing behavior for durable goods, while a segmented linear relationship was found for non-durable goods. Purchase intentions are less stable with less involvement or cheaper products. (Morrison, 1979, p. 72; Morwitz, 2012, p. 199; Morwitz et al., 2007, p. 361). Purchasing intentions and purchasing behavior; In existing products (compared to new products), certain brands and models (compared to general product groups), trial rates measurement (compared to total market sales), comparative mode collection (compared to monadically) are much correlated (Morwitz et al., 2007, p. 361).

Brand loyalty has been measured often purely by purchasing behavior. For consumer durables, when the same brand is purchased twice in a row, it is often considered evidence of loyalty, although there are longer purchase sequences studied (Newman & Werbel, 1973, p. 404; Bayus, 1992, p. 22). Most studies have measured loyalty as a high proportion of same brand choice, and high RI. These studies also implicitly assumed this as the character of loyal customers (Yi and La, 2004, p. 352). From this perspective, loyalty is also a very important concept that defines the RI.

4. METHODOLOGY

In this part of the thesis, the research objective and model, research hypotheses, research samples and participants, questionnaire design, and data collection techniques are explained.

4.1. Research Objective, Model, and Hypotheses

The research objective and model aimed to analyze the RIs of ovens, which is one of the product groups that attract less attention in the white goods sector. In this thesis, factors affecting the links between CS and their RIs, and the factors affecting oven purchase decisions were examined. The independent variables in the research are brand, price, COE, ASS, and PF. The effects of these variables on CS and RI were modeled. The mediating effect of CS and moderating effects of sociodemographic factors such as age, gender, education level, income level, and brands whether it is domestic or foreign were analyzed. There are studies that examine these variables and relationships separately in the literature, but there is no study that examines them together. As a result, this study is distinct and different from others. It will make a very significant contribution to the marketing literature and the white goods sector.

The collected data and hypotheses were tested using the structural equation modeling (SEM), which is widely used in marketing and social sciences. It is one of the most important multivariate statistical analysis techniques. It is a method that allows to assess the relationships between the observed variables and latent variables. Latent variables are variables that cannot be observed or measured directly but observed or measured indirectly using tests, and questionnaires. Observed or indicator variables, on the other hand, are variables used to identify or infer the latent variable or structure. SEM

analysis allows to examine the causality between the variables, to make predictions, and to test the hypotheses (Fornell & Larcker, 1981, p. 39; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004, p. 3). The purpose of SEM is to determine whether the theoretical model is confirmed by the sample dataset (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004, p. 2; Astrachan et al., 2014, p. 1). To be able to perform data analysis and hypothesis testing with the SEM method, which is a correlation method that requires the data must be quantitative (Hair et al., 2017, p.53; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004, p. 34). There are two widely used methods of SEM. These are covariance based (CB-SEM) and partial least squares (variance) based (PLS-SEM). In this research covariance base (CB-SEM) method was used.

Before creating the hypotheses, a detailed literature review was completed, expert opinions were obtained, and the following hypotheses were formed as a result of these.

H1: Brand affects customer satisfaction

H2: Price affects customer satisfaction

H3: Quality affects customer satisfaction

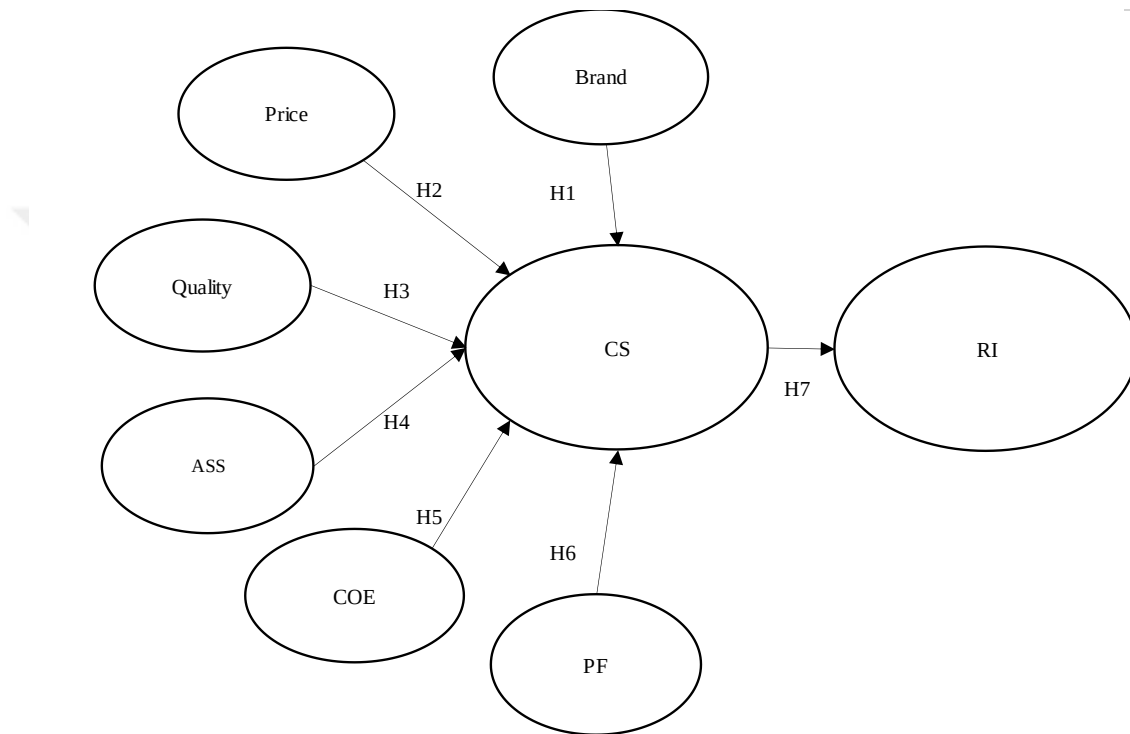
H4: After-sales services affect customer satisfaction

H5: Consumer ethnocentrism affects customer satisfaction

H6: Product features affect customer satisfaction

H7: Customer satisfaction affects repurchase intention

The model proposed in the light of these hypotheses is given in figure 1.

Figure 1*Proposed Research Model*

4.2. Research Samples and Participants

The research focused on oven consumers in Turkey and samples were selected using the convenient sampling method, a nonprobability sampling method.

In SEM analyses made with diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS) with binary or ordinal data, 200-500 samples are sufficient (Newsom, 2020, p.1-2; Kyriazos, 2018, p. 2216-2218; Forero et al., 2009, p. 629; Bandalos, 2014, p. 104; Civelek, 2018, p. 41).

Since the Covid-19 pandemic is still ongoing, no face-to-face surveys were conducted. Instead, the survey was conducted online, using social media and mobile apps, and completed with 384 people in various parts of Turkey. Sociodemographic analyzes of the participants are analyzed in section 5.2.

4.3. Questionnaire Design and Data Collection

The survey method was used as a data collection tool to get the primary data within the scope of the research. Each of the constructs and items used within the research was taken from scientific studies that had previously been tested for reliability and validity. A 5-point Likert scale “from strongly agree to strongly disagree” was used for all scales. All fields in the questionnaire have been made mandatory. The questionnaire consists of 10 sections and 47 questions, including demographic variables. To measure the satisfaction and RIs of the consumers, the oven brand they purchased last, was asked. Demographic questions about consumers were added to the questionnaire and multiple-choice questions were asked to make it easy to answer and analyze. The questionnaire items were prepared in English and then translated into Turkish.

A pilot survey study was conducted on a group of 30 people. After the feedback, changes were made to the Turkish questionnaire questions. A final survey was conducted with 384 people in Turkey.

The questions, constructs, and references that form the basis of the survey are given in Table 1.

Table 1*Latent Variables, Items and References*

Variables	Items *	Reference
Brand	1-5	(Muncy, 1996)
Price	6-9	(Steenkamp & Maydeu-Olivares, 2015; Ailawadi et al., 2008)
Quality	10-13	(Steenkamp & Maydeu-Olivares, 2015; Ailawadi et al., 2008)
ASS	14-16	(Parasuraman et al., 1988)
COE	17-23	(Shimp & Sharma, 1987)
PF	24-32	(Verhoef et al., 2007; Mittal et al., 1999; Brucks et al. 2000; Snoj et al 2004; Gencer, 2018)
CS	33-35	(Oliver & Swan, 1989; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Oliver, 1993; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver et al., 1997; Mattila & Wirtz, 2001)
RI	36-40	(Heitmann et al., 2007)

Note. See Appendix A

5. RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1. Data Preparation

In order to perform SEM analysis, it is necessary to first examine the missing data, inconsistent, straight lining, or extreme responses, and data distribution (Hair et al., 2017, p.53).

Since all fields in the questionnaire are required to fill mandatory, there is no missing data. In the first controls, it was observed that 3 participants gave the same answer to all questions and were excluded from the analysis. Since the questions "In my opinion, there are big differences between various oven brands" and "I don't focus on the price when buying ovens" should be answered inversely compared to the other questions in the group to which they belong, they were re-coded as 1=5, 5=1 and analyzed.

5.2. Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants

Forty-nine and seven-tenths percent of the survey participants are women and 50,3% are men. Sixty-three and seven-tenths percent of them are married, 27,3% of them are single and the rest are divorced, widowed or participants who do not state their marital status. When the age groups were analyzed, it is seen that the 25-45 age range constitutes 45% of the total participants. According to the education level, the largest group is high school graduates with 38,3%, followed by university graduates with 28,9%. Those with a net monthly income of 6,000 TL or less constitute 76,5% of the total participants. Single people make up 4,2% of the total participants, 13,8% with 2 people, and 82% with 3 or more people. Detailed statistics of the participants are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants

	Categories	n	%
Gender	Women	191	49,7
	Men	193	50,3
	Total	384	100,0
Marital Status	Married	245	63,8
	Single	105	27,3
	Divorced	20	5,2
	Widowed	12	3,1
	Not disclosed	2	0,5
	Total	384	100,0
Age	18-24	38	9,9
	25-34	88	22,9
	35-44	85	22,1
	45-54	70	18,2
	55-64	53	13,8
	65 and above	50	13,0
	Total	384	100,0
Education ⁽¹⁾	Primary School	38	9,9
	Secondary School	36	9,4
	High School	147	38,3
	Associate Degree	41	10,7
	Bachelor's degree	111	28,9
	Master's or Doctoral degree	11	2,9
	Total	384	100,0
Income ⁽²⁾	Less than 3000 TL	133	34,6
	3001 – 6000 TL	161	41,9
	6001 – 9000 TL	47	12,2
	9001 – 12000 TL	20	5,2
	12001 – 15000 TL	3	0,8
	15.001 TL and above	3	0,8
	Not disclosed	17	4,4
	Total	384	100,0
Residents	Single	16	4,2
	2 people	53	13,8
	3 people	98	25,5
	4 people	123	32,0
	5 people	51	13,3
	6 people	27	7,0
	7 people and above	16	4,2
	Total	384	100,0

Note. 1- Highest degree or level of school completed

Note. 2- Monthly net income

5.3. Descriptive Statistics for Latent Variables

Descriptive statistics: mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis for all variables observed in the research are given in Table 3.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics for Latent Variables

Latent Variables	Items	Mean	Std.Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Brand	B1	3,21	1,43	-0,22	-1,21
	B2	3,47	1,39	-0,44	-1,04
	B3	2,86	1,11	0,04	-0,59
	B4	3,04	1,46	-0,04	-1,34
	B5	3,32	1,33	-0,35	-0,96
	Brand	15,90	5,13	-0,20	-0,56
Price	P1	3,62	1,30	-0,59	-0,67
	P2	3,82	1,23	-0,77	-0,40
	P3	2,90	1,43	0,08	-1,23
	P4	3,27	1,27	0,10	-1,28
	Price	13,61	3,83	-0,37	-0,09
Quality	Q1	3,71	1,29	-0,76	-0,42
	Q2	3,54	1,25	-0,54	-0,61
	Q3	3,49	1,29	-0,50	-0,74
	Q4	3,72	1,23	-0,70	-0,43
	Quality	14,46	4,43	-0,60	-0,28
ASS	ASS1	4,14	1,16	-1,33	0,92
	ASS2	4,10	1,12	-1,21	0,72
	ASS3	4,15	1,09	-1,30	1,05
	ASS	12,40	3,06	-1,21	1,02
COE	COE1	3,44	1,34	-0,40	-0,93
	COE2	2,62	1,35	0,33	-0,95
	COE3	3,43	1,33	-0,35	-0,96
	COE4	3,08	1,36	-0,04	-1,12
	COE5	2,59	1,38	0,31	-1,12
	COE6	3,32	1,31	-0,27	-0,95
	COE7	3,07	1,41	-0,10	-1,20
	COE	21,55	7,16	-0,08	-0,50
PF	PF1	3,10	1,43	-0,12	-1,25
	PF2	4,34	1,01	-1,66	2,26
	PF3	4,39	0,97	-1,82	3,06
	PF4	4,24	1,06	-1,50	1,69
	PF5	4,08	1,11	-1,16	0,62
	PF6	4,28	1,02	-1,55	2,00
	PF7	4,45	0,96	-2,04	3,86

	PF8	4,22	1,10	-1,41	1,27
	PF9	4,34	1,00	-1,57	1,93
	PF	37,44	7,54	-1,53	2,80
CS	CS1	4,13	1,15	-1,44	1,34
	CS2	4,08	1,11	-1,30	1,11
	CS3	4,06	1,13	-1,24	0,90
	CS	12,27	3,19	-1,30	1,23
RI	RI1	3,88	1,28	-1,03	0,02
	RI2	3,15	1,37	-0,20	-1,11
	RI3	3,50	1,30	-0,56	-0,72
	RI4	3,41	1,35	-0,42	-0,92
	RI5	3,39	1,33	-0,43	-0,87
	RI	17,33	4,82	-0,54	0,08

5.4. Normality Tests

The distribution assumption is very important in statistics and there are many different types of distributions. The normal distribution is generally preferred in the statistical analysis (Hair et al., 2017, p.9). The test method to be used in the research, whether parametric or nonparametric, is decided by looking at whether the variables are normally distributed (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011, p. 150). Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests can be used to test whether the data is normally distributed. Also, kurtosis and skewness can be used to analyze how far the data deviate from normality (Hair et al., 2017, p.9).

The convergence of excess kurtosis and skewness to zero indicates that the distribution is distributed normally. According to a general skewness rule, values between +1 and -1 can be considered acceptable range values, while values outside of these values can be considered as an indication of skewness. In kurtosis, values above +1 indicate a very peak distribution, and values below -1 indicate a flattened distribution. Distributions outside these value ranges are considered nonnormal (Hair et al., 2017, p.9;

George & Mallery, 2020, p. 114-15). In other words, if the absolute values of kurtosis and/or skewness are greater than 1, this indicates a nonnormal distribution (Hair et al., 2017, p.58). A value of ± 2.0 for skewness and kurtosis is also acceptable in most cases. However, it should not be forgotten that these values are just guidelines and there may be different criteria (George & Mallery, 2020, p. 114-15).

The tests of the Shapiro–Wilk and the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test the null hypothesis that the data is normally distributed. Rejecting these tests indicates that the data is not normally distributed. If the Kolmogorov–Smirnov or Shapiro tests indicate that the data are not normally distributed, nonparametric tests which do not make assumptions about the distribution should be used (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011, p. 119-120).

Normality test results for latent variables and their items are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Normality Tests for Latent Variables and Their Items

Latent Variables	Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		Shapiro-Wilk	
		Statistic	Sig.	Statistic	Sig.
Brand	B1	0,154	0,00	0,876	0,00
	B2	0,195	0,00	0,861	0,00
	B3	0,193	0,00	0,914	0,00
	B4	0,147	0,00	0,878	0,00
	B5	0,176	0,00	0,888	0,00
	Brand	0,071	0,00	0,972	0,00
Price	P1	0,198	0,00	0,857	0,00
	P2	0,231	0,00	0,836	0,00
	P3	0,150	0,00	0,880	0,00
	P4	0,190	0,00	0,872	0,00
	Price	0,098	0,00	0,966	0,00
Quality	Q1	0,208	0,00	0,836	0,00
	Q2	0,187	0,00	0,877	0,00
	Q3	0,186	0,00	0,878	0,00
	Q4	0,201	0,00	0,856	0,00
	Quality	0,106	0,00	0,928	0,00
ASS	ASS1	0,307	0,00	0,742	0,00

	ASS2	0,282	0,00	0,773	0,00
	ASS3	0,297	0,00	0,757	0,00
	ASS	0,230	0,00	0,813	0,00
COE	COE1	0,179	0,00	0,872	0,00
	COE2	0,174	0,00	0,874	0,00
	COE3	0,178	0,00	0,878	0,00
	COE4	0,156	0,00	0,893	0,00
	COE5	0,198	0,00	0,868	0,00
	COE6	0,155	0,00	0,890	0,00
	COE7	0,149	0,00	0,884	0,00
	COE	0,061	0,00	0,979	0,00
PF	PF1	0,143	0,00	0,881	0,00
	PF2	0,348	0,00	0,689	0,00
	PF3	0,364	0,00	0,665	0,00
	PF4	0,319	0,00	0,723	0,00
	PF5	0,278	0,00	0,782	0,00
	PF6	0,322	0,00	0,718	0,00
	PF7	0,387	0,00	0,622	0,00
	PF8	0,330	0,00	0,724	0,00
	PF9	0,356	0,00	0,696	0,00
	PF	0,158	0,00	0,850	0,00
CS	CS1	0,273	0,00	0,740	0,00
	CS2	0,253	0,00	0,773	0,00
	CS3	0,257	0,00	0,779	0,00
	CS	0,208	0,00	0,808	0,00
RI	RI1	0,236	0,00	0,796	0,00
	RI2	0,156	0,00	0,888	0,00
	RI3	0,204	0,00	0,872	0,00
	RI4	0,164	0,00	0,873	0,00
	RI5	0,177	0,00	0,880	0,00
	RI	0,078	0,00	0,960	0,00

When the skewness and kurtosis data were examined, it is seen that they do not diverge from the normal distribution, except for the PF, and they remain within the limits of ± 2 . But the p-values of items and constructs are smaller than the significance level ($p < 0,05$), so the normality assumption is rejected.

Since the structure of the variables was ordinal and the construct items and sums did not provide the assumption of normality, SEM analysis was performed using the diagonally weighted least squares estimation method.

5.5. Reliability Analyses

“In statistics and psychometrics, reliability is the overall consistency of a measure. A measure is said to have high reliability if it produces similar results under consistent conditions” (“Reliability (statistics),” n.d.). No single item is perfect for measuring a structure. Therefore, we should rely on a set of measures that assess reliability. These are single items, Cronbach's Alpha, and CFA measures (Hair et al., 2018, p. 161).

5.5.1. Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha is a measure of internal consistency of the scale and its items. Cronbach's Alpha is a coefficient that takes values between 0 and 1 and tests the internal consistency of the scales. Numbers 0,7 and above indicate that the scales are acceptable. Thanks to the Cronbach's Alpha value calculated on the basis of items in the scale, predictions can be developed on how the reliability of the scale can be improved (Peterson, 1994, p. 381; Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011, p. 220-21; Hair et al., 2018, p. 161).

Cronbach's Alpha values of scales are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Reliability Analysis for Latent Variables - Cronbach's Alpha

Latent Variables	Items	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
Brand	B1	0,775	0,817
	B2	0,776	
	B3	0,832	
	B4	0,762	

	B5	0,749	
Price	P1	0,488	
	P2	0,555	0,711
	P3	0,724	
	P4	0,772	
Quality	Q1	0,862	
	Q2	0,874	0,898
	Q3	0,863	
	Q4	0,874	
ASS	ASS1	0,874	
	ASS2	0,873	0,896
	ASS3	0,808	
COE	COE1	0,852	
	COE2	0,868	
	COE3	0,843	
	COE4	0,844	0,875
	COE5	0,862	
	COE6	0,848	
	COE7	0,878	
PF	PF1	0,945	
	PF2	0,900	
	PF3	0,899	
	PF4	0,901	
	PF5	0,907	0,916
	PF6	0,902	
	PF7	0,902	
	PF8	0,903	
	PF9	0,900	
CS	CS1	0,908	
	CS2	0,928	0,937
	CS3	0,886	
RI	RI1	0,689	
	RI2	0,732	
	RI3	0,795	0,775
	RI4	0,738	
	RI5	0,705	
All			0,934

The reliability of the questionnaire is quite high ($>0,7$) for both the latent variables and the whole. However, when “Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted” values are

examined, it is seen that the scale consistency increases if the questions B3, P3, P4, COE7, PF1 and RI3 are removed.

5.5.2. Latent Variables' Items

In addition to this analysis, the correlation between the items should also be examined. The relevant analysis is given in Table 6.

Table 6

Reliability Analysis for Latent Variables' Items

Latent Variables	Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation
Brand	B1	12,69	16,85	0,630	0,435
	B2	12,43	17,13	0,627	0,446
	B3	13,04	20,97	0,404	0,205
	B4	12,86	16,28	0,669	0,470
	B5	12,58	16,75	0,715	0,519
Price	P1	9,99	7,63	0,743	0,660
	P2	9,79	8,45	0,656	0,609
	P3	10,71	9,27	0,384	0,224
	P4	10,34	10,75	0,273	0,126
Quality	Q1	10,75	11,12	0,790	0,627
	Q2	10,93	11,58	0,757	0,578
	Q3	10,97	11,19	0,787	0,624
	Q4	10,74	11,72	0,759	0,581
ASS	ASS1	8,26	4,34	0,771	0,616
	ASS2	8,29	4,50	0,770	0,617
	ASS3	8,24	4,34	0,846	0,717
COE	COE1	18,11	38,11	0,687	0,608
	COE2	18,93	39,84	0,566	0,374
	COE3	18,12	37,19	0,762	0,650
	COE4	18,47	37,02	0,746	0,569
	COE5	18,96	38,74	0,617	0,424
	COE6	18,23	37,84	0,724	0,572
	COE7	18,48	40,38	0,496	0,289
PF	PF1	34,34	49,06	0,290	0,114
	PF2	33,10	44,89	0,812	0,727
	PF3	33,05	45,04	0,841	0,788
	PF4	33,20	44,49	0,796	0,721
	PF5	33,36	45,12	0,706	0,632
	PF6	33,17	45,14	0,780	0,671

	PF7	32,99	45,63	0,799	0,733
	PF8	33,22	44,59	0,757	0,651
	PF9	33,10	45,02	0,815	0,738
CS	CS1	8,14	4,59	0,869	0,769
	CS2	8,19	4,83	0,842	0,715
	CS3	8,21	4,58	0,897	0,806
RI	RI1	13,45	14,83	0,682	0,474
	RI2	14,17	15,36	0,553	0,364
	RI3	13,83	17,63	0,355	0,166
	RI4	13,92	15,65	0,536	0,312
	RI5	13,94	14,96	0,633	0,423

Cristobal et al, (2007, p.237), retained the corrected item-total correlation of 0,3 and the above items at the scale, Wolfenbarger & Gilly (2003, p. 190), Loiacono et al., (2007, p. 62) retained the items that are above 0,4 and Hair et al., (2018, p. 161) suggested 0,5 to improve the Cronbach Alpha value. None of these values are generally accepted values, but they are accepted and used in practice.

The correlation values of P3 (0,384), P4 (0,273), PF1(0,290) and RI3 (0,355) are less than 0,4. B3 (0,404) value slightly above 0,4, and COE7 (0,496) is slightly below the 0,5 threshold. If these questions are removed Cronbach's Alpha values become higher. Since Cronbach's Alpha values were high (>0,7) in general, it was not considered necessary to delete the question in the first place.

5.5.3. CFA Measures

In addition to these, the composite reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted (AVE) analyses will also be considered in order to measure reliability in CFA. The reliability and the improvement of the scales in the research model will be re-evaluated according to the validity results in the next parts of the analyses.

5.6. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The mathematical and logical foundations for factor analysis were laid in the early 1900s to test the nature of intelligence. It has become the first choice for many researchers doing measurement-based work. While factor analysis constitutes half of SEM, regression analysis constitutes the other half. There are two main major categories of factor analysis; exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Kline, 2016, p. 188-190; Hair et al., 2018, p. 607). “CFA, a special form of factor analysis, is used to test whether measures of a construct are consistent with a researcher's understanding of the nature of that construct” (Anderson et al., 2012, p. 21).

There are 6 main steps in SEM. These are "model specification, identification, estimation, evaluation, and modification". In another words; Identifying individual constructs, developing the measurement model (CFA), designing the study, producing experimental results, evaluating the measurement model (goodness of fit), and converting the measurement model to SEM, evaluating the structural model (goodness of fit). If the structural model fails the validity test, the model should be refined again. After validation of the structural model, analysis and interpretations can be made (Thakkar, 2020, p. 29-34)

Before testing the hypotheses and drawing conclusions with SEM analysis, CFA was performed, and the reference values used in the analyzes and validity test are explained in detail in sections 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.6.3, and 5.6.4.

5.6.1. Goodness of Fit

The goodness of fit is a “measure indicating how well a specified model structure reproduces the covariance matrix among the indicator variables, alternatively, the

accuracy of a proposed theory” (Hair et al., 2018, p. 605). It shows how the statistical model fits with the observed values.

The measures and indices and their good and acceptable fit ranges used in this study can be shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Goodness of Fit - Reference Values

Fit Indices		Good Fit	Acceptable Fit
Chi-square	X^2 / df	$0 \leq x \leq 2$	$2 < x \leq 3$
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)		$,97 \leq x \leq 1,00$	$,95 < x \leq ,97$
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)		$,97 \leq x \leq 1,00$	$,95 < x \leq ,97$
Bentler-Bonett Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)		$,97 \leq x \leq 1,00$	$,95 < x \leq ,97$
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index (NFI)		$,95 \leq x \leq 1,00$	$,90 < x \leq ,95$
Bollen's Relative Fit Index (RFI)		$,95 \leq x \leq 1,00$	$,90 < x \leq ,95$
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)		$0 \leq x \leq ,05$	$,05 < x \leq ,08$
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)		$0 \leq x \leq ,05$	$,05 < x \leq ,10$
Goodness of fit index (GFI)		$,95 \leq x \leq 1,00$	$,90 < x \leq ,95$

Note. Adapted from Schermelleh-Engel et al., (2003, p. 52); Singh & Gupta, (2014, p. 27); Hooper et al., (2018, p. 58); Schumacker & Lomax, (2004, p. 82).

5.6.2. Convergent Validity

Convergent validity indicates the degree to which a measure is positively related to other measures of the same construct. Items that are measures of a construct should converge or share a high degree of variance. In other words, Items that are supposed to measure the same construct have convergent validity if the correlations between them are acceptable in magnitude. (Hair et al., 2017, p.109-110; Kline, 2016, p. 93).

In order to evaluate the convergent validity, outer loadings, AVE, and CR are taken into account. As a general rule, the AVE and standardized outer loadings values are expected to be 0,50 and above. Standardized outer loadings equal to or higher than 0,708

are ideal. This confirms the acceptable item reliability of the indicator. Outer loadings between 0,40 and 0,70 can be removed if they provide improvements in AVE and CR, but their impact on content validity should also be considered. Due to limitations in the use of Cronbach's Alpha, other measures should be considered to measure validity. CR is one of them. CR values vary between 0 and 1 as in Cronbach's Alpha and are interpreted. Higher values mean higher reliability. Values of 0,60 and above are considered acceptable. Because of the different aspects of the two measures, it would be appropriate to show Cronbach's Alpha and CR together (Hair et al., 2017, p.109-110; Hair et al., 2018, p. 151,676; Cristobal et al., 2007, p. 328).

5.6.3. Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is a measure of how much a construct differs from other constructs by experimental standards. Ensuring discriminant validity demonstrates the uniqueness of a structure and captures incidents that are not represented by other structures in the model. Discriminant validity exists if the intercorrelations between a set of variables that are supposed to measure different constructs are not very high. (Hair et al., 2017, p.112; Kline, 2016, p. 93).

There are two common approaches used when testing discriminant validity. One is cross loadings, and the other is the Fornell-Larcker criterion. “An indicator's outer loading on the associated construct should be greater than any of its cross-loadings (i.e., its correlation) on other constructs in the cross-loadings approach. The Fornell-Larcker criterion is an approach that compares the square root of the AVE values with the latent variable correlations. Specifically, the square root of each construct's AVE should be greater than its highest correlation with any other construct. The logic of the Fornell-

Larcker method is based on the idea that a construct shares more variance with its associated indicators than with any other construct” (Hair et al., 2017, p.113-114).

High correlations between construct items or constructs are seen as a problem in discriminant analysis. While the literature defines some ground rules, it has not gone beyond these to define what is high enough. Low correlation does not measure distinct structures, and high correlation does not invalidate the measurement. According to the past theories and expectations, high correlation does not mean that discriminant validity does not exist. According to expectations from past studies and theories, the high correlation should be tolerated in studies where constructs are well defined and high correlation is expected. Discriminant validity assessments should consider different dimensions, as in other validity analyses, rather than just a cut-off point calculated with complex formulas. According to the studies, it is appropriate to apply CI-CFA as a standard. Table 8 shows the classifications and cut-off points (Rönkkö & Cho, 2022, p.28-33).

Table 8

Classifications and Cutoffs for Discriminant Validity

Classification	CI-CFA
Severe Problem	$1 < UL$
Moderate Problem	$,9 < UL < 1$
Marginal Problem	$,8 < UL < ,9$
No Problem	$UL < ,8$

Note. CI-CFA, UL is the 95% upper limit of CFA. Taken from Rönkkö & Cho (2022).

The severe problem case is the clearest. Two scales or items cannot be distinguished. In this case, all definitions and concepts of the research should be

reviewed. Nine-tenths and above is seen as a problem for all researchers. Past studies using the same scales or structures should be examined before analyzes and interpretations are made. The reason why it is also high should be investigated. In the marginal case, it can be safely said that the scales provide discriminant validity (Rönkkö & Cho, 2022, p.36).

5.6.4. Multicollinearity

As another analysis, a collinearity check will be performed while constructing the model. Collinearity is also called multicollinearity. Collinearity shows that two or more predictor variables are linearly related in the statistical model. It indicates that the data set with high collinearity among the estimators shares a high rate of information. If the two independent variables with very high collinearity with each other (if there is no more information), it cannot be determined which is the correct estimator (Dormann et al., 2013, p.27-29). While the commonly used threshold value used to detect multicollinearity is 0,7, more stringent thresholds such as 0,4 or more flexible threshold values such as 0,85 are also used (Dormann et al., 2013, p.33). Correlations over 0,8 or even 0,9 between predictive variables are considered too high and are not preferred to be in the model (Franke, 2010; Mason & Perreault, 1991, p. 270). In this study, 0,8 is used as a reference value.

5.6.5. CFA Model

When “Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted” values are examined, it is seen that the construct consistency will increase if the questions B3, P3, P4, COE7, PF1 and RI3 are removed. In the corrected item-total correlation analysis, it revealed that these questions were again below or slightly above the threshold values. When factor loadings are

examined, it is seen that these questions have also the lowest factor loadings and remain below or just around 0,5. While improving the model, item removals were done step by step and one item at a time was removed. In each round, the goodness of fit, and factor loadings were checked on the basis of the item and construct.

Construct items considered for removal during the CFA model development are presented in Table 9.

Table 9 CFA Model Development – Items Considered for Removal

Factor	Indicator	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Factor Loadings (1)
Brand	B3	0,817	0,832	0,404	0,192
Price	P3	0,711	0,724	0,384	0,545
Price	P4	0,711	0,772	0,273	0,053
PF	PF1	0,916	0,945	0,290	0,474
COE	COE7	0,875	0,878	0,496	0,919
RI	RI1	0,937	0,689	0,682	0,919
RI	RI3	0,937	0,795	0,355	0,536

Note: (1) At the first round.

After reliability analysis, no questions were removed from the model in the first round. The error terms of each item were assumed to be independent of each other. When factor loadings are examined, it is seen that the P4 question is statistically insignificant. Considering the factor loadings, the P4 item in the second round, the B3 item in the third round, and the PF1 question in the fourth round were removed. There is no item below the factor load threshold value of 0,5. model fits were also found to be acceptable or at threshold values. It was decided not to exclude the P3 and RI3 questions from the constructs. In addition, the requirement to have at least 3 questions in each construct is

provided. Cronbach's Alpha values are above 0,7, CR values are above 0,8 and AVE values are above 0,5. After the convergent validity was ensured in the 4th round, discriminant validity analysis was performed.

In the discriminant validity analysis, the correlations between the scales obtained by setting the scale variances to 1 were examined and it was seen that all of them were statistically significant.

It is seen that the covariance between CS and RI is 0,90, and the upper limit is 0,93. If the Upper Limit is above 0,9, it indicates a moderate problem. It was observed that the RP3 item could be removed from the model.

In the 5th round, the RP3 item was removed, and the model was retested. Although the model has improved, the SQRT-AVE value of RI (0,771) is still smaller than the correlation with the CS (0,893). The upper limit of the correlation is 0,931 and the moderate problem continues. When the modification indexes for cross loads are examined, it is seen that the highest value is between RI1 and CS. In the next round, the RI1 item was removed, and the model test continued.

Table 10

Fit Indices – CFA Final Model

χ^2 / df	CFI	TLI	NNFI	NFI	RFI	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI
2,476	0,994	0,993	0,993	0,989	0,988	0,062	0,067	0,991

After the model was tested by removing the RI1 item in the 6th round, all of the goodness of fit indices and measures are all within the limits of good fit or acceptable fit as seen in Table 10. Thus, it can be said that there is a very good fit in the constructs.

Table 11 shows the convergent validity analysis of the final model reached in the CFA analysis.

Table 11

Convergent Validity – CFA Final Model

Factor		Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
Brand	B1	0,798	0,832	0,879	0,646
	B2	0,837			
	B3	-			
	B4	0,749			
	B5	0,827			
Price	P1	0,859	0,772	0,851	0,667
	P2	0,988			
	P3	0,537			
	P4	-			
Quality	Q1	0,893	0,898	0,926	0,758
	Q2	0,806			
	Q3	0,873			
	Q4	0,907			
ASS	ASS1	0,902	0,896	0,940	0,839
	ASS2	0,906			
	ASS3	0,940			
COE	COE1	0,885	0,875	0,909	0,595
	COE2	0,622			
	COE3	0,902			
	COE4	0,814			
	COE5	0,653			
	COE6	0,838			
	COE7	0,624			
PF	PF1	-	0,945	0,971	0,807
	PF2	0,919			
	PF3	0,943			
	PF4	0,893			
	PF5	0,823			
	PF6	0,886			
	PF7	0,928			
	PF8	0,878			
	PF9	0,913			
CS	CS1	0,962	0,937	0,970	0,914
	CS2	0,924			
	CS3	0,981			
RI	RI1	-			

RI2	0,662	0,724	0,787	0,553
RI3	0,755			
RI4	-			
RI5	0,807			

As can be seen from Table 11, all factor loadings ($>0,5$), Cronbach's Alpha ($>0,7$), CR ($>0,7$), and AVE ($>0,5$) values are above the generally accepted values and convergent validity is provided.

The diagonal values show the square root of the AVE values, while the off-diagonal values show correlations between the latent variables in Table 12

Table 12 Discriminant Validity Results

	Brand	Price	Quality	ASS	COE	PF	CS	RI
Brand	0,803							
Price	0,615	0,817						
Quality	0,384	0,172	0,871					
ASS	0,511	0,584	0,708	0,916				
COE	0,505	0,436	0,444	0,465	0,771			
PF	0,380	0,504	0,518	0,738	0,419	0,899		
CS	0,401	0,356	0,456	0,527	0,372	0,532	0,956	
RI	0,410	0,341	0,559	0,443	0,562	0,427	0,773	0,744

The correlation between CS and RI is 0,773, and the upper limit is 0,835 as can be seen from Table 12. The discriminant validity seems to be achieved.

When the model was analyzed, it was seen that the highest values are only 0,738 (between ASS and PF) and 0.708 (between ASS and quality), and they are lower than 0,8. As a result of these evaluations, it can be said that there is no multicollinearity problem in the model.

Finally, the model has been validated with CFA. At this point, the first step of SEM analysis, namely the measurement model has been constructed. In section 5.7, the

SEM model and the results of mediation analysis are reported, and the research hypothesis are tested. Finally, moderation analyses are carried out and reported in section 5.7.3.

5.7. Structural Equation Modelling

5.7.1. SEM Model and Hypotheses Tests

In addition to the CFA model, the relationships between the residuals of the items belonging to the same construct were examined, and it was seen that defining the relationship between the residuals would further improve the model and was defined in the SEM analysis. The output for the proposed model in Figure 1 is given in Table 13.

Table 13 Regression Coefficients
Regression Output

Predictor	Outcome	Estimate	Std. Error	z	p	95% CI		Std. β	Decision
						Lower	Upper		
Brand	CS	0,127	0,09	1,421	0,155	-0,048	0,302	0,113	Statistically Insignificant
Price	CS	0,078	0,11	0,732	0,464	-0,131	0,288	0,074	Statistically Insignificant
Quality	CS	0,299	0,1	2,89	0,004*	0,096	0,501	0,297	Statistically Significant
ASS	CS	-0,065	0,14	-0,47	0,636	-0,334	0,204	-0,065	Statistically Insignificant
COE	CS	0,188	0,07	2,875	0,004*	0,06	0,316	0,188	Statistically Significant
PF	CS	0,267	0,07	3,64	< ,001*	0,123	0,41	0,273	Statistically Significant
CS	RI	0,652	0,05	14,52	< ,001*	0,564	0,74	0,891	Statistically Significant

* p<0,01

From Table 13, it can be seen that brand, price, and ASS are statistically insignificant ($p=0,155; 0,464; 0,636$; respectively) and should be dropped from the model.

It was discovered that only the brand variable becomes significant when the statistically insignificant variables were dropped from the model one by one, starting from the variable with the highest p -value. Which led to the question: Could it be possible that the variables that were found to be statistically insignificant in the CS part directly affect the RI? The answer to this question was searched and the modeling was continued with bootstrap. Upon linking price and ASS directly to RI, the Price variable was found again statistically insignificant, and the regression output of the final model reached is given in Table 14.

Table 14 Regression Coefficients

Predictor	Outcome	Estimate	Std. Error	z-value	p	95% CI		Std.
						Lower	Upper	β
Brand	CS	0,153	0,031	4,928	< ,001	-0,011	0,353	0,136
Quality	CS	0,233	0,026	9,131	< ,001	0,086	0,371	0,231
COE	CS	0,194	0,025	7,784	< ,001	-0,051	0,343	0,194
PF	CS	0,266	0,020	13,484	< ,001	0,035	0,385	0,270
CS	RI	0,587	0,032	18,482	< ,001	0,414	0,858	0,806
ASS	RI	0,069	0,026	2,650	0,008	-0,164	0,243	0,094

According to the results of Table 14, it is seen that all the coefficients are significant. The goodness of fit values are given in Table 15 and all goodness-of-fit values are within higher acceptable limits.

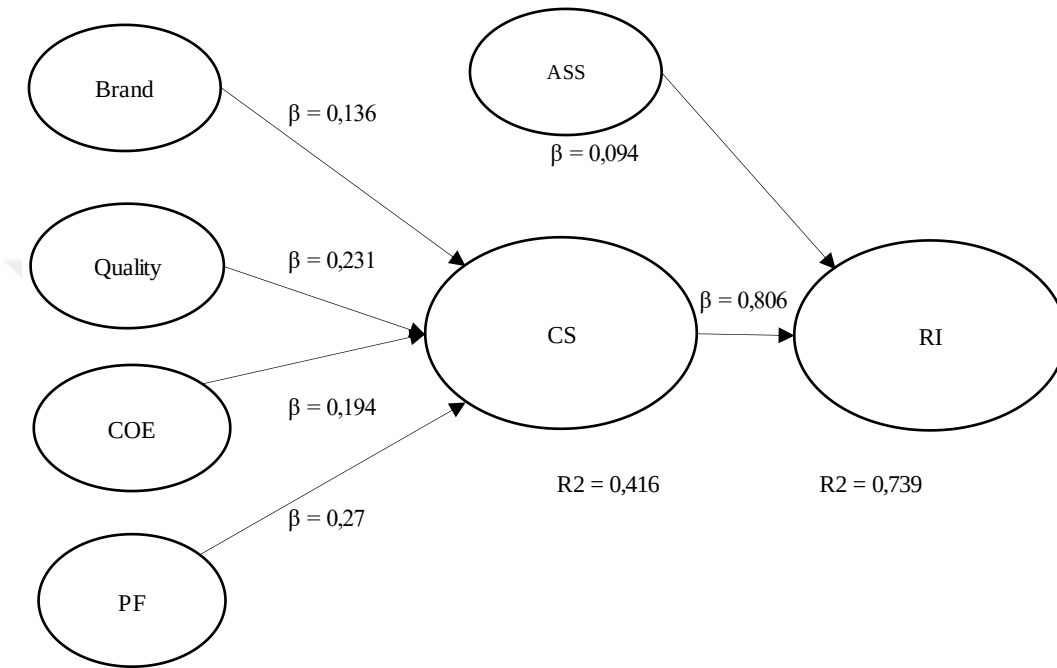
Table 15*Fit Indices – Revised SEM Model*

X² / df	CFI	TLI	NNFI	NFI	RFI	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI
6,719	0,976	0,973	0,973	0,972	0,969	0,123	0,109	0,975

R² value (coefficient of determination) is the measure of the predictive accuracy of the model and takes values between 0 and 1. The closer to 1 indicates better predictability of the model. R² values can be defined as weak, moderate, and significant for 0,25, 0,50 and 0,75, respectively. It is difficult to define a general rule for R² as the complexity of the model can vary depending on the discipline in which the research is conducted. Two-tenths (0,2) is considered quite high in consumer behavior areas that investigate topics such as CS, and loyalty (Hair et al., 2017, p. 175).

When the R² values were examined in the new model, it is 0,416 for CS and 0,739 for RI. There does not appear to be a problem with the predictiveness of the model. All goodness-of-fit analysis values are within the limits of acceptable or good fit and goodness of fit is also quite high.

Residuals were examined and no abnormality was found. The final model reached is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2*Revised Model***5.7.2. Mediation Analysis**

The mediating effect occurs by adding a third structure (variable) that explains the causal relationships between two structures (variables). Mediator variables are variables that explain some or all of the relationships between them. In the mediation analysis, the third structure (variable) interferes with the other two and explains why the relationship between these two structures exists that is, how causal predecessor variables carry their effects on the outcome variables. When the mediating construct (variable) completely explains the relationship between the current constructs (originals) it is called complete mediation. But there are still some relationships between current constructs (originals) that are not defined by the mediator, it is called partial mediation (Hair et al., 2018, p.

745; Hayes, 2018, p. 78; Hair et al., 2021, p. 140; Hair et al., 2021, p. 35-36; Kline, 2016, p. 134).

In Table 16, whether the variables have an indirect effect on the RI through CS or whether they also have direct effects on RI are analyzed through the model.

Table 16
Mediation Analysis Summary

	Direct	Indirect	Total	Interpretation
Brand	-0,068 (0,281)	0,089 (0,004*)	0,021 (0,706)	Indirect Only (Full Mediation)
Price	0,161 (0,080)	-0,001 (0,980)	0,160 (0,056**)	No effect
Quality	0,302 ($< ,001^*$)	0,073 (0,037**)	0,376 ($< ,001^*$)	Complementary (Partial Mediation)
ASS	-0,268 (0,021**)	0,042 (0,401)	-0,226 (0,035**)	Direct Only (No Mediation)
COE	0,208 ($< ,001^*$)	0,028 (0,060***)	0,237 ($< ,001^*$)	Complementary (Partial Mediation)
PF	-0,056 (0,242)	0,153 ($< ,001^*$)	0,097 (0,023**)	Indirect Only (Full Mediation)

Note. * $p < 0,01$, ** $p < 0,05$, *** $p < 0,1$

As can be seen from Table 16, price neither directly nor indirectly affects RI. Similar results were achieved in the previous model and the price was removed from the model. Consistent with the previous modeling, it was seen that ASS had a direct effect on RI and no indirect effect on RI through CS. It is observed that brand and PF have only indirect effects on CS, while quality and COE have both indirect and direct effects.

5.7.3. Moderation Analysis

The moderating effect occurs by adding a third structure (variable) that changes the relationships between two structures (variables). Moderator structures (variables) can change the direction, size, and strength of the relationship between structures (variables) in the model (Hair et al., 2018, p. 748-749; Hayes, 2018, p. 220; Hair et al., 2021, p. 156-157; Hair et al., 2021, p.37; Kline, 2016, p. 133).

The moderation effect of gender and education level were analyzed. Although the data about age, income, and COE are collected and thought that they might have a moderating effect, they couldn't be tested due to insufficient allocation of data even if the categories are rearranged to make them sufficient.

Since the variables were categorical, moderation analysis was performed as a multigroup analysis. As a general rule in factor analysis, it is preferred to have 100 participants in each group (Wang & Wang, 2019, p. 444). Therefore, regrouping was done for moderation analyses.

5.7.3.1. Gender

Since there are 190 women and 191 men, group sizes are enough for an analysis whose results are reported in Table 17.

Table 17

Regression Coefficients According to Gender

Group	Predictor	Out com e	Estimate	Std. Error	z	p	95% CI		Std. β	R ²
							Lower	Upper		
Men	Brand	CS	0,350	0,044	7,882	< ,001	0,019	0,662	0,293	0,354
	Quality	CS	0,230	0,042	5,486	< ,001	-0,150	0,458	0,218	
	COE	CS	-0,121	0,039	-3,120	0,002	-0,361	0,098	-0,119	
	PF	CS	0,318	0,030	10,491	< ,001	0,174	0,548	0,308	

	CS	RI	0,673	0,044	15,205	< ,001	0,502	0,803	0,776	
	ASS	RI	-0,338	0,059	-5,713	< ,001	-0,749	-0,078	-0,388	0,833
	Quality	RI	0,358	0,060	5,997	< ,001	0,182	0,825	0,391	
	COE	RI	0,203	0,041	4,934	< ,001	0,072	0,437	0,230	
Women	Brand	CS	-0,027	0,055	-0,484	0,629	-0,427	0,253	-0,024	
	Quality	CS	0,102	0,040	2,544	0,011	-0,034	0,296	0,101	0,470
	COE	CS	0,342	0,051	6,743	< ,001	0,096	0,736	0,329	
	PF	CS	0,412	0,033	12,659	< ,001	0,225	0,578	0,417	
	CS	RI	0,287	0,034	8,507	< ,001	0,138	0,440	0,492	
	ASS	RI	-0,008	0,047	-0,177	0,859	-0,136	0,216	-0,014	0,752
	Quality	RI	0,046	0,043	1,073	0,283	-0,128	0,302	0,078	
	COE	RI	0,277	0,028	9,745	< ,001	0,112	0,492	0,457	

From Table 17, it can be seen that brand, ASS, and quality are statistically insignificant for women. These results show that these variables should not be in the model for women. Since the significant variables in men and women are different, it can be said that gender has a moderation effect.

5.7.3.2. Education Level

Education subgroups were regrouped as most secondary school graduate, high school graduate, at least university (including 2 years associate degree) graduate. Table 18 shows the frequency and percentage distribution of education levels after regrouping.

Table 18 Frequency by Education Level

Frequency by Education Level

Education	n	%
Secondary or lower	74	19,4
High school	146	38,3
Associate /Bachelor's or higher	161	42,3
Total	381	100,0

Moderation analysis according to education levels is presented in Table 19.

Table 19 Regression coefficients According to Education

Regression coefficients According to Education

Group	Predictor	Outcome	Estimate	Std. Error	z	p	95% CI		Std. β	R ²
							Lower	Upper		
Associate /Bachelor's or higher	Brand	CS	0,471	0,101	4,646	< ,001*	0,272	0,670	0,429	0,383
	Quality	CS	0,228	0,100	2,269	0,023**	0,031	0,425	0,215	
	COE	CS	-0,115	0,095	-1,208	0,227	-0,301	0,072	-0,115	
	PF	CS	0,214	0,076	2,821	0,005**	0,065	0,363	0,224	
	CS	RI	0,503	0,061	8,190	< ,001*	0,383	0,624	0,697	0,760
	ASS	RI	-0,275	0,108	-2,549	0,011	-0,487	-0,064	-0,397	
	Quality	RI	0,328	0,121	2,704	0,007***	0,090	0,566	0,428	
	COE	RI	0,202	0,057	3,558	< ,001*	0,091	0,314	0,280	
High school	Brand	CS	-0,029	0,149	-0,191	0,849	-0,321	0,264	-0,022	0,444
	Quality	CS	0,248	0,081	3,080	0,002**	0,090	0,407	0,248	
	COE	CS	0,199	0,125	1,588	0,112	-0,047	0,444	0,186	
	PF	CS	0,413	0,064	6,491	< ,001*	0,289	0,538	0,396	
	CS	RI	0,401	0,065	6,117	< ,001*	0,272	0,529	0,599	0,736
	ASS	RI	-0,019	0,076	-0,255	0,799	-0,169	0,130	-0,027	
	Quality	RI	0,092	0,067	1,382	0,167	-0,038	0,222	0,137	
	COE	RI	0,227	0,049	4,580	< ,001*	0,130	0,324	0,317	
Secondary or lower	Brand	CS	0,232	0,123	1,886	0,059***	-0,009	0,473	0,222	0,401
	Quality	CS	0,012	0,157	0,074	0,941	-0,297	0,320	0,011	
	COE	CS	0,109	0,134	0,816	0,414	-0,153	0,372	0,110	
	PF	CS	0,430	0,127	3,402	< ,001*	0,182	0,678	0,427	
	CS	RI	0,563	0,114	4,929	< ,001*	0,339	0,787	0,757	0,772
	ASS	RI	-0,286	0,155	-1,849	0,064***	-0,589	0,017	-0,361	
	Quality	RI	0,194	0,133	1,463	0,143	-0,066	0,454	0,246	
	COE	RI	0,243	0,103	2,363	0,018**	0,041	0,445	0,328	

From Table 19, it can be seen that brand, ASS, COE, and quality are statistically insignificant ($p < 0,05$) for secondary or lower and high school degrees. For Associate /Bachelor's or higher degrees, except COE, all variables are significant, and ASS has a negative correlation. Since regression coefficients differ even some of them become insignificant as the level of education change it can be concluded that education level has a moderation effect.

6. LIMITATIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1. Limitations

The number of participants in the research is quite sufficient for this research, but it is recommended to conduct studies with an increased number of participants in order to reach more general results. In addition, the participants of the survey were selected by the convenience sampling method, it is necessary to be more careful in generalizing the results.

Since the surveys were conducted online during the pandemic period, consumers with limited internet access may not have been included in the sample. While evaluating the results, it should be considered that consumers who are not internet users may not be included in the research.

Moderation analysis could not be performed because the data per group were not sufficient for the age, income level, and domestic/foreign brand factors.

Each research should be evaluated with the economic and social conditions of the time it was conducted.

6.2. Discussions and Conclusions

Consumers evaluate and select the deals that offer the highest tangible and/or intangible total value. Quality, service, and price are at the center of value. While the perception of value is negatively correlated to price, it is positively correlated to quality and service. The definition of marketing can also be considered as the processes from the creation of this value to its delivery and monitoring. The task of every business is to present this value profitably. In every economy, different types of people have different needs, perceptions, preferences, and purchasing behaviors. Every smart player should

offer this proposition to well-segmented markets (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 33,57). While the brand represents a promise to consumers made by the companies, the companies expect loyalty and repurchase behavior from the consumers in return.

Consumer satisfaction depends on factors such as product performance, quality, price, distribution, service quality, and emotion (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.156; Aimee, 2019, p. 828-832). There is a strong probability between the satisfaction of consumers and their repurchase behavior. Loyalty and satisfaction are strongly correlated (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p.151; Aimee, 2019, p. 828; Awan & Rehman, 2014, p. 20; Fečíková, 2004, p. 57).

Although there are research on the purchasing behavior of white goods, the number of these studies is very limited and the number of studies specific to the oven is almost non-existent. A study in this wide context on the purchase of an oven has not been done before. While creating the research model, a detailed literature review was done, sector representatives and final consumers were interviewed, and the model was created in light of these information.

After testing the model with SEM, it was seen that the variables of the brand, price, and ASS were statistically insignificant. When these statistically insignificant variables were removed from the model one by one, it was seen that the brand became significant. Afterward, it was seen that the price did not have a direct or indirect effect on the model, and it was removed from the model. The direct effect of ASS has been identified and directly linked to RI. Thus, a new model was created.

The model explains 42% and 74% of the variation in the CS and RI respectively. When we analyze with respect to male and female groups; while the model explains 35%

of the variation in CS for men, this rate increases to 47% for women. When the RI is analyzed, a different result is obtained in the male and female groups. The model explains the variation of 83% for men and 75% for women. According to the results of the moderation analysis in the education level groups, there is no significant difference between the averages for the R² values of CS and RI. It was seen in this research that this relationship was also valid for the oven product group and the result of the research is consistent with other studies in the literature.

In this research, the brand has a full mediation effect on CS and no direct effect on RI. When the moderation effect is analyzed with respect to gender groups, while the brand is statistically significant ($\beta=0.293$, $p<.001$) for men, it is statistically insignificant for women. In the moderation analysis with respect to education levels, while the brand is statistically significant for associate or bachelor's degree and above ($\beta=0.429$, $p<.001$), it is statistically insignificant for other education level groups. Gender and education levels change the effect of brand on CS. We can conclude gender and education levels have moderation effects. While these research results differ from the findings in the literature, they are consistent with the opinions of marketing professionals in the industry.

When the research results were examined, it is determined that the highest partial correlation is between quality and CS. The variable that contributes the most to CS is quality among the variables. In addition, it has both direct and indirect effects on the RI, and it is also the most contributing factor to RI. When the moderation effect is analyzed with respect to gender groups, the quality is statistically significant ($\beta=0.218$, $p<.001$) for men, and women ($\beta=0.101$, $p<.001$) on CS. But it is also statistically significant ($\beta=0.391$, $p<.001$) for men, while it is not statistically significant for women ($\beta=0.78$,

$p=0.283$) on RI. As the level of education increases, the effect of quality on CS also increases. Quality has a statistically significant effect on RI only for associate and higher degrees. After quality, the highest correlation is between CS and PF. PF also affects RI indirectly (full mediation). When the moderation effect is analyzed according to gender groups, PF is statistically significant for both men and women on CS and RI. It is the only variable that is statistically significant for all of them. PF has a statistically significant effect on CS at all levels of education. As a result of the research, the findings between quality, CS, and RI are consistent with the literature.

In the model, ASS had no effect on CS and had a direct effect on RI. When the moderation effect is analyzed according to gender groups, the ASS is statistically significant for men, and but not for women on RI. In the moderation analysis according to education levels, while the ASS is statistically significant for associate or bachelor's degrees ($p<0,05$) and above, and for secondary or lower ($p<0,1$), it is statistically insignificant for high school degrees. The findings of this study differ from the literature for CS but are consistent with RI.

COE has both direct and indirect effects on the RI. When the moderation effect is analyzed according to gender groups, COE is statistically significant for men and women on CS and RI. COE has a statistically significant effect on RI but not on CS for all education levels. The moderation effect of being a domestic or foreign brand could not be calculated with the available data set. As a result, it is not possible to comment on moderation. The findings obtained in this study and the sources accessed in the literature are consistent with each other.

According to the market research conducted by TURKBESD in 2020, price ranks first among the factors affecting the purchasing decision of consumers with a rate of 22%. In the study of Dörtyol (2015), when price, quality and brand are ranked, the price comes in the last place in this three-factor group. The price variable, which is seen to be the primary evaluation criterion in low-income groups, loses its importance as the income levels of families increase and becomes the last criterion. In the interviews with the marketing professionals in the sector, it was learned that the price consciousness of consumers is high in the oven category. The price construct is also established based on this information. However, the research revealed that price consciousness has no effect on CS and RI. Therefore, the price has been removed from the model. Price-brand has the highest correlation, and the brand variable may be included in its price, it should be investigated separately.

6.3. Implications and Directions for Future Research

At the time, the surveys were conducted, the global pandemic was underway and inflation in Turkey was accelerating. The study can be repeated following the end of the pandemic, and a separate study to assess the impact of inflation on incomes and purchase intentions could be useful.

CS affects RIs. While the model explains 41% of CS, CS explains RI with a very high percentage of 74%. It would be useful to investigate other variables that can increase CS. Purchasing frequency of white goods is low and the involvement level is high. According to the information received from the sector, the frequency of replacing white goods is 5 years or more. The effects of the variables in the model can be examined by creating longitudinal data sets and monitoring the consumers over the long term. For this reason, it is recommended to set up a CRM system and examine the RI and time dimension relations.

Moderation analyses on age, income level, domestic/foreign brands, CS and RI could not be performed with the available data. New research to examine the relationship between these variables and CS and RI will guide marketing professionals.

Gender and education level were found to have mediation effects. These categories should be studied in detail and incorporated into marketing plans and activities.

While the brand has a direct effect on CS, it has no effect on repurchase. Consumers who are satisfied with the brand they purchased but may not be loyal enough to purchase the same brand again. The most important success criterion of branding strategies is to convince consumers that there are differences between other products and

their products. When it is evaluated from the perspective of customer-based brand equity, if there is no difference between brands in the eyes of the consumer, it directs the consumer to other factors while making a decision. For electric ovens, research should be conducted on the establishment of unique brand associations and positioning of brands with consumers on both product and nonproduct features. Marketers can focus on the differences of their brands in the oven category, to make their brands stand out, and ultimately ensure CS, and repurchase. By doing so, it will be possible to create higher loyalty among consumers which generates higher income.

Price becomes important when the brand is not decisive in consumers' purchasing decisions. However, in the research, the price did not have a direct or indirect effect on CS and RI. Consumers do not make their choices price conscious, and low price does not have an effect on their repurchase decisions. It is also worth looking into the fact that pricing consciousness has no impact on repurchase decisions. Consumers' price sensitivity levels can be used to conduct detailed research. The results should be taken into account in the pricing policies of the electric ovens.

Eighty percent of white goods are sold by credit card in Turkey. White goods products can be purchased in 12 installations by credit card (Öztürk, 2016, p.27). In Dörtyol's (2015) research, a similar result was found with 82.4% credit sales. Payment instruments and terms seem to be an important dimension of pricing in white goods. While the model was being designed, the scale related to credit sales was scanned but could not be found. For such an important factor, academics can create a scale. In this study, a detailed study on the payment term was not carried out. However, due to the results of this research and the importance of credit sales, research can be made on the

effect of the payment term and credit sales. These outputs should be taken into account in pricing policies. According to the results of this research, there are opportunities to be developed regarding pricing.

PF and quality are the variables that have the highest correlation scores with CS. Quality also directly affects repurchasing. In the survey results, the PF construct received the highest score on average. Among the PF, energy efficiency is the scale item with the highest average. After energy efficiency, smart and advanced PF scored the highest in the group. It demonstrates the necessity of digitizing electric ovens, which is in parallel with technological advances in our lives. With the increased health awareness, consumers have become more sensitive about foods and cooking equipment. In the results of the survey, coating materials in electric ovens received very high scores. The positive effect of coatings on food contact surfaces on health can be used in the marketing of electric ovens, one of the scale items with a high average is easy to clean characteristic.

Multidimensional studies on health, oven cleaning, and the influence of coating materials that may be used to solve these problems will give companies a competitive advantage. In summary, more detailed research, and application of these issues in product designs and new product developments will provide a viable advantage. Other analyses and comments on brand and price should also be taken into consideration.

These analyses also show that the purchase of electric ovens corresponds to the type of "dissonance buying behavior". Consumers may experience "post-purchase dissonance". Customer relationship management should come into play at this point and be active in the post-purchase period. Marketing professionals should improve post-sale communication to ensure that customers remain positive about the brand. It should be

noted that ASS has an effect on repurchasing, as supported by the research findings. The effect of fast and permanent solutions to customer problems and ASS should also be very carefully evaluated. Acquiring a new customer is always more costly than retaining existing ones. Allocating marketing resources for the effective resolution of customer complaints will increase CS. Firms' deepening research on service, ASS quality, and easy or unconditional product exchange offers may provide a competitive advantage to them.

In Turkey, white goods manufacturers continue their sales through dealers strongly. There are 15.000 dealers and 3.500 authorized service centers in Turkey (TURKBESD, 2020, p. 5). Although the companies that have dealers and technical services in Turkey seem to be in an advantageous position, this situation can be turned into an advantage for other companies with different approaches. The effect of the dealer system on the purchasing behavior of consumers should also be examined in particular.

RIs of consumers may differ depending on their loyalty level. Therefore, segmenting and analyzing customers' loyalty levels can be useful to understand RIs.

There are foreign branded products sold at very high prices in Turkey. Research can be conducted on the effect of luxury value perception and luxury consumption on CS, RI, and loyalty to electric ovens.

One of the feedback items received from the people interviewed at the time of the survey design regarding the factors affecting their purchasing decisions was that the oven should be the same brand as other home appliances at home. For some consumers, it is important that all products in the house are the same brand. During the oven repurchase period, the influence of other brands of white goods in the house can also be examined.

Turkey is an important exporter of electric ovens, 80% of the produced electric ovens are exported. Due to socio-economic differences between countries, this study should also be tested in other target countries in order to add value to exports and increase sales.

Different models can be created by employing constructs with the same construct title but different construct items instead of the ones used in this research.

This model, which was established for the oven, can also be established for other white goods sub-product groups (such as refrigerators, washing machines, and driers), and their satisfaction and RIs can be examined.

Other issues that are not covered in this study, but whose effect on consumer satisfaction and RI are mentioned in the literature are warranty period, promotions, green label products, product bundles, technology acceptance levels, and e-commerce.

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Appendix A: Survey Questions in English

Brand

1. (B1) I can't think of many differences between the major brands of electric ovens
2. (B2) The only difference between the major brands of electric ovens is the price.
3. (B3) To me, there are big differences between the various brands of electric ovens
4. (B4) The electric oven is electric oven; most brands are basically the same.
5. (B5) All major brands of the electric ovens are basically alike

Price

6. (P1) For me, price is the decisive factor when buying an electric oven.
7. (P2) Price is important to me when I choose an electric oven.
8. (P3) I generally strive to buy electric ovens at the lowest price.
9. (P4) When buying electric ovens, I do not really focus on the price.

Quality

10. (Q1) When it comes to electric oven, the quality is much more important than the price.
11. (Q2) I am willing to pay a bit more for a higher quality electric oven.
12. (Q3) I always strive for the best quality.
13. (Q4) Quality is decisive for me while buying an electric oven.

After Sale Services

14. (ASS1) I prefer the electric oven brands that willingly handles returns and exchanges.
15. (ASS2) When I have a problem, I am willing to buy the electric oven brand that shows a sincere interest in solving it.

16. (ASS3) I always prefer for the electric oven brands whose service employees are able to handle customer complaints directly and immediately.

Consumer Ethnocentrism

17. (COE1) Turkish electric ovens, first, last, and foremost.
18. (COE2) It is not right to purchase foreign electric ovens.
19. (COE3) We should purchase electric ovens manufactured in Turkey instead of letting other countries get rich off us.
20. (COE4) Turks should not buy foreign electric ovens, because this hurts Turkish business and causes unemployment.
21. (COE5) Foreigners should not be allowed to put their electric ovens on our markets.
22. (COE6) It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Turkish electric ovens.
23. (COE7) We should buy from foreign countries only those electric ovens that we cannot obtain within our own country.

Product Features

24. (PF1) Color
25. (PF2) Functionality
26. (PF3) Ease of use
27. (PF4) Smart product attributes
28. (PF5) Advanced features
29. (PF6) Inside Volume
30. (PF7) Energy consumption
31. (PF8) Coating material used inside of the oven and trays
32. (PF9) Easy to Clean

Customer Satisfaction

33. (CS1) I am satisfied with my decision to buy this electric oven.

34. (CS2) My choice to buy this electric oven was a wise one.

35. (CS3) I have truly enjoyed this electric oven.

Repurchase Intention

36. (RI1) It is very likely that I would purchase this electric oven again.

37. (RI2) I am willing to pay a price premium over competing products to be able to purchase this electric oven again.

38. (RI3) I would only consider purchasing this electric oven again if it would be substantially cheaper.

39. (RI4) Commercials regarding competing brands are not able to reduce my interest in buying this electric oven again.

40. (RI5) I would purchase this electric oven again, even if it receives bad evaluations by the media or other people.

Demographic Questions

41. Gender

42. Age

43. Education level

44. Monthly net income

45. Marital status

46. Number of residents

Appendix B: Survey Questions in Turkish

Aşağıdaki soruları en son satın aldığınız fırın markasını düşünerek cevaplayınız.

1-Hiç katılmıyorum, 5-Kesinlikle katılıyorum olacak şekilde yanıtlayınız.

1. (B1) Büyük markaların fırınları arasında pek fazla fark olduğunu düşünmüyorum.
2. (B2) Bilinen markaların fırınları arasındaki tek fark fiyattır.
3. (B3) Bana göre, çeşitli fırın markaları arasında büyük farklar vardır.
4. (B4) Fırın fırındır, çoğu marka temelde aynıdır.
5. (B5) Markalı tüm fırınlar temelde birbirinin aynısıdır.
6. (P1) Fırın satın alırken benim için "fiyat" tercihim belirleyen faktördür.
7. (P2) Fırın seçerken fiyat benim için önemlidir.
8. (P3) Fırın satın alırken genellikle en düşük fiyatlı markayı seçerim.
9. (P4) Fırın alırken fiyata odaklanmam.
10. (Q1) Fırın söz konusu olduğunda, kalite fiyattan çok daha önemlidir.
11. (Q2) Daha kaliteli bir fırın için biraz daha fazla ödemeye razıyım.
12. (Q3) Her zaman en kaliteli fırını satın almak için çaba gösteririm.
13. (Q4) Fırın alırken benim için kalite en önemli belirleyicidir.
14. (ASS1) Fırın alırken, kolaylıkla iade ve değişim yapılabilen fırın markalarını tercih ederim.
15. (ASS2) Fırın alacağım zaman, bir sorunum olduğunda samimi bir ilgi gösterecek fırın markasını tercih etmeye hazırım.
16. (ASS3) Her zaman müşteri şikayetlerini doğrudan ve hemen çözümleyen fırın markalarını tercih ederim.

17. (COE1) Türk malı fırınları satın almak doğrudur çünkü Türk markaları her şeyden önce gelir.
18. (COE2) Yabancı markalı fırınları satın almak doğru değildir.
19. (COE3) Başka ülkelerin bizim üzerimizden zenginleşmesine izin vermek yerine, Türkiye'de üretilen fırınları satın almalıyız.
20. (COE4) Ticaretimize zarar verip işsizliğe neden olacağı için biz Türkler yabancı markalı fırınları satın almamalıyız.
21. (COE5) Yabancı markalı fırınların Türkiye'de satılmasına izin verilmemelidir.
22. (COE6) Uzun vadede bana pahalıya mal olabilir ama ben Türk markalı fırınları desteklemeyi tercih ediyorum.
23. (COE7) Sadece Türkiye'de temin edemeyeceğimiz ürünleri yabancı ülkelere almalıyız.

Fırın alırken aşağıdaki özellikler sizce ne kadar önemlidir?

24. (PF1) Renk
25. (PF2) İşlevsellik
26. (PF3) Kullanım kolaylığı
27. (PF4) Gelişmiş özellikler
28. (PF5) Akıllı ürün özellikleri
29. (PF6) İç Hacim
30. (PF7) Enerji tüketimi
31. (PF8) Fırın ve tepsilerde kullanılan kaplama malzemesi
32. (PF9) Kolay temizlenebilirlik
33. En son aldığınız fırın markası hangisidir?

34. (CS1) Bu fırını satın alma kararımdan memnunum.
35. (CS2) Bu fırını satın alma kararım akıllıcaydı.
36. (CS3) Bu fırını satın almak beni çok mutlu etti.
37. (RI1) Aynı fırını tekrar satın alma ihtimalim çok yüksek.
38. (RI2) Aynı fırını tekrar satın alabilmek için rakip ürünlere göre daha yüksek bir fiyat ödemeye hazırım.
39. (RI3) Aynı fırını ancak önemli ölçüde daha ucuzsa, satın almayı düşünürüm.
40. (RI4) Rakip markaların reklamları, aynı fırını tekrar alma isteğimi azaltmıyor.
41. (RI5) Medya veya başkaları tarafından kötü değerlendirmeler olsa bile aynı fırını tekrar satın alırdım.
42. Cinsiyet
43. Yaş
44. Eğitim Durumu
45. Aylık Net Gelir
46. Evlilik Durumu
47. Evde Yaşayan Sayısı