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**THE EFFECTS OF WOMEN CHANGING ROLES IN THE SOCIETY
ON THEIR DECISION-MAKING STYLES, A STUDY ON PACKAGED
FOOD AND BEVERAGES SECTOR**

by

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**Submitted to the Graduate Institute of Social Sciences
In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of
Business Administration**

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I want to express my sincere gratitude to everyone who encouraged me to make this dissertation possible. Firstly, I want to convey my appreciation to my supervisor Asst. Prof. Dr. Neva YALMAN for her limitless patience and valuable contributions throughout my study. Her guidance made this study possible.

Secondly, I want to thank to my committee members for their guidance all over the study. Their significant contributions led the way through different expansions and valuable deductions within the process. I would like to put into words my acknowledgments to Asst. Prof. Dr. Nilgün Gürkaynak and Asst. Prof. Dr. Elif Okan.

Thirdly, I want to thank to my precious wife, Banu Hasdemir, for her patience that she showed me during my study. Her kindness and endless support encouraged me during this challenging journey.

Fourthly, I would like to thank to my friends Berk Canberk, for his valuable comments and directions and Ozan Sabuncuođlu, for his friendship and encouragement throughout the study.

Finally, I want to express my gratefulness to my precious parents, Meral and Bülent Hasdemir, for their everlasting affection, confidence, patience and support.

May 2009, İSTANBUL

Utku HASDEMİR



YEDİTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

YÜKSEK LİSANS
TEZ SAVUNMA TUTANAĞI

07/05/ 2009

İşletme Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencilerinden Utku HASDEMİR, 07/05/2009 tarihinde yapılan Yüksek Lisans Tez Savunması sonucunda jüri tarafından oyçokluğu / oybirliği ile

Başarılı bulunmuştur.

Başarısız bulunmuştur.

Düzeltmeler için adaya ek süre tanınmıştır.

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at fulfilling the gap in the literature by taking women, as main buying agents in family purchases, to the main scene and analyzing the effects of rapidly evolving women's roles to their decision making styles, from a packaged food and beverages shopping perspective.

Consumer Decision Making Styles Inventory developed by Bauer, Sauer and Becker (2006), a revised model founded on the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) originated by Sproles and Kendall (1986), was implemented in order to reveal varying decision making styles of women groups from differing demographic profiles. Six decision making styles out of the seven, which were originally included into the model, were validated through the Factor Analysis except Price/Value Consciousness.

Multivariate Logistic Regression analysis proved that there were differences with respect to the decision making styles among women belonging to mutually exclusive sub dimensions of the demographic profile such as marital and working status, educational background, children possession and age bracket.

Future directions of the study were indicated.

ÖZET

Bu tez çalışması, ailede alışverişten birincil derecede sorumlu olan kadınları ön plana getirerek; toplumda değişen ve evrimleşen rollerinin, paketli gıda ve içecek alışverişlerinde sergilemiş oldukları karar verme stillerini hangi yönlerden etkilediğini ortaya çıkarmayı ve literatürde bu alandaki boşluğu doldurmayı amaçlamaktadır.

Örnekleme dahil edilen ve farklılaşan demografik profillere sahip olan kadın gruplarının birbirinden ayrılan karar verme stillerini ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla; Sproles ve Kendall (1986) tarafından oluşturulan Tüketici Stilleri Envanteri'ne dayanarak, Bauer vd. tarafından tekrar gözden geçirilmiş ve bir modele oturtulmuş, Tüketici Karar Verme Stilleri Envanteri uygulanmıştır. Hipotez aşamasında sunulan modele dahil edilmiş olan, yedi farklı karar verme stilinden, Fiyat/Değer Bilinci dışında kalan altı tane karar verme stilinin geçerliliği uygulanan Faktör Analizi sonucunda kanıtlanmıştır.

Çok değişkenli Lojistik Regresyon Analizi, evlilik ve çalışma durumu, eğitim durumu, çocuk sahipliği ve yaş aralığı gibi, birbirini karşılıklı olarak dışarıda bırakan demografik profil alt gruplarına ait kadınların alışveriş öncesinde ve/veya sırasında sergilemiş oldukları karar verme stilleri arasında farklılık olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

İleriye yönelik araştırma önerileri tez çalışmasının Sonuç ve Öneriler kısmında sunulmuştur.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND OBJECTIVE

1.1. Introduction

The study of consumer behavior can be described as the endeavor of revealing how individuals make decisions to allocate their available resources, such as time, money and effort, on consumption-related items. In other words, it investigates what consumers buy, why they buy the related item, when they buy it, where they buy it, how often they buy it and how often they use it (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1996)

In logical terms, it is quite normal that each consumer react or behave differently with respect to the evaluation and purchase decision of a certain product if we take into regard that they have varying needs, wants and desires, educational, socio-economic and cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, they may react differently to various marketing mix elements in line with their cognitive abilities and mental capacities.

Although many such factors can affect decision making, consumers are considered to come up to the market with certain basic characteristics or decision making styles (Sproles and Kendall, 1986). Therefore, a serious effort has been made to reveal and appropriately classify different styles of decision making for the sake of gathering corresponding findings on the way to a theory of shopping (Bauer et al., 2006)

As Roberts (1981) says, the transition brought by the ongoing progression in women's roles has influenced and will continue to influence all facets of the society we live in. Therefore, examining the actual and projected effects of women's changing roles on their consumption decisions has been subject to many academic inquiries.

Another study which locates life styles variables as predictors of food shopping behavior points out to increased rate of recurrence of magazine articles describing women's changing attitudes, life styles as well as behaviors relating to their traditional

household roles. Since these evolving roles are directly associated with actual consumption behavior, any change detected in the roles that they assume should be taken seriously by marketing professionals (Roberts and Wortzel, 1979)

According to the article published in Business Week Online, which discusses the changes in companies' product offerings with the expanding female consumer power, women make 80 % of the purchasing decisions made in an average household, although they earn less money than their counterparts, 78 cents for every dollar a man gets (Gogoi, 2005)

“Today's woman is the chief purchasing agent of the family and marketers have to recognize that” says Michael Silverstein, principal of Boston Consulting Group (Gogoi, 2005)

Therefore, women in the heart of most of household purchase decisions would be a genuine source of interest concerning their changing roles in the society.

1.2. Objective of the Study and Its Relative Importance in the Academic Literature

This study aims at fulfilling the gap in the literature by taking women, as main buying agents in family purchases, to the main scene and analyzing the effects of rapidly evolving women's roles to their decision making styles, from a packaged food and beverages shopping perspective. Furthermore, we are adding another dimension to the previous research made on the roles of gender differences on consumer decision making styles which postulated the sample composed of female respondents as homogenous, which may not be the case. The findings of this study would likely to enlighten this specific concern.

As an organizing framework, if we can expose mental orientations of female consumers in making packaged food and beverages purchase decisions, we can better predict their shopping behavior. Findings are expected to be fruitful for the following interest groups:

- Marketers in orchestrating their marketing mix elements in order to approach target consumer segments more effectively;
- Consumer Affairs Specialists to spot the deficiencies in consumption related decisions and tailoring training programs to create more effective consumers;
- Retailers in segmenting consumer clusters, designing Consumer Relationship Marketing programs for them and organizing various path-to-purchase elements within the store environment.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Changes in Women's Demographic Profiles, Role Accountabilities and Their Effects on Different Dimensions of the Society

Recent years have witnessed substantial changes in Turkey's social structure. Smaller family size, better educated women and increased number of women participating to labor force are examples of the changes that families, mostly in urban areas, are going through (Bayraktar and Salman, 2003). Greer Litton Fox founds out that younger, better educated women in Turkey, compared to their less educated counterparts, are more supposed to postpone marriage, have fewer children and were employed (Fox, 1973)

These findings concerning the changes that Turkish society is undertaking perfectly match with the trends in other developed countries like USA. Mary Lou Roberts, enumerates four major factors that reflect to the demographic data as "delayed age of marriage, decreasing fertility rate, women's employment outside the home and women-headed families" (Roberts, 1981).

In a study investigating the attitudes and expectations towards work and marriage among male and female university students in Turkey, unmarried college students were asked the importance they attributed towards marriage. While 45% of the male students mentioned that marriage was very important, only 28% of female respondents agreed with that claim (Culpan and Marzotto, 1982)

Greer Litton Fox argues that marrying at an early age, which is a traditional norm in Muslim countries, prevents women from their exposure to alternative modes of thinking and positive orientations which would otherwise lead them to assess their potentials for self development and encourage them for broader societal participation. She further suggests that continued education plays a key role for women to find out alternative roles to their traditional wife and mother roles (Fox, 1973)

In order to grasp the reasons behind the emerging demographic trend of delayed age of marriage, it would be beneficial to delve deep into the theories which aim at explaining the main motivations behind the marriage as well as the factors affecting the timing of marriage (Goldstein and Kenney, 2001) The economic theory of marriage, pioneered by Becker, implies that marriage is a rational arrangement between the couples who supposed to be more productive together as an economic unit than they would be if they remained to be single (Goldstein and Kenney, 2001) Becker's argument, in line with this theory, is that the gain that is supposed to come from marriage reduced due to increased economic independence of women with the rising labor force participation and decreased fertility which led women to gradually think that sexual division of labor in the household becomes less beneficial (Becker, 1981).

A research study which was conducted in US reveals the direct relationship of women's intention to take part in higher education and their self expectations to stay in the work force rather than being a full-time housewife at the age of 35 with delay in the age of marriage (Cherlin, 1990)

On the other hand, the implications presented here that derive from various theories and research inquiries can be misleading if we conclude that women would totally forgo marriage for a career. The research study conducted by Culpan and Marzotto among female university students in Turkey attempted to find out the extent to which Turkish women would forgo marriage for a career. Only % 17 of the female respondents suggested that they would choose career and forgo marriage. An overwhelming majority of the respondents, % 72 of the females, said that they would choose marriage as well as career and try to change their fiancé's mind either before or after marriage (Culpan and Marzotto, 1982)

Another important change in the Turkey's demographic profile is smaller family size, mostly prevalent in urban areas. Although lowered fertility might imply to the rejection of motherhood and giving preference to career, the opposite holds true. According to the Bureau of the Census, lowered fertility seems to be the result of reduced

family size rather than a reduction in the number of women who become parents (Kohen, 1981)

Stolzenberg and Waite argues that lower fertility derives from increased formal education, planned as well as actual employment (Stolzenberg and Waite, 1977)

This statistical derivation also holds true for Turkey. Culpan and Marzotto, in their research conducted among female university students in Turkey, attempted to reveal college students' expectations of their own lives in fifteen years. Only % 3 of the female respondents expected to be single and professionally involved in a career. On the other hand, most women stated that they would prefer a combination of marriage, children and work. % 38 of the respondents indicated that they anticipated to be married, having children and enrolled in a full-time job in fifteen years (Culpan and Marzotto, 1982)

Bayraktar and Salman give reference to the latest labor force survey held in Turkey in order to indicate to the increased number of employed women. According to the survey results, 33 % of the females participate to the labor force in Turkey. 74 % of women who are in the labor force are employed in the agricultural sector, 7 % in industry and 12 % in the service sector. High percentage of women employed in the agricultural sector indicates to another difference, participation rates between rural and urban areas. Though the participation rate of women in the labor force in the rural areas is 51 %, only 15 % of women are employed in the urban areas (Bayraktar and Salman, 2003).

Culpan and Marzotto indicate to the positive correlation between the level of women's participation in nonagricultural work and the level of educational background. They mention that only 4 % of all women with primary education are working outside the home in nonagricultural work force, compared to 21 % of those with secondary education. On the other hand, an average of 2 out of 3 women having a university degree is in the work force (Culpan and Marzotto, 1982)

While all these emerging demographic trends shape the social structure of the society, a genuine inquiry would be the effect of increased enrollment of women into the

labor force to the traditional division of labor within married couples. A Newsweek research report reveals that an average woman who works full-time is still accountable for 75 % of the housework and 50 % of the child care for her household (Bayraktar and Salman, 2003)

Culpan and Marzotto argue that women who were exposed to modern education still believe that their dominant role is still the traditional one of homemaker. They further suggest that if there is a role conflict between their career and the traditional household tasks that they are accountable for, women are expected to sacrifice their career plans to fulfill their responsibilities at home (Culpan and Marzotto, 1982)

Green and Cunningham indicate that major transitions in the society neither occur at one point in time nor they are reflected to all different subgroups identically. They argue that while some women were expected to adapt the modern values and attitudes of newly arising female role, others would be in a position to stick to the overwhelming traditional way of thinking and attitudes (Green and Cunningham, 1975)

Roberts and Wortzel indicate to the proliferation of the articles in newspapers or magazines underlining women's changing values, attitudes, life-styles and behaviors with respect to the traditional role boundaries in the household. They argue that any evolution in role attitudes which would definitely reflect to the actual behavior should interest today's marketers since many of these roles that women assume in an average household are linked to consumption decisions (Roberts and Wortzel, 1979)

Green and Cunningham, in their research endeavor on the hypothetical relationship of feminine role perception and family purchasing decisions, argue that marketers and social scientists should foresee that changes in the traditionally assigned sex roles in the family would definitely have an effect on the allocation of family purchasing roles. The direction of the change would be more towards the gender equality between the couples and many purchasing decisions which were already made by husband as the dominant decision maker would be jointly made by husband and wife. In other words, less husband autonomy in purchasing decisions would be valid with the adaptation of contemporary

attitudes toward the woman's role in the family. Although the nature of the redefinition of role allocation between the couples may vary with respect to some demographic and socio-economic factors, it should be anticipated that the power of the husband in family purchasing decisions would decline (Green and Cunningham, 1975)

Todorova argues that women's gradually rising economic power which derived from their increased participation to the workforce is treated as "a treasure" by the marketers. Referring to the statistics taken by Information Please Almanac, she mentions that in 1960, a woman's median earnings (working year round, full-time) were \$ 3.257 versus men's \$ 5.368. In other words, an average woman's median earnings were 60,7 % of a man's earnings. In 1990, a woman's median earnings were \$ 19.822 while a man's median earnings were \$ 27.678 which accounts for 71,6 % of a man's median earnings (Todorova, 2000) When we came to 2007, the median annual earnings of a woman, 16 or older, working year round, full-time, rose to \$ 34.278. This indicates that women earned 77.5 cents for every \$ 1 earned by men (Bureau of the Census, 2007)

Kaynak and Küçükemiroğlu, in their comparative study of family decision making in US and Turkish households, argue that relevant information about the roles assumed by the couples on purchasing decisions regarding various product categories has an utmost importance for any organization interested in communicating with the right decision-maker in the family or intending to gather relevant data on household consideration, intention, preferences or choices. They further imply that marketers should know which spouse in the household, husband or wife, has the autonomy or dominant influence regarding the purchase of the product category in concern in order to direct their communication and promotional strategy accordingly to capture the lion's share from the limited household budget allocation (Kaynak and Küçükemiroğlu, 2000)

Green and Cunningham mention that there were several studies in the literature conducted to determine gender role differences concerning many product categories. Referring to the findings in those studies, they conclude that decisions regarding some product categories, like groceries, seem to be dominated by wife while others like life insurance and automobile etc. were in the autonomy of husband. There were also some

categories which were characterized by joint decision making by husband and wife, like housing or vacation (Green and Cunningham, 1975)

Kaynak and Küçükemiroğlu, in their comparative study of family decision making with respect to the questions like when, where, what to buy and how much to pay regarding various product categories in US and Turkish households, conclude that husband or wife-dominant purchasing decisions are dependent to product category in concern and/or form. Based on the findings of Correspondence Analysis, they reveal that while grocery purchases seem to be wife-dominant decision area, husband seem to play the dominant role in automobile purchase decisions. With respect to the timing of grocery shopping, although the wife is the appropriate decision maker, this is a joint decision making in US. In both countries, wives make the grocery decisions with respect to what to buy and how much to pay questions. Joint decision making is only seen with respect to where to buy question related to grocery purchasing decisions in both countries (Kaynak and Küçükemiroğlu, 2000)

Polegato and Zaichkowsky contend that although the active involvement of women in the workplace has redefined traditionally assigned sex roles prevalent in an average household, wives have retained primary responsibility for family food shopping. They refer to the survey conducted by Statistics Canada and conclude that while % 86 of women who work part-time, or not at all, is accountable for all preparation for meals, an overwhelming majority of women who work full-time (% 72) is in charge of the meal preparation task in the household (Polegato and Zaichkowsky, 1999)

Therefore, referring to the studies conducted by Green and Cunningham, Kaynak and Küçükemiroğlu as well as Polegato and Zaichkowsky, we may conclude that wives assume most of the responsibility with respect to grocery purchasing decisions.

2.2. Consumer Decision Making Styles

Kaynak and Küçükemiroğlu, argue that consumer purchasing behavior is investigated in the contemporary marketing literature from three different perspectives: the decision making, the experiential and the behavioral contexts. Referring to the definitions taken from the literature, they simply summarize decision making as the engagement of consumers into the problem solving tasks which include various successive stages. In the experiential context, consumers are more involved with the shopping experience. Sensations rather than rational information processing are valid. The behavioral context is more involved with the responses given by the consumers with respect to environmental pressures. The authors conclude that these three perspectives are complementary rather than mutually excluding each other and focus on different aspects which are related to purchasing process (Kaynak and Küçükemiroğlu, 2000)

The proliferation of the advertising messages that an average consumer is subjected to during the whole day through mass media as well as alternative channels has rendered decision making much more complex and therefore more critical than ever. Increase in the number and diversity of tangible goods and services, store types, shopping facilities as well as electronic or catalogue shopping opportunities expanded the dimensions for consumer choice and further complicated decision making (Hafstrom et al., 1992)

In order to cope with this complex shopping environment, consumers were assumed to approach the market with certain decision making styles even though many factors may influence their decision making (Sproles and Kendall, 1986)

At this point, it would be fruitful to give an appropriate definition for a decision making style. A consumer decision making style may be defined as “mental orientation characterizing a consumer’s approach to making choices” (Sproles and Kendall, 1986)

Since consumer decision making styles were assumed to represent a cognitive orientation which is more stable or enduring towards purchasing (Sproles, 1985), they are

obviously crucial for marketers because of their direct link to purchase behavior (Mitchell and Bates, 1998)

Durvasula, Lysonski and Andrews mention that profiling consumers' decision making styles has been the topic of many consumer interest studies in the past. They argue that consumer affairs specialists use such profiles to grasp consumers' shopping attitudes and behaviors, while marketers and advertisers benefit from them to segment consumers into certain clusters and position their product offerings (Durvasula et al., 1993)

Research efforts characterizing consumer decision making styles were classified into three dimensions: the psychographic/lifestyle approach, the consumer typology approach and consumer characteristics approach (Sproles and Kendall, 1986). Out of these three approaches, the consumer characteristics approach appears to be more promising since it concerns with the mental orientations, both cognitive and affective, in consumer decision making (Durvasula et al., 1993)

Consumer interest studies identified fundamental consumer decision making characteristics (Maynes 1976; Miller 1981; Sproles 1979; Thorelli et al., 1975) ranging from rational shopping and quality consciousness to impulsiveness and information overload (Sproles and Kendall, 1986) Sproles and Kendall gather these and additional traits, that are among the most frequently discussed in consumer literature, to develop a consumer decision making styles (CDMS) list, the so-called consumer styles inventory (CSI), an extensive tool that measures eight fundamental characteristics of consumer decision making: perfectionism, brand consciousness, novelty/fashion consciousness, recreational, price-value consciousness, impulsiveness, confused by over choice and brand-loyal/habitual (Bauer et al., 2006) Sproles and Kendall conclude that although some of the decision making styles that were enumerated in the literature deserve more consideration, such as information seeking and comparison shopping, they contend that each increment to those already included in the current instrument should not be redundant. They include that information seeking and comparison shopping are imbedded in more basic characteristics of perfectionism and value consciousness, therefore they show the patterns of those decision making styles (Sproles and Kendall, 1986)

In their study presenting Consumer Styles Inventory and Profile of Consumer Style, Sproles and Kendall recommend further application of the tool across populations in order to establish the reliability and validity of the instruments with different sample groups (Sproles and Kendall, 1986)

Durvasula, Lysonski and Andrews claim that as the global marketplace becomes more and more integrated, composing useful scales to profile consumer decision making styles that can be administered in other cultures becomes more critical (Durvasula et al., 1993)

Mitchell and Bates contend that the development of various scales differing from each other resulted in a number of separate typologies which served to more confusion instead of enhancing understanding on the topic (Mitchell and Bates, 1998). Therefore, composing common consumer profiles and making generalizations on consumer typologies can only be possible by further application of the existing scales rather than developing new ones (Durvasula et al., 1993)

Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI), developed by Sproles and Kendall, is the most widely replicated instrument that has been administered in eight different countries: the US, Korea, New Zealand, Greece, India, UK, China and Germany (Hafstrom et al., 1992; Durvasula et al., 1993; Lysonski et al., 1996; Mitchell and Bates, 1998; Fan and Xiao, 1998; Walsh et al., 2001)

Durvasula, Lysonski and Andrews contend that most of the studies that have either developed or validated models and instruments in consumer related research have used U.S. samples. Based on this derivation, they conducted a study investigating cross cultural generalizability of the CSI scale for profiling consumers' decision making styles using a New Zealand sample. Though four out of the forty items loaded on different factors compared to U.S. findings, the study provided a general support for the inventory. Two major differences between the samples of New Zealand and U.S. studies, which further proved cross cultural generalizability of the inventory, were more balanced male versus

female representation within New Zealand sample with respect to U.S. sample and the selection of college students as subjects with an average age of 20 years to compose the New Zealand sample versus high school students used in the U.S. sample (Durvasula et al., 1993)

The main purposes of another empirical study, which replicated the CSI inventory developed by Sproles and Kendall, were identifying decision making styles of young consumers in the Republic of Korea and finding out whether the styles were similar to those of U.S. sample. The results indicated several similarities and few differences between decision making styles of Korean and U.S. consumers. The eight factor solution provided the following consumer decision-making styles: brand-consciousness, perfectionist/high-quality consciousness, recreational shopping, confusion from over choice, time and energy conservation; brand-loyal/habitual shopping and price/value consciousness. The only consumer decision making style, which was identified in previous U.S. studies but not confirmed with the Korean data, was Novelty/Fashion consciousness (Hafstrom et al., 1992)

In another study, Fan and Xiao, proposed a seven factor model, by modifying the dimensions originally developed by Sproles and Kendall in 1986, in order to investigate the profiles of consumer decision making styles of young adult Chinese consumers. Study results were compared with similar studies using Korean and U.S. samples. Overall, the identified consumer decision making styles were very similar for young adult consumers in these three countries. The dimensions of “Novelty/Fashion Consciousness”, “Impulsiveness”, and “Habitual/Brand Loyal” identified for one or both of the Korean as well as U.S. samples were not confirmed using the Chinese data. Fan and Xiao argue that the differences that were valid in purchasing power and maturity of the consumer market, or the stage of economic development, may cause the apparent differences in consumer decision making styles (Fan and Xiao, 1998)

Soyeon Shim (1996) benefited from the CSI inventory while investigating the influence of socialization agents – peers, parents, printed media, TV commercials and consumer education - as well as social structural variables such as gender, ethnicity, main

reason for working and the amount of parental allowance on adolescent consumer decision making styles (Shim, 1996)

Based on careful examinations, the author suggested that the eight styles can be conceptually classified into the following orientations: (a) *utilitarian* encompassing perfectionist/high quality conscious and price-conscious/value for money (b) *social conspicuous* involving brand conscious/price equals quality, novelty and fashion conscious, recreational, habitual/brand loyal (c) *undesirable orientations* encompassing confused by over choice and impulsive/careless (Shim, 1996)

Bauer, Sauer and Becker (2006) further developed the approach by applying the inventory to different product categories and investigating the relationship between product involvement and consumer decision making styles (CDMS). In order to apply the inventory with respect to different product categories, they aimed at testing the reliability as well as the validity of the CSI inventory and proposing a revised CDMS model that can more adequately represent the phenomenon in concern. They contend that purchase related dimensions of decision making, which Sproles and Kendall integrated in their inventory, appear to be a rather random selection of relevant concepts mentioned in the literature. Low to average reliability coefficients provide basis for their derivation.

In order to demonstrate the lack of an adequate conceptual framework, they indicated to three of the eight sub-constructs of the CSI. They argue that “Novelty/Fashion Consciousness” seemed to represent a style integrating two factors: innovativeness which appears to be a solid dimension and fashion consciousness, which can not be considered as product neutral since it implies a clear relationship with fashion and clothing. “Confusion by over choice” and “Recreational” were also criticized of former being a state of information rather than a style in product selection and the latter covering a general attitude towards shopping rather than a concrete dimension of decision making (Bauer et al., 2006)

Due to the above mentioned problems, they decide to develop a new instrument that can more adequately measure consumer decision making styles. They made a comprehensive literature review and found out the relevant academic studies describing

how to develop better measurement tools or scales that would suit specific problems in the marketing research. Theoretical context was built on Howard and Sheth's systematic approach categorizing consumer decision making tasks into extended, limited, habitual and impulsive purchase decisions dependent on product involvement (Bauer et al., 2006)

If we delve deep into the theoretical framework, they argue that intense cognitive involvement and careful selection from a range of product alternatives are valid in extensive purchase decisions. Rational decision making styles which fall under this classification are Sproles and Kendall's perfectionism and innovativeness (Bauer et al., 2006)

Main points of interest were described as active information seeking and active communication behavior. These are the characteristics that were associated with opinion leadership as summarized in the study conducted by King and Summers which gives a brief overview of the concept of opinion leadership and analyzes the data deriving from the relevant scale to investigate opinion leadership overlap across selected product categories (King and Summers, 1970)

Limited problem solving effort and lowered cognitive involvement are the main characteristics of limited purchase decision making. Peripheral cues, like brand and price information, rather than active information search are valid for making the necessary judgment in product selection process. Sproles and Kendall's consumer decision making styles, brand and price/value consciousness fit with this classification (Bauer, Sauer and Becker, 2006)

When a consumer is familiar with the product category in concern and makes routine decisions based on positive experience from the past, then we can refer to this purchase decision as habitual. Sproles and Kendall's decision making style of brand/store loyalty and variety seeking, another CDMS presented in the consumer behavior literature, can be classified under habitual purchase decision making. As expected from the above description, cognitive involvement is fairly low in this category (Bauer et al., 2006)

Variety seeking simply refers to the occurrence of brand switching in a repeat purchase situation. Van Trijp et al. separates true variety seeking behavior (intrinsically motivated) from derived variety seeking behavior (extrinsically motivated). The authors argue that variation in the habitual behavior can be ascribed to true variety seeking only when variation is rewarding in itself independent of the consequences derived from the change in behavior. In such situations, variation is the result of a desire for change which can either be derived from simple curiosity or an initiative to put an end to the boredom associated with repeated purchase of a brand that the consumer is familiar with. On the other hand, derived variety seeking can be externally imposed due to a probable out-of-stock situation of the preferred brand on the shelf or it can depend on the free-will which may be the result of changed preferences over time or dissatisfaction related to the performance of the brand in concern (van Trijp et al., 1994)

Last classification which will be included in the theoretical outline is impulsive decision making which encompasses unplanned, impulse purchase behavior which is triggered at the point of sale in response to various path-to-purchase tools. This behavior is mostly exhibited in low involvement situations, usually associated with low-priced products where the odds for cognitive dissonance is quite low after the actual purchase behavior (Bauer et al., 2006)

Based on the previous considerations and derivations, the revised model happened to include two additional components, innovativeness and variety seeking respectively. The authors eliminated three factors, confusion by over choice, recreational/hedonistic shopping and novelty/fashion consciousness due to the concerns that appeared from their presence in the inventory (Bauer et al., 2006)

You can see below the summary of revised CDMS inventory that was developed by Bauer et al.:

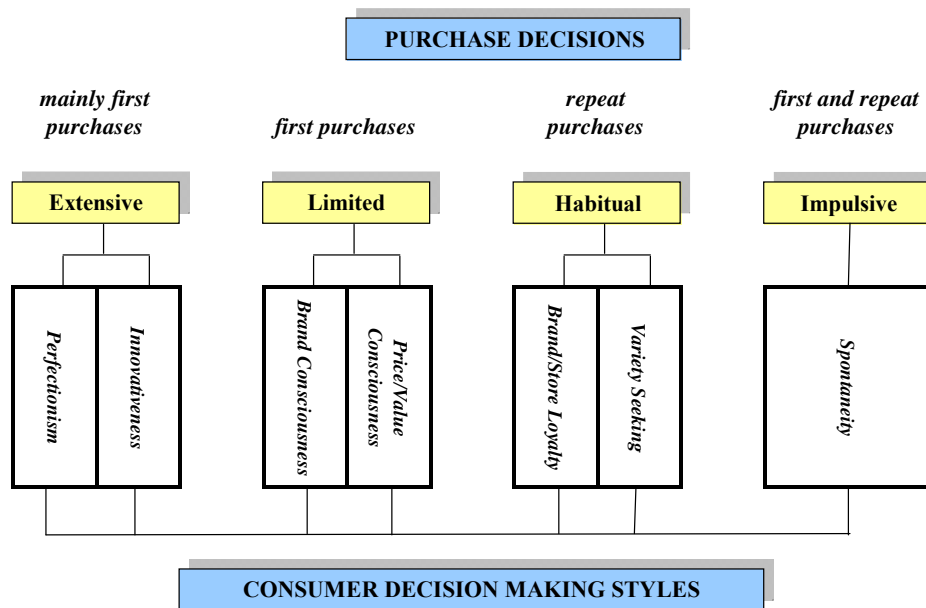


Figure 2.1 Summary of CDMS inventory (Bauer et al., 2006)

Another area of research where academicians benefited from the Consumer Styles Inventory as a comprehensive tool is likely gender differences. In their recent study, Bakewell and Mitchell (2006) contend that although consumers exhibit relatively consistent decision making styles, gender differences can be an interesting focus point since little research has been done on the topic (Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006)

They argue that since women are regarded as the principal buying agent responsible from family purchasing decisions, most retail research either underestimates or completely ignores male shoppers. They refer to the increased number of product categories, once considered as female, such as cosmetics, skin care and fashion magazines, now have male equivalents with more active involvement of male shoppers (Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006)

The study confirmed all eight original US and largely-female decision making styles. It identified four new traits of which three differ between genders. “Store loyal/low price seeking” trait implies that retailers should invest more time to create appealing loyalty programs, price-off offers and methods for improving shopping efficiency to target male shoppers (Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006)

Another research solely including German male and female consumers in the research sample and investigating the role of gender on consumer approaches to decision making, found out only four common factors to both males and females, as being brand consciousness, perfectionism, confused by over choice and impulsiveness respectively. Although all seven German decision making characteristics, extracted as a result of a factor analysis in another German study, were confirmed for females, only four of them could be confirmed for males which genuinely raised the question of whether the CSI has construct validity for both genders or not (Mitchell and Walsh, 2004)

The study investigating the effects of new life style determinants on food shopping behavior, Roberts and Wortzel (1979) affirm that simple demographics like working/non-working dichotomy are not enough to explain the variances in food shopping behavior. However, the results of the regression analyses prove that in equations like “Concern for Price” or “Price Minimization”, demographic variables contributed as much or more of the explained variance than did all the life style factors since “Concern for Price” shopping goal and “Price Minimization” behavior are supposed to be explained by relatively low disposable income of the household. This study is a perfect benchmark to take some demographics as independent variables into the research model that will be proposed.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Sampling Procedure

Snowball sampling, a non-probability sampling method, was selected as the procedure to follow through the survey. Snowball sampling relies on assignments or recommendations from initial subjects, who were already invited to participate to the survey, to generate additional subjects. Although this sampling methodology decreases the odds for selecting a sample that would represent a good subdivision of the target population from which it was drawn, it can noticeably lower the search costs (StatPac Inc., 1997-2009). Taking into regard this inconvenience deriving from the sampling procedure, we strived for reaching a considerably high sample size.

The sample was composed of women from differing marital and working status and age brackets. Women's orientations towards labor force and at-home work as well as children possession of married women were included as other dimensions to be investigated in the research inquiry. Although educational background was not included into the research model that was proposed, we deliberately included a question within the demographics part to reveal whether it can be a parameter that could have an effect on consumer decision making styles of women purchasing packaged food and beverages.

Finally, the sample was selected from two big cities, İstanbul and İzmir.

Table 3.1 Frequency distribution based on individuals' demographic profile

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
<i>Age Brackets</i>		
No answer	2	0,8
18-25	23	9,7
26-35	82	34,6
36-45	62	26,2
46-55	45	19,0
56+	23	9,7
<i>Marital Status</i>		
No answer	2	0,8
Other	12	5,1
Single	79	33,3
Married	144	60,8
<i>Children Possesion</i>		
No answer	82	34,6
No	64	27,0
Yes	91	38,4
<i>No Answer</i>	3	3,3
<i>1 Child</i>	48	52,7
<i>2 Child</i>	31	34,1
<i>3 Child</i>	9	9,9
<i>Educational Background</i>		
No answer	4	1,7
Primary school	2	0,8
Secondary school	7	3,0
High School	32	13,5
University	144	60,8
University student	2	0,8
Master/Doctorate	37	15,6
Master/Doctorate student	9	3,8
<i>Working Status</i>		
No answer	4	1,7
Working	162	68,4
<i>Income Oriented</i>	84	52,0
<i>Career Oriented</i>	78	48,0
Retired	31	13,1
Non-working women	40	16,9
<i>Total</i>	<i>237</i>	

3.2. Type of the Research Design

The study will be in quantitative (numerical) and cross-sectional in nature. It will take at a single point in time, differing than a longitudinal study which involves a series of measurements taken over a period of time. A slice of the target population will be taken and overall findings will be based on the views and/or behaviors of those targeted, assuming them to be typical of the whole group.

3.3. Proposed Research Model

As already mentioned, this study aims at analyzing the effects of rapidly evolving women's roles to their decision making styles, from a packaged food and beverages shopping perspective. Independent and dependent variables were postulated on the following diagram:

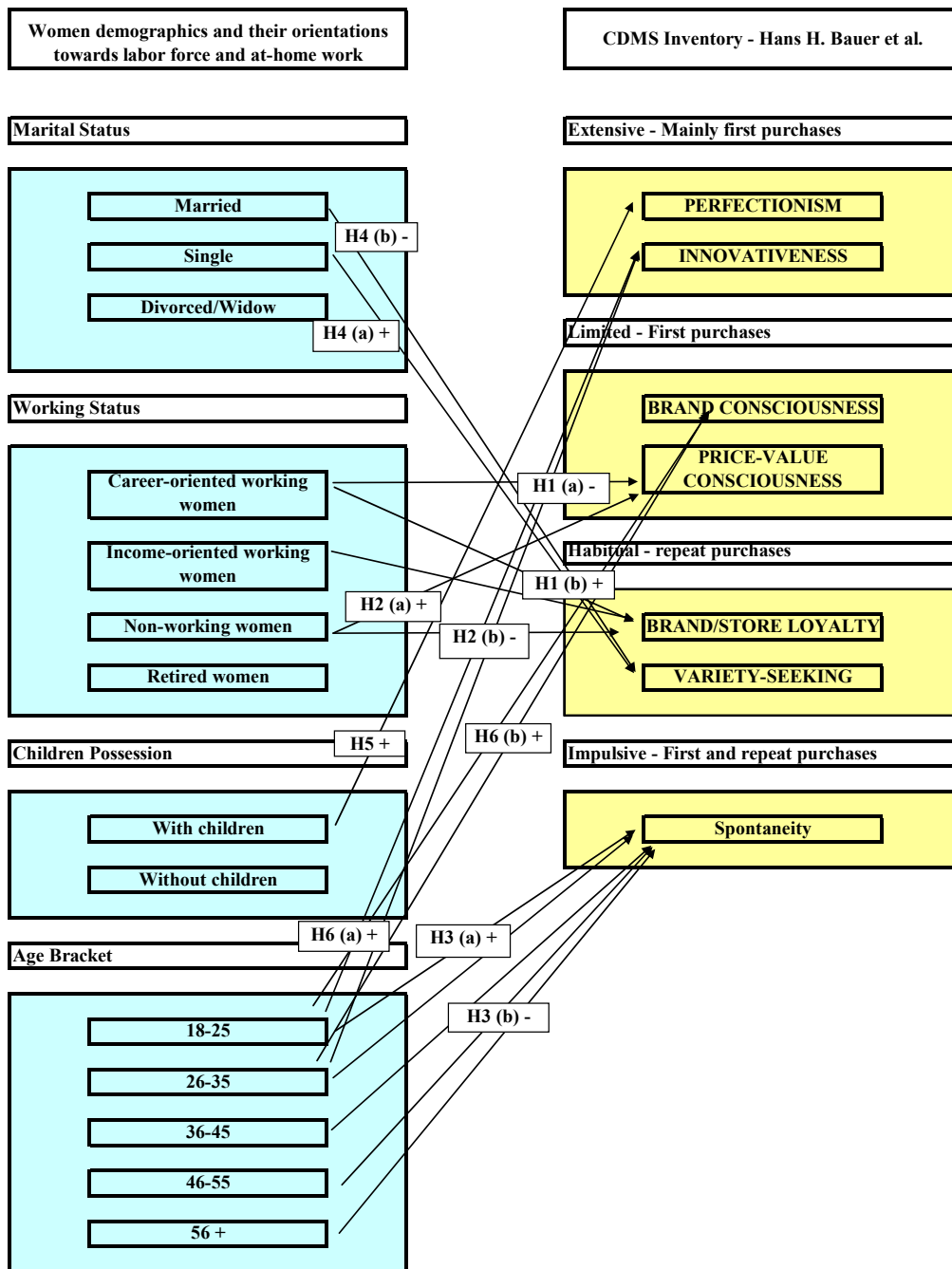


Figure 3.1 Research Model

3.4. Research Hypotheses

In their study attempting to reveal food shopping profiles of career-oriented, income-oriented and at-home wives with respect to Role Sharing, Task Management, Time Management, Store Loyalty, Store Characteristics and In-Store Shopping strategies that were used by these separate groups composed of female consumers, they find out that career-oriented wives along with income oriented wives give more importance than at-home wives to “one-store shopping”, late hours and convenience at shelf assortment. The authors argue that working wives were more store-loyal, most probably to reduce the disappointment and the time spent in front of an unfamiliar shelf layout.

On the other hand, although income-oriented women are searching for convenience in their food shopping as it is the case for career-oriented women, they tend to behave more like at-home wives in using money saving strategies like coupon use or shopping around for finding the best value for the money they pay to a food item (Polegato and Zaichkowsky, 1999).

These derivations led us to develop the following hypotheses:

H1: *Career-oriented women will have negative correlations with Price-Value Consciousness (H1a) and either career or income-oriented, working women will have positive correlations with Brand/Store Loyalty (H1b).*

H2: *Non-working women will have positive correlations with Price-Value Consciousness (H2a) and negative correlations with Brand/Store loyalty (H2b)*

It seems likely that impulse purchase behavior which is triggered at the point of sale in response to various path-to-purchase tools would be more valid for women who fall into early age brackets due their lack of experience in the shopping task with respect to elder female consumers. Therefore, we came up with the following hypothesis:

H3: *Women who fall into 18-25 as well as 26-35 age brackets will have positive correlations with Spontaneity (H3a) and women who fall into 36-45, 46-55 and 56+ will have negative correlations with Spontaneity (H3b)*

Since variety-seeking behavior is most likely to be associated with a desire for change which can either be derived from simple curiosity or an initiative to put an end to the boredom associated with repeated purchase of a brand that the consumer is familiar with, it can be thought that it could be more associated with single women rather than married women who were more likely to embrace a certain order in their lives which would reflect to consistency in their purchase decisions. Therefore, following hypothesis would be in line with this derivation:

H4: *Single women will have positive correlations with Variety-Seeking (H4a) and married women will have negative correlations with Variety-Seeking (H4b)*

Intense cognitive involvement, active information seeking and careful selection from a range of product alternatives would be more valid for women with children who are more likely to pay utmost attention to their product or brand selection in order to offer the most nutritious and hygienic food and beverages to their children in order to support their healthy growing. Therefore, we proposed the following hypothesis:

H5: *Women with children will have positive correlations with Perfectionism*

Women in their early life stage would be keener on adapting to the rapidly changing social environment they live in. They would like to follow the trends that emerge and evolve into other ones in order to stay synchronized. As expected, brands that they are affiliated with give important clues about their preferences and attitudes. Therefore, following hypothesis would be worthwhile to be tested:

H6: *Women, early in their life stage, who fall into 18-25 and 26-35 age brackets will have positive correlations with Innovativeness (H6a) and Brand Consciousness (H6b)*

3.5. Measurement Methods

3.5.1. Consumer styles inventory

Revised CDMS inventory, developed by Bauer et al. (2006), was selected to measure the seven mental characteristics that appear in their research model. Although main problems with the CSI inventory has been discussed in the Literature Review part, the main reason behind this deliberate choice of revised CDMS model is that the CSI inventory, developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986), can not be considered as product neutral since the sub-construct named as “Novelty/Fashion Consciousness” implies a clear relationship with fashion and clothing (Bauer, Sauer and Becker, 2006)

Since this study will investigate the effects of rapidly evolving women’s roles to their decision making styles, from a packaged food and beverages shopping perspective, CSI inventory stayed out of the scope of our interest.

Revised CDMS model, as already demonstrated in the Literature Review part, shares five components with the original CSI: perfectionism, brand consciousness, price/value consciousness, brand/store loyalty and spontaneity. A total of 26 variables that appear under the shared sub-constructs with the original CSI inventory were included in the revised CDMS inventory without applying any modification over them.

In order to decide on the variables that will appear under Variety Seeking and Innovativeness sub-constructs, a comprehensive review was conducted in the related literature.

Variety seeking simply refers to the occurrence of brand switching in a repeat purchase situation (van Trijp et al., 1996), as already discussed in the Literature Review part. In their study attempting to conceptualize and measure exploratory consumer buying behavior, Baumgartner and Steenkamp attempted to prove their hypothesis with an experiment conducted with 45 Dutch students. Based on previous works, they suggested that the actual variety seeking behavior was expected to not only be positively correlated

with EAP (Exploratory Acquisition of Products) but it would also be more strongly correlated with EAP than EIS (Exploratory Information Seeking). Exploratory acquisition of products (EAP) was described as the excitant effect derived from the purchase of unfamiliar, therefore risky product alternatives and altering shopping experiences. On the other hand, Exploratory Information Seeking (EIS) encompasses the acquisition of the relevant information regarding the product alternatives in concern in order to meet the need for cognitive processing. In order to check the validity of the hypothesis detailed above, the authors took a glance into the correlation coefficients as well as their statistical significance. As expected, EAP was significantly correlated with the Index of Temporal Variety (ITV), the relevant measure of variety seeking behavior, whereas the correlation for EIS with ITV was not statistically significant (Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 1996)

In the same study, Baumgartner and Steenkamp (1996) presents the scale that they developed to measure the exploratory buying behavior tendencies (EBBT) which aims at evaluating individual differences in people's temper to engage in two forms of exploratory buying behavior, exploratory acquisition of products (EAP) and exploratory information seeking (EIP). The scale was composed of equal items assigned either to EAP or EIS. Due to the above derivation, the selection for relevant variables regarding the variety seeking behavior was narrowed down to EAP items.

Out of the ten EAP items that were presented in the related scale, six items were selected. Four items which stayed out of the scope of the survey were either removed due to their potential to create factorial complexity, items that load on more than one factors, or their irrelevancy to any shopping habit or tendency.

Temporal innovation was described as an individual's inclination to try, experience or adopt an innovation long before everyone else did after the launch of the innovation into the retail environment. If we take into regard this conceptualization, temporal innovativeness, as an attitude scale, can be described as the degree of an individual's desire to get ahead of other people in the reference group in concern to try an innovation and the length of the time it takes before the individual decides to adopt the new product offer (Dann, 2005)

Dann refers to two components which constitute temporal innovativeness: “immediacy of experience” and “relative speed of adoption”. Immediacy of experience was described as the degree to which the individual is stimulated by the aspiration to experience innovation following their launch to the retail market environment. Relative speed of adoption can be conceptualized as the degree of an individual’s desire to adopt an innovation in advance with respect to other members of the social group they are belonging to (Dann, 2005)

Two core sources constitute the basis for the Temporal Innovativeness Scale: Leavitt and Watson’s (1998) Innovativeness Scale and Goldsmith and Hofacker’s (1998) Domain Specific Innovativeness Scale. Items from Leavitt and Watson’s Innovativeness Scale were included based on their degree of assessment concerning the preferred duration for waiting after the cognitive processing of the acquired knowledge on the innovation and its trial. Items from Domain Specific Innovativeness were rephrased to reflect the level of desire to acquire new products rather than domain specific innovations (Dann, 2005)

Eleven items scale was reduced to a simpler state including eight items after the removal of three items due their low item to total correlation scores (Dann, 2005) Seven out of these eight items were included in this study. The item that relates to the preference for waiting for a certain period of time after the availability of a new launch in the market was totally captured with another item that was retained in the scale; therefore it was removed from the list of items included in this study.

Consequently, the revised CDMS inventory that was administered in this study consisted of 39 statements. Respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with each statement by taking into regard their purchases of packaged food and beverages. Each Likert-type scale item was composed of the following five point scale: “strongly disagree (1), somewhat disagree (2), neither agree nor disagree (3), somewhat agree (4), strongly agree (5)”. Scale items were translated into Turkish. Minor changes in wording of some items were applied in order to clarify the meaning in the questionnaire.

3.5.2. Women demographics and their orientations towards labor force and at-home work

Age, Marital Status, Children Possession and Working Status were the selected parameters to be included into the survey to provide the necessary basis for the composition of independent variables.

Women who participated into the survey were first classified as working, non-working and retired. Then, working women were further classified based on their job orientation as career versus income-oriented. Polegato and Zaichkowsky's study on the food shopping profiles of career-oriented, income-oriented and at-home wives provides the necessary scale to classify working women by their job orientation. Based on their two-steps model, they first extract the most suitable statements describing career as well as income-oriented wives from the relevant consumer, family and organizational behavior literature and then they request from the respondents to choose one of the following statements that better describes their feelings about their job:

“Career-orientation: My occupation is a source of personal satisfaction to me and expresses a lot about me as an individual. I feel committed to my job. Whether at home or at work, I find myself doing things which will add to my personal development in my occupation.

Income orientation: My occupation is mainly a source of money which my family and I can use to buy things we want. I do what is required for my job, but I spend my time away from my job working on my hobbies or doing things with my family.”

Finally, they ask the respondents to allocate a total of 100 points between the first and second description stated above in order to understand the weight they attribute to each description after the respondents made their initial choice.

Preferred solution that was administered in this study is a derivation of the above model developed by Polegato and Zaichkowsky but varies from it in some respect. Instead

of asking the respondents to choose one of the following statements that better describes their feelings about their job, statements were positioned at the ends of a scale composed of values ranging from 1 to 10 and they were asked to use that scale to choose one value based on how close or far they were supposed to feel with respect to both statements.

In order to classify each working woman as either career or income-oriented, the scale was deliberately chosen without having a median value. The derivation is that respondents who select a value ranging from 1 to 5 will be considered as career-oriented and those who choose a value ranging from 6 to 10 will be classified as income oriented.

3.5.3. Factor analysis

During the exploration of supposed relationships between concepts, relevant scales are developed by transforming the behaviors and attitudes which define or exhibit those concepts since they can not be directly measured. Researchers apply to factor analysis in order to find out how many different dimensions in related statements are perceived by the respondents. Another important reason to use factor analysis is reducing the number of variables (Sipahi et al., 2006)

As explained in the Consumer Styles Inventory part, a total of 39 statements were included into the survey by extracting from the relevant literature in order to find out whether those factors that were identified by Bauer et al. in the revised CDMS inventory are common to our sample, composed of female participants from different age brackets and having different working as well as marital status. The aim of benefiting from the factor analysis is to reduce those statements into less number of components and making further analyses by taking into regard this reduced number of dimensions.

Out of the various analysis methods, principal components method with varimax rotation, which is the most frequently applied method, will be used in this study. Sampling adequacy values will indicate whether the data set, accumulated through the responses given by the survey participants, is suitable or not to apply factor analysis. In order to apply a factor analysis, two prerequisites should be met: there should be a correlation

between the variables and the relationship between the variables should be statistically significant. Those two hypotheses will be measured through Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) criterion and Bartlett's test of sphericity. In order to decide on the suitability of each statement to factor analysis, values of Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) will be analyzed through Anti-Image Correlation Matrice (Sipahi, Yurtkoru and Çinko, 2006)

Finally, Cronbach's Alpha values will be checked for assessing reliabilities of each factor in giving the decision on whether to include or not each factor in the model for further analyses.

3.5.4 Multivariate regression

In order to decide on whether to validate or reject research hypotheses, which were derived through a comprehensive review in the relevant literature, we will be benefiting from Multivariate Logit Regression. Components or sub-dimensions, so-called Consumer Decision Making Styles, which we are supposed to be gathered through the Factor Analysis, will be treated as predictor variables in order to reveal their effects on women demographics and their orientations towards labor force and at-home work.

Multivariate logit regression method was deliberately chosen taking into regard the binary nature of the dependent variable. Logistic regression does not take for granted a linear relationship between independent as well as dependent variables, which would not be the case with a binary dependent outcome.

Responses that were given to the part of the survey questioning the marital status will be handled as three separate dependent binomial outcomes, as married vs. not married, single vs. not single or divorced/widow vs. not divorced/widow.

Logistic curve would be "S" shaped and the regression coefficients will be estimated through an iterative maximum likelihood method.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1. Factor Analysis

As detailed in the Methodology part, Factor Analysis was conducted to reveal different dimensions that were perceived by the respondents in the given scale consisted of 39 statements that were deliberately included in the survey following a comprehensive review of the relevant literature. In other words, the main purpose of the factor analysis is to reduce the number of variables in a scale in order to proceed with those factors in further analyses instead of all the statements that were included in the given scale.

Referring to the proposed model, the scale is expected to be composed of seven different dimensions, so-called consumer decision making styles.

Likert scale was originated for the study and each premise was scored on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

A researcher benefits from the sampling adequacy measures in order to decide on whether the data set that was collected through the survey is suitable or not to conduct the factor analysis. First condition to be able to conduct the factor analysis is to satisfy a certain acceptable correlation between variables. Bartlett's test of sphericity shows us whether or not there is an adequate level of relationship between variables. If the p value derived from the Bartlett's test of sphericity is less than 0,05 significance level, then we can conclude that there is an acceptable level of relationship between variables to conduct the factor analysis. The opposite would be true, if the derivation from the test is not significant. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy as well measures the suitability of the variables to factor analysis. KMO value varies between 0 and 1. If the derived value from the KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy is greater than or equal to 0,80, this indicates that the variables can predict each other in an excellent way. Suitability of the variables to conduct the factor analysis is interpreted as good enough if the KMO

value ranges between 0,70 and 0,80. If the derived value falls under the bracket of 0,60 and 0,70, suitability is interpreted as moderate and if it varies between 0,50 and 0,60 then the suitability is low. A KMO value which is less than 0,50 refers to an unacceptable level of correlation between the variables and this indicator proves us that the variables are not suitable to conduct the factor analysis (Sipahi et al., 2006)

While Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measures the adequacy of the whole scale to conduct the factor analysis, Measures of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) value gauges the suitability of each and every variable in a given scale to factor analysis. Generally accepted interpretations of MSA values are the same as KMO values. MSA values are located within the Anti-Image Correlation Matrix when we take a look at the SPSS output. On the top right corner of all correlation values which appear on the diagonal of the Anti-Image Correlation Matrix, there is an “a” letter. These values correspond to each statement’s MSA value. If this value is less than 0,50, then the statement it corresponds to should be removed from the analysis. If none of the values which appear on the diagonal is less than 0,50, then the researcher should continue with the analysis of the following SPSS outputs (Sipahi et al., 2006)

As can be seen from Table 1, the p value derived from the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is less than 0,05. This means that there is a statistically significant level of correlation between the variables. KMO value of 0,766 indicates to a good level for the variables to predict each other.

Table 4.1 Sampling adequacy measures

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0,766
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3011,328
	df	741
	Sig.	0,000*

Next step is to check Anti-Image Correlation Matrix to figure out whether measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) values which are located on the diagonal are higher or not than the acceptable level. Since the MSA value of the first statement, “Getting very good quality is important to me”, appears to be 0,452 which is less than the minimum acceptable level of 0,5, that statement was removed from the scale and factor analysis was conducted once again.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO=.761 ; χ^2 Bartlett test (703)= 2839,784, p=0.000) after removing first statement from the scale.

4th statement, “I take the time to shop carefully for best buys”, having an MSA value of 0,468 was removed from the scale when we check the diagonal within the Anti-Image Correlation Matrix. Factor analysis was conducted again after leaving the statement in concern out of the further analyses.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO=.764 ; χ^2 Bartlett test (666)= 2675,566, p=0.000) after removing statements 1 and 4 from the scale.

In the following step, 6th statement, “In general, I am among the first in my circle of friends to try new products when they are available”, was removed from the analysis due to its MSA value of 0,472, which is less than the acceptable level of 0,5. Factor analysis was conducted again with the variables that were left in the scale.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO=0,759 ; χ^2 Bartlett test (630)= 2512,861, p=0.000) after removing statements 1, 4 and 6 from the scale.

11th statement, “In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality”, was removed from the scale due to its MSA value, 0,456, is less than the minimum acceptable value of 0,50. Factor analysis was conducted again.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO=0,751; χ^2 Bartlett test (595)= 2341,907, p=0.000) after removing statements 1, 4, 6 and 11 from the scale.

14th statement, “I would rather stick with a brand I usually buy than try something I am not very sure of”, was removed from the scale having an MSA value of 0,459 which is less than the minimum acceptable level of 0,50. Factor analysis was conducted again.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO=0,736; χ^2 Bartlett test (561)= 2171,892, p=0.000) after removing statements 1, 4, 6, 11 and 14 from the scale.

19th statement, “Compared to my friends I wait longer for new products”, was removed from the scale having an MSA value of 0,480 which is less than the minimum acceptable level of 0,50. Factor analysis was conducted again.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO=0,731; χ^2 Bartlett test (528)= 2011,56, p=0.000) after removing statements 1, 4, 6, 11, 14 and 19 from the scale.

34th statement, “I buy new products as soon as they are available”, was removed from the scale having an MSA value of 0,446 which is less than the minimum acceptable level of 0,50. Factor analysis was conducted again.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO=0,722; χ^2 Bartlett test (496)= 1834,02, p=0.000) after removing statements 1, 4, 6, 11, 14, 19 and 34 from the scale.

9 components were obtained from the factor analysis after statements 1, 4, 6, 11, 14, 19 and 34 were removed from the scale. 57 % of the total variance was explained by these 9 components.

However, when we looked at the Rotated Component Matrix and checked factor loadings for each statement, we realize that 31th statement stays lonely under the 9th factor. Since each factor should be composed of at least two variables, we remove 31th statement from further analyses.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO=0,732; χ^2 Bartlett test (465)= 1770, p=0.000) after removing statements 1, 4, 6, 11, 14, 19, 31 and 34 from the scale.

After removing a statement from the scale and repeating the factor analysis, Rotated Component Matrix should be analyzed once again. Following the analysis, we realize that second statement, "The more expensive brands are usually my choices", loads on the third and sixth factors with factor loadings of 0,520 and 0,504 respectively. If the factor loadings pertaining to a statement are close to each other under different components, then we may have to remove that statement from the analysis. The decision to remove the statement in concern was given by taking a look at other statements which were classified under the same component. Since the second statement seemed to ruin the integrity of meaning with respect to other statements under the same component, second statement was removed from the scale.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct

factor analysis (KMO= 0,732; χ^2 Bartlett test (465)= 1770, p=0.000) after removing statements 1, 2, 4, 6, 11, 14, 19, 31 and 34 from the scale.

Factor analysis was carried out once again and 8 components, explaining % 55 of the total variance, were obtained. When we examine the Rotated Component Matrix, we realize that 22nd statement, “I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do”, loads on the fourth and sixth factors with factor loadings of 0,472 and 0,417 respectively. As detailed previously, we took a look at other statements which were classified under the same component and we checked whether or not it ruined the integrity of meaning. As a result of this investigation, we decided to remove that statement from further analyses.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO= 0,744; χ^2 Bartlett test (406)= 1588,289, p=0.000) after removing statements 1, 2, 4, 6, 11, 14, 19, 22, 31 and 34 from the scale.

If we take a look at the Rotated Component Matrix, we realize that certain variables that were classified under given components have lower factor loadings with respect to others. Since higher factor loading of a variable indicates to a better ability to explain the component under which it is located, this would also increase the reliability of the component in concern. Therefore, as a general criterion, we decided to remove those statements having a factor loading lower than 0,5.

10th statement, which was classified under the first factor, was removed from the scale since it has factor loading of 0,497 which is slightly lower than the minimum acceptable level of 0,5. Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO= 0,740; χ^2 Bartlett test (378)= 1523,549, p=0.000) after removing statements 1, 2, 4, 6, 10, 11, 14, 19, 22, 31 and 34 from the scale.

When we run the factor analysis once again, we obtain 8 different components explaining 57 % of the total variance. When we examine Rotated Component Matrix, we

realize that 27th statement, “Even though certain food products are available in a number of different flavors, I tend to buy the same flavor”, has a factor loading of 0,476, which is lower than the minimum acceptable level of 0,50. Before removing that statement from the scale, we took a look at other statements that were classified under the same component. 27th statement seemed to be in coherence with the other statements that could be classified as “Brand/Store Loyalty” by referring to the related literature, but it was simply worded in the opposite direction with other statements that were included into the scale after the comprehensive review in the related literature on “Variety-Seeking” behavior. Therefore, we decided to remove that statement from the scale and renew the factor analysis as it is required.

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity both indicate that there is significant correlation among variables to conduct factor analysis (KMO= 0,737; χ^2 Bartlett test (351)= 1446,648, p=0.000) after removing statements 1, 2, 4, 6, 10, 11, 14, 19, 22, 27, 31 and 34 from the scale. Following the factor analysis with the statements that were left in the scale, we obtained 7 components which explain 55 % of the total variance.

In social sciences, factor analysis is performed to reveal the validity of the construct. After conducting the factor analysis, it is required to find out the reliability of each component in quantitative terms. We will be benefiting from the Alpha model while carrying out the reliability analysis. Cronbach’s Alpha value demonstrates the reliability level of the variables in concern under the given component (Sipahi et al., 2006)

The results that we obtained following the reliability analysis were summarized in the below table:

Table 4.2 Summary of initial reliability test

Factor		Statements	Classification in the Relevant Literature	Factor Loadings in Rotated Component Matrix	Cronbach's alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
1	7	When it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the very best or perfect choice	PERFECTIONISM	0,786	0,638	0,724
	16	I make special effort to choose the very best quality products	PERFECTIONISM	0,704	0,649	
	35	My standards and expectations for products I buy are very high	PERFECTIONISM	0,681	0,667	
	3	I look carefully to find the best value for the money	PRICE-VALUE C.	0,631	0,695	
2	24	When I see a new brand on the shelf, I am not afraid of giving it a try	VARIETY-SEEKING	0,743	-0,423	-0,191
	28	I like to buy new products before other people do	INNOVATIVENESS	0,698	-0,552	
	33	I enjoy taking chances in buying unfamiliar brands just to get variety in my purchases	VARIETY-SEEKING	0,654	-0,537	
	15	In general, I prefer to wait for a while after a new product has been introduced before I will try it	INNOVATIVENESS	-0,639	0,219	
	5	I am very cautious in trying new or different products	VARIETY-SEEKING	-0,619	0,16	
3	29	I prefer buying the best selling brands	BRAND CONS.	0,667	0,508	0,596
	21	Nice department and speciality stores offer me the best products	BRAND CONS.	0,648	0,554	
	17	The most advertised brands are usually my choices	BRAND CONS.	0,593	0,535	
	12	The well-known national brands are best for me	BRAND CONS.	0,575	0,504	
4	36	Often I make careless purchases I later wish I had not	SPONTANEITY	0,828	-0,253	0,104
	26	I am impulsive when purchasing	SPONTANEITY	0,668	-0,453	
	25	I really don't give my purchases much thought or care	PERFECTIONISM	0,536	-0,193	
	39	I carefully watch how much I spend	SPONTANEITY	-0,516	0,646	
5	23	Once I find a product or brand I like, I stick with it	BRAND-STORE L.	0,687	0,428	0,594
	30	If I like a brand, I rarely switch from it just to try something different	VARIETY-SEEKING	0,619	0,621	
	37	I have favorite brands I buy over and over	BRAND-STORE L.	0,595	0,547	
	32	I go to the same stores each time I shop	BRAND-STORE L.	0,513	0,487	
6	18	I buy as much as possible at sales prices	PRICE-VALUE C.	0,67	0,387	0,448
	13	The lower price products are usually my choices	PRICE-VALUE C.	0,601	0,223	
	20	A product doesn't have to be perfect, or the best, to satisfy me	PERFECTIONISM	0,57	0,435	
7	9	I change brands I buy regularly	BRAND-STORE L.	0,555	0,484	0,391
	8	The higher the price of a product the better its quality	BRAND CONS.	0,548	0,288	
	38	I shop quickly, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough	PERFECTIONISM	0,543	0,041	

When we examine the summary table, we realize that some of the items' wordings, located under the second and fourth components, were contrary to other statements'

wordings which are located under the same factor. Therefore, answers that were given to those items with different wordings would be completely opposite with respect to the rest of the statements that compose the related component. In order to shed light on the matter, we should take a look at fifth and fifteenth statements which were located under the second component. Though first three statements indicate to innovative or variety-seeking purchasing behavior, those items that have contrary phrase structures refer to a more cautious purchasing behavior regarding new or different brands and products. In order to solve this inconvenience, items having contrary wordings were recoded by reversing the Likert-type scale for those items.

Same would be valid for the thirty-ninth statement located under the fourth component. Despite the fact that all other three statements, which compose the same factor, indicate to spontaneous and careless purchase behavior, thirty-ninth item refers to a conscious behavior. Therefore, that item was also recoded to be in line with the others.

When we carried out the reliability analysis with the inclusion of recoded items within the scale, we realized that Cronbach's Alpha value for the second and fourth components increased to 0,715 and 0,666 respectively. But when we took a glance at the "Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted" column under the fifth component, we realized that removing the thirtieth statement from the scale would increase the reliability of the given component to 0,621 from 0,594. Therefore, we removed that statement from the scale.

Since Cronbach's Alpha values assigned to the sixth and seventh factors that derive from the analysis were lower than the minimum acceptable reliability level of 0,5, we removed the items that were classified under these factors.

When we sum up what we achieved through the reliability analysis, we realize that we decided to remove the thirtieth statement from the scale in order to increase the reliability of the component it was classified under. We retained Factor 1, Factor 2, Factor 3, Factor 4 and Factor 5, but we decided to keep the sixth and the seventh factors out of the scope of further analyses due their unacceptable reliability levels that we measured through

the Alpha model. After removing items from the scale following the reliability analysis, we have to end up with a final factor analysis.

Since the statements that loaded under each factor that we retained did not change, Cronbach's Alpha values for each factor would give the same results. Therefore, regarding the final factors that derived from the analysis, there is no need to repeat the reliability analyses.

Table 4.3 Female CDMS – summary of the final factor analysis

<i>COMPONENT NAME</i>	<i>STATEMENT</i>	<i>FACTOR LOADINGS UNDER ROTATED COMPONENT</i>	<i>% OF VARIANCE</i>	<i>RELIABILITY</i>
VARIETY SEEKING & INNOVATIVENESS	When I see a new brand on the shelf, I am not afraid of giving it a try	0,751	12,194	.715
	I like to buy new products before other people do	0,721		
	I enjoy taking chances in buying unfamiliar brands just to get variety in my purchases	0,669		
	In general, I prefer to wait for a while after a new product has been introduced before I will try it	0,620		
	I am very cautious in trying new or different products	0,613		
PERFECTIONISM	When it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the very best or perfect choice	0,767	11,766	.724
	I make special effort to choose the very best quality products	0,738		
	My standards and expectations for products I buy are very high	0,667		
	I look carefully to find the best value for the money	0,631		
SPONTANEITY	I am impulsive when purchasing	0,764	10,537	.666
	Often I make careless purchases I later wish I had not	0,705		
	I really don't give my purchases much thought or care	0,643		
	I carefully watch how much I spend	0,608		
BRAND/STORE LOYALTY	I have favorite brands I buy over and over	0,698	9,952	.621
	Once I find a product or brand I like, I stick with it	0,690		
	I go to the same stores each time I shop	0,681		
BRAND CONSCIOUSNESS	The most advertised brands are usually my choices	0,738	9,633	.596
	I prefer buying the best selling brands	0,709		
	The well-known national brands are best for me	0,576		
	Nice department and speciality stores offer me the best products	0,508		
Total			54,082	
Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			.747	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi-Square	1026,995	
		df	190	
		Sig.	.000*	

As can be seen from the above summary table, five different sub-dimensions were validated through the survey results, that we can call Female Consumer Decision Making Styles with respect to the purchase of packaged food and beverages. These five factors explain 54 % of the total variance.

When we compare our findings with respect to the revised model, developed by Bauer et al., which we took as reference, we can conclude that all consumer decision making styles that appear in the model except Price/Value Consciousness were validated through our survey results. When we delve deep into the findings derived from the factor analysis, we realize that the third statement, “I look carefully to find the best value for money”, originally classified under Price/Value Consciousness, loaded under the factor named as “Perfectionism”. Though the factor loading of this statement is lower than other statements that compose the same factor, it seems that the items are coherent with each other. Furthermore, when we examine the meaning that can be derived of the statement, we can suggest that intense cognitive involvement and careful selection among given product or brand alternatives, which are the main traits that are used in the literature to describe perfectionism in purchase behavior, are valid within the quest for the best value for money.

Lastly, we realize that statements that were originally categorized under Variety-Seeking and Innovative purchase behaviors, loaded under the same factor based on the factor analysis. When we analyze the statements one by one, we can easily grasp that this overlapping is not a coincidence. All variables that were originally classified under either Variety-Seeking or Innovativeness encompass statements that refer to openness to trial or innovation. Therefore, those consumers who identify themselves with one of these decision making styles tend to be pioneering to other people in their purchases. Therefore, we thought that these two “so-called” separate decision making styles can be used interchangeably throughout further analyses.

4.2. Multivariate Logistic Regression

Before applying logistic regression, respondents were grouped together based on the responses that they gave to the question that aims at classifying them according to their educational backgrounds. Since there were seven different options that the respondents can choose from and some of these dimensions cover a few respondents, grouping served for decreasing the number of dependent variables that will be used in further analyses. Three different educational backgrounds that were gathered through the grouping are “High School or inferior educational background” covering 41 respondents who were graduated from primary, secondary or high school, “University Student/Graduate”, encompassing 146 respondents, who already graduated from the university or still continue their education at a university and finally “Master/Doctorate Student or Graduate” including 46 respondents who either had their master or doctorate degree or still continue their education at a master or doctorate program.

Another important grouping that will be crucial in the latter part to grasp the findings of the regression analysis is gathering female consumers based on their orientations towards labor force and at-home work. Since the scale that was implemented in the survey has no median value, those respondents who marked the scale from 1 to 5 were classified as “Career-oriented” and the rest of the respondents who chose from 6 to 10 were treated as “Income-oriented”.

Before stepping forward with the logistic regression modeling, we have to first test the validity of our assumptions.

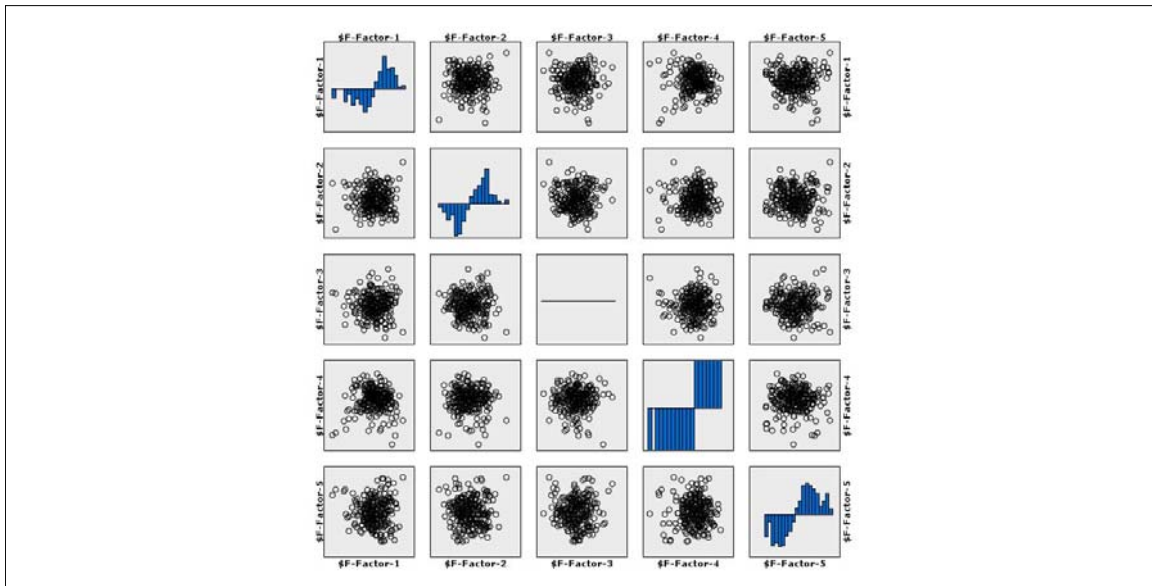


Figure 4.1 Scatterplot matrix including independent variables

We should first analyze our explanatory variables, namely Perfectionism, Variety Seeking and Innovativeness, Brand Consciousness, Brand/Store Loyalty and Spontaneity, that will appear in the model through the scores pertaining to the respondents that were acquired for each factor.

In order to reveal whether there is a relationship between each factor with respect to the others, we take a look at the Scatterplot Matrix. As can be seen from the related matrix, distribution of the scores is completely random and they are not moving together in any direction. Therefore, we can conclude that none of the factors have a relationship with any other.

Since we are not interested to test the normality assumption between the independent and dependent variables due to the binary nature of our dependent variables, we did not include dependent variables into the Scatterplot Matrix. As detailed in the methodology part, the curve that will be derived out of the logistic regression function would be “S” shaped.

Following the analysis of the Scatterplot Matrix depicted above, we apply Pearson Correlation Analysis. A correlation analysis is executed to quantify the strength of

relationship between two numeric variables. The reason why we apply this analysis is to reveal whether or not there is a statistically significant interaction for a given factor with rest of the factors that appear in the model. After careful examination of the matrix, we can claim that there is no statistically significant interaction between the predictor variables which can cause to multi-collinearity problem. This statistical fact is valid when two or more independent variables in a multivariate regression model are highly correlated.

Referring to both validity tests, we can conclude that all factors, which will be placed into the model as explanatory variables, are appropriate to apply the regression analysis.

After validating our assumptions, we can move on to develop logistic regression model by situating five components that were derived following the Factor Analysis, so-called consumer decision making styles, as predictor or independent variables and demographic variables as well as orientations towards labor force and at-home work, which we gathered through the survey data as criterion or dependent variables. In the below summary table, we can easily track the direction of the relationships between the independent and dependent variables and their statistical significance levels.

Table 4.4 Summary of regression analysis

FEMALE CONSUMERS DECISION MAKING STYLES W/ RESPECT TO PACKAGED FOOD AND BEVERAGES PURCHASES

	PERFECTIONISM	VARIETY SEEKING AND INNOVATIVENESS	BRAND CONSCIOUSNESS	BRAND/STORE LOYALTY	SPONTANEITY
	β	β	β	β	β
Age Brackets					
18-25	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
26-35	NS	,350**	NS	NS	,360**
36-45	NS	-,377**	NS	-,365**	NS
46-55	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
56+	,672**	NS	NS	NS	NS
Marital Status					
Divorced/Widow	NS	,603*	NS	NS	NS
Single	NS	NS	NS	NS	,366**
Married	NS	NS	NS	NS	-,274*
Children Possession					
Yes	NS	NS	NS	NS	-,352*
1 Child	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
2 Child	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
3 Child	NS	-,94*	NS	-1,325***	-1,169**
Education					
High School or Inferior Educational Background	-,678***	-,481*	NS	-,509	-,553**
University Student or Graduate	,437*	NS	NS	NS	NS
Master/Doctorate Student or Graduate	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Working Status					
Working	NS	,391**	NS	,300*	,528***
Income-oriented	NS	NS	NS	,392*	NS
Career-oriented	NS	,573***	NS	NS	,485***
Non-Working	-,633**	-,616***	,514**	-,705***	NS
Retired	NS	NS	NS	NS	-,541**

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND ORIENTATIONS TOWARDS LABOR FORCE AND AT-HOME WORK

* p<0,05
 ** p<0,01
 *** p<0,005
 NS Not significant

If we start to interpret the findings that we acquired through the logistic regression model summarized above, we apprehend that there is no statistically significant relationship between the consumer decision making styles and females who were categorized under 18-25 age bracket.

If we take a look at the lines indicating to the relationships between females who fall into 26-35 and 36-45 age brackets and consumer decision making styles, we can claim that while female consumers ranging from 26 to 35 years old are positively related to Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness as well as Spontaneity at a significance level of p<0,01, women who were classified under 36-45 age bracket seem to be negatively related

to Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness as well as Brand/Store Loyalty decision making styles at a significance level of $p < 0,01$. These derivations partly prove the validity of the Hypothesis enumerated as H3a. Since there is no statistically significant relationship between 18-25 age bracket and spontaneity, we can not fully accept the hypothesis H3a. This is also valid for the hypothesis H3b. Since the relationships between the age brackets 36-45, 46-55, 56+ and Spontaneity decision making style are not statistically significant, we could not comment on the validity of this hypothesis.

If we look through the relationships that appeared between the marital status and consumer decision making styles, we can conclude that there is a positive relationship between divorced/widow women and Variety Seeking and Innovativeness decision making style at a significance level of $p < 0,05$. While single women are positively related to Spontaneous purchase behavior at a significance level of $p < 0,01$, direction of the relationship is negative for married women at a significance level of $p < 0,05$.

We can not make any comment on Hypotheses H4a and H4b since the relationships between single and married women with respect to Variety-Seeking decision making style are not statistically significant.

When we investigate the relationship between the children possession and decision making styles, we recognize that women with children are negatively related to Spontaneity at a significance level of $p < 0,05$. Although there are no statistically significant correlations between women who have either one or two children and consumer decision making styles, women who have three children are negatively related to Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness, Brand/Store Loyalty and Spontaneity decision making styles at varying significance levels which can be easily tracked from the summary table.

If we take a look at the relationship between educational backgrounds with respect to decision making styles, we capture that those women graduating from high school or inferior educational institutions are negatively related to Perfectionism, Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness, Brand/Store Loyalty and Spontaneity at varying significance levels that can be easily followed through the summary table. Relationship of this group with

Brand Consciousness decision making style is not statistically significant. On the other hand, those women either having a university degree or studying at a university are positively related to Perfectionism decision making style at a significance level of $p < 0,05$. There is no statistically significant relationship between women having master/doctorate degree or studying at such a program and decision making styles.

Lastly, we examined whether we can reveal or not a relationship between working status and decision making styles. As can be followed through the summary table, working women have positive relationship with Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness, Brand/Store Loyalty and Spontaneity at varying significance levels. When we classify working women with respect to their orientations towards labor force and at-home work, we recognize that income-oriented women have positive relationship with Brand/Store Loyalty at a significance level of $p < 0,05$. On the other hand, career-oriented women have positive relationship with Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness as well as Spontaneity at a significance level of $p < 0,005$. Career-oriented women have no statistically significant relationship with Perfectionism, Brand Consciousness and Brand/Store Loyalty. These results lead us to partially accept Hypothesis H1(b) since income-oriented women have positive relationship with Brand/Store Loyalty but career-oriented women have no statistically significant relationship with the related consumer decision making style.

Contrary to working women, non-working women have negative relationships with Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness as well as Brand/Store Loyalty at a significance level of $p < 0,005$. In addition to these findings, non-working women have a negative relationship with Perfectionism and a positive relationship with Brand Consciousness at a significance level of $p < 0,01$. Non-working women have no statistically significant relationship with Spontaneity decision making style. When we link the findings with the hypotheses that were already discussed, we realize that Hypothesis H2(b) is accepted since non-working women have negative relationship with Brand/Store Loyalty.

Our last classification regarding the working status is retired women. These women have no statistically significant relationship with respect to decision making styles

except Spontaneity. Retired women have negative relationship with Spontaneity at a significance level of $p < 0,01$.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Conclusions and Discussions

In this part, it would be beneficial to start with the implications that were derived from the multivariate logistic regression analysis. For the sake of convenience, we will be following the same order as appeared in the previous section.

When we take a look at the relationship between the marital status and the decision making styles that appeared within the model, we realize that while single women are positively related to Spontaneous purchase behavior, direction of the relationship is negative for married women. This derivation may be logical if we take into consideration that the odds for married women to have a list while shopping for packaged food and beverages items would be higher compared to single women. On the other hand, single women are more likely to be attracted by the various tools that marketers located within the store environment to trigger impulse purchase behavior.

Although there are no statistically significant correlations between women who have either one or two children and consumer decision making styles, women having three children are negatively related to Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness, Brand/Store Loyalty and Spontaneity decision making styles. Although we do not have any extracted data out of the survey regarding the age brackets of children that these women have, we would expect that women possessing three children would have more tendency towards convenience due to the increased time pressure deriving from increased household task and child care responsibility. But negative relationship with respect to Brand/Store Loyalty decision making style implies that these women do not attribute any significance to the convenience aspect of packaged food and beverages shopping. Having implication on the social status group(s) that these women belong to as well as the household income that they possess would be valuable in this circumstance in order to make an approximation on

their use of money saving strategies to maximize the value they get from the money they pay during their shopping trips.

When we investigate the relationship between educational background of the female participants that were included into the sample and decision making styles appearing in the model, we apprehend that those women either having a university degree or studying at a university are positively related to Perfectionism decision making style. If we take into regard that cognitive ability and mental capability are enhanced through education, positive relationship between these women and Perfectionism decision making style is expected when we think that Perfectionism is mostly associated with intense cognitive involvement, active information seeking and careful selection from a range of product alternatives.

If we progress with examining the relationship between orientations towards labor force and at-home work and the decision making styles, we realize that income-oriented women give importance to the convenience aspect of shopping, in line with the derivations in the relevant literature, which can be enumerated as “one-store shopping”, late hours and being familiar with the shelf assortment to lower the time allocated to the shopping task. On the other hand, positive relationship between career-oriented women and Spontaneity seems to be quite relevant if we take into regard that career-oriented women prefer to make more frequent shopping trips to stores at late hours while returning back from work that we can classify as “top-up” shopping behavior. Since the odds for having planned purchase, usually associated with a shopping list prepared before the actual behavior, is low for career-oriented women having “top-up” purchase, their higher tendency towards impulse purchase would be expected. Positive relationship of career-oriented women towards Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness may be explained through the reflection of these women’s high aspirations towards their career development into their day-to-day life including the shopping behavior.

. Contrary to working women, non-working women have negative relationships with Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness as well as Brand/Store Loyalty. In addition to these findings, non-working women have a negative relationship with Perfectionism and a

positive relationship with Brand Consciousness. Since non-working women have relatively more time with respect to the women who have been participating to the work force, they are more eager to use money saving strategies like shopping around for bargains and use of coupons etc. Therefore, the odds for non-working women to use multiple retail channels or customers would be high instead of being loyal to a store. On the other hand, their positive correlation with the Brand Consciousness decision making style limits their intention to shop for finding the best value to different stores instead of brands. Since women's decision making styles were investigated with respect to the packaged food and beverages shopping, these products' direct relationship with health may lead these women towards more brand loyalty for the brands they count on.

Finally, we found out that Retired women have negative relationship with Spontaneity. This finding may be explained by the high experience and systematic approach of these women that they bring to the shopping behavior.

The findings of this study can be evaluated in two dimensions. Firstly, although some of the items that were included into the revised Consumer Decision Making Styles Inventory following a comprehensive review of the relevant literature, this study can be accepted as a replication of the research design that was developed by Bauer et al. As discussed in the Literature Review part of this study; Bauer, Sauer and Becker (2006) revealed that the original inventory developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986) was bringing about some deficiencies with respect to the reliability and the validity aspects that can be derived from low to average reliability coefficients. Therefore, they came up with a revised inventory that can more adequately represent the phenomenon in concern. Their research findings exhibited that Consumer Decision Making Styles (CDMS) were not product-independent and they were managed by consumers' perceived product involvement. Their explanation on this derivation was that consumers would follow different patterns and decision making processes related to the purchase of varying products; therefore, they strongly recommended further research on Consumer Decision Making Styles across different product categories (Bauer et al., 2006)

Referring to this recommendation addressing the need for further research on Consumer Decision Making Styles with different product categories, our replicated research design that included women from different demographic backgrounds validated six of the seven consumer decision making styles that appear in the research model except Price/Value Consciousness in the perspective of packaged food and beverages shopping. As detailed in the findings of the Factor Analysis, items that were originally treated under Variety-Seeking and Innovativeness were combined to compose one single Decision Making style that we called as Variety Seeking and Innovativeness.

Secondly, as detailed in the Literature Review part of this study, previous research investigating the roles of gender differences on consumer decision making styles regarded female respondents as homogeneous, which may not be the case. This study added another dimension to the relevant literature and found out that there can be differences among female consumers having different demographic profiles. Furthermore, orientations of working women towards labor force and at-home work can be a distinctive parameter to classify women in two separate groups showing different decision making patterns with respect to packaged food and beverages purchases.

5.2. Limitations of the Study

The first limitation of this study concerns the measurement method, Consumer Decision Making Styles Inventory, which we applied to reveal the decision making styles that were used by female respondents from different demographic backgrounds during their packaged food and beverages shopping. Major finding of the study conducted by Bauer, Sauer and Becker (2006) was that Consumer Decision Making Styles were not product-independent. Low to moderate Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients that we obtained for the components as a result of the Factor Analysis imply that this finding would be true.

Secondly, as already discussed in the Conclusions part of the study conducted by Sproles and Kendall (1986), the characteristics that we included into the model may not fully cover basic decision making styles of consumers when we take into regard that there

may be varying patterns and cognitive processes with respect to different purchase decisions. As a matter of fact, low reliability coefficients may indicate that we might skip essential characteristics that should have been represented within the model.

Finally, we advanced with the Snowball sampling, a non-probability sampling methodology, in order to decrease the search costs. However, although we significantly decreased the time allocated to the selection of the appropriate sample, we might also skip the chance for selecting a subgroup that would better represent the target population from which it was drawn.

5.3. Future Directions

Although there may be some deficiencies attributed to the research design, Consumer Decision Making Styles Inventory still appears to be a worthwhile tool for many academicians working in consumer behavior domain in order to better approximate to various cognitive processes that consumers are getting through as well as the heuristics that they are benefiting from. The inventory is also beneficial for marketers in terms of segmenting and targeting consumer groups showing same decision making styles. Consumer Affairs Specialists can benefit from the inventory in terms of capturing the deficiencies that were shown by consumers with respect to the purchase behavior and developing training programs to render them more conscious about their choices. Finally, consumer satisfaction would increase as a result of tailor-made in-store marketing programs that will be developed thanks to increased knowledge on purchase behavior of distinct segments.

Regarding the effect of globalization on consumer market and the likeness of principal agent responsible from household purchase decisions, further research is strongly recommended on decision making styles of female consumers having different demographic profiles and orientations towards work force and household tasks in the cross-cultural scene in order to capture similarities as well as differences with respect to Turkish female population.

Finally, further inquiry in this area is required for the development of a more adequate inventory that can be better applicable to cross-cultural groups and varying product categories.

APPENDIX A:

QUESTIONNAIRE – CDMS INVENTORY, DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND ORIENTATIONS TOWARDS LABOR FORCE AND AT-HOME WORK

COVER PAGE

Dear Mr./Miss.

Thank you for the time that you allocated to fill in the survey questionnaire.

The answers you will be giving are supposed to be used in the analyses that will be made within the context of the thesis conducted in Business Administration Master Program at Yeditepe University Graduate Institute of Social Sciences.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary and provided information will be kept confidential. The results as well as related implications will not be shared or presented in a way that may allow the recognition of an individual's identity.

Thank you once again for your help.

Best regards,

Utku Hasdemir

A. CONSUMER DECISION MAKING STYLES INVENTORY

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each statement below by taking into regard your packaged food and beverages purchases. All packaged grocery, fat, dairy, beverage and confectionery purchases are meant by packaged food and beverages classification. There is no right or wrong answer in the entire questionnaire. Therefore, please evaluate first opinions that come into your mind about the statements and try to fill in the related areas as soon as possible.

- Scale of measurement: Strongly disagree =1; Disagree =2; Neither agree nor disagree =3; Agree =4; Strongly agree =5.

VARIABLES		MEASUREMENT SCALE				
1	Getting very good quality is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5
2	The more expensive brands are usually my choice	1	2	3	4	5
3	I look carefully to find the best value for the money	1	2	3	4	5
4	I take the time to shop carefully for best buys	1	2	3	4	5
5	I am very cautious in trying new or different products	1	2	3	4	5
6	In general, I am among the first in my circle of friends to try new products when they are available	1	2	3	4	5
7	When it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the very best or perfect choice	1	2	3	4	5
8	The higher the price of a product, the better its quality	1	2	3	4	5
9	I change brands I buy regularly	1	2	3	4	5
10	When I see a new brand on the shelf, I just buy it to see what it is like	1	2	3	4	5
11	In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality	1	2	3	4	5
12	The well known national brands are best for me	1	2	3	4	5
13	The lower price products are usually my choice	1	2	3	4	5
14	I would rather stick with a brand I usually buy than try something I am not very sure of	1	2	3	4	5
15	In general, I prefer to wait for a while after a new product has been introduced before I will try it	1	2	3	4	5
16	I make special effort to choose the very best quality products	1	2	3	4	5
17	The most advertised brands are usually very good choices	1	2	3	4	5
18	I buy as much as possible at sale prices	1	2	3	4	5
19	Compared to my friends, I wait longer for new products	1	2	3	4	5
20	A product doesn't have to be perfect, or the best, to satisfy me	1	2	3	4	5
21	Nice department and speciality stores offer me the best products	1	2	3	4	5
22	I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do	1	2	3	4	5
23	Once I find a product or brand I like, I stick with it	1	2	3	4	5
24	When I see a new brand on the shelf, I am not afraid of giving it a try	1	2	3	4	5
25	I really don't give my purchases much thought or care	1	2	3	4	5
26	I am impulsive when purchasing	1	2	3	4	5
27	Even though certain food products are available in a number of different flavors, I tend to buy the same flavor	1	2	3	4	5
28	I like to buy new products before other people do	1	2	3	4	5
29	I prefer buying the best selling brands	1	2	3	4	5
30	If I like a brand, I rarely switch from it just to try something different	1	2	3	4	5
31	The best time to buy new products is as soon as they are available	1	2	3	4	5
32	I go to the same stores each time I shop	1	2	3	4	5
33	I enjoy taking chances in buying unfamiliar brands just to get variety in my purchases	1	2	3	4	5
34	I buy new products as soon as they are available	1	2	3	4	5
35	My standards and expectations for products I buy are very high	1	2	3	4	5
36	Often I make careless purchases I later wish I had not	1	2	3	4	5
37	I have favorite brands I buy over and over	1	2	3	4	5
38	I shop quickly, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough	1	2	3	4	5
39	I carefully watch how much I spend	1	2	3	4	5

B. DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND ORIENTATIONS TOWARDS LABOR FORCE AND AT-HOME WORK

B1. Please mark the appropriate box in the below table that complies with your age bracket

18-25	1
26-35	2
36-45	3
46-55	4
56 +	5

B2. Please mark the appropriate box in the below table that complies with your marital status

Single	1	→ Skip to B5.
Married	2	→ Skip to B3.
Divorced/Widow	3	→ Skip to B3.

B3. Do you have children that your are supposed to care, living with you in the household?

Yes	1	→ Skip to B4.
No	2	→ Skip to B5.

B4. How many children you have?

B5. Please mark the appropriate box in the below table that complies with your educational background

Primary School graduate	1	University graduate	5
Secondary School graduate	2	Master/Doctorate student	6
High School graduate	3	Master/Doctorate Graduate	7
University student	4		

B6. Which of the below statements best describes your working status?

Working full-time	1	→ Skip to B7.
Working part-time	2	
Non-working	3	Please finish the questionnaire.
Retired	4	Please finish the questionnaire.

B7. Please specify which of the below statements best describes your feelings about your profession/job. Please use below scale in order to indicate your feelings with respect to the statements given at both ends.

My occupation is a source of personal satisfaction to me and expresses a lot about me as an individual. I feel committed to my job. Whether at home or at work, I find myself doing things which will add to my personal development in my occupation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	My occupation is mainly a source of money which my family and I can use to buy the things we want. I do what is required for my job, but I spend my time away from my job working on my hobbies or doing things with my family
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APPENDIX B:

OPERATIONALIZATION OF VARIABLES – CONSUMER DECISION MAKING STYLES

Items that appear within the Consumer Decision Making Styles Inventory were deliberately located in a random manner to prevent any order related variance in the data. In order to better visualize the distribution of the variables under the related decision making styles, below table would be convenient:

PERFECTIONISM

1	Getting very good quality is very important to me
2	When it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the very best or perfect choice
3	In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality
4	I make special effort to choose the very best quality products
5	I shop quickly, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough
6	My standards and expectations for products I buy are very high
7	I really don't give my purchases much thought or care
8	A product doesn't have to be perfect, or the best, to satisfy me

BRAND CONSCIOUSNESS

1	The well known national brands are best for me
2	The more expensive brands are usually my choice
3	The higher the price of a product, the better its quality
4	Nice department and speciality stores offer me the best products
5	I prefer buying the best selling brands
6	The most advertised brands are usually very good choices

PRICE-VALUE CONSCIOUSNESS

1	I buy as much as possible at sale prices
2	The lower price products are usually my choice
3	I look carefully to find the best value for the money

SPONTANEITY

1	I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do
2	I am impulsive when purchasing
3	Often I make careless purchases I later wish I had not
4	I take the time to shop carefully for best buys
5	I carefully watch how much I spend

BRAND-STORE LOYALTY

1	I have favorite brands I buy over and over
2	Once I find a product or brand I like, I stick with it
3	I go to the same stores each time I shop
4	I change brands I buy regularly

VARIETY-SEEKING

1	Even though certain food products are available in a number of different flavors, I tend to buy
2	I would rather stick with a brand I usually buy than try something I am not very sure of
3	When I see a new brand on the shelf, I am not afraid of giving it a try
4	If I like a brand, I rarely switch from it just to try something different
5	I am very cautious in trying new or different products
6	I enjoy taking chances in buying unfamiliar brands just to get variety in my purchases

INNOVATIVENESS

1	The best time to buy new products is as soon as they are available
2	I buy new products as soon as they are available
3	Compared to my friends, I wait longer for new products
4	In general, I prefer to wait for a while after a new product has been introduced before I will tr
5	When I see a new brand on the shelf, I just buy it to see what it is like
6	In general, I am among the first in my circle of friends to try new products when they are avai
7	I like to buy new products before other people do

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