

**The Role of Emotions in Consumers' Preferences for Shopping
Malls versus Traditional Bazaars in Turkey**

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Abstract

Since gaining independence in 1923, Turkey has been going through major transformations, both culturally and economically. This transformation caused changes in the behaviour of Turkish people, including consumer purchase behaviour. The researcher undertook this study to explore consumer preferences between the shopping mall and the traditional bazaar place. The researcher intended to understand the reasons of visiting these places and their choice preferences, and how their emotions affect their choice behaviours. This study was conducted a mixed methods study in a shopping mall and a traditional market place in Ankara, Turkey. For the quantitative survey, 200 people were randomly chosen at different times and different days of the week. For the qualitative data collection, 12 people were chosen randomly. The data were analysed and interpreted based on the age, gender, marital status, income, and education level.

Findings indicated that consumers visiting shopping malls and traditional bazaar places were different. The main difference was that the visitors perceived the shopping malls as safe-spaces for socio-cultural interaction, which in turn helped enhance the sense of belonging. It further found that visitors were considering their visit for shops, food court and that they intended to spend time with family and friends. Emotions were of significance and that certain emotions were evoked during their visits. Visitors visiting the shopping malls were satisfied and they were pleased with their experiences, and their perceptions of the quality and the price of products and services were affected because of these positive emotions. Compared to traditional bazaar places where it is more of a pragmatic and practical experience, shopping malls provided a broader satisfaction among visitors.

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To my Father

THE TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract.....	ii
Acknowledgement.....	iii
Table of Contents.....	iv
The List of Tables.....	ix
The list of Figures.....	x
 Chapter 1: Introduction	
1.1 Introduction.....	11
1.2 The significance of the study.....	11
1.3 Research site.....	12
1.4 Contextual Background.....	13
1.5 Turkish Culture.....	15
1.6 Turkish Economy.....	17
1.7 Shopping Malls.....	21
1.8 Bazaars.....	26
1.9 The Role of Emotions in the Consumer Decision Making Process.....	28
1.10 Contribution to Knowledge.....	31
1.11 Thesis Overview.....	34
 Chapter 2: Literature Review and The Conceptual Framework	
2.1 Introduction.....	37
2.2 Socio- Economic Context of Turkish Society.....	38
2.3 The Retail Agglomerations.....	40
2.4 Bazaars in Turkey.....	42
2.5 Turkish Perspectives.....	42
2.6. Consumer Shopping Behaviours and Decision Making.....	47

2.7 The Interpretive Consumer Research.....	53
2.8 The Models of the Consumer Decision - Making Process.....	54
2.9 The Applicability of the Consumer Decision –Making Model in Turkey.....	56
2.10 Theoretical Framework.....	58
2.10.1 Need Recognition.....	59
2.10.2 Search for Information.....	59
2.10.3 Pre Purchase Evaluation of Alternatives.....	60
2.10.4 Purchase.....	60
2.10.5 Consumption	61
2.10.6 Post Consumption Evaluation	61
2.10.7 Divestment.....	61
2.11 Situating Blackwell et al.’s Model Within a Turkish Context.....	62
2.12 The Nicosia Model and The Blackwell Model.....	64
2.13 The Role of Emotions in Consumer Choice Preferences in Consumer Decision Process	71
2.14 Pad Scale.....	83
2.15 Conclusion.....	86

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction.....	89
3.2 The Aim of the Study.....	91
3.2.1 Objectives.....	92
3.2.2 Research Questions.....	92
3.3 Mixed Methods.....	92
3.4 Relevance of the Methodology to the Study.....	96
3.5 Research Site.....	99
3.6 Sampling.....	100
3.7 Data Collection.....	102
3.8 Quantitative Data Collection.....	102
3.9 Qualitative Data Collection.....	104
3.10 Data Analysis.....	105
3.11 Role of Researcher.....	106
3.12 Protection of Human Subject.....	107
3.13 Role of Descriptive Statistics.....	108

3.14 Likert Scale.....	108
3.15 Logistic Regression Model for Quantitative Research.....	109
3.16 Discourse Analysis	109
3.17 Ethical Consideration.....	111
3.18 Reflection.....	112
3.19 Conclusion.....	113

Chapter 4: Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction.....	115
4.2 Distribution of Social Demographic Characteristics.....	116
4.3 The Preferences of Participants.....	117
4.4 Correlations.....	119
4.5 Kruskal Wallis Test.....	120
4.6 Correlations Between Demographic Characteristics and Reasons for Visiting the Shopping mall.....	121
4.7 Statistical Model.....	122
4.8 Qualitative Analysis.....	125
4.8 Comparing and Contrasting the data.....	129

Chapter 5: Results

5.1 Introduction.....	135
5.2 Key Differences and Groups.....	136
5.2.1 Age.....	136
5.2.2 Gender.....	137
5.2.3 Marital Status.....	137
5.2.4 Income and Education Level.....	137
5.3. Purposes of Visit Shopping Mall.....	138
5.4 Differences among Groups.....	139
5.5 Summary.....	139
5.6 Consumption Behavior Implications.....	140
5.6.1 Need Recognition.....	140
5.6.2 Search for Information.....	142

5.6.3 Pre Purchase Evaluations of Alternatives.....	142
5.6.4 Purchase.....	143
5.6.5 Consumption.....	143
5.6.6 Post Consumption Evaluation.....	143
5.6.7 Divestment.....	144
5.7 Socio –Cultural Context and Implications.....	144
5.8 Intergenerational Difference.....	146
5.9 Connecting to Theory.....	149
5.10 Summary of Findings.....	150
5.11 Conclusion	153

Chapter 6: Implications and Conclusion

6.1 Introduction.....	155
6.2 Context.....	155
6.3 Implications for Retail Stores in Bazaars.....	157
6.4 Implications for Retail stores in Shopping Malls.....	162
6.5 Implications for Theory.....	165
6.6 Answers to Research Questions.....	166
6.6.1 Research Questions 1.....	166
6.6.2 Research Questions 2.....	168
6.6.3 Research Questions 3.....	169
6.7 Practical Implications.....	170
6.8 Understanding Consumer Experience.....	174
6.9 Assumptions and Limitations.....	175
6.10 Review of Findings.....	176
6.11 Quantitative Findings.....	177
6.12 Qualitative Findings.....	181
6.13 Conclusion.....	183
6.14 Recommendations for Future Research.....	187

Appendices.....	189
Appendix 1: Participant Information Sheet.....	189
Appendix 2: Participant Consent Form.....	190
Appendix 3: Qualitative Survey Questions.....	191
Appendix 4: Quantitative Survey Questions.....	194
References.....	198

The List of Tables

Table 1: The Distribution of Social Demographic Characteristics.....	116
Table 2: The Preferences of Participants.....	117
Table 3: Correlations.....	119
Table 4: Significant Values Subject to Krushkall Wallis Test.....	120
Table 5: Correlations Between Demographic Characteristics and Reasons for the Visiting the Shopping Mall.....	121
Statistical Model 1: Factors Affecting a Visit to the Shopping Mall for the Cinema.....	123
Statistical Model 2: Factors Affecting a Visit to the Shopping Mall for the Food Court.....	123
Statistical Model 3: Factors Affecting the Visit to the Shopping Mall for the Shops in the Mall.....	124
Statistical Model: 4 Factors Affecting the Visit to the Shopping Mall for Meeting	124

The List of Figures

Figure 1: The Nicosia Model of the Consumer Decision Process.....	65
Figure 2:The Engel Blackwell Miniard Model.....	67
Figure 3: Quantitative data was collected at the Panora Shopping Mall.....	103
Figure 4: Qualitative data was collected in Ayranci Bazaar.....	105

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The opening chapters of the thesis begin with the significance of the study and the research site of the study is explained. Then, to shed light on the background context of the cultural and geopolitical history of Turkey, this chapter will then discuss the Turkish culture and the economy. The chapter will subsequently expound on the shopping malls and traditional market place (bazaars) in Turkey, and then the role of emotions in consumer decision- making processes will be explained. Finally, the contribution of the knowledge will be illustrated.

1.2 Significance of the Study

This study was undertaken in a shopping mall and a traditional market place (also known as bazaar) in Ankara, Turkey. The aim of this research was to explore the consumers' preferences for shopping mall or bazaars. Furthermore, this study explored how emotions affect consumers' behaviours when making such choices. The focus was on understanding their preferences. The model of the consumer decision making process (Engel,Blackwell &Miniard ,2001) is situated in the context of study. This research is contextualized during a period in which Turkish consumers, as citizens of an emerging market economy, are now offered retail experiences in shopping malls. Despite the shopping mall as a growing alternative, consumers continue to choose buying experiences rooted in centuries of tradition speaks to the under- researched role culture plays in purchasing decisions.

This study also contributes to the literature on consumer culture of an under researched population because the choice of location enables us to compare two distinct sets of shopping practices within one setting. Ankara, as the capital city, offers the opportunity for the researcher to examine consumer choice behavior at the expanding, large, modern mall as well as in the persistence of the traditional open markets. Two distinctly different locations within the same setting (not a small town but megacity) thus offer the opportunity to compare behavior within a shifting socio-cultural landscape. The researcher concludes that the hopping malls in Turkey increasingly provides a value proposition while bazaars are still relevant; future research could continue to monitor this shift as Turkey's urban centres continue to

expand while the inflationary Turkish economy may see continued attendance at bazaars.

This study also possesses socio-cultural significance in terms of offering new research as to the motivations of Turkish consumers in the buying process. Yu (2006) argued that consumer research in this field has narrowly focused on consumers' behaviours when purchasing products, and that the retailers were almost always concerned with increasing retail sales. This is true in some contexts, but with the abundance of choice, changes in technology, and increased awareness of potential consumers, other aspects of the buying process need exploration. For example, early research has focused on the geographic location of shopping malls as a strong reason to understand shopping behaviours, but the context requires a broader review and evaluation: "while location continues to take place in shopping mall choice and/or patronage models, researchers' have shifted their attention toward several other mall and shopper characteristics as potential determinants of mall shopping behaviour" (Telci, 2012, p. 2518). This study adds to the literature by helping the retailers and the scholars to develop a deeper understanding of the context, looking at consumers not only as rational customers, but looking at them from a socio-cultural perspective to understand their behaviour. In this study, participants indicated that although the lack of hygiene and crowding at the bazaar were negative aspects of their experience, they still chose to shop at the bazaar for the perceived freshness and lower price of produce than those at shopping malls. Here, in the bazaar, not the shopping mall, the attributes of a product outweighed the location where it was purchased; in other words, a product's perceived nutritional superiority and cost constitute factors that overrode those observations of dirt and heavy pedestrian traffic. These behaviour choices point to deeply held cultural beliefs regarding, for example, the strong value food holds to a society.

1.3 Research Site

The researcher selected Ankara as her research site for the purposes of convenience, but also for its relevance to understanding Turkish culture due to the fact that a relatively homogeneous population occupies it. Ankara, located in western Anatolia, is the capital of Turkey but it has not received as much immigration as Istanbul. Ankara is, therefore representative of middle-class Turkish consumers. With

its over 5 million inhabitants, Ankara's population reflects the population of Turkey. It has a relatively young population at a comparable percentage of gender diversity to Turkey as a whole. From a geopolitical perspective, Ankara has not received as much foreign immigration as Istanbul, and its population includes a mix of people from both the east and the west of Turkey. Even though

“Dependency on car, credit card, and mobile communication defines life for most of Istanbul's population” (Balasecu, 2011, p. 295), Ankara is still a walkable city with relatively easy access to both the shopping malls and traditional retail market places.

Furthermore, “Since the 1980s, the Turkish economy has been steered by neo-liberal policies as privatization and decentralization. The opening of the economy to foreign direct investment has led to significant changes in the spatial configuration of Ankara with the appearance of shopping malls, gated communities, etc.” (Alkan-Gokler, 2017, p. 689) and with this introduction of shopping malls, Ankara is yet to be understood for its uniqueness as well as its reflectiveness of the Turkish population. These gated communities further created isolation (i.e. suburban communities), as is the case in developed nations, and created a vacuum where the shopping malls were created almost side by side with traditional retail market places. Even though these suburban communities have been designed to be isolated, as a landlocked city, Ankara is still a preferred city, again due to its walkability, ease of transportation, and the distance the consumers have to travel to satisfy their consumption needs. Even though the purpose of this study was not to generalise the findings to Turkey, Ankara as a research site and the demographics represented in this study certainly were reflective of the population that was being researched.

1.4 Contextual Background

With its rich historical, cultural, and geopolitical context, Turkey has traditionally been a complex country to understand. It was never not only is it a nation that not been fully occupied and has sought to, it has resist foreign control stood its ground to foreign power for centuries, resisting the colonialism of the east and west. Since gaining independence in 1923, Turkey has been going through undergone major cultural and economic transformations, which have, both culturally and economically. These transformations include its strengthened its ties with the West as an ally and its

significance and in the region's geopolitics of the region. From 1923 to 1962, the agricultural sector was the primary economic driver, which spurred developments in the manufacturing sector and technological changes, but also produced inconsistent growth. (Unal, 2018). These transformations helped Turkey become competitive economically and a strong strategic partner for both the East and the West, but its most important change occurred through its response to the cultural colonialism of the West. Turkey maintained its value-based cultural structure even against the wave of economic, technological, and geopolitical developments in information technology. Thus, it gained opportunities to learn and grow in its own way as a modern democratic nation-state.

One of the changes that has caught Turkish people by surprise, however was the ease with which information flows across the world and the access to new information that this development has provided for Turkish citizens. At the same time free market or "neoliberal" economic developments brings uneven results, with the richer segments of the population taking advantage of global consumer culture, while the poor facing rising poverty and poorer living conditions. (Sandıkcı, Peterson, Ekici, & Simkins, 2016). These dynamics have made it somewhat inevitable that Turkish people began imitating more developed nation-states and adopting their life styles to include different shopping behaviours, in attempt to feel richer and more global, and new ways of thinking and doing business emerged. The strategies that Turkish businesses implemented to accommodate the new market conditions like had uneven results, with some succeeding and others failing altogether. (Koksal and Ozgul, 2007).

While Turkey was changing with the growth in free market economies, around the world, it still maintained its strong ties to its cultural heritage and, thus its traditions. Since 1923, the Turkish economy has grown tremendously and opened its doors for western values. Turkish culture, however, has been struggling with the value systems of the West while still transitioning to a mature economy. This struggle is mainly due to its well-established culture and its connection to its centuries- long history. That is, Turkey is willing to adapt certain Western values but wishes to retain its connection to its roots and thus the residual pride from the remnants of its empire. Turkish culture still maintains its mystery for scholars, politicians, economists and even casual observers.

1.5 Turkish Culture

One cannot understand Turkish culture simply by reading historical documents and following current events. Its meanings, symbols and exchanges are much deeper and can only be understood within its historical context. Turkish culture, through its connection to early trade, was a significant bridge connecting East to West through the Silk Road trade. The silk road was the most prominent commercial artery in the world from antiquity, first connecting the Chinese, Persian, and Roman empires, until the eighteenth century when maritime commerce and then railroads supplanted it. In addition to trade, the Silk Road facilitated the exchange of human knowledge, philosophy, religion, art and architecture, mathematics, science and technology between China, Japan, India, Egypt, Persia, Arabia, and the Mediterranean. (Edgü, Ünlü, Salgamcioglu and Mansouri, 2012). The silk Road was transformed Turkish culture and society, making it a nation of traders and skilful barterers. Shopping was, then, a way of life, for a long time, and bartering was an essential part of the shopping experience, becoming the norm, something expected in every shopping exchange. Children grow up watching their parents barter (also known as haggling) and grow up accustomed to the traditional practice. It is therefore an important element to understand about Turkish consumers.

These historical foundations are often ignored or misunderstood by Western observers trying to understand consumer culture in Turkey and other non- Western cultures. These observers operate under the assumption that consumer culture formed in the West and spread around the world thereafter.(Karababa,2012). As Hofstede (1994) posited, our values represent “the deepest level of a culture,” and “we are born within a family within a nation, and are subject to the mental programming of its culture from birth. Here we acquire most of our basic values” (p. 13). With foundational values undergirding the core of Turkish culture, the changes happening all around us, whether through technological innovation or the interconnectedness of nations, have caused Turkish culture to evolve but remain true to its historical experience. The behaviour of customers, with a mix of both old and the new, are changing as well. This change naturally alters the overall expectations of the consumers from the marketplace. If we want to understand consumer behaviour in

Turkey, it is imperative to look at the traditional value structures in the country and to analyse those behaviours from a cultural perspective. In trying to understand the casual relationship between values and consumption, values may be more useful in predicting how consumption patterns shift. (Henry, 1976). Other scholars have come to similar conclusions, arguing that the value systems of a given culture are vital to understanding the consumer behaviour and, thus, those consumers' perceptions of the value and benefit of the product or service. (Rintamäki, Kanto, Kuusela, and Spence 2006).

Turkish consumers are now much more conscious of their options, and they have been empowered with their relatively uncomplicated and easy access to information. This is not only the case for the present context in Turkey, but it has also had a broader impact on technological innovation and cross-cultural interactions. Customer behavior is clearly changing as a result of more information and awareness about products with customers wanted greater convenience and ease in their experience, as well as the ability to buy a wide range of things at once, so- called "one-stop shopping" (Tandon, Tandon, Gupta, Gupta, Tripathi, and Tripathi 2016 p.643). When combined with the cultural values, these changes make, Turkish consumers even more complicated to understand.

In 2013, Hilal Asil and İsmail Kaya carried out a study in which they found that Turkish consumers had an intermediate level of consumer ethnocentrism as a result of Turkey's general opposition to globalization and regional nationalism movements that have shaped its culture and society. The results of the study revealed a dependence on the level of consumer ethnocentrism that stemmed from sociodemographic characteristics and the political point of view of the consumer. For example, the global trends of globalization are the ones that influence the acquisition of new lifestyles among the youngest population (Kartal, 2013).

Yet, at the same time, Turkey is not a simple uniform country about which generalisations can be drawn. While there is a dominant language, there is a major ethnic minority group, the Kurds, who speak Kurdish in the southeastern regions of Turkey where they predominant. Kurds are estimated to be 19% of a total population that is nearly 81.3 million. Meanwhile, other minorities, too numerous and nuanced to list here, were estimated to be between 7% and 12% of the population in 2016 (CIA

World Factbook, 2018). While Turks are predominantly Muslim, within this grouping, roughly 10% to 20%, is Alevi, who are either Turkish or Kurdish. The largest differences in culture, however, come from geography and wealth. Those living in the major cities such as Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara, and Bursa skew more secular and wealthy. They are more likely to view globalization in a more positive light given these criteria and greater exposure to the West.

More recently, socioeconomic status has directly spawned the development of the new subculture of the Islamist movement that includes both university students and young, middle-class professionals, small and medium sized entrepreneurs, and lower socioeconomic groups in major cities. In addition, a multiplicity of ideological influences from a cultural mix between traditional, modern and Islamic values, as well as Eastern and Western cultural intervention in all layers of society and organizations was identified. (Kartal, 2013). This level of sociological complexity means that findings about Turkish customers will vary, even if Asil and Kaya identified a broad opposition to globalisation and the influences of regional nationalist movements. How the latter affects Turkey is not clearly defined and could be extrapolated in any number of ways. We should, in other words, approach the study of diverse Turkish society and culture with a great deal of circumspection.

1.6 Turkish Economy

Louargand's (2011) historical perspective on the Turkish economy provides us with an important lens with which to analyse the Turkish economy. The perspective covers not only the last few decades; the long historical context dates back to the Ottoman Empire times. "The Ottoman state's economic policies emphasized the importance of the well-being of the community in an economy of plenty" (Karababa, 2012, p. 18). Louargand further elaborated that "While the Ottoman Empire had been in decline for nearly a century of its 700-year history, its dissolution at the end of World War I marked an end to a religious and feudal state. In less than a century, the modern state envisioned by Mustapha Kemal Ataturk has emerged as a modern and thriving economy" (p. 49). Kirisci (2011) carefully argued that during the times when the Turkish economy was a closed economy, this strictly provided a value for the elite: "it was after the liberalization of the Turkish market and transformation of the economy in an export-oriented direction that Turkey began to see a massive explosion in its middle class" (Kirisci, 2011, p. 37). This liberalization, however, did not come

easily. Nor has it been as easy to sustain as “The reality of globalization has opened a new era after the second millennium and has intensified the competition among businesses all over the world. As a result of the intensifying competition, the applications and operations of businesses have begun to alter” (Gokmen, 2012, p. 32).

With the new economic realities since the 1980s, the Turkish economy has been transformed into something that is “more liberal, outward-looking policies with a Western focus. This transformation can be seen as the major cause of changes in the retail sector, which was traditionally dominated by local and small-scale stores” (Erkip, Kizilgun, & Mugan, 2013, p. 330). The competition became fierce, and as the players in the free market economy further included online market places, the profit margins became smaller. This has transformed Turkey into an emerging market not only for domestic retailers, but also for foreign retailers. These foreign retailers possess with much more experience and a stronger understanding of consumer behaviour. Consumers’ awareness forced retailers to consider how to best approach and target their customers, and shopping therefore transformed into a way of life, contributing to the people’s quality of life (El Hedhli, Chebat, & Sirgy, 2013).

Unal (2018), however, cautioned us that that “Although it is controversial to compare a developing country such as Turkey with developed countries, it is a fact that Turkey experienced macroeconomic factors and followed institutional changes in parallel with developed countries, whether successfully or not” (p. 5). In this sense, the transformation in Turkish culture has been a catalyst for the Turkish economy. Within their own political contexts, various governments have implemented policies that were simply reactive with a populous agenda. The sustainability of such economical initiatives was limited to the terms of the governments. As Unal further posited, the main transformation was between the 1980s and the early 2000s, and it created a vacuum with each government and with each consumer report published by foreign organisations. Unal (2018) further provided a historical context for the period between the 1980s and the early 2000s: “In the early 1980s, increasing economic and political problems weakened government and gave way to new institutional changes and supported regulations for export growth. Nevertheless, the period of 1985–2003 remained a long transformation process for the Turkish economy. Finally, in the 2000s, regulations which made the Turkish economy stronger compared to that of the pre-2003 period were created by the government and supported by international

organizations such as the IMF, the World Bank and the EU” (Unal, 2018, p. 2). Asik (2018) posited that we need to further examine and understand the context in Turkey as “[Turkey] constitutes a good example where the regulations encouraged fast consumption growth while at the same time the economy went through a rapid transformation and modernization after emerging from a catastrophic financial crisis in 2001” (Asik, 2018, p.5).

This growth and stability in Turkey can be attributed to Turkey’s single government structure beginning in 2002 as Aysan, Babacan, Gur, and Karahan (2018) argued: “Integrated with the political stability established by single party governments in the post-2002 period, the improving economic outlook also helped Turkey enjoy record levels of foreign investment, adding momentum to the growth story” (p. 1) . Demiralp (2018) stated that “Since it first came to power in 2002, the AKP (Justice and Development Party (AKP, from the Turkish Adalet ve Kalkınma Partisi) government has prioritized urban transformation as a means to achieving economic growth and consolidating power. With these goals, it assertively promoted property development through legal reforms and economic transfers” (p. 29). Bilgin and Siklar (2018) further confirmed that the reforms that began in 2002 remained intentional and carefully managed until about 2008, which was inevitable as it began and ended out of Turkey’s control. The 2008 economic crisis was overcome because of the structural reforms of the government of the time, through various control channels, “Controlling of the budget, recapitalization of banking system and independency of the central bank. In this period, which started in 2002, an effective economic policy was implemented with the support of structural reforms” (Bilgin & Siklar, 2018, p. 53). Furthermore, the steady foreign direct investment served as a catalyst and strengthened the consumer market, especially with the enactment of the Foreign Direct Investment Act of 2003: “Starting from 2004, an increase in FDI inflows into Turkey has been realized. The major reasons for this increase could be global liquidity abundance together with macroeconomic stability in the Turkish Economy .The major aims of this Law are to regulate the principles to encourage FDI, to protect the rights of foreign investors, to define investment and investor in line with international standards, to establish a notification-based system for FDI rather than screening and approval, and to increase FDI through established policies” (Erdal, 2018, p. 30). Starting in 2005, Turkey’s growth has increased, and Turkey “graduated to the status of upper-middle-income country and tripled its GDP per capita within a

decade following the rise of the single-party government to power” (Aysan et.al, 2018, p. 8). Since then, the Turkish economy has maintained its growth, and “Turkey, as a developing country, is considered to be one of the big emerging markets for global business” (Vural, Senkal & Isigicok, 2010, p. 159). Consumption has increased, and thus the attention to shopping malls has grown. The reasons for this growth in consumption can be explained within the context of simple economies. Asik (2018) explained the reasons for this increase consumption in a way that fits into traditional understanding of economics. He stated that the first reason was “the economies of scale offered by retail chains that congregated in shopping malls” (p.7). The second reason was “the increasing access to credit cards and the opportunity to pay in several installments for expenditures made via credit cards ” (Asik, 2018, p.7). The Turkish Federation of Shopping Centers And Retailers (2016) report indicated that “Estimated to enjoy a size of TRY 663 billion as of 2015 year end, the retail industry has preserved its stable growth trend with only occasional fluctuations. Changing dynamics in both Turkey and the world, population growth, urbanisation, and other similar factors have helped to sustain this growth” (p. 6). This is also an effect of a stable government and the consumers’ trust in the government. Turkey is “an example of how economic success, in the sense of how a transition from a primarily agriculture-dominated import-substitution economy to a globally competitive ‘one’ and democratization has gone hand in hand” (Kirisci, 2011, p. 39). Aysan et. al., (2018) cautioned us that even though the economic growth since 2002 and the relatively low impact of the 2008 global economic crisis are noteworthy, “it is undeniable that Turkey could and should improve its quality of institutions even more to escape from the middle-income trap” (p. 2). Asik (2018) agreed that Turkey has been successful in growing domestic and foreign investment during these times and that financing for these investment opportunities was less costly, “another phenomenon that occurred simultaneously with financial services sector growth was the increase in the number of shopping malls, supermarkets, and other retail chains”(p.7). These shopping malls not only changed the behaviour of consumers in Turkey, they also affected the traditional value structures. Louargand’s (2011) analysis of the Turkish context provides the necessary perspective, as well as outlining the relevance of both the bazaars and the shopping malls: “A nation of more than 70 million, it has a diversified economy and a young workforce unburdened by a large dependent populace, unlike many European countries.

Yet Turkey also represents the ancient ways of the nomad, the souk and the bazaar” (p. 49).

1.7 Shopping Malls

The origins of American shopping malls and their role in American consumer cultures are somewhat debated. According to Consumer Reports (1986), shopping malls started organically in California in the 1920s in places where supermarkets were anchored and magnetized a smaller strip of stores to set up alongside them. But Samuel Feinberg (1960) mentions that shopping centres began in 1907 in a Baltimore neighbourhood. Moreover, in 1922, the Country Club Plaza was built in a suburb of Kansas City, and the Highland Park Shopping Village in Dallas, the first group of stores with their own parking lot, was built in 1931. The first shopping mall, as we know it today, was developed in 1956 in a suburb of Minneapolis where the consumer was protected from inclement weather, crime, dirt and problems. According to Gruen & Smith (1960), shopping centres in the United States were initially intended as a type of community centre where people could meet and shop, engage in cultural activities, and interact socially. The Minneapolis mall certainly fit this description.

The emergence of the mall as we know it today, and their phenomenal growth and development in the United States can partially be explained by the migration of people out of the cities and the exponential growth of personal automobiles. Keinfeld (1986) and Turchiana (1990) provide data that illustrate how malls grew alongside suburban life. There were 4,500 shopping malls (14% of retail sales) in 1960, but this grew to 16,400 in 1975 (33% of retail sales) and 30,000 (over 50% of retail sales) in 1987. By this point, shopping malls functioned as what they essentially are today as an integration of retail, social and community centres in their communities.

Herein is the vital insight: since the mall is directly related to the needs of a new and growing population, a local, national, and global consumer culture arises precisely from this new population’s desire to meet its needs for survival, comfort, and fun. Mall developers have thus focused on meeting those needs largely by answering basic questions, such as why, when, what, who, where and how the consumer is, beyond finding an ideal location for a mall, that is to say one that can be reached by either private automobile, public transportation, or on foot. Shopping malls have become an essential part of society in that, in addition to providing

concrete goods, they also provide subjective goods that complement basic subsistence needs, including emotional satisfaction, contentment, happiness, joy and fun through going to the movies, eating food, or consuming goods. The mall, in other words, validates people's choices of where they live.

Telci (2012) explained that "Shopping centers originated in North America at the early years of the twentieth century as enlarged supermarkets that draw together a small number of stores" (p. 517). Since then, they have been transformed and exported across the world, each with different characteristics peculiar to the culture in which they are located. Shopping malls serve people of all social and economic levels of a societal structure: "Existing malls are shared between lower and upper social strata, according to the location and characteristics of the mall, mainly through the variety and quality of the goods and services provided by them" (Erkip, 2003, p. 1078). They have been transformed to fit each national context, all geared towards creating a consumption society. Their designs have been attractive and welcoming, and the purpose is to create one place where consumption needs can be met and then some. The development and the growth of shopping malls in Turkey provides us with a better perspective of how the Turkish economy and, thus, Turkish consumers have changed over the last few decades. It not only helps us understand how the Turkish economy has changed, but also informs us of the future of the Turkish economy. Consumers are changing, and the needs and expectations of the 21st century consumers are different than what could be found in Turkey just a few decades ago. Turkey, as a war-torn nation situated between Europe and Asia, is no longer a stranger to the global economy and the standards of the West. Consumer expectations have never been higher, and the competition has never been fiercer. As El-Adly and Eid (2016) appropriately argued, "Nowadays, customers have become more value-driven; therefore, they tend to be more selective and are more likely to be loyal to those malls where they perceive high value to be available and they are more satisfied" (p. 217). This is also an accurate description of the consumer expectations in Turkey.

Shopping malls provide a much needed convenience for Turkish consumers, and “Shopping motives may be a function of cultural, economic or social environments in a country” (Paul, 2017, p. 72). For a young nation-state like Turkey, shopping malls become a venue to feel part of a larger global economy, as would be expected of a long-established and developed nation state.

However, the caveat that still remains is that, along with its young history, as a nation state, Turkish culture also retains has over 700 years of Ottoman history that creates conflicts within the culture. Even though Turkey’s traditional values conflict with what is called a free market economy (consumer economy), the Turkish economy’s faithful and steady growth and acceptance of different economical models has never been as closely aligned with the West as it is now. The flow of information, the subtext underlying the present -day Turkey, accessibility, and the variety of opportunities have all contributed to the rise of consumerism, through which Turkish people have found satisfaction.

“Consumerism is a cultural pattern that causes people to find meaning, satisfaction and acknowledgment mainly through the consumption of goods and services” (Rodrigues, Dalmarco, Aoqui, & de Lourdes Marinho, 2016, p. 317). And as a consequence of feeling isolated from western traditions, Turkish consumers, “in this case both the traditional and the westernized, feel licensed to immerse in the experience of the other as their own, and navigate their own space within a public consumption space” (Vicdan & Firat, 2015, p. 267).

Erkip, Kizilgun, and Mugan (2013)’s study explored how “ Consumption-oriented urban life has increased the role of the retail sector in the viability of the urban core and sustainability of cities” (p. 329). In their study, convenience and geography proved to be significant factors in understanding the role of shopping malls. Multiple studies have confirmed that shopping malls are convenient for people to access and have attractive interior and exterior designs. It is not only where the shopping malls are located and how attractive their designs are that draws consumers to them; they also provide added value through “the assortment of retailers, retail outlets and leisure attractions, prior to the development of the mall, and the communications mix, cost of access, customer services provided and the interaction between centre, store and customer participants, post-opening of the mall” (Kushwaha, Ubeja, & Chatterjee, 2017, p. 275). Retailers are competing fiercely for

the most visible space in these malls with “significant market penetration opportunities for retailers and retail developers, with much less intense competition than what might be found in the U.S. or other venues” (Louargand, 2011, p. 55). Even though Louargand argued that the competition might not be as fierce as one would find in the U.S. or other developed nations.

It is fair to argue that these shopping malls fill a gap that the Turkish population has been craving for decades. Foxall and Yani-De-Soriana (2011) explained that, “within the changing dynamics of the culture and the economies, “economic behaviour is reinforced by two classes of reward: those that derive from the functional utility of possessing and consuming a good, and those that derive from the status considerations inherent in these processes” (p. 2511). It contributes to the well being of the community as a place for people to socialise and experience of being part of a community. As El Hedhli, Chebat, and Sirgy (2013) stated, “Enhancing well-being in the consumer, social, leisure, and community life domains serves to increase overall life satisfaction” (p. 857). The growth of big cities and the convenience of transportation created the alternatives for consumers, as well as redefining and reshaping what we know about how consumers behave when making purchasing decisions. With the economic reality stabilising and digital marketing becoming an innovation of the past, retailers are in a place where the sophistication of consumers makes it difficult to compete. A retailer’s chances of surviving the reality of this century depends upon its customer profile.

Turkish consumers are attracted to malls for the diverse shopping experience and the variety of products and services which traditional market places fail to provide. Shopping malls have “restaurants, coffee shops, food courts, entertainment facilities, banks, airlines, travel agents, exchange, car rental agencies, as well as opticians and pharmacies. Therefore, they can be expected to offer more values to customers than merely utilitarian and hedonic ones” (El-Adly & Eid, 2016, p. 218). Turkish consumers have been exposed to the conveniences in life that Western nations have been experiencing for decades. It is only just now that Turkish consumers have enjoyed the opportunity to live to a more sought after life style. This is important in the sense that Turkish consumers have not yet gained enough experience to internalise and make sense of how such conveniences fit within their lives. Much exploration is needed in order to determine how shopping malls will survive in the coming decades. Akdeniz and Kara (2014) rightfully explained that

“Turkish consumers have only recently been started to have extensive exposure to such products due to more liberalization took place in Turkish economy in the new millennium” (p. 493). There needs to be much exploration in what is perceived as a ‘good deal’ or what is considered to be of value to the consumers, and “Focusing only on the trade-off between quality and price makes the value construct too narrow and too simplistic” (El-Adly & Eid, 2015, p. 850). Erkip (2003) further argued that even though “the global character of the mall providing various identity components under one roof gave way to a more heterogeneous and democratic consumption site, which has turned out to be a new public space in Turkish urban life. This aspect needs to be analyzed further from a theoretical perspective in order to understand the potential and problems of the mall for public life” (p. 1078). Consumer socialisation and the extent to which consumers rely on shopping malls to satisfy the need for socialisation are important elements in helping us further understand the future of retail markets in shopping malls. People attach values to products and services; they crave status, regardless of where they fall on the socio-economic spectrum. This need for socialisation and craving for status presents as a challenge to retailers with regards to understanding the transformed consumers. Within the Turkish context, this challenge extends beyond simply understanding the customers; it creates the need for a broader recognition of how customers are situated within their socio-cultural contexts.

Parents, friends, and various community members with whom these consumers interact become variables to be explored in targeting customers for specific behaviours. This socio-cultural structure reveals itself as a fluid concept, where the only constant is the change. Integrating these elements in any marketing research when exploring consumers’ behaviour choices in different nation – states becomes necessary.

1.8 Bazaars

Bazaars, or traditional market places, have had a long history in Turkey. They were at their most popular times during the Ottoman Empire. Since the times of the Ottoman Empire a western images of bazaars “depicts the remnants of the old traditional society. We find that the westernized have felt the allure of the other, and experiencing the other has become seductive for both the upper and lower class people in this consumption venue in Turkey, signaling changing orientations toward organizing life and identities in globalizing markets” (Vicdan & Firat, 2015, p. 255). On the route of the Silk Road, where the trade was linked among nations, Turkey has been at the cross roads “linking traders, merchants, pilgrims, monks, missionaries, soldiers, nomads, urban dwellers and intellectuals from East, South and Western Asia with the Mediterranean World, including North Africa and Europe for thousands of years” (Edgü, Ünlü, Salgamcioglu, & Mansouri, 2012, p. 8099:2). Wolfe (1963) explained that “A bazaar is essentially an assembly of shops-a street complex of shops found in Oriental, Eastern, or countries where characteristics of underdevelopment an industrialized sense still exist” (p. 24). It is where consumers satisfy their consumption needs for the whole family and also find a venue for their socialisation needs. These bazaars were traditionally located conveniently in neighbourhoods and provided intrinsic and extrinsic value for the consumers. Wolfe puts it appropriately by arguing that, “Suffice it to say, a market place is the product of various social, economic, and political forces, and implicit in the foregoing was the danger of comparing a modern supermarket with the Bazaar despite innate similar aspects” (Wolfe, 1963, p. 26). Bazaars’ role in society was of a greater importance than shopping at shopping malls. It strengthened kinships, and negotiations went beyond simple purchases of consumption goods. It strengthened the bonds among friends and neighbours alike. Families gathered around simple coffee shops. Children played safely under the careful watch of the community members. For example, early Ottoman coffee houses served as a venue for people to participate in critical discussions (Karababa, 2012) from politics to economics to family matters. People discussed current economic and political events, children made and strengthened friendships, and parents felt connected. This means that there is a strong link between the economic, social and political interaction in the marketplace. Furthermore, “Although a strong bourgeoisie

did not emerge as in western societies, the Ottoman class structure, especially among the urban population, was not a rigid one. Instead, it possessed a fluid nature, due to high levels of social mobility that facilitated the transfer of consumer tastes and goods so that consumption patterns diffused throughout different levels of society” (Karababa, 2012, p. 21). It was essentially an early example of what would be reappearing in a few centuries as modern shopping malls. It served all levels of the society, tailored to every taste and need. This informal type of marketing, while appearing unstructured to western eyes, had significant impact in Turkish society for centuries. Bazaars still maintain their relevance to some extent, yet they have not received as much attention, “Despite its impact on retailers, cultural, historical, and touristic value, and the importance for everyday life, the concept of informal retailing has not received a fair amount of attention” (Renko & Petljak, 2018, p. 328).

Erkip, Kizilgun, and Mugan (2013) explained that “The main actors in the sector are traditional retailers – consisting of convenience stores, traditional bazaars and small street shops – and organized retailers, including shopping malls and outlet stores. Their characteristics and resilience strategies, together with retail policies and organizations, seem to define the future of Turkish cities” (p. 340). These characteristics indicate the vulnerability of these traditional retail market places and the need for more sustainable models. It is therefore important to understand the sustainability of such traditional retail markets as we see in the case: “We argue here that the reasons for the decline of the traditional retail market in Britain have to be contextualized within the particular trajectory of recent neoliberal urban political economy rather than any supposedly “natural” trends in retail geography and consumer behaviour” (González & Waley, 2013, p. 967). It is never a given to assume the sustainability of an economic structure with rapid growth and the changes in society. Turkey is as vulnerable to those changes as any nation, even in the case of developed nations.

1.9 The Role of Emotions in the Consumer Decision Making Process

Babin, Darden, & Babin (1998) question the success of a hypothetical restaurant setting in which a free dessert is offered to compensate for poor service and food a dissatisfied customer:

Consider a typical customer service setting for example. “A customer enters a pleasant restaurant environment and enjoys the ambiance while awaiting service. Rather than getting prompt service, the customer waits over 30 minutes before receiving his or her meal. The house wine is surprisingly pleasing, but the salad has the wrong dressing and the steak is overcooked. A request for water brings another extraordinary wait, as does a demand for the bill. Upon leaving, the customer complains to a floor manager. The floor manager apologises and offers the customer a free dessert. In this example, the customer has had the opportunity to experience both desirable and undesirable emotional states. The offer of a free dessert is a last- ditch attempt at ensuring the customer will leave happy. Will it work? Is the customer left feeling delighted, terrible or both? What are the long term effects?” (Babin, Darden,& Babin, 1998,p.271).

There are clearly negative emotions in the above example because of the length of time spent waiting. Positive emotions also come into play because of the quality of the product and the floor manager’s appropriate behaviour. In this case, it is not clear whether the customer is indeed satisfied and will be retained or whether the customer is not necessarily satisfied, will not return, and will provide negative reviews because of the emotional experience. Babin, Darden, and Babin (1998) explain the complexity of emotions in the above examples as “the offer of dessert on the house may cancel the unhappiness with additional happiness” (p. 283) but “the customer may never return because of the high levels of negative emotion also experienced and unassessed” (p. 283).

If we apply this scenario to the research consumer perceptions collected in this study, it is clear that the value of work holds is its usefulness to the marketing and retail sectors. Much like Babin et al.’s unhappy restaurant visitor, bazaar shoppers are not pleased with the service and ambience they encounter at the market despite their

appreciation for lower priced, fresher goods than those found in the shopping mall. This research adds to the limited studies on Turkish consumer culture with our finding of the emotional satisfaction of the bazaar experience as sub-par. This research fills a gap in delineating the attributes of the Turkish consumer. The research study posit that this consumer is not unaware of the deficiencies in the experience in their choice to purchase from the bazaar. The researcher advocate that retailers at traditional marketplaces such as the bazaar need to pay attention to consumer perceptions of dirt, noise, seller harassment if they wish to stay relevant and compete with shopping centers. Neighborhood retail shops have been treated in the literature; however, to our knowledge little or no communication of research studies of consumer perception has been shared with Turkish bazaar vendors and the municipal organizers. Our work opens the door to further knowledge sharing.

Moreover, the findings of this research identify a gap in the studies in terms of gender analysis in the emotions of the shopping experience. Bazaar sellers are generally male; shoppers, female. Little or no work, to our knowledge, has been done on the emotions related to gender dynamics in the consumer decision -making experience in bazaars. This study work sheds light on attitudes related to gender equality, sexual harassment, and gender imbalance in bazaar employment; in a sense, the presence of the role of sexual politics in the Turkish consumer experience. Although Turkish malls have been the site of more research than bazaars (Yasar et al., 2016), gender as a role in affecting the emotions surrounding the decision to purchase is a gap in the research we attempt to fill.

In terms of examining the significance this work possesses in terms of the role of the Turkish mall shopper, this research offers insight into ways in which retailers can modify the shopping experience so as to validate consumer needs. The study of findings indicated that Turkish shoppers perceive the mall as a site of socialization—seeing friends and holding meetings.

If we look at shopping as a goal, “emotional states may influence why the person decides to pursue a goal” (Bagozzi, Baumgartner, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2000, p. 53). This example tells us that human emotions are complex, and it is crucial for marketing professionals to explore the role of emotions in designing marketing strategies. That is, there is a need to further understand human emotions, as well as

how these emotions translate into marketing with a specific focus on understanding consumer behaviour. Emotions are date and time specific and can change rapidly, especially in an era in which information flows very quickly and consumers are exposed to information through multiple channels. As Babin,Darden, and Babin (1998) stated , “Given marketing’s central focus on consumers , there can be no denying the critically important role played by emotions in defining consumption experiences and influencing consumer reactions” (p.271). It is important for marketers to design strategies to create the ultimate emotional state to encourage consumers to purchase their products or service.

Das and Varshneya (2017) began with the assumption “Mall environment plays an important role in attracting and retaining customers” (p. 178) and studied consumer emotions in a shopping mall exploring the context of pleasure and arousal in consumer behaviour. They “tested the influence of four relevant and unexplored determinants of consumers’ emotion, namely perceived human mall crowding, perceived spatial mall crowding, promotional events held in a mall, and co-visitor influence on arousal and pleasure” (p. 177). Their survey was distributed at a mall in India. Their findings indicated tthat “A mall having variety of retail stores, theatres and restaurants tend to create excitement in the customers for shopping” (p. 183) and that this “feeling of excitement influences their hedonic consumption, which enhances pleasantness. Thus, in the present case it had a positive influence on arousal and pleasure” (p. 183). They recommended that “the mall managers that the number of mall visitors and the retail outlets located at the mall encourages consumer affective states such as arousal and pleasure” p. 183) because “positive affective states influence consumers’ repatronage intentions and positive word of- mouth”(p.184).

The purpose of this study is to understand the decision- making processes of Turkish consumers, as well as to explore the preferences in consumers’ shopping behaviours in both shopping malls and bazaar (traditional market) places. Furthermore, this study explores how Turkish consumers make decisions about whether to visit shopping malls or bazaar (traditional market) places, and how emotions affect their behaviours when making such choices. If consumers chose the mall because of the attractiveness it holds for socializing and not purchasing (as this research indicates), then our findings provide information for retailers and urban planners, such as mall architects.

1.10 Contribution to Knowledge

While this study has significant findings in understanding consumer preferences in choosing to either shop at shopping malls or traditional market places, it is important to note that “The contemporary paradigm that dominates marketing thought must adopt an engaging societal orientation, in which the innovations of collective minds and the spirit of creativity are internalized by all consumers, producers, and governments” (Aslanbay & Varnali, 2014, p. 668). That is, understanding consumer behaviour is much more complex than simple economics. We need to understand consumers not as rational decision makers, but as sophisticated beings behaving in an ever-changing modality within their historical, cultural, political context as well. This exploration has to be done both at the micro and macro levels as Chiu, Kwan, Li, Peng, and Peng (2014) suggested: “To make nuanced predictions regarding when consumers' behaviors would conform to the culturally typical pattern in concrete consumption situations, marketers will need to combine macro- and micro-level analyses” (p.6). These analyses ought to reference their baseline within the cultural context, but as a fluid concept, the findings can only be analysed from a set point of time and place and cannot be generalised to different times and contexts. Assuming that a single point of reference for a study would help us understand consumer behaviour is false, especially through the lens of a correlation between a customer and the need for a product and service. It is much broader than that and requires extensive analyses from multiple reference points and through different times and places to be able to create a median reference point to work from.

This study concluded that shopping malls provide an increasing value proposition to the market economy in Turkey, filling a need that traditional market places are no longer able to fill. The traditional purpose of shopping malls has been transformed into not necessarily a place to satisfy the consumers' needs for consumption goods, but a place where they satisfy their socio-cultural needs, integrating a significant purpose for people to visit traditional market places. In this context, the study adds to the body of knowledge which helps retailers to reimagine their strategies for their target demographics. As Rintamäki, Kanto, Kuusela, and Spence, (2006) argued, “Creating and delivering customer value is a precondition for retailers to survive in today's competitive marketplace. Many shoppers are looking for more than simply fair prices and convenience, the cornerstones of utilitarian value.

Retailers who understand the multiplicity of motives for shopping have the best possibilities to create value for their customers” (p.7). That is, understanding consumer behaviour in the Turkish context requires a deeper exploration of the motivations of these consumers. It is important to not consider Turkish consumers unaware of their options, even though the choices were limited before the invention and the availability of information technology for masses. If the retailers are aware of the social dimensions of the shopping experience as an added value and how consumers are satisfied through these dimensions, they can plan much more effectively when “planning advertising and promotions, segmentation strategies, managing store atmospherics, and in staging integrated and memorable shopping experiences” (Rintamäki, Kanto, Kuusela, & Spence, 2006, p. 20). In this context, communicating the message to consumers is important, especially in vulnerable economies such as Turkey. Turkey’s volatile economy is vulnerable to the changes in global economies and responds rather negatively to even a small change. This can be overcome to a certain extent through better communication of the message. Much more effective communication skills for the retailers are also necessary to help inform the customers of their choices, as well as the impact these choices have on their discretionary income. As Koksall and Ozgul (2007) stated, “communication with consumers is of special importance. Lost consumer interest, due to reduced discretionary income, can be reacquired through promotion activities. By this means, companies can also attract floating customers to their brands, since consumers tend to change their brand preferences more frequently during crises than at other times” (p. 339).

Another addition this study provided was that traditional market places were still relevant for Turkish consumers: not as a place to socialise or to fit in, but simply to satisfy their immediate needs for consumption goods. Their rationale for shopping in traditional retail markets was driven by their need for inexpensive and fresh food items. It is, however, important to note that the consumers visiting traditional market places were not necessarily spending more time than they needed, as they were not pleased with the customer service quality they experience. It is, therefore, as important for retailers at traditional market places to not to take the Turkish consumers for granted and to adapt and adopt sooner than later if they wish to maintain their relevance in the market place.

Alimen and Bayraktaroglu (2011) have studied consumers, and they argued that their study “demonstrated the influence of demographic factors on consumption adjustments which differ with respect to consumers’ gender, age, marital status, occupation, and income” (Alimen & Bayraktaroglu, 2011,p. 201). However, this study’s findings only partially confirmed this argument, concluding that those consumption behaviours of consumers varied greatly in regards to the customer’s gender age, and marital status but were not necessarily differentiated per their income and occupation. This study, therefore, adds to the literature through the assertion that income and occupation are not significant variables in understanding consumers’ choice of shopping venue, but age, gender, and marital status are significant variables.

Overall, the findings of this study lead the researcher to argue the relevance of consumer socialisation and the need for status in order to understand their purchase behaviours. A simple correlation is not enough evidence. It would be presumptuous to imply a strong relationship between the product offered and the purchase behaviour without a significant amount of attention to the socio-cultural context. We need to understand the emotional state of consumers within their socio-cultural state and explore the shopping experience as a cumulative experience which contributes to the overall emotional health of the consumers. That is, sociocultural and psychological determinants of consumer behaviours are equally as important as the economic determinants of consumer behaviours. The reference groups to understand the significance of these determinants are diverse and ever changing.

1.11 Thesis Overview

The organization of the thesis is as follow.

1. The Introduction Chapter:

The significance of the research study and the research site is mentioned in this first chapter. It gives relevant information regarding the history of Turkey. In addition, the chapter explores the shopping mall and traditional bazaar structure, in detail, from past to present. It describes when and how these concepts were integrated in the Turkish market and how the Turkish consumers behaved before the introduction of shopping malls. The ways in which the culture and economy have both been changed through the shopping mall structure are explained. The chapter outlines the economy and the transformation of the economic structure. The role of emotion in consumer decision- making process is also explained. In addition, the contribution to knowledge will be highlighted.

2. The Literature Chapter:

In this chapter, the researcher illustrates a review of the previous studies on the consumer decision-making process and the impact of emotions on purchase behaviour. The chapter outlines and provides the relevant information about the Turkish economy, the culture, and the shopping centre and the traditional bazaar in the Turkish context. Moreover, the theoretical framework of The Blackwell Miniard and Engel 2001 consumer decision process model is located in this section, and the seven stages that influence the purchasing behaviour of consumers are described. The chapter also explains the alternative model (the Nicosia model) and compares this alternative model with the Blackwell Miniard Engel model. In addition, the chapter explains the literature of the emotion and the Pad scale. The literature chapter will be finalised with a conclusion section. This chapter leads to the methodology chapter.

3. The Methodology Chapter:

This chapter presents the methodology of the study. It sheds the light on the qualitative and quantitative methods and describes and justifies the reason for choosing the mixed method by using and reinforcing the references. The justification of the mixed methods and the method of the data collection, sampling, will be mentioned in this chapter. Moreover, three research questions are presented. The chapter also contains a description of the types of research philosophies and the research ethics which were followed in the study. The chapter concludes with a reflection and conclusion of the methodology chapter.

4. The Data Analysis:

In the data analysis chapter, the qualitative and the quantitative methods of analysis are demonstrated in detail. It will also introduce the participant's responses to prepared questions.

5. The Results Chapter:

This section presents the results of the qualitative and quantitative data findings in detail. It discusses the consumer decision-making process model with the findings of the shopping mall and traditional bazaar data. Furthermore, it compares these results with the relevant previous literature. In light of the empirical analysis, this section discuss the consumer behaviour implications of the results. After this, the results are examined in terms of how they connect to the theory. The findings chapter is finalised with the conclusion of the results.

6. The Implications and Conclusions Chapter:

This chapter is integrating the mixed methods of key findings and discusses the implications for the shopping mall and the traditional bazaar in detail. In this chapter, the qualitative and the quantitative findings has been synthesised. These findings have been linked to the relevant literature review, and these findings were confirmed by the literature. Furthermore, some recommendations have been emphasised for the shopping mall managers and the shopkeepers at the bazaar venues. The researcher explains the implications of the findings for the shopping mall managers and the bazaar shopkeepers. In addition, the researcher explains some strengths and weaknesses of the bazaar venues.

Furthermore, practical implications for marketers and retailers are made. This is followed by assumptions and limitations, as well as the recommendations of the future research.

Chapter 2 Review of Related Literature

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this literature review is to provide context and to critically evaluate what is already known about the possible reasons why consumers might prefer shopping malls over bazaars, how consumers make purchasing decisions, and how emotions affect such purchasing decisions. The literature review also highlights the gaps in knowledge and questions that are still not answered. Through this review of the literature available, the researcher determines the gap that could be filled by the study that will be conducted. This review also provides an overview of the topic and the methods which other researches have used to investigate it.

Moreover, it provides a detailed description of the study by explaining the specifics of the theoretical framework. In addition to this literature review will focus on the Pad scale in regards to measuring emotion.

The following review presents a comprehensive overview of bazaars and shopping malls in Turkey, as well as how consumers and retailers respond to both constructs. To contribute to the field, this review explores what has been done before and what this means for the broader construction of further understanding consumer behaviour. Also, understanding the Turkish context has not been as urgent due to its geopolitical positioning and its blend of culture and rich history. The research questions that will be addressed through this study are:

- 1-What are the differences in consumer shopping behaviours in shopping malls and bazaars?
- 2- How do Turkish consumers make decisions about shopping at shopping malls versus bazaars?
- 3- How do emotions affect consumer purchasing behaviour?

Guided by these questions, this review presents an analysis of the current literature in the field of consumer behaviour and marketing.

2.2 Socio-economic Context of Turkish Society

The Turkish economy is one of the fastest growing economies in the world. The steady growth in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Economic Outlook, n.p.) has been the major driver in providing alternative shopping experiences for Turkish consumers. Turkey's significant geopolitical and geo-economic positioning, combined with its sophisticated historical context and its future aspirations have all contributed to how consumers behave. All of these factors make it rather difficult to design a predictive model specifically for Turkish consumers. For all we know, as Louargand (2011) argued, that "Turkey is forecast to have stronger economic growth, faster labor force growth, shrinking household size, greater affluence and increasingly western tastes" (p. 55). This forecasted economic growth is not only because of Turkey's urbanising context, but also for a variety of reason, without one specific reason as Torlak, Spillan, and Harcar (2011) confirmed: "With its young population, a result of having the highest birth rate in Western Europe, Turkey possesses highly skilled and competitive labor, a huge domestic market, a unique geographical location, and a dynamic private sector with close regional connections" (p. 53). However, these variables do not contribute to the growth and the transformation in equal terms but in a more fluid manner in different levels. For example, Turkey's "urbanizations has been rapid, as it was estimated at 40 per cent in 1960" (Louargand , 2011, p. 50) and that this "Suburbanization led to increased automobile use and provided fertile ground for the development of the modern shopping mall" (p. 50). This urbanisation and the widening of the socio - economic gap have contributed to expansion of the suburban culture and "small and local distributors have initiated new structures in order to have more power against global and corporate capital and to be able to survive in the market" (Erkip, Kizilgun, & Mugan, 2013, p.331). Larger cities in Turkey are especially becoming as urbanised as their western counterparts. "Turkey has become an urbanized country much like the rest of the developed world. In 2010 the government estimated that more than 76 percent of the population lived in an urban setting (district and province centers)" (Louargand, 2011, p. 50).

Trading is embedded in Turkish culture. For centuries, they have provided products to other countries. However, with the introduction of western value structures, Turkish culture has been transforming. Turkish consumers are not exposed

to products and services offered to all consumers across the world. They are not always satisfied with local products as “In many developing countries, most consumers grow up in an environment characterized by scarcity and low-quality local products. In these environments, consumers tend to associate global brands with high quality and prefer global brands over local alternatives” (Sandıkcı, Peterson, Ekici, & Simkins, 2016, p. 308). Shopping malls provide a venue for Turkish consumers to be more aware of the quality and the options available to them. This was not true before the emergence of the Internet and the availability and the convenience of information and information sharing. Of course, it is also important to note that “development of consumer culture cannot be linked to a single western trajectory of modernization” (Karababa, 2012, p. 21) as would be assumed for shopping malls, but it is certainly a significant factor. There are many factors that contribute to the change in culture and context, and consumerism is an outcome of various changes in cultural contexts. Aslanbay and Varnali (2014) further confirmed that “consumption has been conceptualized as not being the end of production as stated by Adam Smith, but a means of creating meaning, content, and a frame of life” (p. 668).

Turkish consumers have been adapting to new shopping experiences, mainly satisfied through large shopping malls. Haseki (2013) stated that “beginning from the mid-1980s, Turkish society has witnessed a rapid transformation in many aspects, due to economic restructuring” (p. 43). This transition from traditional shopping experiences to shopping mall experiences, where they can peruse through multiple products and services in one place, has been quickly embraced by Turkish consumers. Erkuş, Kizilgun, Mugan (2013) state that “considerable economic growth and social, political and technological changes also boosted the development of Turkey’s retail environment” (p. 330). Paul (2017) further explained the relevance of shopping malls as compared to traditional retail shops within the context of emerging markets:

“In emerging markets, the traditional small shops were very popular until the past decade because of their proximity to shopper’s home and the abundance of this type of small store. Malls that have been set up in recent years are likely to affect the existence of small retailers in emerging markets. Modern malls are large, carry more inventory, have a self-service format and are located in prime places. Both multinational firms and big domestic players have set up hundreds of large malls in emerging countries during the past two decades. A mall is the largest form of organized retail present today.” (p. 70)

Turkish consumers' willingness to borrow money to consume, steady economic growth, and the increasing urbanisation of Turkey have all contributed to the rise in the number of large shopping malls. However, given the relatively deeply rooted cultural values, traditional shopping malls (referred to as bazaars from now on) are still maintaining their status in modern Turkish society. Jhamb and Kiran 2012 posited that "liberalization of the economy, rise in per capita income and growing consumerism have encouraged larger business houses and manufactures to set up retail formats in India" (p. 4197) and this is relevant for the context in Turkey as well. However, Erkip, Kizilgun, and Mugan (2013) argued that "Although the number of retail stores and shopping malls has been increasing, the retail sector has a highly fragmented structure owing to the long-standing imbalance in the income distribution, which is not expected to change radically in the near future" (p. 331). It is therefore imperative for us to understand the role of both shopping malls and bazaars in Turkish society, as well as how consumers make choices about where to purchase the goods and services they need.

2.3 The Retail Agglomerations

Retail agglomerations serve many purposes, often beyond commercial sales. On a broad level, they build new networks and connections that retail and service organizations can take advantage to nurture collaborations and synergies. Thus, many such organizations choose to locate their offices or businesses in retail agglomerates, hoping to benefit from the interplay of retail outlets and the greater numbers of customers that they attract. Shopping malls, after all, provide a competitive advantage in terms of capacity, resources, and scale (Teller, Wood & Floh, 2016).

Agglomerations can thus marshal their resources collectively and, through offering a greater variety of specific competencies and services, attract more customers.

Collective strategies such as advertising, centralized management, and parking and traffic-guidance platforms all aid the customer experience, not to mention whole scale renovations or remodeling of common storefront spaces (Teller, Wood & Floh, 2016). These advantages would simply not be possible if retail and service organizations operated independently.

The most important advantage of retail agglomerations is the creation of a common space for consumers to visit multiple different outlets and consumer but also to socialize and spend time with one another. This variety mimics that of traditional

retails markets, such as bazaars in Turkey, in fact and makes retail agglomerations convenient for consumers: they can shop and socialize at the same time in an efficient way (Teller & Elms, 2012). The benefits that accrue to retail outlets, however, are not entirely clear, or at least they are difficult to measure. How much do they gain in sales from being part of agglomerations? To some extent, this depends on the services, facilities, and other specific attributes of each, which are difficult to compare in an apples-to-apples way (Teller, Wood & Floh, 2016). Nevertheless, the synergies that are created help to some extent. The agglomerations also ensure a steady flow of consumers at least passing the doors of each retail outlet and serve as a form of advertising, at the very least. Moreover, the sheer diversity of options and customers guarantees that agglomerations add value to outlets, consumers, and urban spaces more broadly.

Retail agglomerations, moreover, can benefit both chain stores as well as individual outlets. Shopping malls and bazaar places alike collaborate and market on behalf of all the outlets. Retail stores are also far more concentrated in an agglomeration. This means that each outlet gets more visibility than a tradition retail store on the street. They enjoy, then, high levels of pedestrian traffic and ease of access, since parking is either free or subsidized in agglomerations (Teller & Elms, 2012). The clustering of stores, moreover, provides a form of insurance against economic downturns because it assures more visitors. At the same time, it provides higher profits when the economy is doing well. Shopping malls generally are less resistant to economic downturns because they attract people for social reasons, not simply shopping. Their added features and pleasing design even provide people with a feeling of contentment and adventure. All that said, the true value of agglomerations rests in their ability to manage, support, and oversee the group of stores. The agglomeration's interests are generally, although not always, aligned with those of its tenants.

2.4 Bazaars in Turkey

Edgu, Unlu, Salgamcioglu, and Mansouri (2012) explained that bazaars “are usually built as a part of a larger complex including, hamams, soup kitchens, and such as a source of revenue for mosques, religious or charitable trusts known as vakıfs, where the donated assets cannot be turned over to individuals or institutions” (p. 8099). The class structure in Ottoman Empire was fluid and progressive in nature. This progressive nature of the class structure facilitated social mobility, and bazaars became a place where people from different classes were able to interact.

Many bazaars in Turkey since then have evolved into larger retail shopping areas, while maintaining their complexity and flavour, also described as high-society bazaars (Vicdan & Firat, 2015). The bazaar is still very much a gathering place and a venue for interclass interactions. Bazaars in Turkey maintain their place within Turkish consumer culture not only as a place to purchase goods (and sometimes services), but also a place to socialise. Bazaars are still significant, for as Turkey maintained its connection to its roots, “the retail sector in Turkey was dominated by small and independent firms for a long time. The traditional open-air and covered bazaars of the Ottoman period, which were replaced by convenience stores – grocers, greengrocers, butchers – in the republican period, continue to be a part of Turkish retailing in many cities and towns even today” (Erkip, Kizilgun, & Mugan, 2013, p. 331). It is still true that bazaars and similar shops serve a large group of consumers to satisfy their basic needs. Not only that, it still maintains the products and services that are still in the fabric of Turkish culture with its wedding traditions and various religious and social celebrations for the middle and lower middle classes.

2.5 Turkish Perspectives

Turkish researchers have been exploring the phenomenon of shopping malls and bazaars and how both of the competitive shopping structures are contextualised in the social, cultural, and economic fabric of the steadily changing Turkish people. Erkip, Kizilgun, and Mugan (2013) stated that there was “the relative recovery in economic indicators after 1980” and that the “influence of mass media caused changes in the life patterns and consumption behaviour of Turkish consumers” (p. 331). Consumers in Turkey are not the same consumers from the 1980s, and new emerging studies contribute to the field specifically exploring the Turkish context from Turkish perspective.

Vicdan and Firat (2015) described the current structure of Bazaars in Turkey as “high-society bazaars” (p. 249). Their study exploring “key changes in orientations toward encountering and experiencing the ‘other’ in new consumption venues as a result of the transformations in globalization and modern culture” (p. 248) was aimed at “how ‘experiencing the other’ is increasingly sought in high-society bazaars by both upper and lower social classes, respectively representing the westernized and traditional social elements in Turkey, where the West meets the East” (p. 248). They conducted focus group interviews followed by face-to-face interviews with individual consumers in a high-society bazaar setting in Turkey. They concluded that high-society bazaars “as hybrid consumption spaces enable people to go beyond the functional task of shopping, and provide them with the means to construct and experience being the other, navigate among other modes of life to construct meaningful life experiences, as opposed to seemingly nonnegotiable, scripted and regimented modern consumption venues” (p. 269). That is, bazaars are not only places for consumers to purchase consumptions goods that meet their needs, they are also places where their deeply-rooted cultural identities are confirmed. Through their interactions in these high-society bazaars, they understand the “other” in a way that makes them feel safe without the need to adapt as they would in a high- end shopping mall.

Tengilimoglu, Dursun-Kilic, and Gulec’s (2012) study investigating preferences, attitudes, and behaviours of consumers in health care services was conducted in the capital city of Turkey: Ankara. They surveyed 810 people in urban and rural areas of Ankara. They concluded that “the closeness of the health care institution to the patient’s place of residence emerges as a substantially important factor in the formation of the consumer’s hospital preference.” (p. 214). They further argued that “transportation is an important matter for patients. Therefore, it is very critical for administers of health care organizations to take necessary measures in order to provide for patients a convenient access to their health care facilities” (p. 214). This argument is important in the context of the location of the shopping destination, whether it is a shopping mall or a more convenient traditional retail centre closer to the homes of the consumers. Even though traditional retail stores (bazaars) are moving to shopping malls, bazaars continue to exist and are relevant primarily due to their convenient locations.

Erkup, Kizilgun, and Mugan (2012) explained that “open-air” and “covered bazaars” continue “to be a part of Turkish retailing in many cities and towns even today” (p. 331)

Alan, Kabadayi, and Yilmaz’s (2016) study examined the link between “cognitive and affective evaluations to store loyalty” (p. 717). Their premise was that “in addition to their indirect effects through the arousal of negative and positive emotional responses, experience-related and store-related cognitions regarding a consumption experience in a retail service context may exert direct effects on consumer loyalty” (p. 717). They surveyed 518 consumers in four coffee shops of two major chains in Istanbul, Turkey. Their findings indicated that “when people are happy about their experiences and feel good about being in the retail service setting, i.e., when they are having a pleasant time away from daily routines, they may demonstrate some negative emotional reactions to these experiences, in addition to the expected positive emotional responses” (p. 732).

Vural Arslan, Senkal Sezer, and Isigicok, (2010) explained that “The last decade has seen a significant rise in the number of shopping malls in different parts of the world and many studies are being produced increasingly in this area” (p. 178). They conducted a study to “analyze the factors behind the attractiveness of shopping malls as the new social and retail spaces for young Turkish consumers which is one of the important segment of shopping mall users in Turkey” (p. 178). They conducted a survey consisting of 621 people to include “teenagers (12-18 age group) and young adults (19-24 age group” (p. 178) in a shopping mall in Bursa, Turkey. They concluded that “the young Turkish population (including high-school, university students and white collar workers) generally preferred shopping malls in order to socialize with their friends and families due to the leisure activities and socializing spaces”(p. 185). This is more evidence to indicate that the shopping malls in Turkey satisfy multiple needs of consumers. This is true for young populations, but it is increasingly apparent in and relevant for adult populations as well.

Telci (2013) examined “the valence and strength of the direct effects of shopping mall patronage on these two important aspects of the dark side of consumer behavior (i.e., materialism and compulsive buying)” (p. 2518). His premise was that consumers with high mall shopping behaviour will have increased materialistic values and this will “motivate them towards compulsive buying” (p. 2518). He defined materialism as “the belief that only material things exist” (p. 2519). He collected data

from a “convenience sample of shoppers (N = 203) in three shopping malls located at different parts of the city (i.e., Istanbul)” (p. 2522) through “self-administered questionnaires that include measures of shopping mall patronage, materialism, compulsive buying, and mall shopping motivations are used in order to eliminate the possibility of interviewer effects” (p. 2522). He concluded that “increased shopping mall patronage has direct positive effects on consumers’ materialistic values and compulsive buying levels” (p. 2525). He further argued that “people who visit these enclosed shopping environments frequently and enjoy spending time in such places report higher materialistic values and engage in greater chronic and repetitive buying including items that they don’t even need” (p. 2525).

Haseki’s (2013) study explored the expectations of customers of shopping mall restaurants in order for the shopping mall restaurants to be able to adapt and attract greater number of customers. He conducted surveys with 690 people at a shopping mall in Adana, Turkey. He concluded that as:

“educational level increases; price sensitivity, the need for entering into crowd, the need for arrival of families, the need for entertaining elements, the need felt for appealing of food and beverages to the eye, the need for offering opportunity to try or taste products, demand for gifts and giveaways and attention paid to nutritional values, the need for lounge/saloon belonging to the enterprise, sensitivity shown to the exhibiting order of food and beverages, expectation regarding portions being satisfactory and the need towards making product promotions decrease, on the other hand, the value attributed to the brand increases.” (p. 56)

Ergin’s (2010) study explored “compulsive buying tendencies of male and female consumers, with a particular focus on consumers’ age and income level” (pp. 333-4). She administered a questionnaire in the capital city of Turkey, Ankara, in four different shopping malls. She selected 314 participants through convenience sampling. Her results confirmed the “previously documented gender differences, indicating Turkish women to be more affected by the compulsive buying phenomenon” (p. 338). She argued that the compulsive shopping is a disorder and that “Consumers with compulsive buying behavior need some form of assistance and treatment to overcome their disorder” (p. 338). The concept of compulsive shopping is an area that has not received as much attention in the literature, given its relevance to marketing research. Ergin’s study clearly indicated the relevance of compulsive

shopping behaviour. The study also showed that the gender differences are significant in understanding the compulsive shopping behaviours of consumers.

Buyukkaragoz, Bas, Saglam, and Cengiz (2014) conducted a study to understand “consumers’ awareness, acceptance and attitudes towards functional foods in Turkey” (p. 629). They described ‘functional foods’ as: “these foods include a wide variety of foods and food components believed to improve overall health and well-being, reduce the risk of specific diseases or minimize the effects of other health concerns” (p. 628). They collected data from 808 Turkish consumers at “shopping areas, universities and public places” in Ankara. They concluded that “socio-demographic characteristics such as age, education and income levels, and prices are important indicators that influence consumers’ awareness and consumption of functional food” (p. 634) with the understanding that “consumers do not have enough knowledge about functional foods in this context” (p. 634).

Kucukemiroglu (1999) conducted a study to identify “consumer market segments existing among Turkish consumers by using lifestyle patterns and ethnocentrism.” (p. 470). He argued that because the global business structures have been changing rapidly and that “this rapid transformation has, in most cases, created enormous market opportunities for countries and industries around the globe” (p. 470). He collected the data through personal interviews in Istanbul. His findings implied that there were “several lifestyle dimensions apparent among the Turkish consumers which had an influence on their ethnocentric tendencies. Non-ethnocentric Turkish consumers tend to have significantly more favorable beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding imported products than do ethnocentric Turkish consumers” (p. 474). He further stated that “significant correlations were found between the lifestyle dimensions of Turkish consumers and their ethnocentrism levels.” (p. 475). These findings are relevant and important as the results indicate a type of consumer that very much represents the Turkish consumers, and the marketers need to assess the needs of ethnocentric consumers to better understand the population.

This section explored relevant studies to provide a broader picture of Turkish consumer culture and how this culture is changing with social, economic, and cultural changes. It provides an overview of Turkish consumer behaviour as it relates to the choice of products, relevance of pricing, and the choice of venue to satisfy shopping needs as well as social needs. It sheds light on how consumers behave in shopping malls and their preference for shopping malls versus traditional retail shops. The

relevance further lies with the implications of these studies for their contribution to knowledge development and how such studies might relate to practical applications which will eventually provide a road map for marketers and retailers alike.

2.6 Consumer Shopping Behaviours and Decision Making

Consumer decision making behaviour is a complex phenomenon and is rather fluid. It is therefore important to provide context and an overview of how consumers make decisions and how these decisions affect their purchase behaviours. As Roberts (2013) put it:

“Since human beings spend much of their lives consuming products and services - from houses, food and clothing to transportation, health and recreational services - it follows that consumer behavior represents an integral part of human behavior and cannot be separated or considered distinct from general human functioning.” (p. 6)

This section reviews the relevant literature in understanding the behaviours of consumers in different contexts to provide a context to further explore the shopping behaviours of consumers in shopping malls and bazaars.

Changing markets, shifting economic structures, and the availability of information and easy access to such information have urged the retailers, both in traditional and modern markets, to not to take consumers for granted. In the past, consumer behaviour was narrowly defined to understand purchasing decisions. With the complex needs and motivations of consumers (Chisnall, 1995), not only do we need to have a more informed understanding of consumers within their own cultural contexts, we also need to consider “how the possession and use of consumption objects influences who we are, how we perceive ourselves, and others, and how these objects impact the broader social and cultural worlds we inhabit in our various roles as citizens, parents, professionals, and so on” (Kimmel, 2015, p. 4). This understanding extends the viewpoints on purchasing behaviours to further include the satisfaction at deeper levels with specific attention to cultural norms (Chisnall, 1995).

Kimmel (2015) argued that material possessions are central to defining who we are as human beings and in some instances, these material possessions are central to our lives. Certain types of consumers attach their identities to such possessions and

believe that “happiness can be accrued from the possessions they own” (p. 22) and these possessions are “essential to their lives and identities” (p. 22). He further argued that “over the past century, materialism and the consumption of material goods for the sake of pleasure have spread to entire population beyond the United States and Europe” and to “less affluent regions” (p. 24). Of course, shopping behaviour is not either personal or social. It is a combination in which consumers make rational choices for a pleasurable outcome, (Spanjaard & Freeman, 2012) and “modern consumption in the first half of the last century has generally been theorized as an activity in itself, whereas in the second half, postmodern consumption has most commonly been defined in terms of the construction of identities and their reflections of the self” (Aslanbay & Varnali, 2014, p. 666).

Mehrabian and Russell’s (1974) seminal work on examining the consumer shopping behaviours within the context of store atmosphere resulted in the development of the S-O-R framework (stimulus–organism–response). The S-O-R framework explains that physical and environmental stimuli affect an individuals’ emotional state. These emotional states (pleasure, arousal, and dominance) in turn affect the individual’s behaviour. Donovan and Rossiter (1982) examined the S-O-R framework in a retail setting. They limited the study to “establishing the relationship between emotional states induced in a retail environment and statements of behavioral intention in that environment” (p. 42). Their sample included 30 graduate students in business programs assigned to 2-3 retail environments. They completed questionnaires when they entered the stores. Their findings indicated that “store atmosphere engendered by the usual myriad of in-store variables, is represented psychologically by consumers in terms of two major emotional states - pleasure and arousal- and that these two emotional states are significant mediators of intended shopping behaviors within the store” (p. 34). Sherman, Mathur, and Smith (1997) explained that Donovan and Rossiter’s findings “suggested that environmental stimuli affect the emotional states of consumers in ways of which they may not be fully aware, but which can affect approach or avoidance behavior” (p. 363) and that “such behavior may be observed in retail patronage, store search, interactions with store personnel, and in-store behavior” (p. 363).

Kancheva and Marinov (2014) explored the role of family in the formation of demand for consumers. Their study was conducted to “assess the distribution of marital roles in buying decisions of primary groups of products” (p. 157). After the

analysis of the findings, they concluded that the “wife's influence in all the phases of decision-making is significant and cannot be neglected, especially in decisions about “long-term” products as house, financial instruments, life insurance and furniture, despite the husband's role in family resources” (p. 160).

Mehra and Singh (2016)’s study to “explain and predict the beliefs influencing consumer needs and the motivations behind their purchase decisions” (p. 224) provided further insight into the purchase intentions of consumers. They surveyed 500 people through “pre-tested, structured and non-disguised questionnaire” (p. 227). They concluded that “Sound reputation of a brand, its past performance, image of the company offering it, persuasive advertisements and credible sales efforts by the retailers are the factors that are contemplated more” (p. 234) when consumers were making purchasing choices. This conclusion is important in understanding why consumers choose shopping malls, as shopping malls are usually populated by well-known brands and the stores with such brands provide the consumer with a sense of trust when compared with the shops in bazaars.

Dalwadi, Rathod, and Patel (2010) studied “consumers’ perceptions towards organized retail stores and the relationship between the demographic variables and consumers’ perceptions” (p. 24). Their research design was exploratory, and data was collected through a sample survey with the consumers visiting traditional retail stores.

Hyde, Ubeja, Saxena, Sharma, and Sharma (2014) studied the “effect of promotion mix on consumer behavior in shopping malls” (p. 33). They defined promotion mix as “combination of promotional methods used for one product or a family of products in promotion mix may include print or broadcast advertising, direct marketing, personal selling, point of sale displays, and /or merchandising” (p. 33). They surveyed 180 students, housewives, and self-employed people. They found that “females are more prone to buy products from shopping malls” (p. 41) and that “advertising also plays vital role in consumer buying behavior with respect to all age groups, income level and gender” (p. 41). One of their interesting findings is that they did not find evidence to prove that convenience and attitude of the salespeople had any effect on consumers’ decision making process.

Stillerman and Salcedo (2012) studied “how consumers interpret and shape malls as social settings” (p. 309). They observed the behaviour of consumers in shopping malls in Santiago, Chile. They further gathered data through “theoretical sampling across groups, activities, locations, and times/days” (p. 316). Once the

theoretical saturation was reached, they conducted one-on-one interviews with food court workers. They found that “shoppers also import their relationships into the mall. Individuals visit malls with family, friends, or romantic partners” (p. 318) and “consumers use malls for entertainment, as performance stages, and display reflexive attitudes about purchases” (p. 318). They further added that “mall visits do not necessarily include purchases, as many consumers seek entertainment in the mall and adopt a reflexive stance toward purchases” (p. 329). They concluded that malls are active social venues that consumers can form.

Shim, Santos, and Choi (2013) examined “the ever-expanding role of the shopping mall as an urban leisurescape and of mailing as a leisure activity” (p. 369) through a mixed-method study. The first phase was conducted using a survey at a mall in Seoul, South Korea. In the second phase, they conducted a content analysis for blog posts. Their findings indicated that “shopping malls do seem to hold more appeal for high school and college students, females, and younger individuals” (p. 383) and that the consumers’ “motivation is not directly linked to any specific activity or any particular store, but rather these visitors largely frequent the mall for their personal recreation, that is, to cope with stress, to relax, or to feel excited” (p. 384). They concluded that “shopping malls clearly serve as central and popular leisure spaces for those who are seeking to recreate, meet, or purchase, with varying blends of motivation. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses reveal that mailing has several features that distinguish it from traditional shopping and contribute to its increasing popularity as a Korean leisure activity” (p. 386).

Rousseau and Venter (2014) conducted a study to “investigate the mall shopping preferences and patronage of mature shoppers in Port Elizabeth” (p. 1), South Africa. Their premise was that the “perception of mature shoppers as old people with limited financial resources is untrue” (p. 1). They “facilitated four focus groups to gain insight into mature consumers’ buying behaviors” (p. 1) and followed “with a sample of mall shoppers ($n = 680$)” (p. 1). Their findings indicated that “mature mall shoppers have specific needs and preferences. The authors observed significant relationships between mall shopping anticipation, mall shopping experiences and mall shopping patronage amongst mature consumers” (p. 9). The authors further argued that “senior citizens look for social interaction and leisure experiences in shopping malls as places where they can enjoy themselves” (p. 10). This argument is similar to what young consumers expect from shopping malls, a social experience.

Ammani (2013) conducted a study to explore the “preference of youth for shopping malls and to understand the factors that contribute to their preferring shopping malls over local shops” (p. 10). He wanted to further understand the reasons why shopping malls were the preferred choice for shopping, especially for younger consumers. His research was exploratory in nature and included focus group discussions and interviews with the youth visiting malls. His results indicated that “quality environment, convenience, place for celebrations, in that order, are the factors considered important by the youth” (p. 20). An interesting finding of this study was that the youth who participated in this study did not emphasise the cost and the value for the money they were spending at these malls. That is, for the youth, quality and convenience were much more significant factors than the sale price of the products and services.

Medrano, Olarte-Pascual, Pelegrin-Borondo, and Sierra-Murillo’s (2016) study in Northern Spain focusing on “analyzing consumer behavior in shopping street” (p. 1) explored the value systems that consumers have when determining the quality of interaction among sales people and customers. They conducted two different studies to explore this phenomenon. The first study was designed to understand the preferences of consumers when choosing to shop at shopping malls or at small street stores. For the first study, they “conducted a survey using open response questions” (p. 4) and “asked respondents whether they preferred going shopping at a mall or a shopping street and why” (p. 4). They concluded that “the main strength of retailers located in shopping streets is personal attention.” (p. 5) as “No respondents who preferred malls mentioned this motive when explaining their choice” (p. 5). The second study explored “what the most important components of personal attention are for consumers who choose small retailers” (p. 6). Through “a face-to-face survey, applying the SERVQUAL-P scale” (p. 6) with sample individuals, it measured service quality with the Servqual scale -. There were 1,088 responses with 974 usable questionnaires. They concluded that “that the quality of service and the degree of personal attention are important factors in consumer behavior” (p. 11) and “Customers who preferred shopping streets value polite and courteous attention as well as close and personalized attention” (pp.11-12).

Kushwaha, Ubeja, and Chatterjee, (2017) conducted a study which explored “the factors affecting selection criterion of consumers with respect to shopping malls” (p. 274). They used a survey method with a sample of 181 mall shoppers that helped

them understand “influence the selection of shopping malls from consumer’s view point” (p. 274). They argued that several distinct characteristics of such malls were important to understand: “accessibility, a heterogeneous mix of retail outlets, unique environment, safety and leisure are the key service features that differentiate the retail experience of shopping malls” (p. 274). Their study concluded that “service experience, internal environment, convenience, utilitarian factors, acoustics, proximity and demonstration— which play important roles in helping consumers for making such decisions.” (p. 281). This study confirmed that consumer behaviour, when selecting a retail option, is complex and has many variables.

Renton’s (2009) study explored whether “the endorsement by an athlete of a high or low status product affects consumer attitudes of the athlete and consumers” purchase intention of the advertised product” (p. 67) through an extensive 3-phase study. The first study included 10 participants: both men and women between the ages of 18-65. Study 2 included 250 men and women respondents between the ages of 18-65. The third study had a random sample of 300 men and women between the ages of 18-65. He concluded that “Overall, having an athletic endorser and a status product increased the value enhancement and the star familiarity of the athletes in the advertisements” (p. 150) and “the more positive and familiar he/she is in society or in the media the more positively consumers will view him/her in the advertisement” (p. 150). These findings are relevant to the marketing and advertising strategies being developed; utilising the well-known people in marketing products and services for both the shopping malls and bazaars will have a significant impact in the overall profit.

2.7 The Interpretive Consumer Research

The interpretive consumer research is, of course, vital to the marketing strategies of organizations and businesses that want to better understand the cultural, environmental, and sociological frames of reference that guide its consumers. Synthesising, understanding, and organising the different perspectives of consumer decision making is therefore critical to meeting commercial goals.

Consumer decision-making models are broadly organized into four major perspectives: cognitive, economic, emotional, and passive. The cognitive perspective assumes that human beings are rational and aware of their surroundings and desires and that they thus make consumption decisions based on their understanding of market forces and their personal interests. The economic perspective also considers the consumer a rational actor who assesses their decisions by running them through a set of pros and cons or advantages and disadvantages, ignoring their feelings or emotional states regarding the product, the act of purchasing it, and the environment in which they consuming. The third perspective, the emotional perspective, takes the opposite approach, and builds on the insight that consumers purchase products based on how they feel about them, either over a long period of time or even in the moment of considering it, otherwise known as an impulse purchase. The last perspective, the passive perspective, assumes the least reason or agency on the part of the consumer and contends that promotional materials and advertisements propel them to arrive at a purchasing decision. In total, these four models offer a broad range of insights, but their primary weakness is that they do not interact with one another, instead analysing a particularly aspect of consumer decision making rather than synthesizing them.

Moreover, scholars are beginning to recognize that there are other perspectives that can yield new insights beyond these four models. Krajina and Karalic (2017), for example, looked how behavioural and neuro-economic forces can help model consumer decision-making. The authors start with the assumption that models that assume full rationality on the part of consumers are flawed because emotions and other attendant factors play a role in consumer decision making to some extent. In fact, they conclude from their study that emotions are more important than reason in

the process, a view that challenges long-held beliefs. Another study also rejects the economic perspective in favour of one that takes into account heuristic factors, including the context in which consumers find themselves making their decisions. Reisch and Zhao (2017) found that context, including the physical, social, and geographical environment drive consumer decision-making. This can range from the ambiance of the boutique or store to the pleasantness of the other people in it and, of course, the salespeople. Heuristic factors, such as curiosity about the good for purchase and the ability to experiment in the store or after purchasing it, also shape consumer decisions. A final study by Chaubey et al. (2015) also challenges the four traditional perspectives by maintaining that the cognitive process – perception about and attitude towards the product, as well as their previous experience with it – is at the heart of consumer decision making. This perspective undermines the economic and passive perspectives towards modelling consumer decision making, rendering both rationality and promotional efforts of question value when considering marketing strategies. Understanding the cognitive process, moreover, is quite challenging and could challenge marketers in new ways.

2.8 The Models of the Consumer Decision- Making Process

Blackwell et al., (2001) stated that “whether consumers buy from bazaars, flea markets, or department stores, the most basic question to answer when examining purchase behaviors is ‘why do people shop?’ The most obvious answer is ‘in order to acquire something,’ but there exists a myriad of personal and social reasons” (p. 129). Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (1995) stated that “a model is nothing more than a replica of the phenomena it is designed to present” (p.143). Olshavsky and Granbois (1979) argued that “the most pervasive and influential assumption in consumer behaviour research is that purchases are preceded by a decision process” (p.93). Ashman, Solomon, and Wolny, (2015) stated that “consumers go through a fixed sequence of distinct stages when they make purchase decisions” (p.128) and that “purchase process is a series of discrete actions, typically precipitated by a conscious recognition of an unsatisfied need” (p.128), Erasmus, Bosoff and Rousseau (2001) explained that “Traditional consumer decision making models are based on the premise that for complex, high –risk products, extensive decision making takes place” (p.88). There are multiple relevant models that researchers used to explain human behaviour. These models all have relevance and significance within their own context,

as that context relates to time and location. However, as Ashman, Solomon, and Wolny (2015) stated, “The Engel, Kollatt, and Blackwell (EKB) decision making model has long been a core theory of consumer behavior” (p.127). De Mooij and Hofstede (2011) posited that “the underlying thought of most Western consumer decision-making models is that all consumers engage in shopping with certain fundamental decision-making modes or styles, including rational shopping and consciousness regarding brand, price, and quality” (p. 188), and this is the premise for this study. Scholars argue that consumer behaviour is information processing when making decisions (Blackwell, et al., 2001; Peter & Olson, 2008). Solomon, Zaichkowsky, & Polegato (1999) stated that consumer behaviour is “the study of the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use or dispose of products, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy needs and desires” (p. 8). Hoyer and Stokburger-Sauer (2012) explained that, “In consumer behavior, it has been widely recognized that individuals use consumption objects to express their individual and social identity to their environment” (p. 170) and that “individuals in today’s post-modern world define and orient their core identities in relation to consumption” (Naseem, 2017, p. 24). As Richer (2015) stated, “physical space does not merely contain or reflect status hierarchy, it is also an important mode of its expression” (p. 363). Teo and Yeong posited that “consumer behavior involves a very wide variety of personal and situational variables” (p. 350) and that there are “many models that attempt to explain or predict consumer decision-making and resulting actions” (p. 350).

Consumer decision- making is section of consumer behaviour. In order to target specific consumers, it is important to understand how decisions are made. There is a wealth of literature on understanding consumer behaviour to include various decision- making models. Andreason’s (1965) consumer behaviour model “recognizes the importance of information in the consumer decision-making process and emphasizes the importance of consumer attitudes” (Prasad & Jha, 2014, p. 336). Nicosia’s model (1966) “is credited as the first comprehensive model of buyer behavior” (Milner & Rosenstreich, 2013, p. 108). Nicosia’s model “concentrates on the firm's attempts to communicate with the consumer, and the consumers' predisposition to act in a certain way” (Prasad & Jha, 2014, p. 338).

Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell's (1968) model expanded Nicoasia's model to include a "feedback or ' search ' loop, which allows for iterations of partial decision making (Milner & Rosenstreich, 2013, p. 108) and focused on "the level of consumer involvement, whereas emphasizing the buying decision process of consumers" (Mishra & Kumar, 2012, p. 33). Howard and Sheth's model (1969) furthered the research and stated that "not only that *attitude* influences *purchase*, but also that *intention* is a moderating variable "(Milner & Rosenstreich, 2013, p. 109). It further " highlights the importance of inputs to the consumer buying process and suggests ways in which the consumer orders these inputs before making a final decision" (Prasad & Jha, 2014, p. 339) and includes " three elements of buyer choice, which included motives, alternatives, and decision mediators" (Stephenson, Heckert, & Yerger, 2016, p. 491). Each of these models has relevance and merit in certain contexts, but the Blackwell, et al. (2001) consumer decision process model is the most comprehensive and relevant for this study with its emphasis on individual consumers within the context of researcher culture and with its further analysis of consumer-driven marketing strategy. This concept of consumer-driven marketing strategy is viewed from multiple aspects to include market analysis, implementation, market segmentation, and marketing mix strategies as a continuum with the consumer in the middle. For the purpose of this study, Blackwell et al.'s consumer decision -making model was selected to provide this review with an organisational structure for the discussion of the consumer decision process and is an "abstract representation of the consumer decision process" to "simplify the description of complex consumer behavior" (Teo & Yeong, 2003, p. 350).

2.9 The Applicability of the Consumer Decision- Making Model in Turkey

Shopping malls and traditional retail places, such as bazaars and daily or weekly markets, are central spaces for understanding the complex decision-making process of the Turkish consumer (Lysonki, Durvasula & Zotos, 1996). There are many stages of the process, all of which are important for businesses and other retailers to understanding in terms of adapting relevant and effective marketing strategies. Marketers can also use the consumer decision-making model to target Turkish

consumers, so long as they have a general understanding of the Turkish market and its different venues and marketing channels.

According to the Engel- Blackwell Miniard model, consumers from different cultural backgrounds make decisions based on a common set of stages in the model, which makes it applicable to Turkey. However, underlying cultural and social differences in cultures means that consumers from different cultural backgrounds often reach different final decisions. The Engel- Blackwell Miniard model accounts for these differences in a broad way by emphasizing the important role that culture and context play in the design of the model. In other words, the model is only relevant if culture and context are taken into account. Another of its strength of the model is its flexibility (Langen, 2013). One can simplify or modify some steps, or even eliminate them altogether, so that it can best fit the researcher's goals and, most importantly, his or her particular social, cultural, and geographic context.

No model, however, is perfect, and the primary shortcoming of the Engel-Miniard model is that it assumes that consumers go through the six stages of decision-making in the model's prescribed sequence. Consumer decision-making is not always linear, and sometime stages combine or occur in a different sequence due to any number of variables. Consumers do not live in a sealed laboratory, after all. An additional criticism of the model is that it takes consumers are rational, capable of using logic at all stages (Eastin, Daugherty & Burns, 2011). Despite these shortcomings, the Engel-Blackwell Miniard model can help explain consumer decision-making in Turkey both in shopping malls and traditional retail spaces, or bazaars. They live in communities in which people are constantly interacting and exchanging information; even the demographics of communities change over time, especially in the Istanbul and Ankara.

2.10 Theoretical Framework

Blackwell, et al. (2001) explained that decision- making processes for consumers are a transformational experience. In that, consumers go through seven stages while making purchasing decisions. The conceptual framework for this research is the Consumer Decision Process Model (CDP). (Blackwell, et al., 2001).

These stages are:

1. Need Recognition
2. Search for information
3. Pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives
4. Purchase
5. Consumption
6. Post Consumption Evaluation
7. Divestment

The Blackwell, Miniard, and Engel decision process model is “one of the most looked-to models for marketers, advertisers and retailers to help make their product the one the consumer buys” (Renton, 2009, p. 12). It became more relevant as a conceptual model when it was reviewed and updated to include seven major stages. Blackwell, et al. defined consumer decision process model as a “roadmap of consumers’ minds that marketers and managers can use to help guide product mix, communication, and sales strategies” (p. 71). This model is rather linear, with the framework that consumers move through the stages in a set sequence. In this model, the authors explain that there are multiple internal and external factors that affect consumers’ decisions and that this model “captures the activities that occur when decisions are made in a schematic format” (p. 71) and shows how internal and external factors’ interaction shapes consumers’ evaluation of product and /or service. This is especially relevant to the relatively complex and sophisticated Turkish context because “the rapid urbanization created by the population coming from the rural areas has increased the number of large cities, and caused serious problems from the viewpoint of sound urbanization in the large metropolises” (Torlak, Spillan, & Harcar, 2011, p. 53), and because “ Turkey is a country with a vivid retail

environment, having traditional, small-scale retailing as well as shopping centres in large and medium-sized cities” (Erkip, Kizilgun, & Mugan, 2013, p. 329).

Furthermore, Blackwell, Miniard, and Engel’s decision process model emphasises the importance of context in understanding consumer behaviour and highlights the importance of culture and how culture is connected to context.

2.10.1 Need Recognition. Blackwell, et al stated that need recognition “occurs when an individual senses a difference between what he or she perceives to be the ideal versus the actual state of affairs” (p. 72). That is, need recognition depends on consumers’ belief that “a product’s ability to solve a problem is worth more than the cost of buying it, thereby, making recognition of an unmet need” (p. 72). Need recognition is also explained as problem recognition and it is “conceptually the same as pre-decisional cognitive dissonance whereby the consumer acknowledges the existence of a problem and becomes motivated to resolve the problem or issue” (Paul, 2013, p. 45). Bruner and Pomazal (1988) posited that “a consumer problem cannot be adequately addressed until it is properly delineated” (p. 56). Renton (2009), added that “The starting point with any purchase is for the consumer to recognize that they have an unsatisfied need. Most consumers do not walk into a store and buy random things; they walk into a store with the idea that they need something to fix a problem they have recognized” (p. 13). This first step is crucial in determining to purchase from a bazaar or a large shopping mall. In many cases, because of the geographical convenience, bazaars might be the chosen destination, whereas large shopping malls may be selected as the destination when a consumer wishes to meet multiple needs.

2.10.2 Search for Information. Blackwell, et al. (2001) explained that when the consumers recognise the need, they move to the second stage where they begin searching for information. This search “may be internal, retrieving knowledge from memory or perhaps genetic tendencies, or it may be external, collecting information from peers, family, and the marketplace” (p. 73). There are many ways to seek information, and there are many variables that determine the depth and the length of the search, and then the processing of the information begins resulting from the search. In some cases, consumers “search passively by simply becoming more receptive to information around them, whereas at other times they engage in active search behavior, such as researching consumer publications, paying attention to ads, searching the internet, or venturing to shopping malls and other retail outlets” (p. 73). It is also important to note that “purchases are driven in part by how confident

consumers feel about their decisions”, and this “phase of the decision-making process is a significant factor in developing this confidence” (Loibl, Cho, Diekmann, & Batte, 2009 as cited in Kemerly, 2012, p. 207).

2.10.3 Pre-purchase Evaluation of Alternatives. Once the consumers recognise the need and begin searching for information (and processing the information they find), they evaluate the alternatives. At this stage, “ consumers compare what they know about different products and brands with what they consider most important and begin to narrow the field of alternatives before they finally resolve to buy one of them” (Blackwell et al., 2001, p. 76). There are environmental influences that affect the choice, such as culture, social class, family, personal influences, and situation. Individual differences also affect the decision making in regards to the lifestyle, personality, values, knowledge, attitudes, motivation, and consumer resources. Furthermore, at this stage, consumers utilise differing criteria to evaluate the products and/or services (evaluative criteria- see Blackwell et al, 2001), and they explore attributes – salient and determinant. (see Blackwell et al, 2001, p. 77). Salient attributes, for example, “in the case of car buying, these would include price reliability, and factors believed to vary little between similar types of cars” (p. 77). And, in the case of determinant attributes, these “usually determine which brand or store consumers choose, especially when they consider the salient attributes to be equivalent” (p. 77).

2.10.4 Purchase. Purchase is the next stage in the decision- making model as created by Blackwell et al. (2001). At this stage, “after deciding whether or not to purchase, consumers move through two phases. In the first phase, consumers choose one retailer over another retailer” (p.79), and “the second phase involves in-store choices, influenced by salespersons, product displays, electronic media, and point-of-purchase advertising” (p. 79). Where consumers prefer to make their purchases depends on many factors. Blackwell et al explained that choosing a store also involves the store characteristics, purchase characteristics, and consumer characteristics. That is, “ an individual may use different criteria to evaluate which store meets his or her needs depending on the type of purchase” (p. 130), and “ consumers rely on their overall perception of a store, referred to as store-image” (p. 131). This is relevant, as choosing whether to shop at a bazaar or a large shopping mall depends on the consumers’ perception of the store image.

2.10.5 Consumption. Blackwell et al stated that, “in making the purchase, we have committed ourselves to when consumption will occur” (p. 160). However, generally speaking, the consumption stage begins after the consumers receive the product or service. This is the “point at which consumers use the product” (p. 80). Even though consumers purchase the same product, they may consume it in different ways. Blackwell et al further explained “how consumers use products also affects how satisfied they are with the purchases and how likely they are to buy that particular product or brand in the future” (p. 80).

2.10.6 Post-Consumption Evaluation. This stage begins after the consumer uses the product. After the consumption, they “experience a sense of either satisfaction or dissatisfaction” (p. 80). Satisfaction in this case is “a person’s feelings or attitudes toward a variety of factors affecting that situation” (Wixom & Todd, 2005, p. 86). Satisfaction or dissatisfaction depend on multiple factors. For example, if consumers do not use the product properly, they may feel dissatisfied. This does not indicate whether the product is appropriate or not; it is simply how the consumers use the product. It is also important to note that, in many cases, consumers feel cognitive dissonance. That is, “even if the product works well, consumers often ‘second guess’ their purchase decisions, especially with big tickets items, causing them to ask, ‘Have I made a good decision?’ ‘Did I consider all the alternatives?’ ‘Could I have done better?’” (p. 80). Blackwell et al calls this “post-purchase regret or cognitive dissonance” (p. 80) and “the higher the price, the higher level of cognitive dissonance” (p. 80). Cognitive dissonance theory explains that “if cognitions are inconsistent, consumers try to reduce the inconsistency, that is, to reduce dissonance, and that consumers try to reduce dissonance after making a buying decision” (Holloway, 1967, p. 39). The post-consumption evaluation part of Blackwell et al’s, model confirms the relevance of building a customer base through providing unique experiences for consumers to further create loyalty (Ashman, Solomon, & Wolney, 2015).

2.10.7 Divestment. At the final stage, consumers make a decision post-consumption about “outright disposal, recycling, or re-marketing” (p. 82). Blackwell et al further argued that “recycling and environmental concerns play role in consumers’ divestment methods” (p. 82).

Blackwell et al explained that “consumer decision making is influenced and shaped by many factors and determinants that fall into these three categories: 1) individual differences, 2) environmental influences, and 3) psychological processes” (p. 84). Each of these variables shape consumer behaviour and help predict future behaviours of consumers. Turkish culture’s dynamic and young nature make these variables relevant for the study to provide a comprehensive framework for analysis. Blackwell et al’s emphasis on the role of culture and context in the design of the consumer decision -making model makes the model relevant and applicable to understand the decision- making behaviours of Turkish consumers. The next section situates Blackwell et al.’s model within a Turkish context and explains the relevance of each stage within the conceptual framework.

2.11 Situating Blackwell et al.’s Model Within a Turkish Context

Each of these stages influences the purchasing behaviour of consumers. Pradhan and Misra (2015) explained that the first three stages are also referred to as “Pre-purchase behavior” and that these first three stages “form a strong base for the purchase decision of the consumers” (p. 34). Blackwell et al. further explained that the decision making process within these seven stages is shaped and influenced by culture, socio-economic status, family, and friends to name a few. The decision making process in this sense is not an individual decision because of the need to satisfy a specific need but there are many factors.

For the Turkish context, need recognition, the search for information, and pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives are significant to understand as their application and relevance heavily depends on the context of Turkish culture and Turkish consumers’ decision making behaviours. For example, in these first three stages, Turkish culture is very much dominated by word-of-mouth then a self-reflective need exploration, followed by extensive utilisation of technology to search for information and evaluate alternatives. Until the fourth stage of purchase, consumer behaviour can vary greatly and does not necessarily follow a logical process model applicable to the Turkish context. Within the short-term orientation context of Turkish consumers, it is possible to say that Turkish consumers do not necessarily pay as much attention to after purchase evaluation as they do to need recognition, the search for information, and pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives.

Having said this, placing specific emphasis on the variability and interconnectedness of the first three stages is important when determining question formulation, methodology applicability (i.e. data collection and the structure and process for data analysis), and overall synthesis of the findings. Purchase, consumption, post-consumption and divestment do not vary greatly and do not affect further purchase decisions as much in the Turkish culture. For example, during the divestment stage, recycling is a significant decision, but Turkish people are still not often exposed to the idea of recycling broadly. This is not only due to the fact that Turkish consumers are not aware of the benefits of recycling, but also because there is no infrastructure to support recycling. It is further imperative to understand how each of these stages interact and affect each other within the Turkish context.

For this study, “need recognition” is the most applicable to the research questions that were explored this study. To understand the purchase decision process and the role of emotions of Turkish consumers, it is important to understand how Turkish consumers make decisions about what to purchase and where to purchase it. Within the complexity of a developing country, Turkish consumers have grown up with scarcity and the dominance of lower quality products. Their definition of need determines the behaviours, reflected through emotions. This determination of the need varies greatly among different sociocultural and economic levels and is fluid. That is, it varies greatly and changes rapidly through external influences. Once we understand how Turkish consumers recognise and determine the “need,” their behaviour towards how they would satisfy the need can be predicted relatively easily because of the distinct environments found in large shopping malls and bazaars in Turkey. For example, if they determine that they need food, they visit bazaars. If they determine that they need socialisation, they will choose visiting shopping malls. Their intention is to satisfy short term needs, and this is aligned with what Bayraktar and Cobanoglu (2016) argued: “Countries with high future orientation put emphasis on long term results and planning, whereas the societies that are low in future orientation tend to focus on short term results and the present time. Short term orientation of Turkey supports the findings that individuals focus on the short term outcomes of their behaviors” (p. 19). This short term need is determined by what they need at the time that they feel the need. The lack of intentionality is a direct result of the short term orientation of the Turkish culture. That is, the further stages as described in Blackwell et al.’s model is dependent on the need recognition stage, and how they will behave is

determined by the short term orientation and thus the significance of the need recognition. Of course, other stages are relevant and applicable and have a direct correlation to Turkish consumers' decision- making processes, but Turkish culture's dependency on short term satisfaction puts the emphasis on need recognition. Need recognition determines how they will seek information, evaluate alternatives and make the purchase decision. Post-purchase evaluation and consumption are not strongly associated with cultures with short- term orientations, and these cultures lack longer and more planned purchase decisions.

Bayraktar and Cobanoglu's 2016 study explained that even though there have been developments in waste management with various legislative proposals, the "great majority of solid waste is still not being disposed in accordance with the legislation" (pp. 6-7). They further argued, that "individuals in Turkey seem not to adequately comprehend the seriousness of the threat posed or ignore these issues" (p. 18). Their findings indicated that "while individuals do not want to contribute much to recycling, they expect macro level support from institutions rather than dealing with the problem by taking micro precautions" (p. 21). This shows the lack of progress in the minds of consumers and is an indication of the minor relevance and importance of recycling for Turkish consumers when making purchasing decisions.

While it is important to situate the theoretical model within the context of this study in order to understand Turkish consumers' decision making, it is as important to note that each of these stages and variables are affected by emotions and behaviours. Each of these stages are further affected by consumers' emotions, beginning with the need recognition to the final decision to divest, but it is possible to assume that the need recognition stage determines all other stages of Blackwell et al.'s consumer decision process model.

2.12 The Nicosia Model and The Blackwell Model

Bettman and Jones (1972) explained that the, "Nicosia model is deterministic rather than probabilistic. It is unclear what the model is intended to depict. It appears to model an average or generalized consumer"(p.549). In this the Nicosia model (1996) has the assumption that consumers can be generalised and categorised using a median definition of consumer. It emphasises the importance of products and services rather than how the consumers are influenced by various other factors. The Nicosia model further focuses on buying behaviour, motivation, attitude, and advertising and assumes that "neither the firm nor consumer has had any previous experience directly

related to a specific product brand. The starting point is actually zero” (Orji, 2013, p.167). Orji (2013) further stated that Nicosia simplifies the consumers to a narrow definition: “a consumer is an individual who purchases, or has the capacity to purchase goods and service offered for sale by marketing institutions in order to satisfy personal or household needs, wants or desires”(Orji,2013, p.164). It does not explain how individuals differ within their unique context of time, space, and culture. Viksne, Salkovska, Gaitniece and Puke (2016) further argued that the Nicosia model “seems to be a mechanical overview of human behaviour, which makes it difficult to use for practical purposes. It ignores the fact that customer’s individual factors and also social and situational factors significantly influence customer’s own processing”(p.243). They also stated that “Nicosia has not attempted to apply the model to actual data”(Bettman & Jones, 1972, p.549).

Figure 1 explains the Nicosia Model of the consumer decision process.

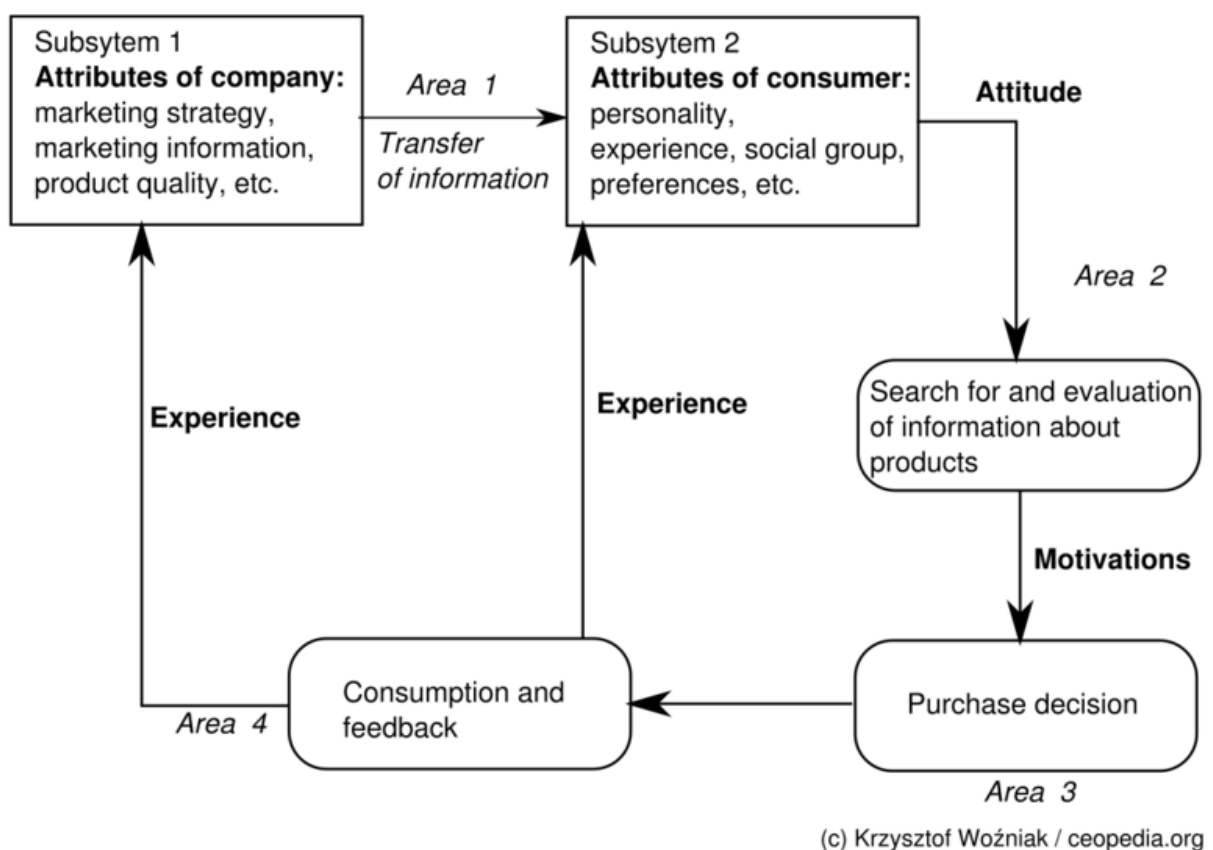


Figure 1. Nicosia Model of Consumer Decision Process – Source Krzysztof
Wizniak, copedia.org

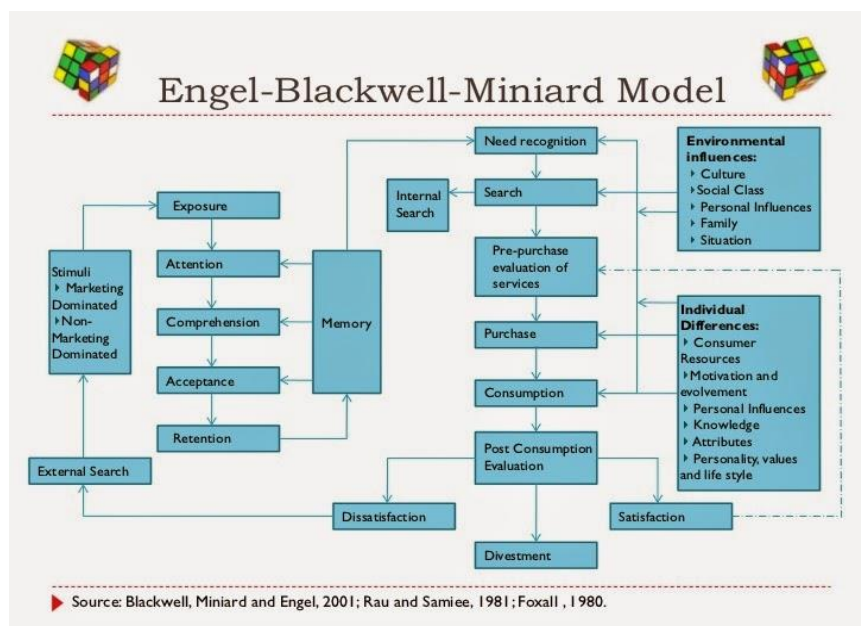
In the Nicosia Model, Nicosia assumes that the message being delivered by the company which offers the product or service is not connected to the context of the consumer. This is especially relevant for repeat customers, because there needs to be a historical connection between the company and the consumer. However, in this context, The Nicosia model is relevant if a company is introducing a product or service for the first time. Nicosia further argues that an individual is most important as an isolated unit. The model focuses on products'/brands' connections to individual consumers without any context of who that individual customer is. That is, this understanding and view is too generic to be applicable in ever changing marketing context. Milner and Rosenstreich (2013) further explained, "a major limitation of the Nicosia model is that it is from the marketer's perspective rather than the consumer's, with consumers activities only very broadly defined"(p.7).

All these arguments make the Nicosia model not as relevant given the limitations of the model. In addition to not having the basis on actual data, it simplifies human behaviour. It views purchase behaviour as only belonging to a single customer, without a significant emphasis on the context. That is, the lack of context in the Nicosia Model and the lack of attention to cultural contexts makes it not as appropriate for this study. The consumer behaviour is deeply rooted in the cultural context which means that a buyer reads out and interprets certain situations, whereas other ones are not noticed by him".(Roszkowska – Holysz ,2013, p.338). This study within the Turkish context, required a more in depth understanding of the individual within his/ her own context. Blackwell, et. al' s (2001) model provides the framework and the depth this study needed.

The linearity of the decision making process has been removed from the Nicosia Model and context has been integrated into the Blackwell model. This is because " in the disruptive, discontinuous markets of contemporary and future business environments, a road map of how consumers make purchase decisions is more reliable than set of directions"(Blackwell, Miniard ,& Engel ,2006,p.70). The Nicosia model "concentrates on the communication process that occurs between a brand and a consumer. It uses a flow of events through different stages that are identified as fields" (Stankevich, 2017, p.8), and this linearity becomes a deficiency in understanding consumers purchase decision process in the Nicosia model. "The

economic determinants of the purchasing behaviour should be examined in two contexts. The first one, which is a kind of a framework for the individual purchasing behaviour is more distant macroeconomic environment”(Roszkowska –Holysz, 2013,p.334).

Figure 2 explains Engel – Blackwell- Miniard Model of the consumer decision process. The figure below will be explained and interpreted in detail on the next page. Source Blackwell, Miniard and Engel, 2001



Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell's (1968) five stage process model was revisited and developed to seven major stages in 2001 (Blackwell, et. 2001). The first stage is need recognition, which is the stage at which the consumer recognises that they want the good or service. Need recognition initiates the decision making process that is then shaped by individual differences, including personality, life style and value. The next stage is the search for information. This starts from a different point for each consumer, but involves the individual searching their memory and past experience for knowledge about the good or service. If they feel that they adequately understand the good or service based on their internal knowledge, they do not seek more information, but when the consumer has little or no information, they often seek more. Individuals, of course, differ in their consumption habits, but marketers recognise that consumers' evaluations of future goods or services depends largely on how satisfied they were with their past experiences of them and, most importantly, whether the good or service met their expectations at that time. In addition, the pre purchase evaluation alternative is affected by both the environmental influences and individual differences. Pre purchase evaluation includes looking at the pros and cons of a wide range of commodity before making a final call on the most suitable choice among them. Purchase and Consumption are also key factors since they can greatly affect the purchase behaviour that a consumer could exhibit in future. The last stage is divestment, namely the process by which consumers dispose, recycle, or remarket the good or service. When consumers choose to search for more information, they use a four-stage process to select and perceive information. As it is seen in the above table the first stage is exposure, during which consumers select what information they will seek. The second is attention, which can be defined as the promotional messages and images that consumers read or see and that enter their short-term memory because visual content is more memorable. The third is comprehension, during which consumers digest the messages and images in a way that conforms to their existing attitudes, beliefs, interests, and values. The last is retention, which refers to consumers choosing what they will remember. The retention stage is a limiting one; consumers discard considerable amounts of information that they will find extraneous. The choices that consumers make about what information to retain vary according to individual differences and preferences. People, in other words, choose to remember that which accords with their attitudes, beliefs, interests, and values. In the above

table an external search can be “marketer dominated” it is important to consider that the vendor distributes information for the purpose of convincing the consumers. Blackwell, Miniard, and Engel’s decision process model emphasises of context in understanding consumer behaviour. It also highlights the importance of culture and how culture is connected to context. This emphasis on context forms the basis of the selection of the Blackwell model for this study. The study took place in non-western context, where the culture and traditions are rather critical in understanding the consumers. The Blackwell model posits that purchasing behaviour is not only a function of a product or service; it is also a function of the consumer and how the consumer is situated in the local context with attention to the social, cultural, political, and economic contexts to name a few. This local context further includes other competing products, the social influences (i.e. social class, friend suggestion) and brand awareness and brand loyalty, all of which is contextualised in the local environment. (Blackwell, et. 2001)

Consumers’ attitudes are influenced by the information they receive through media and through social influences. Consumers look for value during their evaluation, utilising the information they have received prior to making the purchase decision. When consumers, after evaluating the information, feel the product / service has value and that satisfied that their needs will be satisfied, they are then motivated to move forward with the purchase decision. “What is the nature of motives, goals, and desires that prompt consumption behaviors? Why do consumers buy and consumer particular products, brands, and services from the multitude of alternatives afforded by their environments? How do consumers think and feel about their strivings and cravings and how do they translate these pursuits into actions? And, what explanations might we offer for differences in consumer motives and goals across individuals and situations” (Rathneshwar, Mick & Huffman, 2000, p.1). These questions are all relevant. Nicosia’s model, though relevant for the time and the location of the context in which it was developed, does not sufficiently address the psychological, social and cultural contexts of human behaviours. It only provides a linear explanation. Blackwell et.al., however, includes human behaviour as a human characteristics and “is determined by cultural factors. The cultural determinants of purchasing behaviours are associated with historically shaped models of the community life, systems of values customary norms as well as with standards of behaviour of individuals, groups and the society.”

(Safin, 2007, p.102 as cited in Roszkowska – Holysz, 2013). Blackwell, et. al. (2006) further explain this as core values affecting marketing and consumer behaviour. This is not only at the purchase stage; it also affects how consumers use products within their value context, their expectations from retail store owners (sales people), and how their core values affect the way they understand ethics in marketing. In addition, these values are changing, especially with the rapid changes in information technology and how these technologies are informing people instantaneously. These values include family influences, religious influences, educational influences within ever changing systems, age related cultures, national cultures, and geographical contexts to name a few. Blackwell et.al. also assume that when consumers make purchase decisions, are affected by a variety of factors. Individual differences and environmental influences play crucial roles in the decision making process. With all of these variables, the decision making process becomes more of a problem solving exercise. The model further elaborates that there are many factors that influence the decision making process and the “determinants of involvement include 1) personal factors, 2) product factors, and 3) situational factors” (p.97). These determinants further justify the expansiveness of the breadth of Blackwell’s decision - making model, making it appropriate to be utilised within the Turkish context.

In summary, the Nicosia Model is too generic for it to be applicable in the context of Turkey due to its focus on the individual without accounting for that individuals’ local context. Blackwell et. al.’s model is relevant and applicable, given that the linear approach has been adapted to include multiple variables in the local context , while carefully analysing the relevance of global economies and trends in understanding these local contexts.

2.13 The Role of Emotions in Consumer Choice Preference in Consumer Decision Processes

Emotion plays a central role in shaping and directing our psychological responses to social and environmental phenomena. By studying emotion, we can better understand a host of human behaviours on the individual and collective levels, including the choices made about consumption. The literature on emotion is relatively new and still emerging, and therefore leaves much to be discovered and debated.

Emotions naturally play a fundamental role in the decisions consumers make. Its importance stretches into the fields of psychology, neuroscience, and many others. When scholars look at the psychology of consumer decision-making, they often highlight the importance of emotional intelligence. In fact, the field of emotional intelligence has its origins in academic psychology (Bar-On, 2010). Emotional intelligence has since become a topic of interest to other academic disciplines such as education, human resources, marketing, and psychiatry, making emotional intelligence a thematic field in its own right. Marketing specialists, for example, think deeply about how emotions shapes consumer decisions, while psychologists think about emotions in a more holistic fashion and in terms of meeting different goals and even changing human behavior (Holbrook & Batra, 2002).

Psychologists define emotion as an individual's ability to exhibit a particular emotional disposition consistently for an extended duration. As such, individuals who are deemed emotionally intelligent are likewise considered emotionally confident (Bar-On, 2010). Emotionally intelligent individuals are cognizant of how different emotions affect them and others in the daily lives and try to harness this understanding to effect better outcomes, solve problems, and relieve stress.

Neuroscientists, on the other hand, use a more scientific approach to understanding emotions. One such approach is through organizing the brain so better understand where specific mental health problems such as depression or bipolar disorder. Neuroscientists also try to better understand how emotions serve as indicators of tendencies, be they social or asocial (Panksepp, 2010). One such example is how

brain activity reveals how people's survival instincts push them to neural 'comfort zones'.

Marketing specialists, meanwhile, tend to view emotional intelligence and confidence as fundamental starting points for crafting strategies that appeal to consumers or at least come across as less threatening. Emotional intelligence and confidence go a long way, then, in explaining why consumers behave differently when confronted with the same marketing approaches.

The importance of understanding consumer behaviour was explained by Medrano et al. (2016), stating that "consumer behaviour represents one of the greatest interests of marketing scholars and business managers due to their need to adapt their companies' strategies to the new frontier" (p. 125). Consumers provide information to retailers about their needs and interests by acting in specific ways, adding value to certain spaces and getting involved in certain activities. While emotions are obviously involved in decision-making (Achar et al., 2016) and affect the individual's decision to choose a specific place for shopping, shopping malls and retailing markets as physical spaces contain stores as well as other venues. They also provide experiences other than shopping.

Illouz (2009) emphasises the role of emotions in the so-called "sociology of consumption." According to Illouz (2009), emotions have a critical role to play in people's consumption behaviour. For example, consumption is sometimes used as a way of building and maintaining a certain identity about one's self or group.

Illouz's (2009) core argument is that emotion plays a critical role in determining consumer behaviour. Nwokah and Ahiauzu (2009) share this view, although their analysis is inclined towards aspects of marketing as opposed to consumption. According to Nwokah and Ahiauzu (2009), emotion, which is a subset of emotional intelligence, greatly influences marketing effectiveness. Illouz (2009) also shares the same view of Nwokah and Ahiauzu (2009) in regard to the influence of culture on emotion. Both scholars agree that the emotional disposition of an individual is to a certain extent influenced by cultural context.

The literature on the role of emotion in the Turkish cultural context has also been used to explain dynamics relating to the level of satisfaction among Turkish consumers. These changes in the level of satisfaction are mostly applicable to the country's shopping centres and retail chains as opposed to traditional retailing areas. This observation has triggered efforts by operators of shopping areas to concentrate on the idea of value-based and consumer-oriented marketing (Akpınar, Gul & Gulcan, 2008 p.22). This observation has also forced business operators in the country to switch from traditional to modern marketing approaches. The issue of emotion is at the heart of all these efforts because it greatly influences the purchase decisions that Turkish consumers ultimately make.

Several studies have also focused on the role of emotion in cross cultural advertising (De Mooij, 2011) In these analyses, efforts have been made to measure differences in the persuasiveness of various emotional appeals in collectivist and individualist culture.

According to Boyatzis (1999), the main weakness of the cross-cultural approach to the study of emotions in the consumer behaviour field is that such an approach does not establish much on concrete knowledge about the issue of emotion, as conclusions are muddled by relativism. According to the literature on the subject it is clear, nevertheless, that emotion influences the direction of consumer behaviour.

Westbrook and Oliver (2001) bring out a new idea by stating that the consumption emotion happens not only in the pre purchase evaluation of alternatives but also during the post consumption evaluation. Westbrook and Oliver study three important dimensions of emotion. These are pleasant surprise, hostility, and interest.

Achar et al. (2016) reports that "marketing efforts create an emotional experience in the hopes of influencing consumers, whereas in other instances, a consumer's incidental emotional state affects the decisions she or he might make" (p. 166). In this regard, every emotion can produce certain effects, resulting in a purchase decision or selection of retail places. This also means that emotion can easily influence choice.

According to Achar et al. (2016), emotions affect decision-making through complex psychological mechanisms and the brain reactions responsible for those mechanisms. Based on the interpretations from the Appraisal Tendency Framework (ATF), it was discovered that “appraisals associated with the experience of a specific emotion can ‘carry over’ by predisposing individuals’ view of other unrelated events in line with the pre existing appraisals” (Achar et al., 2016, p. 166).

In other words, Achar et al. (2016) explains that fear would not always be interpreted as such, because it is primarily related to one’s inability to control his or her reaction to certain events or phenomena (p. 166).

Emotions play a critical role in the choice of a retail purchase channel. Lii & Sy (2009) argue that online retailers continue to exploit customers’ emotional aspects to capture both sales and profits mainly through differential pricing. Some common tactics involve appeals to emotion, use of multiple advertising channels and buyer identification. A study on Taiwanese students shows that customers’ behavioural responses in online retail purchase channels were significantly related to their emotional states (Lii & Sy, 2009).

In terms of virtual shopping experiences, first impressions also play a vital role in Internet purchase channels (Basso, 2001). According to Basso (2001), both cognitive and emotional factors come into play in the choice of tactics aimed at creating first impressions.

Kidwell, Hardesty and Childers (2008) use the term “emotional calibration” to describe the concept of emotional confidence; Emotionally calibrated customers are said to make decisions whose effects are predictive beyond cognitive ability. Based on this argument, saying that a person is emotionally calibrated is synonymous with saying that he or she is emotionally confident. In many cases the terms “confidence,” “emotional confidence” and “emotional intelligence “ are used interchangeably (Kidwell, Hardesty and Childers, 2008).

Kidnel and Childers used the term “emotional intelligence” in a study in which they measured individual differences in the ability of consumers to engage in emotional confirmation. (Kidwell, Hardesty and Childers, 2008).

According to Yu and Dean (2001), emotion is a major intervening variable between satisfaction and customer loyalty. However, this is sometimes questioned in consumer research mainly in the context of studies that focus primarily on measuring the cognitive aspect of customer satisfaction.

The study of Yu and Dean (2001), examines the affective rather than the cognitive component. This study explores how emotions influence satisfaction before comparing the predictive ability of both affective and cognitive aspects (Yu and Dean, 2001).

Regarding customer satisfaction, Gürbüz (2008) observes that the brand name of a store in Turkey evokes emotional responses relating to service quality as well as customer satisfaction. This finding denotes the role that branding plays in determining the emotional responses of consumers as well as the long-term process of developing store loyalty. However, these findings may not be generalised to the entire country because the model that was used was tested on just three retail stores in one Turkish city.

Regarding experiential marketing, Bati & Atici (2007) view emotional confidence as a core component of current practices in relation to consumer attitudes and behaviours. An important point worth emphasising is that Bati & Atici (2007) identify brand experience as a crucial determinant of emotional confidence among Turkish consumers both in modern shopping centres and traditional retailing areas.

Ladhari (2009) also emphasises the importance of emotional satisfaction, which is a critical component of service experiences in diverse settings. Ladhari (2009) gives the example of the service experience in a hotel, where emotional satisfaction is a major predictor of diverse behavioural intentions, including loyalty and willingness to pay more for the same service.

Awareness of one’s emotions enables individuals to establish and maintain self-awareness, relationship management, social awareness, and self-management (Sharma, 2013). Self-awareness is about being aware of one’s abilities, likes and

dislikes, and feelings while relationship management is about the ability to interact with people.

People who are self-aware are thus able to understand their own strengths and weaknesses as well as the emotional experiences that arise because of those strengths and weaknesses (Ladhari, 2009). Such people refrain from comparing themselves with others but rather value themselves in the knowledge that their emotional experiences may not necessarily coincide with those of any other individual at any given time.

Bloemer, J (2000), emphasises the level of patronage by consumers in high involvement settings as tending to be influenced by the level of consumers' emotional states. These emotional states tend to keep changing throughout the process of service delivery. Based on the findings in service settings, particularly extended services, emotions moderate the relationship between satisfaction among customers and loyalty.

Howard, H, Back K and Barret B (2009), demonstrate that in service marketing, emotional contagion is a relevant construct that enables researchers to gain a better understanding of consumer behaviour. The study was done using two experiments. In the first one, the emotional cue examined was the act of smiling by both the consumer (receiver of the cue) and the seller (sender of the cue) In the second experiment, focus shifted from smiling to facial expressions in general. Their findings demonstrate that the emotional contagion effects are often demonstrated when receivers are exposed to happy senders whom they like.

Jang, and Namkung, Y (2009) point out that positive emotions play a critical role in determining future responses of consumers in restaurant settings. Their result is practically and theoretically meaningful because it demonstrates the relationship among three constructs: customer emotions, perceived quality, and behavioural intentions. Their findings show that the relationship between future behaviour outcomes and services is mediated by positive emotions.

Machleit, and Eroglu, S (2002) study service marketing. An assessment of various emotional responses in shopping environments provides customer service people with a better understanding of consumers' expectations. Their findings indicate that different shopping environments trigger emotional responses in consumers.

Sweeney, and Wyber, F (2002) examine individual music tastes and find that these tastes should be put into consideration by marketers in their quest for a better understanding of consumers' emotional responses. The researchers argue that music influences consumers' evaluations in four ways: service quality, arousal, pleasure, and merchandise quality. In this theoretical study, the model is extended to encompass the role of music on customers' perceptions regarding quality.

Menon, and Dube , L (2000) investigate two positive emotions (joy and delight) and two negative emotions (anger and anxiety), to determine how salespersons can contribute to greater satisfaction in the context of two retail stores. Both positive and negative emotions provide crucial information regarding how customers respond to salespersons' normative responses to consumer behaviour. Menon and Dube find that retail managers should integrate analytic evaluations of customers' emotional response into their overall retail strategy.

The study of Chebat, and Slusarczyk ,W's (2005) study provides insights into different levels of emotion among different consumers. Each of the three dimensions of justice (interactive, procedural and distributive) affects customer loyalty. The research takes the form of empirical study that is based on affect control theory and justice theory. Their findings indicate that interactional justice such as courtesy is dominant by virtue of affecting both negative and positive emotions.

Valeria –Neira, Vazquez- Casielles, R and Iglesias – Arguelles, (2008) argue that the cognitive evaluations have a direct impact on cumulative satisfaction while emotions have an indirect impact on the same. Customers tend to rely on both emotions and cognitive evaluations to determine the level of cumulative satisfaction with the services provided.

In a study by De Witt, T, Nguyen, D and Marshall, R (2008), emotions and trust play an essential mediating role in the process of service recovery. Their study stimulates the emergence of new approaches that build upon existing knowledge of the role of emotions and trust in the service recovery process.

According to Bar-On, R (2010), emotion is an integral component of positive psychology. The field provides insights into the theoretical elements of emotional intelligence and how best to understand them; this forms the perspective of positive psychology.

Park (2017) argues that “emotion has long been considered detrimental to sound decision making by philosophers as well as lay people. This tradition is well-reflected in the studies of decision research wherein emotion has not received much attention until recently” (p. 1).

Parker, Lehmann, and Xie (2016) state that “Consumers regularly assess (1) the quality and appropriateness of, (2) their expectations for, and (3) their feelings about decisions they have made” (p. 113).

Sosa, Cardinal, Contarini, and Hough (2015) studied food choice motives “to analyze if there were differences in motives and emotions between the population of a small town and that of a big metropolis” (p. 254) in Argentina. They surveyed 320 women between the ages of 25 and 55. Even though the participants associated actual products with different emotions, the mood motives “were considered of little importance when choosing food,” and “present mood or an anticipated emotion do not play a part in food choice” (p. 259). That is, emotions/feelings did not play an important role, but the findings indicated the importance of income levels when making food purchase decisions.

Rossiter and Bellman (2012) were interested in understanding advertising strategies and the impact of emotional branding on consumer choice preferences. They defined “emotional branding” as “the successful attachment of a specific emotion to a brand” (p. 291). They examined the “effectiveness of five widely targeted attachment-like emotions, labeled as ‘trust,’ ‘bonding,’ ‘resonance,’ ‘companionship,’ and ‘love.” (p. 291). They surveyed 1,000 consumers that volunteered. They concluded that “‘emotionally attached’ consumers are the brand’s

most profitable customers, especially considering that they would have no need of price promotions to keep buying the brand” (p. 295).

Rucker and Petty (2004) argued that “The study of emotion has long been recognized as an essential ingredient in the recipe of persuasion” (p. 3). They wanted to understand emotion and consumer behaviour; more specifically they wished to study how preferences were created “for products and services through the use of persuasion” (p.4). They concluded that “Emotions associated with heightened activation (e.g., anger) appear to lead to a preference for activity over similarly valenced emotions associated with deactivation (e.g., sadness)” (p. 17).

Their findings are significant because of the relevance of multiple areas within the service industry and in different product marketing strategies.

Bui, Krishen, and Bates (2011) conducted a study to “understand the relationships between consumer regret and outcome variables such as satisfaction levels, extent of rumination, and brand switching intention” (p. 1069). The premise of this study was to understand the reasons for returning customers. They concluded that “marketing managers are always interested in achieving a better understanding of the influences of post-purchase behavior; namely what brings consumers back for more? Under what circumstances are they satisfied with their chosen brands, and when do they regret their decisions when turning down an alternative?” (p. 1068). They further argued that the regret is such a powerful emotion, and the consumer is highly “likely to impact the extent of rumination experienced by the consumer” (p. 1069). Their findings indicated that “regret has a positive effect on brand switching intention and a negative impact on satisfaction levels”. They further argued that this was significant especially for marketers: “Marketers who are interested in creating brand loyalty, as well as for those managers looking to reconstruct relationships among consumers that have had negative experiences with a particular brand” (p. 1083).

Lee-Wingate and Corfman (2011) stated that “ When consumers feel they have encountered an unfair consumption experience, they may express their negative emotions orally (e.g., in person or on the telephone) or in writing (e.g., in a journal, letter, e-mail, review, blog, status update, etc.)” (p. 898). They focused their research on examining “whether the expression of negative emotions surrounding a consumption experience can change consumer perceptions of unfairness” (p. 898). Through their study, they argued that “ the act of disclosing the emotions surrounding an unfair consumption experience indeed improved perceptions of fairness, which

was transferred to consumer satisfaction” (p. 903). Their study is significant not only for understanding unfair consumption experiences, but also because it highlights the importance of eliciting and observing both the opinions and the feelings of consumers, which in turn may be useful for future marketing and advertising designs. Howkins, Best, and Coney (1989) stated that “while marketers have always used emotions to guide product positioning, sales presentations, and advertising on an intuitive level, the deliberate, systematic study of the relevance of emotions in marketing is new” (p. 379) and this argument is still true with fewer studies on the role of emotions in understanding consumer behaviour. The role of emotions in understanding consumer behaviour is complex.

Wanglee (2013) confirmed that “Humans are so often irrational because our feelings frequently interfere with our choices” (p.211), and thus confirmed the need to further explore and investigate the role of emotions. However, he acknowledged “the impact of emotions on behaviors extends beyond the distinction between positive and negative emotions” (p.212) and argued for a more in-depth exploration with all its complexity. Ming – Hui (2001) explained that “emotions have been established as a legitimate area of scientific inquiry in marketing, with past efforts relying heavily on reference disciplines without adding characteristics of emotions particular to marketing” (p.246). These studies enforce the idea that feelings play a significant role in understanding the consumers. It is important to look at how customers behave within their own emotional context at a certain time and place. However, it is certainly an area that is ripe for further academic exploration and inquiry.

Chen and Lin (2018) posited that “Buying behavior not only refers to the process of purchasing a product or service, but also includes pre –and post –purchase behavior and response” (p.556) and conducted a study to understand the relevance of sensory experience, emotion, and how “the relationship among sensory experience, consumer emotions, behavioral intention, and buying behavior” (p.553). For this study they selected the Starbucks coffee house chain in Taichung Taiwan because of how Howard Schultz, founder of Starbucks, created and built a brand utilising the sensory experience. The authors collected responses to their questionnaire that included demographics, sensory experiences, consumer emotions, behavioural intentions and buying behaviour. Their findings indicated the relevance of taste, visual elements, sound and touch. They concluded the taste was important for restaurants, and that

restaurants should keep improving the taste of their food to attract and retain customers. Within the context of the relevance of emotion, they concluded, “visual elements are integral to in –store atmosphere and significantly influence consumers’ emotions’ (p.567). They further argued that “Consumers pursuing individualisation and personal experience may base their final purchase decisions on touch or taste that are key elements in building a close relationship between products (or menu items) and consumers” (p.568). They recommended that “Managers should prioritize and improve their sensory branding to promote positive emotions and increase customer satisfaction, achieving improved feedback and word – of –mouth marketing” (p.569). This study is important because it confirms how important sensory emotions are which indeed directly affects the purchase behaviour.

Tangsupwattana and Liu (2018) stated,” Marketing will specifically target the emotions to create a positive reaction. The emotional response is thus the expected outcome of the marketing activity and should then create certain behavioral intentions” (p.515). With this in mind, they studied the “relationship between emotional experience and symbolic consumption on brand loyalty (p. 514) and “the differences in Generation Y consumer behavior through the comparison of Generation Y consumers’ income sources” (p.515). They utilised a questionnaire designed to collected data on the emotional experiences, lifestyle, brand loyalty, and the actual /ideal-self concept of Generation Y consumers between the ages of 16 and 36. They conducted this study with Starbucks consumers, as Starbucks is a popular coffee house in Thailand. Their findings confirmed that emotional experience is significant in estimating the effect of brand loyalty and consumer behaviour. They recommended, “Marketing strategies can be designed by these results because the use of emotional or symbolic themes in marketing is very useful in driving positive emotional reactions to new products or services” (p.523).

Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp, and Ramachander (2000) conducted a study to understand whether “among consumers in developing countries, brands perceived as having a nonlocal country of origin, especially from the West, are attitudinally preferred to brands seen as local, for reasons not only of perceived quality but also of social status” (p.83). They concluded that “among consumers in developing countries, for reasons that go beyond brand quality assessments, brands perceived as having a nonlocal CO (country of origin) are attitudinally preferred to brands seen as local”

(p.93). This study is significant because it indicates the relevance of consumers' perceptions of brands and the meaning of such perceptions to consumers.

Anninou (2018) explored the complexity in understanding shopping behaviour and focused "on the concept of consumer confusion" (p.1696). He argued that "Either seen as an attitude, emotional state or a process implicating cognitions and emotions, confusion is a state of negative valence and has negative implications in terms of avoidance or other consequences" (p. 1709). This state of confusion is relevant for marketers to explore because angry or frustrated consumers "can be offered assistance when examining their alternatives, consumers who experience fear would require opportunities to reduce their cognitive dissonance through, for example social media and communication reassurance, ashamed consumers will appreciate opportunities to increase self – esteem" (p.1709). Negative emotions are important to understand. Even with optimum pricing and value provided through a product or service, negative emotions can discourage the consumer from purchasing the product or service.

Achar, Han, Agrawal, Duhachek, and Mheswaran (2015) explored "emotions and decision making based on the appraisal tendencies associated with emotions" (p.359). They argued that emotions affect decisions in the way that they activate "cognitive procedures or a set of mental associations that then automatically apply to subsequent tasks conducted under the emotions' influence" (p.368) They emphasised the need to "explore the nature of decision- making contexts impacted by emotions and the underlying psychological process by which emotions affect decisions" (p.364) in order for one to understand how emotions affect decision making. Their main justification was that when we further examine context, this helps us understand " not only the conflicting outcomes of the same emotion, but also differences and similarities across emotions" (p.365).

As Kuppelwieser, Abdelaziz, and Meddeb (2018) stated "Understanding customer behavior and customers' decision making is the crux of marketing. Not surprisingly, marketing scholars have tried to understand and model these decision making process over the last decades" (p.1). However these models and explorations did not necessarily translate into a better understanding of consumer behaviour. This is due to the marketing professionals' belief that once they control the cognitive factors, they can direct consumers to the products and services they would want to market. The

assumption behind this is that if consumers are “informed”, they will make choices that are more rational, and their decision making process would be more easily understood through this rationalisation. As Parkinson, Russell – Bennett and Previte (2018) explained, it is not necessarily a linear process; it is more complex: There is a dominance of cognitive models used by marketers when studying social phenomena, which denies the complexity of the behaviour under investigation. Complex social behaviors are typically emotionally charged and require a different perspective” (p.837). As Chen and Lin (2018) stated, “Consumers ‘emotional response not only appears briefly but also lingers in their consciousness. Furthermore it is more persuasive than cognitive messages in transforming consumer behavior” (Chen & Lin, 2018, p.554 -555). Emotions in this context are defined as “multidimensional feelings those reflect information about consumers’ relationship to their social and physical surroundings as well as their interpretations regarding these relationships” (Bbayev, 2018, p.37).

Emotions can be described as “fuels for drives, for all motion, every performance, and any behavioral act” (Fonberg, 1986, p. 302) and for both scholars and practitioners, it is important to further explore the role of emotions in marketing, especially in understanding behaviour.

2.14 Pad Scale

As human beings are complex biological and social creatures, identifying common emotional responses to stimuli in the consumer decision-making process can lead to new insights. One of the primary models for this is the PAD (Pleasure, Arousal, and Dominance) emotional state model, which came into prominence in the 1990s.

The secondary literature pertaining to the PAD (Pleasure, Arousal, and Dominance) emotional state model is extensive. The PAD scale was used in this study to describe and measure emotional states. The most thorough review of this literature can be found in Mehrabin (1995), who also makes the most compelling case for employing the model based on data from previous experiments. The author’s most notable study tested the PAD model on 590 participants, and concluded that the PAD emotion scale produced valid and meaningful results. These findings were then

supported by another, 408-participant study by Lee, Ha & Widdows (2011), which found that high-technology attributes played an important and influential in determining consumer responses.

The PAD emotion scale posits that consumers respond emotionally along three primary continua when presented with stimuli: pleasure-displeasure, arousal-non-arousal, and dominance-submissiveness. These responses then act as intervening variables that shape whether the consumer approaches or avoids an environment. The PAD scale, therefore, seeks to categorise and better understand how consumers respond emotionally in different contexts along the three emotional continua.

Herrewijn & Poels (2013) identify the emotions associated with these three continua more precisely. For the pleasure-displeasure continuum, psychologists measure a consumer's happiness, joy, and satisfaction. For the arousal-non-arousal continuum, they seek to ascertain how active, alert, and excited consumers feel in different environments. Lastly, for the dominance-submissiveness continuum, they seek to measure how strongly the consumer feels that they are in control of the situation and whether they have freedom to act in choosing to approach or avoid it. Approach and avoidance are the two categories into which consumer behaviour is identified according to the PAD scale (Lee, Ha & Widdows, 2011). Approach is best defined as an inclination to willingly and positively interact to the presented stimuli. Avoidance behaviours are the opposite. They take many forms, from anxiety or boredom to open hostility or a manifested desire to withdrawal from the situation.

At its core, the PAD model asserts that the three key emotional continua – pleasure, arousal, and dominance – underpin the emotional states of consumers in different environments. Moreover, these continua interact with each other in complicated ways that either triggers the consumer to approach a situation when it is deemed pleasant or to avoid it when it is deemed unpleasant. Retailers have naturally harnessed the insights of the PAD model to better understand how to interact with their customers. By better understanding their emotions, they can craft the ideal combination of pleasure, arousal, and dominance that will encourage consumers to approach the environment, and buy their goods or services.

Mehrabian and Russell (1974) developed the PAD scale to “assess emotional responses to some types of marketing stimuli” (Chamberlain & Broderick , 2007, p. 206) and “introduced pleasure, arousal and dominance as three independent emotional dimensions to describe people’s state of feeling” (Bakker, van der Voordt, Vink, & de Boon, 2014, p. 407). They argued that “environmental perceptions stimulate different sets of emotions, and these emotions influence individual’s reactions to the environment either positively or negatively” (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2015, p. 421). They “described pleasure purely in terms of positive or negative feelings” (408) and stated that “pleasure is a feeling state that can be assessed readily with self-report, such as semantic differential measures, or with behavioural indicators such as smiles, laughter, and, in general, positive versus negative facial expressions” (Mehrabian and Russel, 1974, pp. 18-19). They described “arousal as a feeling state” (408), and “connected dominance to feelings of control and behaviour restrictions caused by physical or social barriers” (p. 409). However, this “scale was designed not to capture the entire domain of emotional experience but rather to measure emotional responses to environmental stimuli, such as architectural spaces” (Chamberlain & Broderick , 2007, p. 206). It simply assesses certain emotions in response to certain environmental stimuli, and as “one cannot unequivocally infer the existence of specific emotions states such as joy, anger, guilt or fear from individuals PAD scores” (p. 206), “the PAD is best used when a researcher is interested in measuring the dimensions underlying emotion states and does not need to know the specific emotions being experienced by study participants” (p. 206).

The study was employed Foxall &Yani – de Soriano’s (2011) listing the four items for each of the three emotional states (pleasure, arousal and dominance) The four items of the PAD emotions scale for the Pleasure – Displeasure continuum as employed in the included Happy – Unhappy, Satisfied – Unsatisfied, Annoyed - Pleased and Melancholic – Contended. The four item list for the Dominance - Submissiveness continuum comprises of Controlling - Controlled, Influential – Influenced, Cared for – In control, and Guided - Autonomous. In the Arousal – Non – arousal continuum, the four items to be considered by the study include Stimulated - Relaxed, Frenzied – Sluggish, Calm – Excited and Sleepy - Wide awake .To eliminate instances of subject awareness of various scale dimensions, items in these scales was intermixed to form the 12 inventory.

2.15 Conclusion

As Breytenback (2014) stated, “The main challenge facing existing shopping centres is the challenge to remain competitive in a fast-changing and highly competitive market” (p. 320). It is therefore important for bazaars and also for larger shopping malls to rethink their strategies to understand the individual characteristics of their customers and how these characteristics influence the overall purchase decision making process of their customers so that they can enhance their customers’ “overall psychological health and well-being” (Roberts, 2013, p. 2) when we are going through a complex and ever-changing time because of “economic uncertainty, skyrocketing consumer debt, materialism, unemployment and foreclosures” (Roberts, 2013, p. 2).

According to, Vural Aslan, Senkal Sezer, and Isigicok (2010) explained that malls are “new social and commercial centers” because of the “changing social structure and consumption habits under the influence of global forces” (p. 179). Global forces not only create new opportunities but also create new challenges for marketing professionals to find ways better serve the needs of consumers while also separating individuals from traditionally grouped target groups. These large shopping structures provide opportunities for consumers to find products and services conveniently in one place, but bazaars and other traditional shopping concepts are still struggling to maintain their places.

The purpose of this literature review was to highlight what research has been done in the field of consumer decision making and how consumers behave. This overview was completed to show how these consumer behaviours can help provide us with “clues about attitudes to ‘others’ or ‘otherness’” (Erkip, 2003, p. 1087), as well as how these differences can help us understand the next direction for marketers and retailers in shaping their efforts to adapt to changing socio-economic environment. The further overview of Turkish culture and how Turkish consumers make decisions about purchases examined the literature as it relates to the study, the purpose of which was to understand the shopping preferences of Turkish consumers, how they made decisions, and the role of emotions in making purchase decisions.

As we have seen, emotion plays a complex role in shaping and directing consumption decisions. Emotion plays a different role in different environments and controlling for such variables makes it a challenging topic to study. The literature is strongest in how it captures the individual's process of harnessing or being harnessing by their emotions. This speaks to the importance of emotional intelligence, expectations, positive psychology, and confidence in shaping the outcome of how emotions interact with decision-making. The interplay between positive and negative emotions is clearly complex, and managers and marketers would do well to assess, therefore, not simply their strategies and how they produce emotions, but also how well they read people's psychology and reactions and then address them. People are, after all, self-aware of their emotion strengths and limitations. Perhaps allowing customers to express their emotions during the act of consumption is the key to helping managers and marketers speak to them, as Menon and Dube (2000) recommend.

The study of how emotion shapes consumer decision-making has received considerable scholarly attention in recent years, as judged by the high number of studies cited above that were published within the last two decades. This indicates that the field is still evolving and indicates much is still yet unknown. Building on the deficiencies that Boyatzis (1999) recognized in cross-cultural analysis, the studies related to individual nations including Argentina, Taiwan and Turkey are perhaps the strongest, and revealed unique insights that can be applied to understanding how emotion affects different national communities or even regional societies. Through distilling differences between cultures, we can arrive at new understandings of the underlying principles. We can also do this more in relation to different items and settings – food, music, or consumer goods. In other words, we can try to build our understanding of emotion from the outside in, rather than assuming consumers make decisions similarly and then applying these similarities to different settings. The contemporary nature of the literature also reveals that new insights can be discovered. It is an exciting and dynamic field, in other words.

The literature pertaining to the PAD model is naturally less developed than it with emotion in general, yet it offers similarly intriguing lines of future inquiry. Herrewijn & Poels (2013) rightly propose a continuum for gauging these emotions. This approach can be taken even further. Within each continua, psychologists and marketers can identify the cultural and products differences within them; for instance, Turkish people may react more strongly along the dominance continua than Western

cultures. By combining more culturally specific studies on emotion and PAD scale, we may be able to unlock new insights and strengthen our understanding of PAD scale's utility in the process.

This literature review situated this research within the larger research body and identified the gaps. The gaps were then formulated into research questions that were explored through this study. It further helped prevent duplication of research and placed research to be conducted in context. The framework to help explain the consumer behaviours was Blackwell et al.'s 2011 Consumer Decision Process Model with seven stages. This literature review provided an analysis of shopping malls and bazaars within the larger context and within the Turkish context and explained the differences between consumer decision making processes in shopping malls and bazaars. It further explored the role of emotions and how these emotions affect consumer decision making processes and related behavioural attributes. The gap in the current literature helped identify the research questions, which in turn helped determine the methodology for the current study.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the rationale for the methodology chosen to examine the research site of this study. The mixed method methodology, as explained below, was chosen because of its suitability for this study. The researcher chose this methodology because of the complexity and richness of our subject matter—the place and its participants--necessitated that we look at a complex situation from a variety of viewpoints. Since subjectivity is a prime concern in the mixed method approach, The researcher took care to ensure that the stance she adopted toward our research contained a philosophical basis. By combining qualitative data, the researcher perform a discourse analysis of 12 random respondents' profiles and the nature of the comments they made regarding shopping as an activity at the bazaar. The researcher randomly surveyed 200 people for the quantitative data section. In both settings the researcher respected individual privacy and took consent from the individuals in semi-structured interviews.

Turner, Cardinal, and Burton (2017) stated that “the selection of research methodologies is important because it influences the answers to our research questions in that the types of evidence, nature of claims, and confidence in inferences depend considerably on which methods are being employed” (p. 246). In this section, first, a brief description of the purpose of this study is provided and then the method to answer the research questions is described in detail. Mixed methods was selected as the tool to help answer the research questions. Mixed methods allow the researcher to be “more flexible, integrative, and holistic in their investigative techniques, as they strive to address a range of complex research questions that arise” (Powell, Mihalas, Onweegbuzie, Suldo, & Daley, 2008, p. 306). In explaining the method, it is important to explain the basis for the selection of the method and the philosophical foundation that helped form the basis are explained, as well as the researcher's rationale. When researchers decide to conduct the research, in many cases, they might have determined the methodology, which is the ‘how’ of the research, but it is important to understand ‘why’ of the research and thus the necessity of a philosophical foundation to help the readers understand the context from which the researcher acts. The philosophical foundation is basis is important, as any

philosophical assumption will impact the topic to be studied and eventually impact the method that will be used to conduct the study. That is, it is crucial to understand researcher's positionality because any philosophical assumption about researcher's beliefs, values, and realities can and will (even if it is subconsciously) affect the methods to utilise to collect the data, statistical measures to understand the data (i.e. which tests to run), etc. These philosophical assumptions of the research do not only affect the method but will have impact on the study throughout from problem formulation to policy, research, and practical recommendations. Hathaway (1995) explained that "the general discourse over the fundamental philosophical grounds guiding research methods is relevant discover" (p.536) because "These decisions have a direct impact on how they make meaning and how reality is structured and understood by institutional researchers and their constituencies. In some ways, the choice of quantitative and qualitative approaches creates the reality we are attempting to discover" (p. 557). Baškarada and Koronios (2018) stated that "Without a clear understanding of the philosophical underpinnings, logically deriving applicable validity criteria becomes difficult (if not impossible), which potentially makes Mixed Methods Research study design and evaluation a highly subjective affair" (p. 3). This subjectivity will create a credibility concern whether the researcher was biased and that the research results may have been derived from an already biased research methodology and analysis. Researchers, especially in mixed method research, need to ensure that the credibility of the results and analysis is not questioned and therefore have to disclose their philosophical assumptions to establish a context and relevance. This will further ensure that the findings of a mixed methods study will not be perceived as establishing causality for the benefit of the research but presents correlation, if any, with the full disclosure of any pre-established assumptions of the researcher.

The researcher does not argue that the research can be free of bias but any biases or assumptions are disclosed for the reader to better understand where the researcher is coming from and how the analysis was structured, and what the basis is for the recommendations and any correlation that was found. Therefore, it is imperative to clarify the philosophical foundation of this study. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) explained that the "Mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it

involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases in the research process” (p. 5). This is especially important for mixed methods research where the researcher need to establish both the weaknesses and strengths of each method utilised (i.e. qualitative, quantitative), disclose the weaknesses and strengths of both method within the context of the study. Brady and Collier (2004) further argued for the relevance of such disclosure, “a meaningful discussion of methodology must be grounded in the premise that strengths and weaknesses are to be found in both the qualitative and quantitative approaches. Regarding the weaknesses qualitative researchers are perhaps ‘handicapped by a lack of quantification and small numbers of observations’, whereas quantitative researchers may sometimes suffer from ‘procrustean quantification and a jumble of dissimilar cases” (p. 5). However, it is important to note that the role of mixed method is complementary as to make up for any weakness of each method, “Complementary methods are deployed under the assumption that weaknesses inherent in one approach will be counterbalanced via strengths in another” (Jack & Raturi, 2006, p. 345). Furthermore, when we supplement or complement quantitative data with qualitative data consisting of a deeper exploration of the experiences of the visitors in shopping malls and traditional retails market, “a fuller explanation of statistical relationships between variables, ensuring in particular that the proposed theory constitutes a valid analysis of the phenomenon rather than artifacts of measurement. This approach also provides a deeper understanding of and rationale for a proposed new construct” (Edmondson & McManus, 2007, p. 1166).

3.2 The Aim of the Study

This study explored the decision -making behaviours of Turkish consumers in the capital city of Turkey, Ankara. The purpose of the study was to explore the role of emotions and the reasons why consumers’ visit shopping mall and traditional bazaar place.

3.2.1 Objectives:

To understand the consumer preference for shopping mall and traditional bazaar place.

To understand which emotions are they experienced when they are in shopping mall and traditional retailing place.

To analyse the role of emotions in consumer preferences for shopping malls versus traditional bazaars.

3.2.2 Research Questions

The research questions focused upon in this study will consist of the following:

1. What are the differences in consumer shopping behaviours in shopping malls and bazaars?
2. How do Turkish consumers make decisions about shopping at shopping malls versus bazaars?
3. How do emotions affect consumer- purchasing behaviour?

3.3 Mixed Methods

Harisson and Reilly (2011) stated that, “the mixing of methods in social research has been given many names including blended research, integrative, multi-method, multiple methods, triangulated studies, ethnographic residual analysis, and mixed research. In marketing, “multi-method” and “mixed method” research are the most commonly used labels.” (p. 8). For the purpose of this study, the researcher used mixed methods.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) describe mixed methods research “as a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone” (p. 5). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) further confirm this definition of mixed methods as the researcher combining qualitative and quantitative research into a single study, but

they further refine it as “the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration” (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turey, 2007, p. 123). In both definitions, qualitative and quantitative research techniques are used in complementary fashion. Each brings a specific set of strengths in explaining different parts of the research question and the problem that is being examined. The complementary nature of mixed methods research also adds additional methods for collecting and analysing the data as a single method might not be comprehensive enough to answer all parts of the research question. According to Lieber and Weisner (2010). “the qualitative suite of methods using words or images—text, discourse, narrative, photographs, video, objects, symbols—to represent the world. The quantitative suite of methods represents the world through the use of numbers and transformations of numbers—variables, graphs, functions, analytic models” (p. 560) (see also Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turey, 2007). Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) add that mixed methods allows “the investigator to collect and analyse data, integrates the findings, and draw inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods into a single study or a program of inquiry” (p. 4). Mixed methods research therefore provides relevant data and analytical tools that further “encourage and support holism, which more richly, authentically, and appropriately represents the true complexity of behaviors as they occur in natural social contexts” (Lieber & Weisner, 2010, p. 560).

Even though that mixed methods research is relevant for many different types of research in a variety of contexts, it is not without flaws and exceptions. According to Turner, Cardinal, and Burton (2017). “all methods are individually flawed, but these limitations can be mitigated through mixed methods research, which combines methodologies to provide better answers to our research questions” (p. 243). Weick (1969) argues that, “we typically need multiple methods, or techniques which are imperfect in different ways. When multiple methods are applied, the imperfections in each method tend to cancel one another out” (p. 21).

Harrison and Reilly (2011) maintain that mixed methods research is particularly relevant to marketing even though “In marketing, the methodology has received little coverage, despite the apparent movement in many of the social sciences toward such

research designs” (p. 7). For all we know, “the structure such designs can provide for emergent and exploratory approaches to research; levels of complexity that can result due to the blending of mixed methods of data collection across data collection points; how to align quantitative and qualitative data; and the comprehensive level of triangulation such approaches can generate” in the field of marketing (Cameron, 2009, p. 150). It is important to note Cameron’s point as this type of research can generate triangulation and can prove responsive to the many complexities and vagaries of the topic under study. Triangulation in this context is defined as “the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomena” (Denzin, 1970, p. 297).

Schwandt (2000) argues that “all research is interpretive, and we face a multiplicity of methods that are suitable for different kinds of understandings. So, the traditional means of coming to grips with one’s identity as a researcher by aligning oneself with a particular set of methods (or being defined in one’s department as a student of “qualitative” or “quantitative” methods) is no longer very useful. If we are to go forward, we need to get rid of that distinction” (p. 210). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) further confirmed the great need to understand the world holistically and that research today is rather sophisticated. This requires the researcher to respond to such sophistication in a different manner. “Today’s research world is becoming increasingly interdisciplinary, complex, and dynamic; therefore, many researchers need to complement one method with another, and all researchers need a solid understanding of multiple methods used by other scholars to facilitate communication, to promote collaboration, and to provide superior research” (p. 15).

Mixed methods are particularly helpful for consumer behaviour research, as there is great need to further understand the complexity and the sophisticated nature of consumers, not only to add to the literature but also to help the marketers and marketing research professionals understand the complexity of their work. For example, Arenas-Gaitan, Sanz-Altamira, and Camirez-Correa (2019) state that “when in actual fact marketing operates in complex systems such as markets, where cause and effect can only be perceived in retrospect, marketers need to embrace this complexity and evolve strategies for dealing better with these challenges” (Arenas-Gaitan, et al., p. 1). This complexity now has more sides than ever and includes technology, differing product variety, and cultural shifts, to name a few. Arenas-

Gaitan, et al., further highlight technology as a significant factor., “technology has significantly changed consumers’ lives and is likely to shape the future of business and marketing in particular” (p. 1). They add that “the main complexity is dealing with the increasing product variety and changing consumer demands, which is forcing marketers to abandon undifferentiated marketing strategies and even niche marketing strategies and to adopt a mass customization process interacting one-to-one with their customers” (p. 1).

Hitchcock, Nastasi, Dai, Newman, Jayasena, Bernstein-Moore, and Varjas (2005) confirm the relevance and uniqueness of the culture in which the researcher is being conducted as crucial for understanding consumer behavior in that context: “Culture-specificity, in turn, refers to the idea that a target culture has ideas, language, beliefs, values and behavioural norms that are reflective of and, in some cases, are unique to one given culture” (p. 261). For this study, the findings are relevant to the Turkish context and may not necessarily be applicable to understanding broader consumer behaviour research.

Kumar, Mangla, Luthra, Rana, and Majeed (2018) further confirmed the complexity of consumer behaviour and the challenges it brings to researchers, “Consumers exhibit different behaviour while purchasing goods of common utility and products or services of high involvement, which render complex social phenomena and pose severe challenges to the researchers in the field” (p. 13). Mixed methods research therefore is highly relevant to understanding this complex phenomenon as “a systematic inquiry into the variations of social constructions of meaning among interview and survey respondents may not only help in validating research instruments and scales, but may go further in that they could produce complementary subsets of results, which would enrich overall findings” (Bergman, 2010, p. 172).

3.4 Relevance of the Methodology to the Study

This research utilised the mixed methods research to collect and analyse data. The mixed methods research is relevant because “the bias inherent in any particular data source, investigators, and particularly method will be cancelled out when used in conjunction with other data sources, investigators, and methods” (Denzin, 1978, p. 14). In this sense, triangulating data collection and analysis helps strengthen the interpretation of the results. Data triangulation is defined as using a variety of sources for a study.

For this study, data triangulation was accomplished through collecting survey and interview data. Both the quantitative and qualitative data have their unique relevance, and use, but a combination of both data collection and analysis methods helps to explain the multiple realities we live in. According to Johnson and Gray (2010). “ we believe the human world (which is the focus of human and social science) is composed of many and multiple realities. We agree with QUAL that our thoughts and experiences and feelings and emotions are real. We agree with sociologists and anthropologists that languages, institutions, and cultures are real. We agree with QUAN that there are objective realities that can impact us” (p. 72). That is to say collecting and analysing data, especially within a setting in which culture and values are diverse and strong, may not produce reliable data and results that can be applied to universal questions. The depth and diversity of data ultimately provides us with a broader picture of the multiple realities, in which we live in and helps us contextualise complex phenomena. Context in this study includes the relevance of the geographic location, the time at which this study took place, and the uniqueness of Turkish culture. Turkish culture has a long diverse history, and value systems are strict. In some cases, they are non-negotiable. This long diverse history, its sophisticated value systems, policies, and economic decisions are value and emotion driven. In order for us to understand the depth of the way people think and act, we need to aspire to triangulate our methodology, and be clear about the assumptions we are applying and upon which we are basing our research questions and assumptions. Triangulation in this case is achieved through utilising mixed methods research. As Jack and Raturi (2006) argue, “any single research method chosen will have inherent flaws, and the choice of that method will limit the conclusions that can be drawn” (p. 346) and “ is therefore essential to obtain corroborating evidence from using a variety

of methods that can be classified generally as either qualitative or quantitative. Quantitative and qualitative methods complement each other, providing richness or detail that would be unavailable from one method alone” (p. 346).

The use of mixed methods achieved triangulation and yielded rich data. The researcher’s concurrent data collection both in a shopping mall and at a traditional retail market helped explicate the emotional and cultural context of consumer behaviour as the qualitative data added context and insight into values and emotions that driven consumer decision making. For example, designing a survey to understand the importance of traditional retail markets (also known as bazaars) would be difficult because “the bazaar can be a symbol of social solidarity and collective intellectuality. Bazaars are also places for trade groups, political, and social constitutions that can form the foundation of civic entities in society” (Pourjafar, Amini, Varzaneh, & Mahdavinejad, 2014, p. 17). To understand this sophisticated cultural concept, it is important to add a qualitative perspective to provide a richer understanding of Turkish culture. This is especially important because culture is a fluid concept and any survey that needs to be validated may not be as relevant as it was at the time of data collection once time passes. Consumers’ feelings and thoughts however can be captured at a certain time using qualitative methods. In another case, and in a somewhat similar economic context, it was seen that “at least in Latin America, and in Chile in particular, shopping malls have an important cultural place. Many people visit these places not only for the goods they carry, but to eat, for leisure and in general to interact with other people as well. Usually, poorer people go to malls because they are free to enter and open to all, quite safe, and ultimately a nice, comfortable place to spend time in” (Beiró, Bravo, Caro, Cattuto, Ferres, & Graells-Garrido, 2018, p. 18).

However, it is rather complicated to dig deeper to find out the non – economic reasons why the consumers prefer shopping malls over traditional bazaar venues or vice versa, without a qualitative method. For example, word-of-mouth promotion is a significant factor in making purchase decisions and without a unique understanding of the culture, it is rather challenging to understand how word-of-mouth works in specific cultural contexts. De Mooji & Hofstede, (2011) further explain the relevance of word-of-mouth promotion, “because of harmony needs, collectivistic consumers are relatively loyal and are less likely to voice complaints when they experience post

purchase problems, but they do engage in negative word of mouth to in-group members” (p.189). Using mixed methods therefore made sense in this study given the researcher’s Turkish background and its occurrence in the Turkish context. In addition it is important to note that, “the choice of social sciences research questions and methods, albeit sometimes dictated by research funders, is a reflection of researchers’ epistemological understanding of the world, even if it is not articulated or made explicit” (Yvonne Feilzer, 2010, p. 7). In this case, the researcher’s own experiences as a Turkish woman living in Turkey and the questions formulated through these experiences provide a further rationale for the use of mixed methods to collect and analyse data.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) posit that “philosophically, mixed research makes use of the pragmatic method and system of philosophy” (p. 17). Grayson and Martinec (2004) explain that there is a certain reason and rationale for using both types of data (quantitative and qualitative) to strengthen the credibility and increase the authenticity of the data and for collecting data at both shopping mall and the more traditional bazaar. “ rather than assuming that our conceptualisation is appropriate for understanding and meaning perceptions of authenticity at two research sites, we used open-ended interview questions to hear, in consumers’ own words, how they experienced the sites” (p. 299). According to Biesta (2010). “ there appears to be a rather broad consensus within the field of mixed methods research that the rationale for a mixed approach has to be a pragmatic one. Rather than starting from particular philosophical assumptions or convictions, the choice of a mixed approach is seen as one that should be driven by the very questions that research seeks to answer” (p. 96). Especially due to its pragmatic approach and its relevance to marketing research, mixed methods were chosen as the most pragmatic way to engage the Turkish consumer, who provides different answers in person than through an impersonal survey. In addition to contributing to the literature, on consumer behaviour in Turkey then this study also sought to analyse the results and findings so that marketers could apply them in a practical way and potentially revise their marketing methodologies to increase their sales.

Bergman (2010) confirmed that especially when seeking to understand the participants’ experiences from their own perspectives, mixed methods research is appropriate: “Mixed methods research is eminently suited for exploring variations in

the construction of meaning of concepts in relation to how respondents, for instance, make sense of their experiences or report on attitudes in interviews or questionnaires, respectively” (Bergman, 2010, p. 172). In this study, the researcher explored the role of emotions and the reasons for consumers’ preference at shopping malls over traditional retail markets. This can be achieved through a survey. But especially in understanding the reasons why consumers visit traditional retail stores, it is important to expand the breadth of questioning which can only be achieved through semi-structured interviews. Furthermore, interviews can help strengthen the quality of the participant’s response as the researcher may take field notes and take note of the participant’s language, which can be relevant for data collection occurring in unique cultural contexts.

3.5 Research Site

Telci (2012) explains the importance and relevance of understanding the role of shopping malls. “Shopping malls that provide consumers climatic comfort and freedom from noise and traffic are centres for social and recreational activities as well as shopping. As they grow in number and differ from each other in terms of size and variety, consumer patronage regarding these enclosed retail environments become subject of greater scholarly inquiry” (p. 2517). Kushwaha, Ubeja, and Chatterjee, (2017) describe how “accessibility, a heterogeneous mix of retail outlets, unique environment, safety and leisure are the key service features that differentiate the retail experience of shopping malls from that of other shopping destinations, such as freestanding stores, departmental stores, focused centres, rejuvenated high streets vendors, retail parks, specialty and festival centres, as well as other television or e-retail stores” (p. 274). Stillerman and Salcedo (2012) summarize malls in the following way. “scholars understand shopping malls as central commercial and social settings. Some argue that malls’ designs attract and seduce consumers, while others contend that mall authorities exclude vulnerable groups and prohibit free expression” (p. 309).

Many scholars trying to understand the consumer behaviour or the consumer purchasing decision making process examine the role and complexity of consumer behaviour and that of the ‘old’ and the ‘new’, namely the shopping malls and the traditional retail markets (also known as bazaars).

Schipmann and Qaim (2011) elaborated this difference: “better understanding the implications of supermarket expansion for traditional wet markets is also important from a policy perspective” (p. 346). That is, it is not only important to understand the consumer behaviour, but also that such retail places are significant gathering places with broad socio-economic influence. This potential of influence attracts the attention of policy makers who need to understand such places better as well as their functions and roles within a developing economy and ever changing cultural context. In this context, both selected sites were representative of the population and relevant to understanding the Turkish context and answering the research questions.

3.6 Sampling

This study employed convenience sampling for its research project. For the quantitative survey, 200 people were randomly chosen at different times and different days of the week. For the qualitative data collection, 12 people were chosen randomly. This is fewer than the researcher assumed to interview is, but several practical constraints limited the number of participants the researcher could interview. This was primarily because it was also more difficult than expected to convince people to talk to the researcher. Reasons for this were sometimes unclear but it appeared that respondents were taking sides regarding the political situation. Nevertheless, the smaller number of participants does not mean that these qualitative findings are rendered invalid. As the later analysis shows, there are some general features in the results and unlike for quantitative sampling the number of respondents is not the key factor. These exploratory findings can be considered as inputs more lengthy and deep studies into the characteristics that shape consumer behaviour and decision making in Turkey.

Even though “random sampling tends to be associated with quantitative research, whereas non-random sampling typically is linked to qualitative research” (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007, p. 283). The researcher utilised convenience random sampling to collect both the qualitative and quantitative data. Convenience random sampling is “a type of nonprobability or non-random sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or willingness to participate are

included for the purpose of the study” (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016, p. 2). For this study, participants were selected for the ease of accessibility, their availability, and their willingness to participate in this study. While determining the number of participants, the researcher focused on data saturation for the qualitative section and the number available and willing to participate for the quantitative section.

Once again, the limitations of the study mean that it is debatable whether saturation was achieved. For reasons described below, the researcher believes that this was still, indeed, the case. As Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) posit, “there are times when it is appropriate to use small samples in quantitative research, while there are occasions when it is justified to use large samples in qualitative research” (p. 282). There is also no specific sample size requirement in the literature for either the quantitative or qualitative research methods.

For the qualitative section, the researcher interviewed 12 people. After each interview, the researcher evaluated the responses to see whether data saturation was reached. Data saturation is reached when the researcher is not able to collect additional new information or when there is enough data to be able to replicate the study if needed. For this study, data saturation was reached after 12 participants because as Marshall (1996) explains, “an appropriate sample size for a qualitative study is one that adequately answers the research question” (p. 523). Mason (2010) maintains that “a number of issues can affect sample size in qualitative research; however, the guiding principle should be the concept of saturation” (p.1) and that “as a result of the numerous factors that can determine sample sizes in qualitative studies, many researchers shy away from suggesting what constitutes a sufficient sample size”(p. 2). According to Saunders, Sim, Kingstone, Baker, Waterfield, Bartlam, and Jinks (2018) “saturation has attained widespread acceptance as a methodological principle in qualitative research. It is commonly taken to indicate that, on the basis of the data that have been collected or analysed hitherto, further data collection and/or analysis are unnecessary” (p. 1983).

For the quantitative section, Marshall (1996), states that “the aim of all quantitative sampling approaches is to draw a representative sample from the population, so that the results of studying the sample can then be generalized back to the population” (p. 522). The researcher selected 200 participants representative of the

population that was being studied. This was enough of a sample upon which the researcher could draw generalizations as Holton and Burnett (1997) explain: “One of the real advantages of quantitative methods is their ability to use smaller groups of people to make inferences about larger groups that would be prohibitively expensive to study” (p. 71).

3.7 Data Collection

Each step of a research study is significant but data collection is especially important because it establishes a baseline when the researcher is analysing the data collected. If the data is not collected appropriately, it will lead to inaccurate data and result in invalid analysis. Data collection is especially important for this study simply because it involves sophisticated field study with varying contexts and participants. If data collection is not done systematically and in a structured manner, it can produce irrelevant results. It can also lead others to question the integrity of the study. This study collected data through semi-structured interviews and surveys to reduce any questioning of its integrity.

3.8 Quantitative Data Collection

Quantitative data was collected at the Panora Shopping Mall in Ankara, Turkey. In order to conduct the survey at the shopping mall, the researcher was given permission from the shopping mall administration. The researcher showed the administration her student ID and explained the research purpose to them. After that she was granted permission by the administration office to conduct the study. The survey tool was utilised to collect the data. The survey included 14 multiple choice questions. The researcher surveyed 200 participants. The participants were told that the purpose of the study and that the researcher’s position was as a student and researcher at a specific university. The purpose was to collect data to understand their perspectives on their preferences, and the information sheet and the informed consent documents were presented to the participants who were willing to participate in the study. The information sheet included personal information about the researcher as to where she studied and the purpose of her study. It also explained that the Ethics Review Committee had reviewed and approved her study and methodology. The informed consent form explained that their participation was voluntary and that they

could stop the survey at any time without any pressure, without personal or professional consequence, if they so chose. It further stated that their data would be made anonymised and there would not be any identifiable data. The researcher moreover would not need any personal contact information, such as telephone numbers, or email, or home addresses. Collecting personal information was not relevant to the study. The data collected through this study would not be shared with any organisation nor any persons, and it would solely be used for the purpose of this thesis study. The researcher explained that participants would be able to access all of the findings and the analysis of this study if they wanted, and that they could contact her to receive such access.

Figure 3: Quantitative data collected at the Panora Shopping Mall in Ankara



3.9 Qualitative Data Collection

Qualitative data was collected at the Ayranci Bazaar in Ankara, Turkey. Such bazaars do not have a centralised system where a researcher can seek permission to conduct a study. There were 12 people visiting the bazaar who were interviewed for this study. Just as in the collection of the quantitative data the researcher explained the purpose of this study, and the role of the researcher, and explained that participants could stop the interview at any time they choose. Additionally, the researcher explained that there would not be any identifying information that would be asked of them. Additionally they were told that the data would not be shared with any organisation, and that the researcher was a student. Additionally, participants had the power to make a choice about either agreeing to consent or disagreeing to participate on a voluntary basis. Thus, the participants in this study were under no pressure to take part. While interviewing, the researcher took notes without distracting the participant. Collecting qualitative data was rather complicated as many people that the researcher approached did not want to participate. It is the researcher's contention that many people were not comfortable sharing their thoughts, feelings, and emotions. The survey included both the survey data with Likert scale questions and semi-structured open-ended questions. The qualitative results were then transcribed and analysed using the critical discourse analysis. During the on-the-ground research component in Ankara in July 2016, the author was able to interview 12 people at the Ayranci Bazaar to delve deeper into Turkish people's shopping behaviors and attitudes at open air, bazaars. This sample was admittedly quite small due to the fact that a major event had just occurred in the country: an attempted military coup against the elected government. The situation in the country was predictably tense and uncertain. People were taking various sides regarding the politics of the event, which was made more intense by the fact that over 1,000 people died during the events of July 15-16. As a result of this context, people were generally cautious and guarded when I approached them and, by and large, unwilling to talk to me. This is of course difficult for any such project, but the coup attempt made it incredibly difficult. Despite these limitations, the 12 respondents provided helpful insights on the whole, which were collected and

organised on the Nvivo program. It was, however, four respondents whose candid and lengthy answers were most helpful. It was also only these four who permitted me to use their words in my research. The data analysis chapter provides the quoted content of these four respondents' feedback, which provides points of emphasis compared the Nvivo-collected content from the 12 respondents.

Figure 4: The qualitative data was collected in Ayranci Bazaar in Ankara



3.10 Data Analysis

When the integrity of the data collection was established, the analysis must be transparent and systematic so that the findings are contextualised and reflective of the thoughts and experiences of the study's participants. Research in this study provided separate analysis of both forms of data collected, quantitative and qualitative. This provided the researcher with a broader perspective of the responses and with a more comprehensive understanding of how each set of data complemented each other. The

research determined which tests to run for the quantitative data and which process to utilise to analyse the qualitative data.

In both the data collection and the following analysis, the researcher explained the process and rationale so that the readers would understand the basis for the data analysis. Both the data collection and the analysis were performed and structured to increase the validity of the findings and the final synthesis. The data and findings were then presented in a way that would help readers understand the basis of the synthesis. The researcher did not systematically integrate the qualitative and quantitative data but rather, looked at each data separately, analysed them separately, and merged the findings during the synthesis when she stated her conclusion and recommendations. This is aligned with what Schermerhorn, Williams, and Dickison (1982) recommend: “The reconciliation of the two data sets is thus more a task of weaving together the influences resulting from each set than of confirming one inference with supportive evidence from a second perspective [as in triangulation]. In some instances a common theme is discerned, though for most concerns only questions arise as the two data sets are merged” (p. 95).

3.11 Role of the Researcher

This section further detailed the role of the researcher. It is important to understand the researcher because, especially in qualitative research, she is the main instrument, “learning to analyze and interpret qualitative data also involves a transformation of the researcher as the primary instrument for making sense of the phenomenon under study” (Barrett, 2007, p. 417). The researcher was personally involved in this study during every step. It is crucial that the reader to understand the researcher as well as the methods used to collect and analysed the data, which eventually informed the analysis of the findings and the synthesis.

Shulman (1986) explained that the role of the researcher in quantitative studies as that of “an outside observer attempting to discover a law of relationships among observable features” (p. 8). In qualitative research, the researcher intends on “discovering the meanings constructed by the participants as they attempt to make sense of the circumstances they both encounter and create” (p. 8). In this specific case, the role of the researcher is both as an observer and as someone trying to create meaning and make sense of the responses. Erickson (1986) stated that the researcher

should attempt to “discover specific ways local and nonlocal social organizations and culture relate to activities of specific purpose in making choices and conducting social action together” (p. 131). This is relevant for this study since the researcher is working within a specific local culture and exploring the relevance and context of both shopping malls, a western concept, and traditional bazaar places, an eastern concept.

3.12 Protection of Human Subjects

According to Breault (2006). “after World War II, there was much publicity and thought given to protecting human research subjects. It was triggered by the Nazi doctors' cruel experiments on people that were exposed in the Nuremberg Military Tribunal” (p. 15). Since then, the Nuremberg Code (1947) required that the participants have “the capacity to consent, freedom from coercion, and comprehension of the risks and benefits involved. It also lists the principles of minimization of risk and harm, a favorable risk/benefit ratio, qualified investigators using appropriate research designs, and freedom for the subject to withdraw at any time” (p. 15). Tsan and Nguyen (2019) concur “protection of human subjects is an ethical mandate for all contemporary research involving human subjects” (p. 1). This study followed the protocols established by the researcher’s affiliated institution. The University of Leicester to protect human subjects and assured that the participants are not harmed in any way. Informed consent was presented and the participants consented to voluntary participation with no foresight of harm and damage. They were also aware that there would be no compensation for their participation. Guillemin and Gillam (2004) stated that “research involving humans is a process of asking people to take part in, or undergo, procedures that they have not actively sought out or requested, and that are not intended solely or even primarily for their direct benefit, although in some cases participants may indirectly benefit from the process” (p. 271). In this case, there were no benefits for the participants as a result of their participation in this study.

Even though the Protection of Human Subject protocol, as established by the researcher’s affiliated institution was followed appropriately, the researcher was aware of the fact that research should also be concerned with ethics, which may not

necessarily be part of a compliance matter but are a matter of what is ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ within a specific cultural context. That is, institutionally required compliance in the protection of human subjects was part of the larger ethics consideration for the study. The researcher was aware of the cultural and social nuances in Turkey and followed these norms through the data collection.

3.13 Role of Descriptive Statistics

The researcher analysed the collected data utilising the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) method. The descriptive statistics were used to organise, analyse, and present the raw data in a structured format. Huang, Mou, See-To, & Kim (2019) explains how “the role of descriptive statistics is to describe a given study sample without regard to the whole population” (p. 27). The researcher analysed the raw data and provided “descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation to describe the characteristics of the sample” Tengilimoglu, Dursun-Kilic, & Güleç, 2012, p. 207 (p. 207).

The socio-demographic characteristics of the participants were presented in this study. The researcher collected such demographic information using the survey which included age, gender, marital status, annual income, and education. Demographics are critical as Martin and Brooks (2010) explain: “population dynamics are embedded in the life-cycle from birth to death. In this sense, there is an association between demographic and macroeconomic concepts of income and consumption” (p. 87).

3.14 Likert Scale

The original Likert scale is a set of statements (items) offered for a real or hypothetical situation under study. Participants were asked to show their level of agreement (from strongly disagree to strongly agree) with the given statement (items) on a metric scale” (Joshi, Kale, Chandel, & Pal, 2015, p. 397). This study did intend to go beyond whether the consumers visited shopping malls or traditional bazaar places, but wanted to understand their attitudes. Simple ‘yes’ or ‘no’ answers would not in other words result in satisfactory responses. Furthermore, the intent was not to simply find out facts, but also understand their emotional and value – based meanings,

which shape their purchasing behaviour decision-making process. The need to transform an “individual's subjectivity into an objective reality” (Joshi et al. p. 397) was a reason to utilise Likert scale for this study

3.15 Logistic Regression Model For Quantitative Method

According to Hosmer , Hosmer, Le Cessie, and Lemeshow (1997). “the logistic regression model has become a widely used and accepted method of analysis of binary outcome variables” (p. 965). Mood (2010) argues that “the use of logistic regression is routine in the social sciences when studying outcomes that are naturally or necessarily represented by binary variables” (p. 67) and that many fields such as “educational transitions, promotion, demographic research, social medicine, research into social exclusion, and research about political behaviour” (p. 67) all utilise logistics regression analysis. Binary logistic regression was used to distill the demographic variables that affect the reasons for consumers to visit the shopping mall. The additional reason for utilising logistics regression analysis was to analyse the odds percentage of the correlation between the reasons for visiting the shopping mall based on different demographic variables. The dependent variable was the reason for the visiting shopping mall, which was the nominal variables. Logistic regression analysis was the appropriate method of analysis because it is predictive, and, is commonly utilised when the dependent variable is binary. Its main difference from the other regression analyses is that logistic regression analysis is used when the categorical variables are dependent variables. That is, categorical variables can be categorical or numeric.

Logistic regression analysis does not require basic statistical criteria such as normality or homogeneity. In these models, logistics regression is utilised with gender, age, and marital status as independent variables and the reasons for visiting shopping mall is analysed.

3.16 Discourse Analysis for Qualitative Method

The researcher analysed the interview data using critical discourse analysis. Weedon (1987) explains that “discourse refers to ways of constituting knowledge, together with the social practices, forms of subjectivity and power relations which inhere in such knowledge and relations between them. Discourses are more than ways of thinking and producing meaning. They constitute the ‘nature’ of the body,

unconscious and conscious mind and emotional life of the subjects they seek to govern” (p. 108). In this case, using qualitative method to understand the reasons for the shopping location preference of consumers in Turkey, the researcher intended to find out how consumer think, thus behave, rather than theorizing or quantifying the reasons. Stake (2010) explains that, “by qualitative we mean that it relies primarily on human perception and understanding” (p. 11). The discourse analysis meanwhile “involves the collection and analysis of texts as a way of accessing the processes of meaning-making associated with particular discourses” (Hood, 2016, p. 127). Adjei (2013) adds further insight “discourse analysis is paramount in the negotiation and construction of meaning of the social world” (p. 1). As this study intended to understand how shopping malls and the traditional bazaar venues affected consumer choice behaviours within a social context, discourse analysis was highly relevant. Furthermore, Adjei states that “people’s discourse and positioning in social interactions reflect, to a large extent, the available interpretative repertoires or discursive practices embedded in their given context, and can be understood by aggregating their belief systems, values and socio-cultural experiences over a period of time (p. 2). This is especially relevant to understand the qualitative data because “(qualitative) methodology of science is more exploratory and allows individuals to express their inner most feelings, beliefs or perceptions on an object of thought or a psychological phenomenon” (p. 6). Since, the question of the beliefs and attitudes of consumers was explored in this study, these factors indeed affected their choice behaviour. Importantly, this differs from asking participants ‘yes’ or ‘no’ question. Fairclough’s (2003) critical discourse analysis highlights that as societies develop within the context of modernization, multiple fields form a network, such as health, economics, family, politics and these fields all help inform the analysis. In this case, understanding consumer behaviour requires understanding social, cultural, economic, educational, and other systems found within the context in which the research occurred. Shopping malls or traditional retail markets all are embedded within the socio-cultural, economic, and educational systems of Turkey and therefore, discourse analysis was relevant to explore and analyse the qualitative data.

In this stage, the researcher explored the experiences of consumers in traditional retail markets. The data source was the interviews conducted at a traditional retail market. The next step was the exploration of the context, the

traditional retail market, with its historical, economic, and sociocultural background. Data was then interpreted within this context, while revisiting the context as needed throughout. The assumption was that the consumer decision behaviour within the context of Turkey was a social practice thus affirming the relevance of discourse analysis confirming what Oppong (2017) argues “CDA [critical discourse analysis] brings with it both general theory and how discourse figures as an aspect of social practice and analytical concept for analyzing discourse” (p. 74).

3.17 Ethical Considerations

The researcher sought to receive approval for her research prior to data collection. She received the approval from the University of Leicester institutional review board for the protection of human subjects prior to initiating any form of data collection. While collecting data, the researcher could not identify any ethical issues. She utilised a mixed methods approach during the data collection phase.

Jeanes (2017) posits that “discussions of research ethics typically orientate around practices such as seeking informed consent, the avoidance of harm, ensuring privacy and confidentiality, the avoidance of deception and the contrast” (p. 175). Informed consent for this study included the protection of human subject with informed consent explaining the purpose of the study and any harm (or benefit) that may come from it. However, “ethical dilemmas and concerns are part of the everyday practice of doing research—all kinds of research” (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004, p. 262). Guillemin and Gillam (2004) suggest two dimensions of ethics in research which they articulate as “(a) procedural ethics, which usually involves seeking approval from a relevant ethics committee to undertake research involving humans; and (b) “ethics in practice” or the everyday ethical issues that arise in the doing of research” (p. 263). This specific study adhered to both of these dimensions by following the established practices of ethics by the researcher’s current institution (i.e. by receiving institutional review board approval to conduct the research) and ensured that the participants were aware of any harms that could come through this research. She also informed participants that they were taking part on their own free will and could withdraw from participation at any point during this study.

3.18 Reflection

This study was an attempt to understand a complex phenomenon that is fluid and ever changing. Consumer behaviour is complex and requires extensive and continuous thinking. The researcher attempted to provide more depth to understanding consumer behaviour, but this attempt should not be interpreted as a tool to provide a definitive answer. Its findings, in other words are by no means conclusive. As Olshavsky and Granbois (1979) argue “it must be recognised that consumer researchers using observation and retrospective questionnaire techniques have probably been influenced by the assumption of decision process behaviour, so that their results may reflect a subtle bias overstating the prevalence of decision-making behaviour.” (p. 94).

Consumer behaviour research assumes an understanding of what value is for the customer. According to Rintamäki, Kanto, & Spence, (2006). “customer value is relativistic because it involves preferences among objects, it varies among people, and it is specific to the context. Value is, therefore, comparative, personal and situational” (p. 9). In this sense, the study provided an additional perspective to understanding consumer behaviour and found the relevance of culture and context to be of significance as Vicdan and Firat (2015) argue, “whether they represent the westernized or the traditional, we find that people seek immersion into orders that allow encounters with the ‘other’, experiencing the other, negotiating with the other(s) to construct new ‘other’ experiences, but without abandoning the order(s) they are already familiar with” (p. 268). That is, consumer behaviour is more of a fluid and contextual concept and in order to better understand it, it is vital to understand the ‘self’ as well as the “other’ as well as the intersectionality of the ‘self’ and the ‘other’ within the country context, which will help us find innovative methods to reach consumers and understand what they consider to be of “value” to them.

This study further intended to capture data at specific times and interpret the data for the benefit of literature with the contention that “any inquiry begs the question of ‘what it is for’ and ‘who it is for’ and ‘how do the researchers’” values influence the research, and it is these questions that need to be considered by researchers to make inquiry more than an attempt to ‘mirror reality’” (Yvonne Feilzer, 2010, p. 8). In this, respect the researcher’s self was important in formulating the

research questions, determining the methodology, and then interpreting the results based on her own understanding of Turkish consumers and consumer behaviour research in Turkey.

Throughout the data collection, the researcher witnessed the challenges of getting responses for her interview questions, as Turkish consumers in bazaars were reluctant to share their views. Turkish culture is unique in the sense that while they are comfortable sharing their views openly in socially safe places with their peers or with people from similar socio-economic circles, it is rather difficult to get responses to questions, especially when they explore their emotional status. This is a challenge for marketing research professionals, as “Turkish consumer culture also possesses unique characteristics which influence consumers’ response to marketing phenomena” (Bebek, 2017, p. 387).

Lastly as a point of departure for future research, it is worth considering how all of these factors might have shaped research if it had been conducted in Istanbul or in other Turkish towns or cities instead of Ankara. Ankara of course, presents its own unique social- economic, cultural, and educational context. The geographic limitation of the study to Ankara is noteworthy, and the researcher is aware that the study’s findings cannot be applied to broad conclusions about Turkish consumer behaviours. Istanbul, for example has relatively fewer traditional bazaars and, as the economic engine of the country and the most diverse and international city in the country, would have revealed different insights.

3.19 Conclusion

This chapter has included a discussion of the strengths and challenges of using mixed methods analysis for understanding consumer behavior in Turkey. This method of analysis yields insights into marketing practices and purchasing behaviours because of the multiple roles and viewpoints individuals have within a traditional, collective society. Not only do the participants demonstrate complexity and richness in their responses and motivations for coming to the shopping mall or bazaar but so too does the research site of our study: the bazaar has a history which is as varied as the participants who frequent it. Shopping centres are embedded within Turkish culture and thus the reasons for purchase behaviour in them stem from socially bounded

attitudes and expectations. It is a tradition within society with agreed upon behaviours and practices but one that is also constantly affected by shifting economic realities, both local and global. Thus, mixed methods analysis, by collecting demographic information and descriptive statistics, is suitable for the research in this study, since it encompasses both qualitative and quantitative validity.

Chapter 4 Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction:

This chapter presents the study's quantitative and qualitative data findings and analysis. It first provides the quantitative finding, the descriptive statistics and their accompanying correlations, before employing the Kruskal Wallis test using the Logistic Regression Model. The chapter then concludes with the qualitative analysis.

The researcher was able to receive consent and conduct the survey from 200 people in the Panora Shopping Mall in Ankara, Turkey, at different areas of the mall, including on all floors and in the food courts. This data was collected over a two-and-a-half-month period, during both weekdays and weekends. The quantitative survey's purpose was to determine the reasons why Turkish consumers visit shopping malls instead of traditional retail places (bazaars) and to ascertain which emotions they experienced while they are at the mall.

Of the survey participants, 58.5% were male, and 41.5% were female. According to the table, almost half of the participants (48.5%) were in the age range of 20-30 years old, while approximately one fifth of participants were in the age range of 31-40 years old. The latter can be classified as "middle-aged" according to Turkish standards. Thus, it can be said that among the mall's visitors, roughly two-thirds are young or middle-aged. Of these younger cohorts, two thirds of the participants reported being single, and were not married, divorced, or separated. In terms of annual income, the lower income brackets, namely those who made between 10,000 Turkish Lira and 15,000 Turkish Lira and those who made between 20,000 Turkish Lira and 25,000 Turkish Lira constituted a majority at 57.5%. It is an interesting finding that the wealthiest group, with annual incomes between 50,000 Turkish Lira and 80,000 Turkish Lira, made up 26% of survey participants, while lowest income group, who made between 20,000 Turkish Lira and 25,000 Turkish Lira made up 37%. University graduates were the largest group by education level (58.5%) and, when combined with high school graduates, the two groups totaled 77.5%. To sum up, it can be inferred that the most common social profile was "young, single, lower-to-middle income, educated men" among the survey participants.

Table 1: Distribution of social and demographic characteristics of quantitative survey participants

4.2 Table 1: Distribution of Social Demographic Characteristics

Questions	Choices	Numbers	%
How old are you	20-30	97	48.5%
	31-40	39	19.5%
	41-50	32	16.0%
	51-70	32	16.0%
Gender	Female	83	41.5%
	Male	117	58.5%
Marital Status	Single	129	64.5%
	Married	71	35.5%
Annual income	10-15 thousand TL	74	37.0%
	20-25 thousand TL	41	20.5%
	30-40 thousand TL	33	16.5%
	50-80 thousand TL	52	26.0%
Education level	Junior high school	11	5.5%
	High school	34	17.0%
	University	117	58.5%
	Master	26	13.0%
	Doctoral	12	6.0%

4.3 Table 2. The preferences of participants

		Number	%
With whom do you visit shopping malls?	Alone	35	17.5%
	Family	86	43.0%
	Friends	76	38.0%
	Colleague	3	1.5%
What is your preferred shopping place?	Shopping mall	99	49.5%
	Traditional retail place	8	4.0%
	Both	93	46.5%
Why do you go to shopping malls?	Shopping is my hobby	26	13.0%
	Looking for the products	53	26.5%
	Spend time	55	27.5%
	All of the above	66	33.0%
Why do you go to traditional retail places (bazaars)?	Cheap price	59	29.5%
	Close to my home	24	12.0%
	Different products	64	32.0%
	All of these	53	26.5%
How frequently do you visit shopping malls?	Daily	37	18.5%
	Once per week	65	32.5%
	Weekends	64	32.0%
	Once per month	34	17.0%
How frequently do you visit traditional retailing areas?	Daily	4	2.0%
	Once per week	26	13.0%
	Weekends	38	19.0%
	Once per month	132	66.0%

Table 2 reveals the participants' preferences for their answers and the frequency of responses. Of the participants, 43% stated that they visit shopping malls with their families, while 38% stated that they visit shopping malls with their friends. This can be interpreted that people utilise shopping malls as an environment to spend social time rather than as a venue for shopping. When we examine the data on questions that compare bazaars with shopping malls, a greater proportion of consumers (4%) preferred bazaars. It was noteworthy that only 46.6% of participants preferred both shopping malls and bazaars, which reveals a new customer profile for malls that formed in that last 15-20 years and consists of consumers who do not like going to bazaars. One of the main characteristics of this profile is using shopping malls as places for leisure and for spending free time. Within this framework, it was meaningful that the frequency of those who seek to spend free time is close to, and even 1% higher, than those who visit shopping malls to see the products and shop. The frequency of visits by those who preferred malls to bazaars was higher in comparison to those who preferred traditional bazaars. For instance, 53.8% of the participants rarely preferred traditional bazaars. There is a group with the ratio of 50.5% who also go to traditional bazaars with the purpose of finding different products at lower prices, but proximity to their homes seems a less motivating factor.

4.4 Table 3. Correlations

	Gender		Total	P
	Female	Male		
	(n=83)	(n=117)	(n=200)	
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	
How frequently do you visit the shopping malls?				
Daily	17 (20,5)	20 (17,1)	37 (18,5)	0,680
Once per week	23 (27,7)	42 (35,9)	65 (32,5)	
Weekends	28 (33,7)	36 (30,8)	64 (32,0)	
Once per month	15 (18,1)	19 (16,2)	34 (17,0)	
Why do you go to shopping malls?				
Shopping is my hobby	12 (14,5)	14 (12,0)	26 (13,0)	0,006
Looking for the items or products	24 (28,9)	29 (24,8)	53 (26,5)	
Spend time	12 (14,5)	43 (36,7)	55 (27,5)	
All of the above	35 (42,1)	31 (26,5)	66 (33,0)	

In comparing the categorical variables, the Pearson Chi-Square test was conducted with the Monte Carlo Simulation technique and column ratios were compared and expressed, according to the Benjamini-Hochberg corrected P value results.

Findings:

There was no statistically significant relationship observed between the frequency of visiting the shopping mall and gender ($P = 0.680$).

A statistically significant relationship was found between gender and the reason for visiting the shopping mall ($P = 0.006$). While more time was spent on the reasons for women visiting shopping mall place than men, the time spent surveying all of questions was higher for men, which was statistically significant ($P < 0.05$).

4.5 Table 4. Significant values subject to Kruskal Wallis test

Questions	Test statistics	Sd	P value
Melancholic	4.675	3	0.197
Happy	5.204	3	0.157
Satisfied	18.169	3	0.001*
Pleased	9.297	3	0.026*
Cared for	0.508	3	0.917
Calm	1.834	3	0.608
Sleep	4.011	3	0.260
Controlling	2.296	3	0.513
Influential	5.182	3	0.159
Stimulated	5.027	3	0.170
Autonomous	5.159	3	0.161
Frenzied	6.923	3	0.074

p< 0.005

The Kruskal Wallis test results showed that there is meaningful correlation between the emotional scores as indicated a P value of <0.005 through the PAD Scale 12 adjectives and the reasons for going to the shopping mall. PAD scale was used in the table 5 and the responses were recorded and analysed using a four-point Likert Scale 1) Agree, 2) Disagree, 3) Strongly Agree 4) Strongly Disagree. The findings indicated significance of being “satisfied” and “pleased”: “Pleased” 0.026* and “Satisfied” 0.001*. Group variable was “ Reason of visiting the shopping mall”.

4.6 Table 5. Correlation between demographic characteristics and reasons for visiting the shopping mall

Questions	Choices	What is the main reason for you to visit the shopping malls?				P
		Movies	Food court	Shops in the mall	Meeting	
How old are you	20-30	16.5%	12.4%	45.4%	25.8%	0.018
	31-40	25.6%	7.7%	59.0%	7.7%	
	41-50	18.8%	15.6%	62.5%	3.1%	
	51-70	6.2%	15.6%	68.8%	9.4%	
Gender	Female	15.7%	6.0%	65.1%	13.3%	0.030
	Male	17.9%	17.1%	47.0%	17.9%	
Marital status	Single	17.8%	13.2%	47.3%	21.7%	0.006
	Married	15.5%	11.3%	67.6%	5.6%	
Annual income	10-15 thousand	18.9%	12.2%	52.7%	16.2%	0.662
	20-25 thousand	19.5%	9.8%	48.8%	22.0%	
	30-40 thousand	18.2%	6.1%	60.6%	15.2%	
	50-80 thousand	11.5%	19.2%	57.7%	11.5%	
Education	Junior school	27.3%	27.3%	45.5%	0.0%	0.057
	High school	20.6%	5.9%	47.1%	26.5%	
	University	16.2%	11.1%	55.6%	17.1%	
	Master's	19.2%	15.4%	53.8%	11.5%	
	Doctora	0.0%	25.0%	75.0%	0.0%	

Table 5 indicates a statistical significance in age ($p < 0.018$), gender ($p < 0.030$), and marital status ($p < 0.006$). Demographics, including age, gender, marital status, annual income, and education, were also collected, and the researcher explored the correlation between these characteristics and the reasons (cinema, food court, shops, and meeting other people) for visiting shopping malls. It was noteworthy that people

prefer to visit malls to shop the older they become, according to the survey results. This preference among older people indicates that shopping malls offer activities beyond shopping for younger generations. Furthermore, it is clear that women (65.1%), men (47%), and married participants (67.6%) shop in shopping malls more often than single people do.

4.7 Statistical Model

Further analysis was conducted through logistics regression (prediction model) - Analyse>Regression>Binary Logistic. The data were analysed with SPSS 22 program and 95 confidence level was used. In these models, logistics regression is utilised with gender, age, and marital status as independent variables, and the reasons for visiting a shopping mall are analysed. The factors affecting each cause were investigated with the help of the Binary Logistic Regression Model. The OR (odds ratio) values are provided to show how many times more effective the factors are found to be significant. Four different model were created and the factors affecting the reasons for visiting the shopping mall were interpreted according to other responses. The reasons for visiting shopping mall as a dependent variable. (for a movie, for food-court, for shops in the mall, for meeting) Their factors are considered as independent variables (gender, age, marital status).

Gender, Age, and Marital status variables found to be significant in the Univariate analysis (Table 5) results are included in this model.

Model 1: Factors affecting a visit to the shopping mall for the cinema.

	B	S.E.	P	OR	OR %95 Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Age			0,206			
20-30 age- 41 over	0,213	0,549	0,699	1,237	0,421	3,631
31-40 age- 41 over	0,886	0,537	0,099	2,424	0,846	6,948
Male- Female	0,254	0,394	0,519	1,289	0,596	2,788
Married -Single	-0,206	0,488	0,672	0,814	0,313	2,116

The reasons for visiting for a cinema according to age, gender and marital status did not show any significant difference according to the above table ($p>0,05$).

Model 2: Factors affecting a visit to the shopping mall for the food court

	B	S.E.	P	OR	OR %95Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Age			0,481			
20-30 age- 41 over	-0,543	0,575	0,345	0,581	0,188	1,794
31-40 age- 41 over	-0,766	0,715	0,284	0,465	0,115	1,886
Male- Female	1,165	0,528	0,027	3,207	1,14	9,02
Married- Single	-0,525	0,573	0,36	0,592	0,193	1,819

Men preferred the shopping mall 3.2 times for more eating and drinking than women

($p = 0.027$). Visiting the shopping malls for shopping at retail stores had statistical significance according to the gender ($p<0,05$). There was no statistical significance in age or marital status and the reasons for visiting the shopping mall ($p>0,05$).

Model 3. Factors affecting the visit to the shopping mall for shops in the mall.

	B	S.E.	P	OR	OR %95 Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Age			0,475			
20-30 age- 41 over	-0,496	0,408	0,224	,609	,273	1,356
31-40 age- 41 over	-0,305	0,439	0,487	,737	,312	1,742
Female- Male	0,851	0,308	0,006	2,342	1,280	4,285
Single- Married	0,690	0,386	0,073	1,994	,937	4,247

Women visit the shopping mall for shops in the mall 2.3 times more than men (p=0.006).

Model 4. Factors affecting the visit to the shopping mall for meeting (for socialising)

	B	S.E.	P	OR	OR %95 Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Age			0,93			
20-30 age – 41 over	1,205	0,650	0,024	3,336	1,933	11,925
31-40 age – 41 over	0,127	0,808	0,876	1,135	0,233	5,534
Female- Male	-0,428	0,420	0,309	0,652	1,286	1,485
Single - Married	-0,859	0,655	0,945	4,501	1,117	1,530

There is statistical significance between the ages of 20-30 (p= 0.024). People between the ages of 20-30 visited the shopping mall for socialising 3.3 times more than the people over the age of 40. There is statistical significance for single people visiting the mall (p. 0.945). They preferred to visit the shopping malls for socialising 4.5 times more than the married visitors.

4.8 Qualitative Analysis

The purpose of this qualitative survey was to explore the reasons why Turkish consumers preferred traditional bazaars places to shopping malls. It examines the emotions that these consumers experience when they are in bazaars. The author completed the study by interviewing 12 people, who were randomly chosen at a traditional bazaar venue in Ankara, Turkey called Ayranci. The average age of the participants were between 24 and 65 years old. Seven women and five men participated in the study. Participants represented a variety of socio-economic levels, with annual income levels between 10,000 Turkish Lira and 70,000 Turkish Lira, the equivalent of £2000 to £10,500.

Ten participants stated that they visited bazaars once a week, while two rarely visited them. Only one participant stated that they visit the bazaar at least once a month. Women over the age of 30 who participated in this survey visited bazaars more frequently than men and younger people (both men and woman). Therefore, the demographics of bazaar visitors are mainly middle-aged women. Women, in other words, are doing the majority of the shopping every week.

Participants visited bazaars for various reasons, including the variety of products, their cost, and the alignment of prices with their budgets. Another reason was the ability to find fresh products. It is important to note that the majority of the respondents gave their answers by comparing bazaar venues to shopping malls.

Six participants in the survey indicated that the main reason for visiting bazaars was the freshness of fruits and vegetables as compared to the chain supermarkets found in shopping malls. Consumers frequenting bazaars further cited the appropriate pricing found in bazaars as a significant attraction for their visit.

There were four common themes across the responses, which collectively indicate a common narrative for the qualitative portion of the study. These themes were 1) habit, 2) location, 3) health and trust, and 4) price. One of the respondents stated that his reason for visiting bazaars was that it was the “habit of families to come to the bazaar. They love to come to the bazaar”. Another respondent explained: “The location of their house or workplace and the children’s park is near to the bazaar ”. Other participants responded that they wanted to purchase “products that are more healthy and reliable” than those found in shopping malls, and that “being able to buy some products directly from the producer” was important. They further indicated

that “having the freedom to choose vegetables and fruits more freely” was relevant to their choice of visiting bazaars, and wanted to “become acquainted with the sales people”. The desire to become acquainted with sales people was interesting because when consumers feel comfortable towards a salesperson, they are more likely to purchase products from the salesperson. It is also highly likely that the customer will return to the same salesperson, thus creating customer loyalty. Many participants responded similarly in explaining why they prefer bazaars or large shopping malls to satisfy their shopping needs. Most agreed that bazaars are the best venues for food, fruit, and vegetables.

This survey was conducted at a bazaar, which was a critical decision by the researcher. Bazaars are usually crowded areas with large, concentrated numbers of shoppers per square metre. Despite the traditional popularity of bazaars, the Turkish government has been expanding its investments in large shopping malls, which it considers a measure of its success. With the expansion of government investment, shopping malls are appearing in every neighbourhood in Turkey and seek to meet the needs of consumers. Shopping malls are thus becoming increasingly crowded, almost comparable to traditional bazaars venues. Nevertheless, even with the increasing popularity of large shopping malls, the tradition of visiting bazaars continues, especially among middle and lower-middle class families. These bazaar visits still maintain their purpose of functional, weekly shopping. That is, the visits are mainly to purchase food and cheaper products that are easily disposable and usually sold for daily use.

Three of the participants, it should be noted, indicated their preference for bazaars over large shopping malls or stated their clear preference for bazaars. Two participants further explained that they utilise large shopping malls only to socialise with their family and friends.

The interview findings further indicated that large shopping malls are attractive places, used mainly to socialise rather than serving a functional purpose like bazaars. This is a significant difference in the choice behaviours of consumers, since large shopping malls have attractions such as cinemas, food courts, bookstores, etc., providing a variety of opportunities for customers to have a variety of experiences, especially when compared to traditional retail structures. Participants further explained that while large shopping malls are utilised as social spaces, in some cases they also serve the functional need of purchasing clothing. This is mostly due to

seasonal discounts offered in such malls. Even though bazaars provide more reasonable prices for daily clothing, the mass purchase of such clothing by retail stores at large shopping malls enables them to provide larger discounts. This is especially true at the end-of-season sales held throughout the year.

Respondents had a variety of thoughts and feelings towards the products sold in bazaars and the services offered there. Many emphasized that the bazaar's shopkeepers were always the same, which they appreciated. The respondents also explained that they visited bazaars to purchase certain food products, such as cheese, fruit, etc. Their responses did not show a major significance in the diversity of products and services found in the bazaars, but the main determinant of their choice behaviour was the freshness of the products more than anything else. Overall, most of the responses focused on the convenience of shopping in bazaars for food products.

Most of the respondents also explained that they were not satisfied with the infrastructure and overall chaotic nature of their shopping experience in bazaars. They further explained that they were dissatisfied with the behaviours and attitude of the salespeople, who they found to be aggressive and rude and not showing as much respect, care, and professionalism as at large shopping malls. More than eight respondents indicated this frustration with salespeople's attitudes. The respondents further expressed their discontent with bazaars, describing them were "old, neglected, irregular, dirty and noisy". Female customers particularly expressed dismay at how they are treated in bazaars. This was surprising. Turkish society places social, cultural, and religious importance on women, so their dissatisfaction and frustration were notable. Female respondents described male salespeople as "rough, conservative, nervous, and intolerant", especially during Ramadan, the holy month celebrated by Muslims across the world. Female customers and older male customers also indicated dissatisfaction with the lack of restrooms, as well as the unsanitary condition of such facilities, if they were able to find them. Other responses articulated dissatisfaction with the lack of available parking spaces and areas where consumers could rest while shopping, with seven respondents stated that the municipality is responsible for providing such services and ensuring the cleanliness and maintenance of them in order to assure customer service and thus satisfaction.

Two respondents explained that they would not continue walking around the bazaar if they did not find the products they were intending to purchase. Instead, they would leave the bazaar without purchasing any additional items than what they had initially intended. Another common theme among the rest of the participants, however, was that they would certainly purchase something, even if they could not find what they were intending to purchase. These purchases were impulsive – they were for products that they did not necessarily need. Thus, it can be concluded that the vast majority of bazaar customers do not leave without purchasing something. This is a relevant finding, as it sheds light on the purchasing behaviour patterns of customers at large shopping malls. This pattern can be attributed to the transformation of Turkish society into one of avid consumers who satisfy psycho-social needs by visiting and purchasing products, regardless of the practical need. It should be noted, however, that having prior knowledge of what bazaar customers will find there, the flexibility of the prices in bazaars, and the perceived intimacy of the salespeople are significant factors in the reasons for consumers to visit bazaars.

Participants were further asked to describe their emotional states in bazaars and were requested to score this state from 1 to 4 by using the Likert scale. Participants at the bazaar indicated that they felt “excited” and “in control” during their shopping experiences in bazaars, but scored low on emotions related to contentment. The chaotic nature of bazaars excited the customers and the familiarity of the bazaar made them feel in control, but their emotions were sporadic and changed often, thus the feeling of not being in charge of their emotions. Of the two respondents, expressed that they were in the habit of visiting the bazaar with friends or relatives. The remaining respondents explained that they visited the bazaar either alone or with one of their family members. Further findings indicate that two of the three respondents who stated that they also visit the shopping mall were men. Most of the female participants, meanwhile, said that they visit the bazaar with one of their family members, and their preference is to visit it with their husbands. Family members who prefer to bring their children or grandchildren with them to the bazaar stated that they bring them so that they can help carry the purchased items back to their homes.

With the exception of two male respondents, the respondents explained that they do not visit the bazaar when it is too hot, especially during summer months. Two male participants visited the bazaars just once a month or less, and the heat was not a consideration for them. The majority of the female respondents tried to visit the bazaar either early in the morning or later in the evening, when the heat is not as overwhelming as during midday. If they could not arrange their schedule to visit the bazaar during cooler times in the day, they explained that their husbands would be happy to do the shopping in the bazaar as well.

Out of twelve responses, 8 participants stated they were not happy with the attitudes of the salespeople. Two said that both good and bad behaviours could be identified in the salespeople. The majority expressed their discontent with the salespeople, describing them as rude. Women specifically expressed their discomfort by asking to be treated with respect. They, however, explained that the salespeople are not as educated and would not expect them to change their behaviour, as this was expected of uneducated people. Respondents further added that salespeople and shopkeepers are stingy, impatient, and have short attention spans and loud voices – shoppers thus feel as if salespeople are screaming at them, which they characterised as disturbing. Other criticisms of salespeople and shop workers include claims that the salespeople are loud and easily agitated and that their temperaments are unstable.

In this section, I will introduce 4 respondents' answers to prepared questions regarding their shopping behaviours and attitudes at Turkish open air traditional retail place identified as the bazaar. I will also critically discuss and analyse their responses.

Respondent Ahmet was a 55- year old married man with a university education. His annual income was 35.000 Turkish liras, which is the equivalent of 4700 British pounds.

How often do you go to bazaar areas? I come here every week.

Can you tell me your reasons to come to traditional bazaar areas? Why do you come here? I come here because it is very close to my house, so why would I go anywhere else. We have become familiar with sellers in time. The products are good, (shows product importance) especially fruit and vegetables, and are fresher in

comparison with shopping mall markets, or at least we believe so. In the shopping mall markets, they are more expensive and genetically modified, Why would I go and buy genetically modified products with more money? I hope we are not fooled here, too. Fruits and vegetables no longer taste like they used to taste , but products here seem better.

I have been using the bazar places since I was a child so this is like a habit and do not want to change the place.

Are you generally satisfied with bazaar areas? Can you tell a little bit more? Unfortunately, these places have not been renewed in years, The administration should play a guiding role here, but unfortunately it has not happened. Order and cleaning should be maintained. There is also a serious parking problem. All these can be solved, but where are the solutions? It is still OK for me but of course I want it better.

Respondent Semra was a 60- year old married woman with a high school education. Her annual income was 20.000 Turkish liras which is equivalent of 2.700 British pounds.

Can you tell me your reasons to come to traditional bazaar areas? Why do you come here? I come here to buy nuts, fruits and vegetables because they have very moderate prices. I also take my grandchildren with me, there is a playing garden outside, when I finish my shopping they play there while I have some rest.

How often do you go to bazaar areas? I usually come here at every weekend.

Are you generally satisfied with bazaar areas, can you tell a little bit more? I am old now. It would be so nice if resting areas had been constructed for us. Sometimes I want to have rest and there are not any places to sit. When I come with my grandchildren, the toilet is another problem. The municipality should construct toilets here. Except from these problems, it is not bad at all. It is the bazaar we know and you will not raise your expectations.

Respondent Murat was a 65- year old married men with a high school education. His annual income level was 70.000 Turkish liras, which is the equivalent of 9.400 British pounds.

Can you tell me your reasons to come to traditional bazaar areas? Why do you come here? In the season, the products are very fresh. I have heart disease. I usually eat

salad. I buy the greens from this bazaar without any hesitation. On the right side there are other herbs as well, last week I bought for the first time. This week I will buy again, as my wife liked it so much.

How often do you go to bazaar areas? I do not come so often. The place is so crowded, we can say once in a month.

Are you generally satisfied with bazaar areas, can you tell a little bit more? Coming here in summer time is like a torture, there are not many umbrellas or shade and I have to walk and choose the products under the sun. The municipality has to work harder, but I do not have any hopes about that. In the winter, it snows in Ankara, so this time there is a parking problem. The products are good, but the service of the municipality is very bad, there is no maintenance, no renewal. This could be a better place. It is the capital of Turkey anyway. It could be an example in every aspect.

Respondent Dilek was a 32- year old single women with high school education. Her annual income level was 45.000 Turkish liras which is the equivalent of 6.000 British pounds.

Can you tell me your reasons to come to traditional bazaar areas? I come here for shopping, I look at everything from fruits and vegetables to accessories. I like the bazaar environment. It is very close to the place I work, so I come here on foot with a short walk.

How often do you go to bazaar areas? I come here at every weekend.

Are you generally satisfied with bazaar areas, can you tell a little bit more? It is OK; anyway, you should not raise your expectations so much. But Turkish men are conservative and rude subject to women. Look, do you see any women sellers around? They are all men, if there were any women, I'm sure they would be excluded among all these men. Sellers may be more polite to women, that I would prefer. I am against all kinds of discrimination.

As a country with a traditional culture, the bazaar stands as a central place in Turkish society. Bazaars exist in every neighborhood, from the rich to the poor, and the consumers come from a variety of economic and educational levels. In our study, annual income levels ranged from 20,000 Turkish liras to more than three times that, 70,000 Turkish liras. Similarly, education levels ranged from middle school

graduates to university graduates. Furthermore, for both men and women, the bazaar is a familiar place that all Turks know and accept as part of society: “I have been using the bazar places since I was a child, so this is like a habit and do not want to change the place’’, Respondents Ahmet , Semra, and Dilek come to the bazaar weekly. Customers have not only been coming since childhood but also introduce their own children to the practice of shopping at the bazaar: “ I also take my grandchildren with me, there is a playing garden outside, when I finish my shopping they play there while I have some rest” (Female, Respondent Semra). The Bazaar is not just a place to shop but a space that has social history and memory for both men and women.

Turkish bazaars are an open-air places where a consumer purchases all kinds of items from stalls are owned by individual business owners and not private corporations. Food is the most common and includes many different kinds of cheeses, olives, fruits, vegetables, and dry foods like macaroni and beans. Bazaars are also places for purchasing household goods such as curtains, sheets, towels, rugs, and even clothing. Respondent Dilek summed this up when she said, “I come here for shopping, I look everything from here, from fruit and vegetables to accessories.” With all these product choices the bazaar is an original place that offers incredible variety.

Having many products is not, however the main reason for customer attendance. The top two reasons for visiting or shopping the bazaar were price (Respondents Ahmet, Semra and quality of merchandise (Respondents Ahmet , Murat), This finding was true for both genders and for the lowest and the highest income levels. The participants indicated that the Bazaar was the place to buy healthy and inexpensive fruits and vegetables. Price as a concern was clearly voiced by the lowest income female respondents: I come here to buy nuts, fruits and vegetables because they have very moderate prices.”(Respondent Semra)

Besides price, the nutritious quality of the produce was indicated and positively compared to the produce of stores. Respondent Murat, the oldest of the surveyed participants, said: “In the season, the products are very fresh. I have heart disease, I usually eat salad. I buy the greens from this bazaar without any hesitation”.

The fresh taste of the fruits and vegetables leads the participants to believe that the products are less chemically treated and altered than store products. They have no proof for this belief but because they see the products as tastier and fresher, they (cautiously assume) that they are therefore not modified genetically and are suspicious of produce sold in stores. Respondent Ahmet, a male aged 55, even believed that the produce is: “fresh in comparison with that of the shopping mall markets, at least we believe so. In the markets, they are more expensive and genetically modified, why would I go and buy genetically modified products with more money?”

As an older shopper Respondent Ahmet is aware that his assumption that the bazaar does not sell GMO products might be false: “I hope we are not fooled here, too” To these customers, the bazaar represents an alternative lifestyle choice for its customers. as opposed to buying in shopping mall supermarkets. In his comparison, Respondent Ahmet indicates that he is overall dissatisfied with the current taste of both bazaar as well as store bought vegetables and is nostalgic for the past: “Fruits and vegetables no longer taste like they used to be, but products here seem better.” Even though fruits and vegetables do not taste as good as past memory, the ones at the bazaar are superior to those in the stores.

The strongest shared observation by all participants was a criticism of the government’s taking care of the bazaar’s location and accompanying facilities. All participants were dissatisfied with its maintenance and facilities. Although they all attend the bazaar and three out of four say positive comments about the merchandise, all view the Bazaar as needing renovation. Parking (Respondents Ahmet and Murat) was insufficient. Cleanliness was voiced as a problem (Respondent Ahmet). The solution to these problems seems to with better work by the municipalities of Ankara. The city is regarded as the agency to supply toilets (Respondent Semra), places to sit (Respondent Semra), and canopies for shade during the summer months (Respondent Murat). The need for this is regarded in a larger, more nationalistic regard by the last Respondent Murat. Since the bazaar is located in Ankara, the nation’s capital, this participant believes that improvements in the bazaar should be done so that this open air space is a positive symbol of the nation’s self-image: “it could be an example in every aspect.”

The most unique criticism of the bazaar was given by the youngest respondent a 32 year old unmarried woman, Respondent Dilek. Her complaint does relate to needs in improvement. Like the other participants, she attends the bazaar frequently. Her motivation is proximity. The bazaar is close to her job and home and thus is part of her community. She is not critical of parking problems or cleanliness and more accepting of the bazaar's limitations, when she said that the bazaar is "okay anyway, you should not raise your expectations so much." However, she was the only participant critical of workplace behaviour. She also found gender discrimination in the absence of female sellers. She also finds the treatment of Turkish male salespeople as not polite to the female customers but possessing misogynistic attitudes towards women in the bazaar: "Turkish men are conservative and rude subject to women. Look, can you see any women seller around? They are all men, if there were any, I'm sure they would be excluded among all these men. Sellers should be more polite to women, that I would prefer. I am against all kinds of discrimination." Her younger age and gender are possibly the reasons for her observation.

The only other female respondent, Semra, is 60 with grandchildren who did not voice such attitudes. However, like Dilek, respondent Semra did not hold high hopes that the bazaar will be improved: "It is the bazaar we know, you will not raise your expectations."

Even though all participants were critical of the bazaar, as a traditional way of shopping, they nevertheless visit the bazaar regularly and consume its products this is an important perspective gained from the study.

Chapter 5 Results

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the quantitative and qualitative methods. It also describe and discuss the key findings, explains the relevance of a socio-cultural context in analysing the data, and provides a synthesis of the findings within the framework of Blackwell's (2001) Consumer Decision Process Model. The chapter ends with conclusion section.

With the competitiveness of and the access to various formats of shopping in the marketplace, it is important to understand the choice behaviours of consumers. Even though “the focus of marketers and consumer researchers has generally been on identifying the broad trends that influence how consumers live, work, and play” (Kucukemiroglu, 1999, p. 3), it is important to note that consumer behaviours change with time. With advancement in technology, globalisation, and access to information, consumers are much more educated, informed, and aware of the possibilities. With Turkish culture's tendency towards technology and intense awareness of global advancements, this is especially important and relevant. Turkish consumers tend to respond rapidly to any advancement in technology, whether it is access to information or a new online product review tool. This is especially true when it comes to shopping for global brands, “for the majority of Turkish consumers, the perceived value of global brands favorably contributes to quality of life” (Sandıkcı, Peterson, Ekici, & Simkins, 2016, p. 315). That is, Turkish consumers are avid consumers of information as well as the global trends, and this becomes a challenge for marketers trying to understand Turkish consumers to better serve their customers' needs and thus stay competitive.

These changes do not only make consumers much more demanding when it comes to the services and products they are presented, but the changes in the economies and the effect of globalisation make consumers much more unpredictable. This unpredictability and the sophistication of consumers are evidence of the need for a more future-oriented approach in marketing, with utilisation of frequent market research studies to not only understand the current consumer behaviours, but to also predict the changes in the future and adapt accordingly. This study is especially

significant because even if the conceptual understanding of ‘shopping’ is to receive products or services to satisfy the basic needs, it confirms that shopping malls are not only places for people to purchase consumption goods and satisfy the needs for such goods, but also places where they satisfy the need for socio-cultural interactions. Sandikci, et al. (2016) further urged the “scholars to take into account the macro-social and institutional structures while studying development and welfare” (p. 304). The purpose of the study was to explore the reasons for consumers’ preference for shopping mall and bazaars.

5.2 Key Differences and Groups

5.2.1 Age:

The findings indicated that the participants between the ages of 20-30 prefer to visit shopping malls for socialisation more than any other age groups that participated in this study. The frequency of their visit were found to be 4.5 times higher than that of participants over the age of 40. The primary purpose of the visits of the participants between the ages 20-30 was socialisation.

In terms of retail preferences, findings further indicated that even though the participants between the ages of 20 and 30 visited the shopping malls 3.3 times more than the participants over the age of 40, participants over the age of 40 visited shopping malls 2.3 times more frequently for the products and services offered through the shops at the mall. That is, the primary purpose of the visit for the participants over the age of 40 was to actually shop at the shops rather than socialise and/or meet with friends. Results indicated that the purpose of visiting shopping malls to purchase products and/or services is directly correlated to the increase in age.

This view perhaps derives from generational differences resulting from the process of cultural change, as the nation moves from an agricultural society to a post-industrial one. Until the 1990’s, shopping malls were non-existent in Turkey. Participants over 40 can remember not shopping in malls, shopping perhaps at traditional retailing venues or local markets. For this group, malls provide a more, convenient modern shopping experience without the problems of traffic and parking. An additional reason may relate to economics. This group of over 40 may have greater buying power than younger people, having reached an age in which they have established their careers. This older group of 40 over chooses to shop rather than

socialise at the shopping mall, unlike participants ages 20 - 30. Age appears to be a determinant in mall behaviour patterns: older people go to spend money; young people, to socialise. The qualitative results of this study indicated that between the ages of 40 to 60 consumers tend to visit bazaars.

5.2.2 Gender

Findings indicated a difference in the shopping behaviours between the genders. The analysis of the interview findings revealed that women who participated in this study visited shopping malls to shop at the stores two times more frequently than the men who participated in this study. An interesting finding was that men were more likely to visit the shopping malls for food and beverage than women. Male who participated in this study were three times more likely to visit shopping malls for food and beverage than women. Male preferences for food consumption over retail purchases indicates gender as a factor in food consumption decision. The findings demonstrate that women are more frequent visitors of bazaars.

5.2.3 Marital Status

Marital status was found to be of significance in shopping mall visits. Findings indicated that married consumers preferred visiting shopping malls 3.2 more than the single participants of this study. One significant difference among the single and married participants was that single consumers preferred shopping malls as a venue to meet with friends and family four and a half times more than the married participants. This difference was especially important because of the fact that young men and women indicated their preference for shopping malls as a venue for meeting with friends and family. Younger men have shown a greater preference for visiting shopping malls for the purposes of socialising than young women, even though both male and female participants between the ages of 20 and 30 have shown a preference for using shopping malls as a venue for meeting.

5.2.4 Income and Education Level

Per statistical analysis conducted by the researcher, findings did not find indicate a significant difference in the reasons for visiting shopping malls among different income and education levels. Participants' preference for visiting shopping malls in regards to shopping, food and beverage, cinema, and meeting facilities offered did not show a difference among income and education levels.

5.3 Purposes of Visit - Shopping Mall

When we consider why consumers visit shopping malls, we find that shopping malls have an important role in the socio-cultural context of Turkey. The social and experiential motivations of consumers visiting such shopping malls have more weight than the functional purpose of such visits. It is a natural component in consumers' everyday lives as, 5% of the people frequenting shopping malls consider it to be an important function in their lives. Shopping malls also serve to satisfy social needs and provide an experience that consumers would not have had otherwise. Enjoying the convenience of services and products in one place has been an important factor. Furthermore, people visiting shopping malls are satisfied, and the services and products offered that have come to be regarded as standard services are not considered to be the main reasons for the visit. Thus, the minimal significance of the actual shopping at retail stores in these shopping malls. As a result of statistical evaluations of the data collected through the questionnaire conducted with 200 people visiting the shopping mall, based on their arrival frequency and the length of time they spent, it is evident that customers prefer shopping malls over traditional bazaar venues. There are significant differences, especially among age groups and genders, for the reasons for visiting shopping malls. As an example to confirm this analysis, visiting the shopping mall to watch movies was not found to be a significant factor in determining the choice behaviour.

5.4 Differences Among Groups

The main difference in the purchasing behaviour as indicated by the findings, stems from whether the consumer is old or young, male or female, and married or single. While young people between the ages of 20 and 30 utilise shopping malls as a meeting place, people over the age of 40 visit shopping malls to purchase goods and services. There is an inverse relationship between the utilisation of shopping malls as meeting and shopping venues by people between the ages of 20 and 30 and people over 40, and this is largely shaped by the income and leisure time that each group had indicated they possessed. The same is true for comparing married and single consumers. The socio-physical infrastructure that enables single people to meet and spend their spare time at the shopping mall is significant. While married consumers' visits to a shopping mall focus more on shopping than that of single people, it has emerged that eating and drinking services and facilities show an obvious surplus in male clients, and that women usually visit shopping malls to shop. Accordingly, the female participants in the study shop more frequently than the male participants.

5.5 Summary

Overall findings indicated that younger people preferred to utilise shopping malls as meeting venues rather than places for satisfying consumer needs. The assumption that the shopping malls are more expensive than traditional shopping venues was not valid, as the participants' income level was not a significant indicator of consumers' choice behaviours; all income levels visited shopping malls equally, whether the purpose of their visit was shopping or socialising. This was especially found to be true for younger participants of the study. Purchasing power was not a significant factor among the participants of this study. Their responses indicated that the attractiveness of shopping malls was not necessarily an indicator of choice when compared to traditional bazaars shopping venues,. This was important because shopping malls are perceived to be relatively expensive shopping venues as compared to traditional bazaars, but the reasons for visiting shopping malls did not demonstrate a significant correlation to the pricing structure.

5.6 Consumption Behaviour Implications

As Aslanbay and Varnali (2014) explain, “Marketing has always been a controversial profession and field of research. Since human behavior is the focus of marketing, the discipline inevitably undergoes a never ending re- conceptualization process” (p. 667). With this understanding of the profession in mind, this section explains the consumer choice behaviours within the framework of Blackwell, Miniard, and Engel’s (2001) consumer decision process model. Blackwell et al.’s consumer decision process model includes seven stages.

These stages are:

1. Need Recognition
2. Search for information
3. Pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives
4. Purchase
5. Consumption
6. Post Consumption Evaluation
7. Divestment

5.6.1 Need Recognition. Need recognition depends upon consumers’ belief that “a product’s ability to solve a problem is worth more than the cost of buying it, thereby, making recognition of an unmet need” (p. 72). Consumers at this stage recognise that there is a discrepancy between what they have/what they need, as well as the possible alternatives that are desirable to meet that recognised need. Teo and Yeong (2003) indicate that “the process begins with the stimulation of a need where the consumer is faced with an imbalance between the actual and desired states of a need, which may be sufficiently large to stimulate search” (p. 351). Thus the recognition of the need as well as the degree of its importance both constitute initial stage in the consumer’s decision to purchase. This stage is also crucial in the process in that if the consumer does not or cannot recognize the need, the subsequent stages do not occur, i.e., she / he cannot examine the choices that appear and eventually choose the best option. What is interesting about younger consumers between the ages of 20 and 30 is the role external stimuli play in need recognition. The decision to purchase a good or service is influenced by the dynamics of physical space that the consumer inhabits,

a particular setting. Findings reveal that among consumers between the ages of 20 and 30, need recognition occurs when this population utilises the shopping malls as meeting venues rather than to purchase products and services. This need for socialisation is significant in the sense that this specific population recognises the value of shopping malls in a significantly different way than the shop owners in these shopping malls had intended. Enclosed shopping malls were originally designed to protect consumers from bad weather or, as people moved from cities and were dependent on automobiles and thus needed space to park (Feinberg and Meoli, 1991). However, the products and services offered through shopping malls do not necessarily satisfy the product or service needs of this population. It is, rather, a socio-cultural need that is being fulfilled as these shopping malls provide a safe and convenient place for meeting friends and family. If we define need recognition as identifying the problem, in this case, the problem that these shopping malls provide solutions to is the need for socialisation among younger consumers. Thus the positive attributes a mall may possess—its security, accessibility, and cleanliness—are variables that retailers need to be aware of in presenting product options to consumers.

Findings further indicated that the need or the problem that these shopping malls satisfy or solve for men is largely due to the convenience and the variety of food and beverage facilities in these shopping malls. Because income and education level did not influence the decision making, women over the age of 40 make up the largest consumer profile who shop at shopping malls for products; they do so more often than men and younger consumers. The greater use by females over forty reinforces the importance of the setting for consumers in the decision process. The physical structure of the mall, its enclosed space, may represent the safety and comfort of home and thus represent security to this age demographic. The sense that one is in a 'safe zone' and cannot be harassed or bothered by strangers on the street may enable women over 40 to more easily identify needs or problems so they can proceed to the next stage in purchasing a product or service. The mall, in this way, stands in opposition to the street market or bazaar. The sellers in the bazaar place can dominate the space by loudly offering their products in shouting to the consumers; here, in the mall, it is the consumers who dominate the space—the volume of their speech is challenged perhaps only by background music which is intended to be noninvasive. Older female consumers might find this role-reversal a more positive

and empowering experience; they are not challenged or dominated in the consumer experience. It is they who ask the questions; bargaining is non-existent.

5.6.2 Search for Information. When the consumers recognise their need, they move to the second stage, in which they begin searching for information (Blackwell et al., 2001). That is, when the need is recognised and acknowledged, consumers begin searching for information through a network of experiences, both internally through their past experiences and externally through a variety of ways that includes online reviews and friend/family recommendations. The findings of this study did not indicate a significant difference among the age groups, genders, income and education levels of the consumers in searching for information. The findings did indicate that the variety of fresh products were a contributing factor behind the choice to visit a bazaar place. A product's freshness is thus an indication of the larger issues of the value consumers place upon health. The bazaar is perceived of a space in which fruits and vegetables are fresher, locally sourced, and more often organic than they would be if found in supermarkets. The belief that products purchased in the bazaar were superior to those in super- and hypermarkets represents the consumer's second stage of information gathering. So too is the notion of price. Turkish consumers research a product's price before deciding where to purchase it. The perception that bazaar fruits and vegetables were cheaper than supermarket ones was another value that consumers identified in the decision making process.

5.6.3 Pre-purchase Evaluation of Alternatives. At this stage, “ consumers compare what they know about different products and brands with what they consider most important and begin to narrow the field of alternatives before they finally resolve to buy one of them” (Blackwell et al., 2001, p. 76). This pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives is tied to the cultural context of a population, and that might include word-of-mouth recommendations and online searches for more information about these alternatives. The findings of this study did not indicate a significant difference among the age groups, genders, income, and education levels of the consumers when the consumers evaluate alternatives before making a purchase. Pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives was not dependent on a specific set of criteria, but the availability of the stores for the participants over the age of 40.

5.6.4 Purchase. At this stage, “after deciding whether or not to purchase, consumers move through two phases. In the first phase, consumers choose one retailer over another retailer. The second phase involves in-store choices, influenced by salespersons, product displays, electronic media, and point-of-purchase advertising” (Blackwell et al., 2001, p. 79). The findings of this study did not indicate a significant difference among the age groups, genders, income, and education levels of the consumers during this stage. Men indicated their preference for food and beverage at shopping malls more than the female participants of the study. Younger participants between the ages of 20 and 30 indicated their preference for socialisation at shopping malls rather than the stores or any store related factors. Female participants did not indicate their preference for store choices or any store related factors.

5.6.5 Consumption. The consumption stage begins after the consumers receive the product or service. This is the “point at which consumers use the product” (Blackwell et al., 2001, p. 80). One significant factor found in this study as it relates to consumption is that men showed a preference for food and beverage during their visit to shopping malls. Another significant finding was that women preferred shopping at stores regardless of their education and income levels, and they were not primarily focused on food and beverage. Another significant finding was that women preferred visiting bazaars to purchase fresh foods and vegetables. The bazaar provides the convenience of easily fresh food. This attribute leads to the consumption of bazaar products.

5.6.6 Post-Consumption Evaluation. This stage begins after the consumer uses the product. After the consumption, they “experience a sense of either satisfaction or dissatisfaction” (Blackwell et al., 2001, p. 80). Bui, Krishen, and Bates (2011) explained this as “When consumers reflect on and evaluate the decisions they have encountered, comparisons are made between the experienced outcomes and the outcomes that would have occurred under a different choice” (p. 1070). The findings of this study did not indicate a significant difference among the age groups, genders, income, and education levels of the consumers during this stage. There is no evidence of post-consumption evaluation as to whether the consumers are satisfied with their purchases. It is, however, possible to infer that with the increasing number of visits, consumers are generally satisfied with their purchases/experiences. However, this satisfaction is not necessarily due to the purchases of products and/or services. It may be because of the satisfaction they have experienced in socializing as they shop and

where they shop. Social satisfaction is an intangible variable and one that appears unrelated to product consumption. This notion of consumer happiness however has been the subject of research by Aslanbay and Varnali (2014), in their argument that in a post-industrial society, producers, consumers, and governments should jointly shift their perception of the consumer experience to include happiness as a core value. In a sense, this research on Turkish consumers supports this notion. The intangible need to socialize drives the shopping experience and contextualizes it to a particular place: in this research, the mall. Aslanbay and Varnali argue that “The volume of production or consumption should not be the central issue, but the context of the consumption, thus the value attached to it must shape the increasingly humanized markets of the future, creating happy individuals”(pp. 668-9).

5.6.7 Divestment. At the final stage, consumers make decision post-consumption about “outright disposal, recycling, or re-marketing” (Blackwell et al., 2001, p. 82). The findings of this study did not indicate a significant difference among the age groups, genders, income, and education levels of the consumers during this stage. This stage was not a significant factor in the choices of the participants. Both the qualitative and quantitative results did not find any connection between Turkish consumer behaviour and the divestment stage.

5.7 Socio-Cultural Context and Implications

De Mooij (2015) states that “culture influences consumer’s behaviour, thinking and perception” (p.11). In this, culture determines and shapes the core values of a society. Alan, Kabadayi, and Yilmaz (2016) stated that “consumers purchase goods or services not only for their functional advantages but also to have pleasant experiences” (p. 716). That is, the experience created through visiting such shopping malls is considered a form of recreational activity that provides pleasure, even though utilisation of paid products or services is not present. In the context of shopping malls, the findings of the study confirmed the claim that consumers visit shopping malls not necessarily to satisfy a product or service need, but mainly for various socio-cultural reasons, including identification of the self with the elite, socialising with friends and family, and searching for information or visualising the self in other contexts through window shopping.

When shopping malls were introduced into Turkey by the west, it was to satisfy the needs of the elite. (Bozdogan & Kasaba, 1997) They required a place to satisfy their shopping needs without being part of a traditional bazaar experience, while being surrounded with people from similar socio-economic levels of society. It was an attempt to differentiate the elite from the non-elite of the time. With advancements in technology and increasing ease of transportation, shopping malls in Turkey became a place to visit not only for the elite to satisfy their consumer needs, but also for the non-elite to utilise the space for socialisation. Shopping malls also became venues to immerse the non-elite “into the experiences of the ‘other’ that consumers find the license to claim the experience of the other as their own” (Vicdan & Firat, 2015, p. 250).

The wide-spread window shopping is an experience which the patrons of the shopping malls enjoy during their visit. This is especially true as the findings of the study indicated spending the leisure time was a significant factor in the reasons consumers’ visits to such shopping malls. Through this socialisation experience in shopping malls, consumer values and behaviours are transformed, absorbing a different culture as introduced by the west. Even though, markets and mosques were the focal points in the cities of traditional Muslim societies, shopping malls with prayer rooms combined both aspects and adopted it to a more consumerist context through western lenses. Shopping malls as a single structure in the west were introduced to provide a one-stop shopping experience, especially for middle and lower class populations. It worked very well within the western culture because of the ease of public and private transportation, it provided a venue in which to offer products and services in one physical space. These shopping malls are created in the image of the elite, and people visiting such venues enjoy the feeling of being part of the upper class. They identify themselves through purchasing the ‘brands’ that are associated with the elite. Erkip (2003) described shopping mall in Turkey “as an emerging public space is turning out to be one of the most important sites for the transformation of Turkish urban life” (p. 1090) and that “It should also be noted that shopping-mall development in Ankara reflects social and spatial segregation” (p. 1078). This adds to the complexity of the modernisation of shopping experiences, but not without the potential problems that it may bring. Even though shopping malls are described as emerging public spaces, within the Turkish context they are not yet fully internalised and adopted as an alternative to bazaars. Without specific attention to

further understanding and adapting, these shopping malls may not be as relevant to the context as they are in western nations.

The implications for the store- owners are that they need to be aware of the purposes of such visits so they can restructure their marketing strategies and their offerings to fit within the context of leisure and adapt them for the age groups and genders. For younger people, they need to find products or services that will satisfy the socialisation needs of the visitors. For men, they need to expand and diversify their marketing strategies focusing on food and beverage.

For the larger policy context, it is appropriate to imagine that if these shopping malls are reshaping the culture and thus the core values of Turkish society, they will expand to provide broader services and products with restructured commercial spaces that would include bringing communities together as urban living spaces.

Çanakkale and Özkul (2016) further asserted that “If market players can manage the psychological processes of consumers successfully, then they are able to increase the possibility of being chosen by consumers among many other competitors” (p. 104).

5.8 Intergenerational Difference

Blackwell et al. (2001) explained that there are two ways to describe why broad intergenerational changes occur in consumer values within and across societies. One of them is the life-cycle explanation, in which “ as an individual grows older, their values change” (p. 323) The other is the generational change, in which “ there will be gradual replacement of existing values by those of young people who form the leading generation in value terms” (p. 323). Bekk, Spörrle, Landes, and Moser (2017) further confirmed the need to understand this generational difference, not only through traditional age categories but also by maturity levels. “it is important to understand that young and mature customers react differently to the same brand” (p. 525). Maturity levels are, naturally more difficult to define and assess, but may be of greater importance, especially as they correlate to consumers’ income levels and whether consumers play meaningful roles in household spending decisions. These fields, moreover, are dynamic and change according to wider social movements and economic changes. Within the context of this study, it can be assumed that the

generational change process will determine the values of a society, and the younger population will define both what the purposes of shopping malls are as well as the context and the perception of socialization more broadly, and thus what role consumer decision making plays in this process.

Currently, marketers can determine the most efficient means to present information to different age groups, by employing factors that control for variability across culture and income levels and allow them to understand the processing strategies of younger people and older adults. As a result, marketers can analyze age categories, or demographics more broadly, by placing people into generations each of which requires subtle but different marketing strategies. According to demographers, there are four generations considered in a marketing plan: the Baby Boomers, Generation X, Millennials and Generation Z. One such age-related insight is that younger people are more likely to recall advertisements and the specific information presented in them, but are less likely to be convinced by such information. The former insight relates to their relatively more robust ability to retain information, while the latter hinges on their relatively smaller incomes.

The most consequential generation is the Baby Boomers, who consist of those individuals more than 55 years of age. They have considerably more disposable income than any other generation, so marketers are keen to target them. The Baby Boomers value consistency and value-adding products and services. They thus tend to be loyal to specific brands because these brands have previously met their needs adequately. Thus, if marketers are to expand their market share with this demographic, customer interaction and quality are crucial components of any strategy. The Baby Boomers are also more skeptical of shady deals and online marketing; thus, marketers should ensure that their advertisements to target them are legitimate and eliminate concerns and fears by producing clear messages that eliminate any scent of vagueness (Chaney, Touzani & Ben Slimane, 2017). In Turkey, older people tend to prefer bazaar spaces partly out of familiarity but also for this reason: they can see and examine the good for themselves and have trust in buying it from someone who they know.

Generation Xers, on the other hand, demand marketing strategies that fall somewhere between those required for the Baby Boomers and Millennials, about whom more below. Generation Xers are attentive to loyalty above all and have a better grasp of and fluency in using online shopping and social media. According to Fietkiewicz (2016), Generation Xers get their news from apps and websites and use social media more than Millennials each week, which is somewhat surprising. As a result, this age group is attracted by new technology that can improve their living standards and augment other areas of their professional or social lives. Bazaar places have begun to use technology to market themselves to this demographic, for instance, and to improve customer satisfaction. One such example is the use of sensors to make finding a parking space more convenient in shopping malls. These sensors indicate the number and location of empty spaces, keeping people from driving around parking lots in search of spaces. Shopping malls are also introducing a more varied base of tenants on their ground floors, which provides a wider arrangement of initial choices of products and services for the consumer and thus a good first impression.

For Millennials, organic marketing has been found to be the most effective strategy compared to the hard sell (Fietkiewicz, 2016). This age group is most interested in the reality of a service or product and is not easily swayed by pretty or slick marketing concepts. Millennials also, prefer real-life situations, people and interactions as ways to be influenced about what products they should or need to consume. The generation younger than the Millennials, Generation Z, differs from other generations in that their lives revolve around the internet of things and technology much more so than others. Even though marketers are not heavily focused on this group, statistics indicate that they influence more than \$650 billion in family spending (Fietkiewicz 2016). Generation Z, also known as iGeneration, are interested in entertainment in whichever media platform they use and the unprecedented advance of technology allows these younger people to stay both connected and entertained which makes them more difficult to target using traditional methods. As explained by Fietkiewicz (2016), Generation Zers are less patient and more likely to hang up marketing calls within 40 seconds than the average client. In order to attract these consumers, shopping malls are incorporating value-added elements to provide

entertainment and leisure for middle-class families. It is also worth noting that shopping malls are also often quite popular with teenagers providing a sort of social sanctuary where they can intermix in a safe place.

5.9 Connecting to Theory

In the context of the study, the findings indicate a change in the collectivist culture within Turkish society. Traditionally, Turkey has been a collectivist society in which the relationships were based on the group identities. These identities were embedded within every aspect of their lives, including shopping. Bazaars were places where people met their friends and neighbours while they were satisfying their needs for socio-cultural interaction. People visited bazaars because in collectivist cultures “the self cannot be separated from others and the surrounding social context, so the self is an interdependent entity who is part of an encompassing social relationship” (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011, p. 183). Bazaars provided just that. Consumers were visiting bazaars to situate themselves within the larger social context and to satisfy their social, cultural, and economic needs. Situating themselves in this sense brought a sense of belonging and made them feel comfortable, while also easing the tension after a long day’s work. The qualitative results indicate four main reasons for visiting a bazaar in this study. a) the fresh foods and vegetables b) cheap price c) location d) habit and trust. These results were significant factors that can affect the decision making process, resulting in the consumer choosing to visit a bazaar rather than a shopping mall. The results show that bazaars still exist to fulfil the needs and wants of Turkish consumers.

It is important to understand that “Turkish malls exist within a different socioeconomic environment than the one to which malls were introduced in North America and Western Europe” (Richer, 2015, p. 353) but “Turkey’s embrace of consumer culture mirrors global trends whereby shopping practices constitute increasingly important social relations that are linked to the production and maintenance of status inequalities” (p. 352). With the introduction of western values and ideals, Turkish society has been changing very quickly, adapting the western ideals within their own context in a manner that is applicable to collectivist cultures. Even though these shopping malls were introduced for the elite at first, Turkish society as a whole adopted and adapted the purpose to fit its own contexts. They repurposed these venues as meeting places and places where they feel like members

of the elite through being exposed to the products and services which, in most cases, only the elite could afford. They situated these shopping malls within the Turkish context as needed from a more pragmatic perspective. This was especially true as income level was not a factor among the different categories of visitors. That is, visitors do not necessarily visit shopping malls for shopping but mainly for meeting and window- shopping. So, the pricing or the purchasing power of the visitors was not significant. However, the pricing was a significant factor for consumers who visited a bazaar.

Within the context of gender egalitarianism (see Kabasakal & Bodur, 2007) and masculinity/femininity (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011), the study's findings were relevant. Female participants over the age of 40 indicated their preference for utilising shopping venues to actually purchase consumer products and services, as they found the products and services at the shopping malls to provide more value than bazaar shopping venues. This was important because the traditional masculine culture in Turkey emphasises that men do not do as much shopping, in contrast to what you would find in feminine cultures where “men do more household shopping” (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011, p. 183). The study confirmed that Turkey still maintains its masculine structure in which women do most of the shopping and men are more occupied with satisfying their basic needs, such as the consumption of food. This is relevant as “Women are responsible for the lion's share of grocery shopping and meal preparation. Food is also one of consumers' most important budget items, one that can be adjusted but never eliminated” (Silverstein & Sayre, 2009, p. 3).

5.10 Summary of Findings

The quantitative survey interviews conducted face to face as a structured survey with 200 visitors at the shopping mall, and half of them were in the 20 - 30 age range. These young people prefer to use shopping malls for socialising more frequently than the other age groups. The people in the 20 – 30 age group visit the shopping mall 3.3 times more than people who are 40. Their aim is to utilise the place to socialise. The surveyed, people who were aged 40 and above prefer to visit the shopping mall for shops about 2.3 times. In this regard, it can be inferred that the 40 and above age group would be an important part of a shopping mall's revenues. In this case, we need to understand the different segments of Turkish consumers, such as income and age groups. This situation could be due to the general differences between

the population segments in terms of the level of work, profession and income. More specifically, there are two main reasons for the high rates of difference that are highlighted by the utilisation of shopping malls as shopping venues or as meeting venues. There is a clear asymmetry between the two groups in terms of the leisure time they have and the money they can spend. Middle - aged people are a more affluent segment of society in terms of work, profession, and income, but their leisure time is lower than those in the age range of 20-30. As a result of this research, the second distinctive change in the way people use the shopping mall has to do with gender. According to statistical analysis of the interviews with women and men who participated in our survey, women are two times more likely than men to visit shopping malls than for the purpose of shopping. An interesting situation with males is that they prefer the shopping mall for eating and drinking. Men are more than three times more likely than women to eat and drink in a shopping mall. That is, men preferred the shopping mall 3.2 times more than women for eating and drinking ($p = 0.027$).

Another noteworthy difference that arises when we investigate the marital status of those who visit shopping malls is the differentiation of dynamics. Findings further indicated that those who are married prefer shopping in a shopping mall 2.5 times more than the single participants of this study. As observed in the young age groups, the unmarried participants stated that they prefer shopping malls as venues for meeting 4.5 times more than married participants. When combined with the proportional dominance of the young people aged 20-30, young and single men and women (especially men) demonstrate a significant difference in their reasons for visiting shopping malls rather than purchasing products during their visit. The choice to partake in the food and beverage, cinema and meeting facilities offered by shopping malls is not significantly different across other demographic characteristics such as income level and education level. In other words, the opportunities offered by shopping malls play equally attractive roles in terms of Turkish customers with different incomes and educational levels. It is an interesting finding that the overall purpose for the visits did not necessarily correspond with the main purpose of shopping malls, which was to market products conveniently in one location.

This suggests that shopping and everyday life are not separable in terms of the consumption patterns of who visits shopping malls; they are part of the same socio-cultural universe. Findings confirmed the relevance of socio-cultural factors, even

though the economic conditions of the customers are considered to be one of the most important factors in determining purchasing power and consumption patterns of consumers. On the other hand, the answers to the questionnaire in our research show that the level of income does not produce a significant difference in consumption behaviour. In the same way, it has been understood that there are no differences between those who do not visit shopping malls more often than those who do. Additionally, those who do not prefer shopping malls over other shopping venues (such as bazaars) do not necessarily consider the attractiveness of shopping malls to be an important factor when making their choice.

When daily and weekly arrivals are considered frequent, the shopping mall can be said to be an important component of everyday life. Five per cent of people who frequent the shopping malls enjoy an important social and cultural function in their lives. This may also indicate that services such as cinemas, food courts, chain cafes and bookshops are satisfactory for every segment, and they may be overlooking them and describing them as standard services. As a result, in the light of the statistical evaluations of the information gathered by the questionnaire completed by over 200 visitors of a shopping mall, it can be seen that customers prefer shopping malls based on their arrival frequency and the length of time they spent. The customers' meaningful differences have arisen between the types of the services they offer.

The purchasing behaviour of customers is an area in which meaningful differences arise between the old, and the young, males and females, and those who are married and those who are single. While young people aged 20-30 utilise shopping malls as a meeting place, people over the age of 40 visit them in order to shop. There is an inverse relationship between the use of these two groups as meeting and shopping venues, and this is largely shaped by the income and leisure time that they have. The same is true for comparing married and single customers. The socio-physical infrastructure that enables single people to meet and spend their spare time at the shopping mall is encouraging. Married people's visits to the shopping mall focus more on shopping than that of single people. It has emerged that eating and drinking services and facilities show an obvious surplus in male clients' visits. Women use their visits to shop, and they shop more frequently than men. As these results show, it is important to ensure that segments with different demographic characteristics can be

spoken to more consciously in accordance with the arrangements appropriate to their shopping motives. If we can achieve this, we can more easily determine the attractiveness of the shopping mall and find ways increase the processing capacity in this regard. The findings of this study confirmed Arslan, Sezer, and Isigicok's (2010) study in which they found that younger consumers preferred shopping malls as places to "socialize with their friends and families due to the leisure activities and socializing spaces" (p. 185).

5.11 Conclusion

This study explored the reasons for choosing either shopping malls or traditional retail (bazaars) within the cultural context of Turkey. The findings indicated that shopping malls have become an important part of the lives of consumers in Turkey. However, the purpose of the visits revolves not so much around shopping at retail stores, but around socio-cultural reasons. The most prominent finding of this study was that the consumers who participated in this study indicated their enjoyment with their visits, but the purpose of these visits was not necessarily for a good or service consumption. Even though they utilised the services found in the shopping malls, purchasing products was not a significant reason for them to choose a shopping mall over a bazaar. Bazaars are still relevant shopping venues for consumers in Turkey, as they provide products and services that are applicable to the familial needs of consumers. According to the study participants who chose to visit a bazaar, the reasonable cost and the variety of fresh food items found in bazaars are still relevant within the economic context of consumers. The participants' satisfaction with their visits to bazaars was clearly indicated in the responses.

Turkish culture is evolving, but it is not necessarily transforming at a level that would be predicted by globalisation. Shopping malls are not necessarily satisfying the shopping needs of consumers within their purchasing power at the current time. At the same time, bazaars are not keeping up with the changing needs of customers, namely their need for socialisation, that are mainly satisfied through visits to the shopping malls. One of the most significant findings was that the choice behaviours of customers varied with age, gender and marital status. This highlights the urgency with which store owners need to look at the products and services they offer. Additionally, store owners they may need to repurpose or reimagine their presence at these shopping malls and adapt accordingly to different age, gender and marital status

groups. If the main population is not visiting these shopping malls to purchase products, services that will attract younger consumers need to be designed.

This is true not only for younger consumers, but consumers at all ages. Because of the westernization of Turkish society, the emergence of social media, increasing competition, and the diversity of the needs and expectations of ever changing consumers, there is a larger need to provide places for socialisation in person. Shopping malls are ideal locations for such interactions.

In sum, both large shopping malls and bazaars have their own place in Turkish society. The distinction between the roles of shopping malls and bazaars are clear, as exhibited through the choice behaviours of consumers. Even though Breytenback (2014) affirmed the fluidity of consumer behaviour and the need for shopping malls to reimagine how they should adapt to shifting behaviours, “marketers need to understand the factors that would play a role in making a shopping centre the shopping and social destination of choice” (p. 19). It is as important for bazaars to understand the choice behaviours of their target consumers, “Consumer behaviour, attitudes, and perceptions need to be constantly monitored and analysed to ensure a retail marketing strategy that would attract high-yield target markets” (p. 19). In order for either or both to be successful, they need to rethink how they do what they do, as each provides a distinctive value for consumers.

Chapter 6 Implications and Conclusions

6.1 Introduction

This study will explore the reasons behind consumers' preferences for shopping malls or bazaars in Turkey. The focus will be on understanding consumer shopping behaviours in both shopping malls and bazaars, behaviours of Turkish consumers with regards to their tendency to choose whether to visit a shopping mall or a bazaar, and how emotions affect consumer choice behaviour. The final chapter will begin with a broad view of the context of the study, about shopping malls and bazaars. It will then outline the implications for shopkeepers of bazaars and shopping malls, and attempts to integrate all the key findings of this study. The overall research findings will be summed up and explained. Finally, this section will conclude with the recommendations for future research.

6.2 Context

Yu (2006) stated that “from the managerial perspective, shopping is a rational process through which retailers generate sales and profits” (p. 3) and that “consumer research has traditionally assumed that consumption is structured by the properties of the consumption object which has resulted in a narrow focus on product and purchase” (p. 21). However, the concept of retail marketing today has shifted from simply offering a product at a convenient location with an affordable and contextualised pricing strategy. It is also about the intangibles, such as the social experience that the modern consumers demand today. As Erkip, Kizilgun, and Mugan (2013) argued, the small-scale “retailing is struggling to compete with organized and large investments and shopping malls, and it seems that the competition has continued to favor the latter” (p. 340). The findings of the study confirmed these arguments for the complexity of retail operations and the fluidity of consumer behaviour as being responsive to both global changes and the cultural context embedded in Turkish society for decades. Findings further indicated the re-imagining of the marketing strategies in both shopping malls and bazaars to adapt to the changing of consumer behaviour to be necessary if they want to survive within the competitive global economy. The next section describes the implications for retail stores in shopping malls and bazaars with specific attention to consumer behaviour and the local context in which these retail stores are situated.

The availability of products and services through multiple modalities has altered the expectations of modern consumers. The ever growing and changing technology “has created important opportunities for marketers to target customers across borders” (Torlak, Spillan, Hancar, 2011, p. 50). The diversity and the convenience of shopping makes customers more demanding, focusing not only on the shiny objects that are for sale but also the opportunity cost in deciding when, where, and what to purchase. Traditional bazaar places are losing their attraction as the competition across different shopping alternatives makes consumers more demanding and questioning. Consumers require shopping to be an experience now that they have the multiple pricing points along with convenience, diversity, and abundance of available products and services conveniently at their fingertips: “Customers today feel more empowered than ever due in part to greater information availability via the Internet, such as price, quality information, and the options available” (Gillison, Northington, & Beatty, 2014, p. 151). Furthermore, Terblanche and Boshoff (2004) explained that the complexity and the sophistication in the availability of various shopping channels, and the diversity of products and services made consumers more demanding.

Large shopping malls are becoming meeting places, where traditional bazaar place, other than those selling food and beverages, are losing their competitive edge. They are not only expected to provide products and services at a competitive price, they are also expected to provide a one-stop shopping experience with socio-cultural elements embedded in this experience. Thus, retailers need to shift their focus from selling products and services to selling experiences not as a complementary aspect of marketing but as a crucial part of marketing. That is, they need to sell a value which might not be a tangible product or service but an overall distinctive experience. They also need to make sure that their offerings and the methods they use for marketing are responsive to consumers’ need to believe in the value they receive during their shopping experiences in the retail stores they visit. Blackwell, Miniard, and Engel (2001) define value as the difference between what consumers pay through money and time and the benefits they receive by purchasing the product or service. With the value-conscious mindset of today’s modern consumers, retailers need to highlight the value of their product or service when marketing (Blackwell, Miniard, & Engel, 2001).

Erkip, Kizilgun, and Mugan (2013) stated that “there are various reasons why shopping malls appeal to Turkish consumers more than traditional street shops do: the leading factors are insufficient maintenance and infrastructure in urban cores, traffic congestion and parking problems” (p. 341). The findings of this study confirmed the importance of understanding the various reasons why consumers prefer malls over traditional bazaar venues, which indicated the importance of providing an experience for the consumers. The findings confirmed Stillerman and Salcedo’s argument: “Mall visits do not necessarily include purchases, as many consumers seek entertainment in the mall and adopt a reflexive stance toward purchases” (p. 329) with the convenience of parking and availability of products and services. That is, shopping is not necessarily a transactional experience any longer but also includes social, cultural, and personal factors that retailers both in shopping malls and in traditional bazaars need to adopt to better serve the modern consumers in Turkey. Yu (2006) confirmed that “there are many components of shopping, including cognitive, emotional, sensory, and physiological factors. For consumers, shopping is not equal to buying, but is the fulfillment of different needs and wants through a variety of processes” (p. 4). This is more important now than ever before, with lessened social interactions due to the advancements in technology and especially due to the growing use of social media. Both retail structures within the economic and social climate of Turkey could capitalise on the findings of this study to better package their products and services. Not only could they offer convenient and affordable shopping, but they could also provide a satisfactory experience that will take the emotions of different consumer groups into account.

6.3 Implications for Retail Stores in Bazaars

Even though the large shopping malls have become attractive to many consumers, traditional bazaars still have the advantage of meeting the needs of low and middle- income consumers. As Wolfe (1968) explained, “While its form of emphasis does not match other, its importance in the land use organization and very life of the community throughout the years cannot be diminished” (p. 24). Bazaars have been organic and fluid structures within Turkish consumer culture, where they have long been the preferred places for shopping. With their long history, they have been situated within the Turkish culture and have been transforming organically but not necessarily at the speed that Turkish consumers demand within a competitive

retail environment. Even though findings indicate the continuing and current relevance of bazaars for Turkish consumers, it has also been found that Turkish consumers are not necessarily pleased with their shopping experiences in bazaars. They do shop at bazaars, even with their chaotic environments. However, this does not indicate that the trend will continue as consumer behaviours changes in Turkey and around the world. Traditional bazaars need to refocus on how shoppers' behaviours are influenced by the environment. That is, environment affects emotions, and these emotions affect shopping behaviour. Instead of struggling to diversify the products or services, traditional bazaars can focus on emotions, as the emotional states of consumers affect their choice behaviours. The combination of emotions, senses and how they 'feel' when they are in a traditional bazaar is significant. The Turkish context is mature in this sense, and it is relatively easy to adapt to a marketing structure with a foundation in linking emotions to consumer purchase behaviour. It is the collectivist and feminine cultural context in which Turkish people are rooted that will make the transition easier. Such customer experiences will not only increase sales but create a connection and retailer loyalty through emotional connection. Retailers both in traditional bazaars and large shopping malls need to situate the consumers within the current and past cultural context and adapt accordingly through a mix of new and old patterns of consumer behaviours: "To be successful in this competitive business scenario, a firm needs to fully understand the consumption culture in each national market in which it intends to operate, to achieve the desired business results and to stay ahead of its competition" (Naseem, 2017, p. 2). This context and relevance of bazaars is an indication of the opportunities they have to attract more customers, as well as resituating bazaars in the marketplace as preferred shopping places. It also provides them with a stronger understanding of who they serve and what the expectations are for the consumers. That is, Turkish consumers have options, and they are very much aware of the options available to them. Bazaars need to listen to their consumer and respond appropriately. Bazaars provide convenience that shopping malls cannot provide at this time. Bazaars are often closer to people's homes, which is especially important for people without access to private transportation. This is one reason why bazaars are preferred shopping venues especially in terms of purchases for weekly consumption. They provide speed, convenience, and quite a diverse range of products. What they lack is the customer service that the consumers of this century demand and value.

Another strength and attraction of traditional bazaars is that they provide a social experience for consumers. They have the advantage of providing a unique experience outside the homes of the consumers with a very strong focus on loyalty. These “retailers try to provide unique customer services which equal to customer expectations and create customer satisfaction and loyalty to diversify themselves in the fierce competition” (Kursunluoglu, 2014, p. 542). This study’s findings confirmed the current relevance of such experiences. Retailers at bazaars could capitalise on the past perception of such experiences and revitalise the shopping to include more social experiences, especially for younger consumers.

The findings show that significant youth population of Turkey is an important future market for retailers. Integrating young people into a bazaar culture requires focus upon this particular demographic. The bazaar’s ability to offer low prices is a strong pull. Building upon this advantage by creating safe spaces for young people to meet is another step forward. Increasing food services (small tables and stools with ready to eat homemade goods) provides not only income for vendors but a competitive edge over shopping mall food courts, in offering reasonably priced, ready to eat quality food. Such a setting provides a space for young people to safely congregate and simultaneously integrate within the larger collectivist society, instead of hanging out in expensive, anonymous food chains at food courts in shopping malls.

Nowadays, with the congestion of markets in urban landscapes, bazaars have the advantage in reaching out to consumers on a more personal level to offer an experience with convenience as well as a diverse range of product and service options. However, to overcome the traditional perception of such bazaars as chaotic (i.e. disordered) and scattered, the bazaars need to think of creative ways to create safe, organised, and hygienic places to compete with large shopping malls. More conscious consumers seeking hygiene, clarity and structure do not necessarily favour the “negative images, including dirty and ripped tents, disorganized stalls full of fruits and vegetables, chaos, yelling and calling out, poverty, cheapness, and low quality along with the images of inefficiency and being uncivilized” (Vicdan & Firat, 2015, p. 253). Most bazaars are open-air markets, with rain or snow forcing customers to the heated and comfortable supermarkets and retail stores. By improving market conditions in the stalls as well as the quality of the overhead tents, for example the bazaars increase their attractiveness. Similarly, offering more parking spaces for consumers would encourage greater participation, especially by young people who

have grown up in a culture of driving to stores for shopping, despite the proximity of the bazaar to their homes.

Bazaars have one advantage in that they have had the market share for centuries. The large shopping mall phenomenon is rather new and imported from western contexts, still struggling to be situated within the Turkish context. Bazaars also have the distinctive advantage of loyal customers and have significantly distinguished themselves with a strong competitive advantage through their responsiveness to the culture and context of the time. They understand Turkish consumers and their concerns for their families and their community orientation. (Kucukemiroglu, 1999). Rotblat's (1975) analysis of Turkish Bazaars is certainly relevant and applicable in situating the large shopping malls within the Turkish context: "A bazaar's institutional patterns are the combination of elements from three analytically distinct areas- economic, social, and political. Bazaar operation - including supply-and-consumption relationships, price determination, and the like- contribute to the market place's economic character, while social influences-such as noneconomic interaction patterns and religion-structure the economic relationships and also link the marketplace to its broader societal context" (p. 293).

One of the weaknesses of the bazaars found through this study was the lack of customer satisfaction. For example, findings indicated that female customers were not necessarily pleased with their experiences in bazaars, not only because of the availability and the pricing of the products, but also due to the attitude of the salespeople. They expressed their discontent with shopping at bazaars because of rude and loud salespeople. Results from the respondents show that women go to the bazaars in groups or individually and often encounter neighbors and relatives on the streets. The competitive shouting by vendors across the stalls to one another regarding the superiority of merchandise can be viewed by female consumers as a dominating a space and thus silencing them. What salespeople regard as a competitive practice, female customers might regard as invasive. Such an atmosphere can subvert female consumers' efforts to assert not only their physical place within the space but their power in the bargaining transaction. Bazaar retailers thus need to examine their priorities—the need to compete with the nearby seller versus awareness of their female customer attitudes and emotions towards the shopping experience.

This finding has significant implications for the retail store owners at bazaars to evaluate and re evaluate their customer service practices to find ways to keep their

female customers safe and happy. For bazaars to maintain their competitiveness, creating customer satisfaction would provide significant competitive advantage over shopping malls. The inclusion of organic products, particularly the increase in advertisement as such, has been one step forward in attracting customers who wish to avoid the health effects of pesticides, for example. A second step has been the seller's offers to bring in special merchandise for a particular customer, for example as a means of acknowledging customer preferences and individuality. This ability of bazaars to cater to customers is especially true because these venues provide a value that shopping malls do not provide: the reasonable pricing of products for daily consumption such as food and groceries.

The findings of this study indicated that bazaars were preferred shopping venues, especially for food and groceries. Bazaars are usually located within short distances of neighbourhoods and accessible through public transportation. This provides the customers with venues to satisfy their needs for weekly consumption, particularly for fresh food and groceries. The Turkish context provides the relevance for bazaars as the food and groceries are significant purchase items for Turkish consumers, and they do not usually purchase such items twice a month. Purchasing only enough for weekly consumption is valued as healthy. Thus, for example, to purchase the ingredients for salad, consumers prefer bazaars over shopping malls because of the convenience and the freshness associated with the products in bazaars. Shopping malls are not easily accessible for people from middle and lower socioeconomic groups, and Turkish culture does not encourage shopping for food and groceries once or twice a month. Furthermore, the food items at shopping malls are not considered as fresh. This is already a competitive advantage for bazaars, and if combined with improved customer service, would add to the value and increase the popularity of bazaars as shopping destinations. This change requires refocusing on the role of bazaars not as a one-stop shopping experience but as a place with a reputation for providing health food as well as convenience. Bazaars should not necessarily compete with shopping malls as providing a social experience (i.e. with films and cafes) Instead, they should differentiate themselves through a narrow focus on the experience and the value they provide. These values, as the findings indicated, can be summarised as 1) reasonable pricing, 2) proximity to their homes, and 3) the convenience of finding a variety of products. 4) fresh and healthy products.

The motivation to make such a change in refocusing the larger role bazaars play in the community can also be further emphasized if one looks beyond Turkey. Bazaars as places to shop exist in developing countries across the world. The findings explored in this research possess relevance and applicability in other open-air markets across the globe. Morocco's 1000 year old market is one such example (List, 2009). Issues relating to gender in the shopping experience in Morocco, a predominantly Islamic and collectivist society, as is Turkey, can be a worthwhile area of research. Furthermore, beyond the landscape of developing countries, bazaars also exist in developed countries as well, in the form of flea markets, seasonal (holiday) markets, estate sales, and, in growing popularity, weekly organic food markets set up in urban squares—NYC and Chicago as examples. Comparisons between bazaars in developing and developed countries have value in that they highlight marketing systems. The way in which these markets are designed and set-up, the transactional relationships between seller and buyer can also serve as a point of focus in understanding the value open air markets have in a global society.

6.4 Implications for Retail Stores in Shopping Malls

While bazaars provide speed and convenience, shopping malls have the advantage of providing a value that bazaars cannot provide. One of these is the one-stop shopping experiences. However, findings did not indicate shopping malls are the preferred venue for a one-stop-shopping experience. Rather they are a gathering place that is mainly utilised for socialisation. Even though customers preferred frequenting shopping malls, they did not necessarily make any purchases at those malls.

One of the findings of the study indicated the significance of emotions for visitors of shopping malls. Even though there was no significant correlation between emotions and the purchase behaviour of consumers visiting bazaars, emotions were relevant for consumers visiting shopping malls. In spite of the fact that consumers expressed their discontent with their experiences at the bazaars, their behaviours were not influenced. They continued shopping at these bazaars. However, shopping mall visitors expressed that their emotional contentment with their experience at the shopping malls was 'satisfied' and 'pleased'. This is a strength that retail stores owners need to capitalise on when formulating their marketing strategies. This is an advantage because when consumers consider themselves to be happy and satisfied, they do not necessarily worry about the price. Low price points are an advantage for

bazaars. In this sense, shopping malls could overcome the weakness of not being able to provide more appropriate pricing strategies by focusing on their strength of providing services that focus on customers' emotional satisfaction.

The findings of this study further imply that shopping malls could provide the value that consumers seek by lessening the impact of their suburban image and positioning. They could capitalise on their strengths that bazaars cannot provide, such as socialisation, improved customer service, and safe environments. Satisfaction of sociocultural and economic needs of consumers is not necessarily an optional element in marketing, but consumers are, in fact, demanding that the shopping experience go beyond the purchasing of a product or service in a convenient manner with appropriate pricing. Consumers also seek to satisfy their emotional needs through this experience: "In the retail sector, satisfying customers and having loyal customers have been so important for years. Creating customer satisfaction and loyalty provides sustainable competitive advantage and differentiation from rivals" (Kursunluoglu, 2014, p. 529). This might be because of the influence of western culture. The extensive influence of media (including social media) has affected the social interactions of the past and brought the Turkish culture to a new era of individualism, thus creating a gap in social experiences, which seeks to be filled with experiences at meeting places, such as large shopping malls. This was in fact true for traditional retailers in smaller neighbourhoods where the shopkeepers knew the names of their customers and were familiar with the families and the people of the neighbourhoods. Shopping was a social, cultural, and political experience as much as an economic one. This experience could be replicated in large shopping malls to increase the visits of consumers. Nguyen (2014) defined social experiences outside the home as the experience that "refers to shopping that could provide the opportunity for social experiences outside of the home environment, such as looking for new acquaintances, shopping with friends, watching people" (p. 19). Social experiences outside of the home are one of the most important motives for consumers to visit retail stores, traditional bazaars or large shopping malls, and various studies have confirmed this (e.g. Kim & Jin, 2001; Jin & Kim, 2003; Davis & Hodges, 2012). That is, especially in the case of retailers in shopping malls, the shopping experience must be designed beyond the purchase of goods, as the study findings indicate the relevance of socio-cultural implications in consumer purchase behaviour. It is imperative that the shopping experience is included when thinking about the future of marketing designs.

This experience can certainly be unique, so long as an effort is made to provide opportunities for consumers to interact with the product or service in a way that does not emphasise the 'selling', but instead offers it as a distinctively designed experience with a direct value which satisfies multiple needs. This is applicable to both the shopping malls and bazaars.

As findings further suggested, consumers between the ages of 20-40 prefer visiting shopping malls and shopping malls could expand their target groups through understanding what the older female consumers demand. Considering the fact that the females can also be heads of households who maintain similar roles in the workforce and within sociocultural context of Turkey, retail stores should have a stronger understanding of gender differences in shopping behaviours as compared to a decade ago: "The world can no longer ignore women's escalating economic force in the twenty-first century (Pudaruth, Juwaheer, & Seewoo, 2015, p. 179). Campbell's (1997) argument that "women are more positive about shopping than men; many men still view shopping as 'effeminate'; and 3) men who shop see themselves as fulfilling an instrumental need, rather than engaging in 'shopping for shopping's sake" (pp. 169-172) is relevant to understanding the gender differences within the context of Turkish culture because "gender plays very important role in consumer buying behavior regarding purchasing of any product from shopping malls" (Hyde, Ubeja, Saxena, Sharma, & Sharma, 2014, p. 11). This understanding could be a competitive advantage against other retail format options. Market segmentation and differentiation would be a source of competitive advantage and increase the relevance of the choices found at these stores, provided they are coupled with innovative experience designs directly targeting the socio-cultural and emotional needs of consumers.

El-Adly and Eid (2015) explained that "A mall shopper's decision should not be seen from a purely rational point of view" (p. 863). Retailers in shopping malls should further consider that the demanding nature of modern consumers' life styles and their shopping experiences must be coupled with emotional experiences to satisfy their needs to socialise, enculturate, and to a certain extent, create a sense of belonging to the mainstream as perceived and promoted by television and social media. The experience has to be a blend of entertainment, satisfying their emotional needs, and products and services to satisfy their consumption needs. Even though shopping malls have become an important part of the urban landscape in Turkey, ever- changing consumer culture is not yet considered when designing and promoting

retail shops at large shopping malls. Because of the changes in preferences, economic conditions, and demographics, retailers at shopping malls need to avoid the congestion at such shopping malls and expand the breadth of the experiences, taking culture into consideration and planning accordingly through market segmentation. For example, this study's findings indicated that even though convenience and the variety of products and services may be significant for consumers over the age of 40, need recognition is significant for consumers under 40. Torlak, Spillan, and Harcar (2011) further confirmed that "international marketers would profit from studying the differences in young persons' buying decisions, especially in countries that vary greatly in social, behavioral, cultural, and economic conditions" (p. 61), but they also argued about the difficulty in understanding the shopping behaviours of the youth of today: "teens are exceptionally hard to target, requiring unconventional tools and expertise" (p. 49). Therefore, through understanding the demographics of the consumers, retailers could restructure their services, repurpose the spaces, and expand the offerings in order to cater to differing age and gender groups. Market segmentation in this sense would be important as the study findings indicated the relevance of food and beverage shopping for men as compared to visiting non-food and beverage related stores for women: "Separate managerial efforts based on male and female latent shopping constructs should be exerted to enhance consumers' shopping experience satisfaction" (Chang, Burns, & Francis, 2004, p. 196).

6.5 Implications for Theory

Blackwell et al.'s (2001) was used to analyse and explain the consumer decision process of Turkish consumers. Blackwell et al.'s (2001) model is a western framework and is rather difficult to adapt to non-western context. Having said this, its relevance lies in its focus on the culture and the context; this makes it appropriate for non-western contexts. Within the context of this study, findings indicate that this model can be strengthened to include culturally appropriate versions of each of these stages in the consumer decision process. For example, findings did not indicate an emphasis on post-consumption evaluation and divestment. There was not data to support that the consumers were concerned with or interested in evaluating their consumption after purchase or evaluating a product or service with a focus on divestment. The pre-purchase stages were relevant to making decisions about what and where to purchase the product or service.

The lack of data in the findings indicates the need for further exploration of the relevance and applicability of western models of consumer behaviour. This does not mean that western models of consumer behaviour are not applicable, but indicates a need to further think about adaptability of western models to national contexts. This could be achieved through evaluating each stage for its cultural relevance and rethinking each stage to fit different contexts. Another way to achieve this is narrowing the framework to only include the stages that are relevant to the context. In this sense, divestment can be removed from the framework to adapt the framework to the context that is being explored in Turkey.

6.6 Answers to Research Questions

This study sought to shed light on the purchase behaviours of consumers in Turkey. Even though the study was conducted at a certain shopping mall and at a specific bazaar in Ankara, its findings may be interpreted to provide broader applicability. The purchase behaviour of consumers is a complex phenomenon and certainly reflects the ever- changing social and cultural contexts in a globalised and increasingly interdependent global economy. This section will answer the research questions with a specific connection to the data collected during this research study.

6.6.1 Research Question 1. What are the differences in consumer shopping behaviours in shopping malls and bazaars?

In this study Blackwell et al.'s (2001)'s model was used as theoretical model to analyse and explain the consumer decision process of Turkish consumers, even though this model is a Western framework and is challenging to adapt to non-Western context. Nevertheless, the model 's relevance lies in its focus on culture and context, which makes it appropriate for studies of non-Western consumers. This study's findings indicate that the model can be strengthened to include culturally appropriate versions of each of these stage in the consumer decision -making process. For example, the study's findings did not reveal an emphasis on post-consumption evaluation and divestment. There was no data to support the idea that consumers were concerned with or interested in evaluating their consumption after purchase or evaluating a product or service with a focus on divestment. The pre-purchase stages, however, were relevant to decision-making about what and where to purchase the product or service.

One significant difference in the shopping behaviours of the consumers visiting shopping malls and traditional bazaars is that shopping malls are utilised as places for socio-cultural interaction, further creating a sense of belonging to a cultural group beyond the one in which the consumers have traditionally been located. Even though consumers may belong to a traditionally defined lower socio-economic class, shopping malls provide them with an experience outside their class experience of class. Not only are they able to satisfy their social needs by interacting with family and friends, they can also satisfy their cultural and personal needs of locating themselves in the larger social and cultural context, through visiting a shopping mall. Sandikci, Peterson, Ekici, and Simkins' (2016) provide an example as to how situating oneself within a larger context can be perceived as an improvement in one's sense of self and provide a feeling of satisfaction, "Turkish consumers beyond the poverty level, whether they are actually able to purchase global brands or not, seem to regard these products positively, as improving their overall life satisfaction" (p. 314). Through global brands, Turkish consumers' feeling of the self improves, providing a perception of satisfaction.

Another difference in consumers' reasons for visiting either a shopping mall or a bazaar is the choice of products or services. While shopping malls are preferred venues for social interaction, bazaars provide a venue to fulfil daily needs such as buying food, groceries and other forms of daily household products. Visitors frequent shopping malls on the other hand, to watch movies, visit book stores and eat at food courts. Bazaars, moreover are utilised more often to satisfy the need of a household, rather than simply one or two members of a larger family. Even though bazaars are not necessarily aligned with the transforming roles and responsibilities of women in Turkey, they still provide a significant value in terms of the variety of products and are, importantly, located in convenient locations. Bazaars are conveniently located in smaller neighbourhoods with easy access and are convenient for the daily purchases of food and groceries. Shopping malls, in contrast, are generally located in distant suburban locations where one needs to have access to car. Thus, women visiting shopping malls consider this an experience in itself, as a day spent more in leisure, than utility, which contrast sharply with bazaars, where women seek to meet the immediate needs of the household at reasonable costs.

Even though there was not an overall significant difference between genders, women generally preferred shopping malls for purchasing products, whereas men

visited them to visit food courts. One reason that women may prefer shopping malls to search for and purchase products is the attitude of salespeople at bazaars. Women who participated in this study explained their dissatisfaction with the attitudes of salespeople, and their frustration and relative helplessness might have been a factor in their preference for shopping malls. However, even though they preferred shopping malls to traditional bazaars, they continue to shop at traditional bazaars to meet their daily food, grocery, and household needs.

6.6.2 Research Question 2. How do Turkish consumers make decisions about shopping at shopping malls versus bazaars?

The study found that 33% of the consumers who participated visited the shopping mall to look for products and to spend time with family and friends. Shopping at a mall, in other words, was a hobby, rather than a need. Gender was a significant factor, as women generally visited shopping malls to search for products while men visited them for food and drinks. The reasons stated for visiting traditional bazaars were: 1) reasonable pricing, 2) proximity to homes, 3) convenience of finding a variety of products, and 4) fresh and healthy products. Of the participants, 26.5 % indicated their preference for traditional bazaar venues over large shopping malls due to a combination of these four reasons.

The findings of this study reveal significant differences in the reasons for consumers' choice behaviours in visiting shopping malls and traditional bazaars. Even though a common theme in the reasons for visiting either malls or bazaars is the search for products, it is notable that pricing was a more significant factor for bazaar visitors than shopping mall visitors. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the perceived value and correlating price of a product or service are rather subjective processes, and contextual factors affect whether shopping mall can indeed be considered 'expensive' places for products and services. The subjectivity of the perception of price cannot thus be considered as a significant factor in why consumers visit either shopping destination.

Other reasons for visit either malls or bazaars differ significantly. That is, shopping malls are places for people to entertain themselves with family members or friends. Visiting and shopping in malls revealed itself to be a hobby that is located within the sociocultural context as well as commercial and social settings, whereas

bazaars are utilised mostly for practical reasons due to their reasonable pricing structures and convenient locations.

The lack of data in the findings indicates the need for further exploration of the relevance and applicability of Western model such as Blackwell et.al. (2001) of consumer behaviour. This does not mean that Western models of consumer behaviour are not applicable, but rather a need to further think about the adaptability of Western models to specific, non - Western national contexts. This could be achieved by evaluating each stage for its cultural relevance and rethinking each stage to fit different contexts. Another way to achieve this would be to narrow the model's framework to only include the stages that are relevant to the context. In this sense, divestment can be removed from the model's framework to adapt it to the context being explored in Turkey.

6.6.3 Research Question 3. How do emotions affect consumer - purchasing behaviour?

Understanding consumer's emotions is vital for various reasons. One significant reason is the correlation between emotion and the susceptibility to persuasion. Emotions affect how we perceive our environment, the value of the product or services offered, and how and where we choose to spend our time and money. We make judgments about our perceptions and eventually make decisions - in this case, purchase decisions- based on our emotions. Even though the correlation between emotions and our judgment is significant, it is also important to note that our emotions are fluid. Emotions change rather unexpectedly and can be manipulated to adopt certain purchase behaviours.

The findings of this study confirmed that shopping malls evoke certain emotions among consumers. Shopping malls create emotions such as melancholy, frenzy, and excitement but the most significant emotional states that the participants experienced during their time at the shopping mall were 'satisfied' and 'pleased'. These emotions affected their perceptions of the products and services that they were considering buying, thus resulting in the relevance and popularity of shopping malls. This is especially true among emotionally vulnerable populations. When consumers feel happy, the pricing or the actual value that would be provided by the product may be misinterpreted. This finding is aligned with Rucker and Petty's (2004) argument that, "If individuals are evaluating a product while in a positive mood they can

misattribute this positive feeling to the attitude object and therefore generate a positive attitude toward the product” (p. 6). Findings further indicated that consumers who visited shopping malls had a higher score of “pleased” and “satisfied”, if the purpose of the shopping experience was to acquire products or services or to meet family or friends.

There was no significant correlation between emotions and the purchase behaviour of consumers visiting bazaars. Renton (2009) had suggested that “the more comfortable a consumer feels towards the advertiser and or the marketer, the more likely the consumer is to buy that specific product” (p. 12). However, the findings of this study did not confirm this. Even though there was a real correlation between the age and the feeling of being “autonomous” (older consumers felt more autonomous), it was not supported or corroborated by the data. Qualitative results indicated that consumers were dissatisfied and even frustrated by the attitudes of salespeople. This was especially common for women, but feelings of frustration or dissatisfaction did not significantly affect their choice behaviours when choosing to shop at shopping malls or bazaars. Even though they expressed dissatisfaction with the attitudes of the salespeople, the findings revealed that this was not as significant due to the consumers’ belief that the sales people were not necessarily educated, and such attitudes were not unexpected of uneducated people.

6.7 Practical Implications

Because of the changing global markets, consumer behaviour is fluid and shows rapid response to any slight changes in world economies. Consumers of the past were rather naïve and did not have the same demographics, purchasing power, and access to information as today’s consumers. Marketers and retail store owners in both traditional bazaars and shopping malls need to stay abreast of consumers’ motivations, needs expectations and how consumers make decisions to purchase any product or service. Furthermore,” The growth of the internet has led to a different marketing landscape in which consumers actively seek out the opinions of other consumers before purchase. The extent to which this occurs not only varies across cultures but might also be affected by the cultural mindset that is activated at the time information is received (Kwon, Saluja & Adaval, 2015, p. 398). Zhang, Li and Burke (2018) further confirmed the relevance of social experience and how culture (i.e group influence in this context) affects shopping behaviour: “group influence -

measured by within – group talk frequency, group size, and cumulative talk frequency within and across zones – has a significant impact on a shopper’s baseline shopping / buying tendency, and hence the dynamics of a shopper’s zone choice, purchase and spending” (p.1090). This, of course, needs to be done with the understanding that the consumers are complex. Change is the only constant in global economies, and culture is a significant factor in understanding social behaviour, including shopping.

It is, therefore, important for the retail stores in both traditional bazaar places and in shopping malls to adapt to these changes and respond appropriately through differentiating pricing strategies, product and service differentiation, and customer service to name a few. For example, Medrano et al (2016) suggested that “Because the motivations for choosing malls vs. shopping streets are different” (p.12), retailers should work on developing the skills of their employees through further professional development, with specific attention to excellence in customer service. This study confirmed the relevance of excellence in customer service, especially in traditional bazaar places. They further advocated that store owners in malls should build “on the concept of “big shopping” as an excursion and consolidating their strength in the commercial offer”(p.12) As Naseem (2017) suggested, companies offering products and services in malls or street markets should analyse their customers within the consumption culture of the local context. He argued that this crucial if these business want to maintain their competitiveness, achieve their target goals, and maintain their relevance for the consumers of this century.

Considering the significance of the culture and value systems embedded in Turkish society over the centuries, it is imperative that retailers consider the relevance of cultural contexts in their marketing. For example, Altintas and Tokal (2007) argued that “ Given that the most important influences on consumer ethnocentrism appear to be xenophobia and conservatism, marketing planners should set out to gather intelligence about the prevalence of these phenomena in the Turkish marketplace”(p.321). Even with modernisation and western influences, Turkish consumers value traditions and this value structures has been internalised for decades. If we utilise western theories and marketing strategies without significant contextual transformation, the relevance of such theories and strategies will be less than ideal. As the findings of this study indicate, consumers are mostly looking for social experience outside their homes, and they expect shopping to include such social experiences. Once they live their homes, they seek places to ensure their sense of belonging. They

feel that they are part of a larger global community as they are exposed to that community through television, internet, and other forms of communication methods. They associate identities with various brands, products or service, and these define who they are and how they are perceived within their social structure. The search for the social experience is an important aspect of Turkish culture, which is highly collectivist. This cultural overlay becomes significant as “priming an individualist mindset activates a tendency to segment and separate the core elements of a communication from its context whereas priming a collectivist mindset activates a tendency to see connections between these elements. This tendency led individuals with a collectivist mindset to be sensitive to the fit between the message, the person to whom it was attributed and the product being advocated” (Kwon, Saluja,&Adaval,2015,p.398) Therefore, the message design and the delivery of the messages by retailers needs to acknowledge the relevance of such cultural contexts. If they do not contextualise their message, the message becomes irrelevant regardless of the medium in which its delivered.

Their sense of belonging to a larger global population is important for retailer owners because this feeling gives the Turkish consumers a feeling of privilege. Turkish consumers may place more value on western products, and brand loyalty can be rather important. That is, certain brands can be associated with positive feelings and perceptions. “This positive association, associated with global brands and the sense of being part of the developed world also contribute to an increase in satisfaction with life” (p.314). Therefore, it relevant for retail store owners to utilise this understanding to reframe their marketing and their product and service offerings to satisfy this need of Turkish consumers. This is especially important for retailers in shopping malls because Turkish consumers mainly seek social experiences in shopping malls, rather than visiting to satisfy their shopping needs. As indicated earlier, consumers tended to visit shopping malls and traditional bazaars to form social experiences. If retailers understand the drive to satisfy social needs, they can then capitalise on this need by marketing their products and services appropriately for their target consumers.

There is ample evidence to confirm the differences in consumers behaviours between genders.(Hyde, Ubeja,Saxena,Sharma,&Sharma, 2014; Pudaruth, Juwaheer,&Seewoo,2015). Turkish culture is heavily influenced and structured around gender differences. The changing role of women as bread winners in Turkish

society, for example is important for retailers to understand. This study's findings also indicated the relevance of gender in consumer purchase decision making. Women are the main customers for food products, and they prefer bazaar venues to satisfy such needs. Therefore, a marketing strategy designed from this perspective can help retailers to market their products, as well as assisting them in designing strategies to increase the sale of other products when selling food. One area of concern is that even though women are responsible for shopping food products, especially at bazaar places, they are not necessarily satisfied with the attitudes of salesperson. If retailers improve their customer service strategies, this will enhance their reputation and increase their sales. This is an important aspect for female consumers, because the study's findings did not necessarily indicate the relevance of pricing. Women simply expressed their dissatisfaction with the shopping experience. Improved customer service would be considered an easy change and an easy win for retailers, as the change in attitude would not necessarily be a cost item for them. For retail store owners in shopping malls, this indicates an advantage over traditional bazaars. They can promote shopping malls as places where consumers receive better customer service while satisfying their shopping needs: "Shopping mall managers should make a concerted effort to design their shopping malls and create marketing programs that lead shoppers to perceive that shopping malls are highly functional, convenient, safe, entertaining, esthetically pleasing and attracting other people that shoppers can identify with" (El Hedhli, Chebat, & Sirgy, 2013, pp.861-862.) We know that shopping malls provide a value that bazaars do not provide at this time. They offer a one-stop shopping experience with the added benefit of a social experience. With the changing economic balance in Turkey, many family members have two jobs, and this creates a constraint on their times. Retail stores in shopping malls need to understand that "busy schedule consumers do not want to waste their energy and time and want to buy whatever they want from one platform therefore the service provider must focus on how consumers' demands can fulfill timely" (Kumar, Mangla, Luthra, Rana, & Dwivedi, 2018, p.693).

6.8 Understanding Consumer Experiences

Consumers all around the world are diverse, complex, and ever changing. Social and behavioural contexts are relevant, but political, economic, and historical contexts form a significant part of the information the retailers need to obtain in order to better understand consumers. Customer loyalty, building brands, envisioning the next marketing tool, inventing the next product or service as a niche to fill gaps within the rapid transformation of consumers markets are all important in order to analyse, understand and respond to new consumers. There is not one magical formula to better understand consumers, especially within the Turkish context, but a broader envisioning of what the marketplace will look like within the next ten years is important. This study's findings indicated the need to further explore Turkish consumers, accounting for time and place, to understand the market as a whole rather than as a snapshot of a moment in time. Social interaction is certainly important within the shopping experience, and gender differences are worth noting. Marketing designed for and responsive to age differences is important. Also, pricing is as relevant to consumers as one might have thought. Therefore, retailers need to pay closer attention to what once might have been true for consumers but is not as relevant to the consumers of this century. Culture plays a significant role and the social media influence is worth further exploration. We consider culture to be an important factor in the way it helps determine consumer behaviour. (i.e. how group of people act), and culture is crucial in designing marketing strategies. Retailers need to diversify their marketing strategies and differentiate themselves from the competition in order to convince consumers that they provide a value that the rival retailers cannot provide. This needs to be done from a socio- cultural perspective rather than an economic perspective, especially within Turkish context. Recognising the change in global markets while also remaining aware of the significance of the strong traditional value structures within the Turkish context will increase the competitiveness of Turkish retail stores. As De Mooij and Hofstede (2011) stated “most aspects of consumer behavior are culture – bond” (p.18).

6.9 Assumptions and Limitations

This study assumed that the respondents were honest in their responses and that they answered the questions to the best of their ability. The researcher further assumed that the participants willingly participated in this study. Another assumption was that the sample represented the population of this study.

This study was only conducted at one shopping mall and one traditional bazaar in Ankara, Turkey. Given the specific demographics of the sample studied, findings may not be generalised to a larger society with diverse socio-cultural, economic, and educational backgrounds found in different places within the urban and rural landscape of Turkey.

Another limitation was that this study was conducted at a specific time. This is a limitation because of the times that various segments of the market utilise for shopping. Different demographics visit shopping malls and traditional bazaars at different times. For example, younger consumers visit shopping malls mostly during weekends, whereas older consumers' shopping behaviours include after-work hours during on a weekday.

Culture was another limitation. Culture is one of the underlying determinants of consumer behaviour. This study did not take national culture into account. Culture in this context is defined as national culture and not consumer-culture itself. This limited the overall interpretation of the consumer behaviour in the Turkish context through this study.

One other limitation is that this study focused only on two retail format choices: large shopping malls and traditional bazaars in Turkey. However, there are other retail choices available to the consumers in Turkey. These options include online shopping, mom- and –pop stores, and supermarkets, none of which were included in this study.

6.10 Review of Findings

For this study, the researcher first conducted a survey at a shopping mall in Ankara and then collected data using survey and semi-structured interview questions at a traditional retail market, again, in Ankara. Overall findings confirm the complexity of consumer behaviour and that consumers are increasingly aware of their options and alternatives. However, it is important to note that the consumers are not looking for a single experience, such as satisfying a specific consumption need for seeking to have experience with benefit. That is, “the functional components (i.e. utilitarian, epistemic, spatial convenience, and time convenience) and the emotional components (i.e. hedonic, self-gratification, transaction, and social interaction) all play a fundamental role in explaining the decision to be a mall shopper” (El-Adly & Eid, 2015, p. 864). Tauber (1972) further explained the complexity of consumer purchase decision making:

If the shopping motive is a function of only the buying motive, the decision to shop will occur when a person's need for particular goods becomes sufficiently strong for him to allocate time, money, and effort to visit a store. However, the multiplicity of hypothesized shopping motives suggest that a person may also go shopping when he needs attention, wants to be with peers, desires to meet people with similar interests, feels a need to exercise, or has leisure time. (Tauber 1972, p. 48)

Consumers are not only looking to buy a product or service but an experience that also satisfies the emotional needs. In this, a one-stop shopping experience will also include sociocultural satisfaction. Rintamäki, Kanto, and Spence (2006) confirmed: “Successful retailers understand that customer value encompasses concrete and abstract aspects of the shopping experience, from entrance to checkout, and from choice (buying) to using (consuming) and experiencing” (p. 20). Therefore, it is fair to argue that understanding consumer purchase behavior requires further exploration with the appropriate contextual depth of the phenomenon.

6.11 Quantitative Findings

Findings indicated that people over 40 years of age prefer shopping malls for shopping purposes compared to consumers between the ages of 20-30. This finding confirms the view that shopping malls are venues for socialisation for younger population and has more pragmatic reasons for the 40 over population. This is aligned with Tauber's claim that "Many retailers would benefit by defining their business as being part of the social-recreational industry" (Tauber, 1972, p. 49).

People between the ages of 20-30 prefer shopping malls for socialisation purposes rather than satisfying their consumption needs. This is aligned with Stillerman and Salcedo's (2012) assertions that "Many consumers also visit malls but spend little or no money, seeking entertainment or companionship" (p. 311). Telci (2013) confirms that the role socialisation plays in making a decision to visit shopping malls, "malls are gaining increased significance for consumers since they satisfy shoppers' need for social recognition" (p. 2525). Shopping behaviours by Turks in late adolescence and early adulthood (18-25) have been studied by Can Kurtulmusoglu, & Atalay (2016). Young people's frequency of mall visits has been noted by Haytko and Baker (2004); additionally, Quart, (2003) Massicotte et al. (2001) have observed that this frequency is greater than that of other age groups. This study findings in which the greater number of young people 20- 30 visiting malls higher than participants over the age of 40 possibly also reflect the demography of Turkey. Turkey's growing youth population and this growing population of young people points to a promising area of research in consumer studies. Turkey's median age in population of 29.0 makes it the youngest and fastest growing age demographic in Western Europe (Hodgson, 2018). This growing population can offer interesting venues for marketing, shopping mall development, as well as inventories for small and large business, to name a few.

The findings support previous research demonstrating that socialisation is a major reason in shopping mall visits. Socialisation as a primary purpose in shopping mall visits by Turkish men and women has been found by (Yasin, 2019) in a study examining gender differences in consumer purchase behaviour, with the findings that females visit malls more frequently than males. Vural et al. (2010) also finds socialisation a key motivator in shopping mall choice and visit. The desire to

socialise at malls perhaps stems from the sense of attachment young people feel to the shopping mall. For these young people the shopping mall becomes a transition step from school and work. Their decision to socialise, and not spend money as previous research (Yasin, 2009) has shown may reflect the not yet established financial power of their age demographic at 20- 30, they are just entering the work force or beginning careers. They lack the financial buying power to shop at malls and instead socialise there. The findings of socialisation as a key determinant for youth perhaps stems from factors of the problem of economy: in a country where 40% of young people are unemployed according to Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK, 2015).

The preferences between shopping streets and shopping malls as pointed by Medrano et.al. (2016), concluding that shopping malls are mostly preferred by adolescents and adults. The study findings reinforce the research of Medrano.

Findings further aligned with Ammani (2013) study that argued that “the mall culture is gaining importance among the youth as it gives them space and at the same time helps them enjoy with their friends or family” (p. 20). However, this is still a fluid conclusion. With further research, especially in ethnographic scholarship, we know that malls are “dynamic social settings that consumers actively shape” (Stillerman & Salcedo, 2012, p. 328). For the age of 40 and over visitors, shopping malls are places for satisfying consumption needs. Rousseau and Venter (2014) stated that “They [older adults] are open to buying new products, planning and engaging in new activities, such as exploring different shopping malls. In contrast to their younger counterparts, mature consumers are more demanding in their expectations of shopping malls and less inclined to patronise malls if their service is poor” (p. 2). Even though the literature had suggested that the older adults are almost as frequent visitors of shopping malls, this study did not find evidence of this.

Özsoy (2010) explores the roles played by shopping malls in Izmir, Turkey, evaluating the ways in which people prefer to spend time there. Firstly, Özsoy (2010) emphasises the role of shopping malls as community places used by community members to gather and spend some leisure time. Secondly, the secondary role of shopping is discussed, inferring that “Convenient location has been validated as an important determinant of shopping mall visit frequency” (Özsoy, 2010, p. 1993). When a shopping mall is located within one’s community, this proximity becomes a sufficient reason to prefer it to retailing markets and shopping streets. Thirdly,

socialising was indicated as one of the functions assigned to shopping malls, enabling members of the community, especially adolescents, to spend time with their peers, facilitating entertainment (Özsoy, 2010). Findings of this study further aligned with Ozsoy study.

Men prefer visiting shopping malls mostly to visit the food court whereas women prefer shopping malls to shop at the retail stores found in the shopping mall. This is aligned with Bulut, Kökalan Çımrin, & Doğan's (2017) conclusion that "women decide 80% of household consumption and they form consumption patterns" (Bulut, Kökalan Çımrin, & Doğan, 2017, p. 598). This is in alignment with Erkip's (2003) conclusion that "Shopping, previously dominated by the male as the decision maker, emerged as an appropriate activity for modern urban Turkish women" (p. 1077).

The findings regarding male preferences for shopping malls eating support those of Goktolga et al. (2006). Goktolga et al.'s (2006) study on consumer food purchasing styles by Turks in the Tokat region of Turkey, finds gender, age, education level, and income to effect decision making. Goktolga et al. (2006) studied preferences for food safety among men and women, observing that men preferred the taste of food over the hygiene of food preparation and alternatives of price. In other words, "this consequence shows that female respondents concern safety and price while male respondents concern taste" (Goktolga et al., 2006, p. 888).

Women's greater sensitivity in food choice perhaps explains the greater proportion of men rather than women consuming food and drink at shopping mall restaurants, food stands, and food courts, an observation which is reinforced in this study. In this study, the finding that males eat at the shopping mall three times more. In addition, the women participants in this study by choosing to shop rather than eat at the shopping mall, perhaps demonstrate concern for "safety and price" discussed by (Goktolga, 2006 p.888). Furthermore, in terms of cultural patterns, more eating by men than by women at shopping malls may relate to the traditional Turkish culture in which cooking and food service are considered female occupations, i.e., the tasks of a wife and mother.

Marital status was found to be of significance in shopping mall visits. Findings indicated that married consumers preferred visiting shopping malls more than the single consumers. However, single consumers prefer visiting shopping malls for socialisation purposes, in contrast to married consumers that visit the shopping malls for shops. This confirms Tandon, Gupta, and Tripathi's (2016) finding that "entertainment potential emerges as a mall attractiveness dimension indicating that shoppers' motives for visiting malls not only include variety-seeking and convenience, but also encompass social interaction, leisure and entertainment" (p. 642).

Visitors indicated their "pleased" and "satisfied" emotional status while visiting shopping malls. This is aligned with Argan, Argan, and Akyildiz's 2014 study to understand the role of emotion in understanding the decision making strategies of consumers and to further "determine the dimensions and clusters related to shopping emotions, and to analyze whether there are differences across the responses of the segments with respect to emotion factors and demographic variables" (p. 137). They conducted their study using a questionnaire at a shopping mall with 741 visitors in Turkey. The results, analysed through a factor analysis method "produced four important dimensions of consuming emotions: apprehension and stress, serenity and well-being, dissatisfaction and displeasure, and romanticism and love" (p. 142). They further concluded that "Examination of segment based on different emotions may facilitate the understanding of shopping notion, assessing needs of shopping center services and building a new viewpoint about recreational shopping" (p. 143).

The findings of this study further suggest that emotions play a positive or negative role when consumers are making decisions confirmed several other studies conducted on this topic (Han, Back, Barrett, 2009; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Machleit & Eroglu, 2000; Watson and Spence, 2007).

6.12 Qualitative Findings

Visitors indicated their “excited” and “in-control” emotional status while visiting the traditional bazaar place. Even though there is a wealth of literature about the significance of emotions in understanding the consumer behaviour and decision making behaviour, it is important to note that that emotions are fluid and varies greatly among consumers.

“The same event can trigger different emotional responses amongst different individuals and also within the same individual over time. For instance, individuals may experience a positive affective state when they receive a complimentary drink. However, the same event may evoke a negative affective state if they feel obligated to tip more” (Sung, Vanman, Hartley, & Phau, 2016, p. 339). In this, “Marketing success, then, is determined to the extent that customers are provided with sought after emotional states and emotional states that are not desired are minimized” (Babin, Darden, Babin, 1998, p. 271).

Visitors preferred traditional bazaar places because of reasonable pricing and freshness and the quality of the products. This was an interesting finding because freshness of products or the reasonable pricing has not been significant factors in consumer decision making behaviour in the literature. Traditional (bazaar) places are popular places because of their proximity to the homes of consumers but with the increase in the number of shopping malls, with their geographical convenience, these shopping malls also provide proximity to their homes and a variety of pricing structures for products and services, almost comparable to the traditional bazaar places. Stores in shopping malls have been adapting their strategies to attract all types of consumers, “Intense competition amongst shopping malls has forced mall managers to create differentiation between their mall and that of nearby competitors. They start to do this by carefully understanding what their target consumers’ market values are, hence, what drives their shopping behavior” (Kaihatu & Spence, 2016, p. 141).

Visitors at the traditional bazaar places indicated their dissatisfaction with the unpleasant environmental conditions. Women especially complained that these bazaar places were not taken care of and were dirty. One major complaint among women was with the public toilets found in the bazaar. This finding was unique to the Turkish context. The literature in marketing did not include the significance of cleanliness,

but, in contrast found that “mall cleanliness, the presence of moving stairs and escalators, mall size and the quality of the products sold have no impact on the mall selection of young people” (Can, Kurtulmusoglu, & Atalay, 2016, p. 285). However, outside the Turkish context, Kelly, Seubsman, Banwell, Dixon, and Sleigh (2015) found that “The clean, well-organized atmosphere provided by supermarkets and convenience stores was very attractive to the majority of those interviewed and this was generally in contrast to fresh markets which were described as dirty and hard to walk around, particularly those that were on the street or more exposed to the outside environment” (p. 455).

Consumers visit traditional bazaar places because it has been a tradition and a habit. Tradition is still very much followed in most parts of Turkish culture and the findings of the study confirm the relevance and significance of culture. Shopping is not simply a satisfaction of a consumption need but it reflects broader values and cultural context of a society. El-Adly and Eid (2015) further confirmed that the cultural context and value systems are significant especially in retail industry in developing markets: “In the retail industry, the shopping experience is intangible, dynamic, and subjective and therefore it would never be acceptable to assume that the dimensions of values in a specific context are applicable to different customers and contexts” (p. 863). Turkish society’s political, cultural, historical, and religious environments influence consumer behaviour tremendously. This adds to the complexity of understanding consumer behaviour in Turkey. “Looking at consumption from a societal perspective, we can see that purchasing and behaviour decisions are influenced by many factors, including economic influences, marketing of products and technological innovations, regulations governing consumption, and not least by what the people around us and in the media are doing”(Mont & Power, 2010, p. 1) and that “The complex interactions between these factors result in the consumption patterns and levels” (p. 1). This is certainly true for this society as the complexity of interaction affects the behaviours so much that it becomes rather challenging to determine a pattern.

Convenience of the location, proximity to their homes, to children’s parks have been important factors when the consumers decide on whether to shop at shopping malls or at traditional bazaar places. This confirmed Kushwaha, Ubeja, Chatterjee’s (2017) conclusion that location is important, “The consumers prefer to go to shopping mall near to their residence or work place to avoid travelling long

distance” (p. 281). However, there was no finding that the income was a factor, for visiting the shopping mall. Mont and Power (2010) had indicated, “Level of income greatly influences consumption levels; ability to earn depends on personal skills, the amount of time for work, and how well the skills are applied (i.e., labor productivity)” (p. 4). This study did not find that the level of income was a significant factor in making decisions about visiting the retail places.

6.13 Conclusion

Bell, Vogt, Willense, Routledge, Butkler, and Sakaki (2018) explained that “one of the goals of consumer scientists and marketing practitioners is to identify, predict, and understand the behavior of consumers” (p.1) and that “understanding customers decision and behavior is the crux of marketing” (Kuppelwieser, Abdelaziz, & Meddeb, 2018, p.1). Scholars have theorized about consumer behaviour decision making through contextualising it within social identity theory, behavioural decision theory, or attitude theory to name a few. These theories help explain how consumers associate themselves with products, as well as explaining how these decisions made by consumers are dynamic and tied to many variables. Scholars further examined how these explorations of consumers’ decision making behaviour affect marketing strategies such as market segmentation. Much of this exploration resulted in conclusion that consumer behaviour is complex, multidimensional and context specific.

“consumer decision journey begins with a need to address or a problem to solve and ends with a resolution or reevaluation of that need or problem”. (Hamilton, Thompson, Bone, Chaplin, Giskevicius, Goldsmith, Hill, John, Mittal, O’ Guinn, & Piff, 2018, p.1). In this consumer purchase behaviour is neither a purely rational act nor a transactional one. It is certainly not a linear behavioural activity. Consumer purchase behaviour is a well- researched field, and researchers have come to the conclusion that “Consumer behaviour is more than just the physical purchase of products but rather covers a wide range of activities from the problem awareness stage through post- purchase behavior, ideas formulation, or experiences to satisfy their needs and desires. It entails the study of people’s needs, motivations, and thought processes used in choosing one product over another and the patterns of purchasing different goods and services” (Orji, Sabo, Abubakar, & Usman, 2017, p.8). This study confirmed the complexity consumers’ purchase behaviours with its fluidity and responsiveness to the changing demands of 21st century consumers.

Previous studies had indicated that Turkish consumers are changing, and the Turkish market should be responsive to the changing consumer purchase behaviour (Aslanbay & Varnali, 2014; Alan, Kabadayi, & Yilmaz, 2016; Buyukkaragoz, Bas, Saglam, & Cengiz, 2014; Haseki 2013; Ergin, 2010). Aslanbay and Varnali (2014) stated that “the vastness of information resources and the greater freedom to reach, find, choose and interact through new technologies caused the actualization of fragmented values, which has been the mark of a shift towards the multiplication of creativity in the market”(p.668). This study confirmed the fact that Turkish consumers are complex, and such consumers respond to global trends as rapidly as any developing nation, especially with the ease of access to information. The Turkish economy has been shifting aligning with the changes in global economies. It has also been growing, with a significant promise of growth in the decades to come.

When Dalwadi, Rathod, and Pate (2010) studied “consumers” perception towards organised retail stores and the relationship between the demographic variables and consumers’ perceptions”(p.24), they concluded that “Product range, store layout, shopping convenience, promotional schemes, product pricing , customer service, employee behavior , and store ambience” (p.29) were important factors in consumers’ decision making. Even though product range and convenience were relatively significant in affecting Turkish consumers’ decision making behaviour for visiting the bazaar places.

To further support this, Rousseau and Venter’s (2014) study about mature shoppers and Ammani’s (2013) study of young shoppers did not indicate any significant behavioural difference in making purchase decisions, or even any differences in making decisions about whether to visit shopping malls or traditional marketplaces. However, both studies indicated the relevance of the socialisation aspect of shopping experiences, whether those experiences took place at a shopping mall or at a traditional retail venue. Different impacts can be observed on young consumer and older consumers (Bekk, Sporrle, Landes, and Monser (2017). This further indicates the relevance of the cultural context in analysing consumer behaviour. Turkey, a traditionally a collectivist culture, is being influenced by western norms and values. It is struggling between both of these value systems. Western individualism is being integrated within the Turkish culture, creating a significant need for socialisation, which is being satisfied through shopping malls in the western context.

Medrano, Olarte – Pascual, Pelegrin – Borondo, and Sierra –Murillo (2016)’s study confirmed that consumers have higher expectations of salespeople that they have ever had in the past. This is due to the availability of different options. As Kemerly (2012) argued “today consumers have more options that ever before in deciding what, where, and when they want to buy” (p.2). This was an interesting finding, especially for store owners in bazaars places. In the study conducted by the researcher, the participants indicated that consumers shopping at the bazaar were concerned with the quality of the interactions with salespeople. They were bothered that the salespeople were rude and that the salespeople did not have social skills to communicate with the consumers. Even though Medrano et al (2016) explained that consumers certainly value the quality of interaction, Hyde,Ubeja,Saxena, Sharma and Sharma’s (2014) did not find evidence to prove that the attitude of salespeople had any effect on consumers’ decision making processes. The scarcity of current literature exploring the role of salespersons’ attitudes makes it difficult to reach a firm conclusion, but this study’s findings strongly indicated the significance of quality interactions with salespeople.

It is widely assumed that emotions play a significant role in consumers’ decision making process. Bell, Vogt, Willemse Routledge, Butler, and Sakaki’s (2018) argued that, “physiological and neuroscientific techniques” can help us understand “attitudes toward products or brands that are socially undesirable, that consumers are not consciously aware” (p.2). Chen and Lin (2018) further stated the relevance of researching consumer behavioural intentions so that we can “effectively predict actual behavior. Therefore, the stronger consumers’ behavioral intentions are the more likely they are to spend more money and become loyal customers” (p.557). Even though the extensive literature arguing for the relevance of emotions in purchase decisions, this study did not find emotions to be a strong predictor of purchase behaviour. This might be because of the argument that even though emotions can have correlational effect, it does not have casual effect. Sung Vanman, Hartley, and Phau (2016) argued for a more comprehensive analysis that will go beyond just emotions. “ the valence of an emotional state does not necessarily serve as an adequate and comprehensive account of its functions and effects on the individual’s decision making processes. Instead, differentiating emotion by their appraisal structure, motivational function, and evolutionary benefit may provide a more complete examination” (p.338).

For this study the only case of emotions that was clearly a factor when making decision was the quality of perceived interaction between the salespeople and the customer. This study confirmed that “Each customer has his /her own perception of a shopping mall ‘s image and thus can derive different levels of value from their shopping experience” (Kaihatu &Spence, p.142) and that

“ The malls neat and presentable atmosphere creates a pleasant environment for different ages to meet and greet friends or simply to interact with other people” (El- Adly & Eid, 2015, p.855). Vicdan and Firat (2015) further stated that “Consumer culture studies may need to expand to include people’s efforts in ‘organizing life’, beyond identity struggles and beyond making decisions among consumption alternatives” (p.270). Consumers are not rational decision makers and their decision to purchase a product or service at one time in one place may not be considered a generalisable fact but it ought to be considered an occurrence at a certain time and location. For example, Zabkar and Hosta (2013) explained that consumers usually want to satisfy their personal needs and this needs includes the need for status. Arslan, Sezer and Isigicok (2010) argued that “Physical factors, like bigness, accessibility, comfort conditions; social factors, safety and socialising; retail factors, like diversity of uses and leisure environment are important for their mall choice” (p. 185). Wu and Chi- Cheng (2007) posited that “it is more important to take into considerations the product type in the suitable market environment than the target culture’s collectivist versus individualist nature” (p.16). In this, there is not a consensus on a significance rationale that is relevant to all consumers in all cultural, economic, and social contexts. It is certainly true that “Consumer’s decision making patterns are changing rapidly due to the ease of information transmitted through online facilities, and hence the marketers should keep a unique marketing mix in the process of formulating strategies for consumer attraction, loyalty and retention” (Kumar, Mangla, Luthra, Rana, & Dwivedi, 2018, p.675).

6.14 Recommendations for Future Research

This research was exploratory in nature, and there are multiple areas that require further investigation. Future research could take many different directions. First, this study's findings indicated that modern consumers are not necessarily impressed with the sophistication of the retail choice options, but are certainly more demanding and questioning. Because this study focused only on two retail format choices, the retail format choice should be studied further. This additional study should include other retail formats such as online shopping, mom-and-pop stores and supermarkets. This will provide a more comprehensive understanding of the context and the disposition of options available to today's modern consumers.

Secondly, this study was conducted in Ankara, Turkey. In addition to including various other retail options as research sites, this study could be expanded to explore the differences among genders in their shopping behaviours to include multiple study sites with geographical diversity. Furthermore, the understanding of gender differences and geographical diversity could be strengthened with the use of a mixed methods study, rather than a survey method, which is in essence analyses quantitative responses.

Thirdly, this study did not expand on shopping as a social experience (i.e. retail formats as social public places), but it was an attempt to understand the differences among various levels of education, income levels, and genders. Further study could be conducted to understand the social experience as a motivation for visiting retail stores, whether in a large shopping mall or at traditional bazaars.

Fourth, culture plays an important role in consumer behaviour. Culture, as Blackwell et al (2001) put it, "has a profound effect on why and how people buy and consume products and services. It affects the specific products people buy as well as the structure of consumption, individual decision making, and communication in a society" (p. 320). A research study with a macro-level analysis which includes national culture could expand on this study to contextualise the differences among age, gender, education, and income groups.

Fifth, a follow-up study to replicate the present study with an in-depth observation of consumers' shopping behaviour would provide richer insights. That is, a multi-method study could provide a more comprehensive view of the shopping behaviours.

Sixth, as online shopping has been a viable option for the last 10 years in Turkey, the next study could compare the motivations of consumers when choosing to shop online or through now traditional venues of large malls and high society bazaars. Such a study, "to fully understand the complex interactions, psychological, socio-cultural, and environmental factors", (Darley, Blankson & Luethge, 2010, p. 111), could help with the understanding of online consumer behaviour and the decision-making process as compared to brick- and -mortar shopping structures.

Lastly, this study did not include an exploration of the emotional needs and expectations of the consumers and whether these needs or expectations are included in the marketing strategies of the retail store owners. A mixed methods study (to strengthen the validity) exploring the emotional needs/expectations of consumers and whether the retail stores utilise any strategies to further capitalise on these needs and expectations could help provide an understanding of today's modern consumers' shopping behaviours, as well as providing an analysis of the role of emotional needs and expectations in targeting specific consumer groups. This is aligned with Mehra and Singh's (2016) assertion that "main urge of human behaviour, either individual or organizational, was the fulfilment of its needs and wants" (p. 225)

Appendices

Appendix 1: Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Dear Sir or Madam,

Thank you for participating in my research. I am a doctoral student at the University of Leicester. As part of my doctoral research study, I am investigating the role of emotions in consumers' preferences for shopping malls versus traditional bazaars in Turkey. This questionnaire is part of academic study on Turkish consumers in the context of marketing, with regard to the preferences for the shopping mall and traditional bazaar venue. The data will help me to analyse the preference of Turkish consumers, and it will allow me to make comment on the theoretical framework.

The confidentiality is guaranteed by researcher. All of the answers you indicate for this questionnaire will not be shared with any other researcher, and your name will not be revealed in any document. If you have any questions or concerns about confidentiality or any related issues about questionnaire and or want to learn more about this research study, please feel free to contact me. Please read all of the questions carefully and mark the most appropriate answer for you.

Thank You,
Sule Koran

P.H.D. Fellow at University of Leicester, School of Management
E-mail:ssk25@leicester.ac.uk

Appendix 2: Participant Consent Form

Title: The Role of Emotions in Consumers' Preferences for Shopping Malls Versus Traditional Bazaars in Turkey

Researcher: Sule Koran

Purpose of data collection: Phd Thesis

	Yes	No
Please tick the appropriate boxes		
I have been given sufficient information about this research project.		
The purpose of my participation as an interview in this research project has been explained to me and is clear.		
I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project.		
I agree to take part in the project. Taking part in the project will include being interviewed. The interview will last approximately 30 minutes.		
I understand that my taking part is voluntary.		
I have the right not to answer any of the questions if I feel uncomfortable in any way during the interview session I have the right to withdraw from participation.		
I understand my personal details such as name will not be revealed to people outside the project.		
I understand that my data once processed will be anonymous and will be given a pseudonym by the researcher.		
I understand that the data will be stored on secure separate file which will be kept locked and separate from computer.		
I would like my real name used in this research project.		
I would not like my real name to be used in this research project.		
I have been given the explicit guarantees that if I wish the researcher will not identify by name or function. My confidentiality as a participant in this research project will remain secure.		
I understand that other genuine researchers will have access to this data only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.		
I understand that other genuine researchers may use my words in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs, only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.		
I have read and understood the points and statements of this form.		
I agree to assign the copyright I hold in any materials related to this project to		

Name of participant..... Signature

.....Date

Qualitative Survey Questions

1. How old are you?

- a) 20-30 years old
- b) 31-40 years old
- c) 41-50 years old
- d) 51-70 years old

2. What is your gender?

- a) Male
- b) Female
- c) Transgender
- d) Prefer not to tell

3. What is your marital status?

- a) Single
- b) Married
- c) Divorced
- d) Separated

4. What is your average annual income?

- a) 10,000–15,000 Turkish Lira
- b) 20,000–25,000 Turkish Lira
- c) 30,000–40,000 Turkish Lira
- d) 50,000–80,000 Turkish Lira

5. What is your highest educational level?

- a) Junior high school
- b) High School
- c) University
- d) Master's
- e) Doctoral

6. How often do you visit bazaar areas? Please write your comments below.

7. What are your reasons for visiting traditional bazaars? Please write your comments below.

8. For shopping do you generally prefer bazaars or do you go to shopping malls? Please write your comments below.

9. Do you recommend bazaars to your close environment and friends in terms of products? Please write your comments below.

10. Is the variety in products a reason for you to come here? Please write your comments below.

11. Are you generally satisfied with bazaar? Please expand on your answer and write your comments below.

12. Do you buy something every time you visit bazaars? Please write your comments below.

13) Today, please rate how you feel in the bazaar? Can you give points between 1 and 4, with 1 being the weakest and 4 being the strongest?

Melancholic: 1-2-3-4

Happy: 1-2-3-4

Satisfied: 1-2-3-4

Cared for: 1-2-3-4

Excited: 1-2-3-4

Sleepy: 1-2-3-4

Controlling: 1-2-3-4

Influential: 1-2-3-4

Stimulated: 1-2-3-4

Autonomous: 1-2-3-4

Frenzied: 1-2-3-4

Pleased: 1-2-3-4

Calm: 1-2-3-4

14. With whom do you generally visit the bazaars? Please write your comments below.

15. Does hot weather in the summer affect your visit to bazaars? Please write your comments below.

16) How would you describe the sellers at bazaars? Please write your comments below.

Quantitative Survey Questions

1. How old are you?
 - e) 20-30 years old
 - f) 31-40 years old
 - g) 41-50 years old
 - h) 51-70 years old
2. What is your gender?
 - e) Male
 - f) Female
 - g) Transgender
 - h) Prefer not to tell
3. What is your marital status?
 - a) Single
 - b) Married
 - c) Divorced
 - d) Separated
4. What is your average annual income?
 - a) 10,000 –15,000 Turkish Lira
 - b) 20,000–25,000 Turkish Lira
 - c) 30,000–40,000 Turkish Lira
 - d) 50,000–80,000 Turkish Lira
5. What is your highest educational level?
 - a) Junior high school
 - b) High School
 - c) University
 - d) Master's
 - e) Doctoral
6. With whom do you visit shopping malls?
 - a) Alone
 - b) Family members
 - c) Friends
 - d) Colleagues
7. What is your preferred shopping place?
 - a) Shopping malls
 - b) Traditional Retail Places (Bazaars)
 - c) Both
 - d) I do not go to the shopping places

8. Why do you go to shopping malls?
- a) Shopping is my hobby
 - b) Looking for the items or products
 - c) Spend time
 - d) All of the above
9. Why do you go to traditional retail places (bazaars)?
- a) Cheaper prices
 - b) Proximity to my house
 - c) Variety of products
 - d) All of the above
10. How frequently do you visit shopping malls?
- a) Daily
 - b) Once per week
 - c) Weekends
 - d) Once per month
11. How frequently do you visit traditional retailing areas?
- a) Daily
 - b) Once per week
 - c) Weekends
 - d) Once per month
12. What is the main reason for you to visit the shopping malls?
- a) Movies
 - b) Food court
 - c) Shops in the mall
 - d) Meetings
13. To what extent do traditional cultural norms and beliefs that you attach to shopping malls and their product variety impact your decision of where to shop?
- a) Rarely
 - b) Sometimes
 - c) Often
 - d) Always
14. Please describe the extent of the following emotions that you experience when you are in shopping malls?
- Melancholic:
- a) Agree
 - b) Disagree
 - c) Strongly agree
 - d) Strongly disagree
- Happy:
- a) Agree
 - b) Disagree
 - c) Strongly agree
 - d) Strongly disagree

Satisfied:

- a) Agree
- b) Disagree
- c) Strongly agree
- d) Strongly disagree

Pleased:

- a) Agree
- b) Disagree
- c) Strongly agree
- d) Strongly disagree

Cared for:

- a) Agree
- b) Disagree
- c) Strongly agree
- d) Strongly disagree

Calm:

- a) Agree
- b) Disagree
- c) Strongly agree
- d) Strongly disagree

Sleepy:

- a) Agree
- b) Disagree
- c) Strongly agree
- d) Strongly disagree

Controlling:

- a) Agree
- b) Disagree
- c) Strongly agree
- d) Strongly disagree

Influential:

- a) Agree
- b) Disagree
- c) Strongly agree
- d) Strongly disagree

Stimulated:

- a) Agree
- b) Disagree
- c) Strongly agree
- d) Strongly disagree

Autonomous:

- a) Agree
- b) Disagree
- c) Strongly agree
- d) Strongly disagree

Frenzied:

- a) Agree
- b) Disagree
- c) Strongly agree
- d) Strongly disagree

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