

T.C.
BAHÇEŞEHİR ÜNİVERSİTESİ

**EFFECTS OF SALES PROMOTION STRATEGIES
ON CONSUMER BUYING DECISION: AN
APPLICATION IN BEVERAGES ON FAST-FOOD
CHANNEL**

Master's Thesis

SEDA ZEYNEP ŞAHİN

İSTANBUL, 2018

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GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES MBA

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T.C. BAHCESHIR UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

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FOREWORD

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Seda Zeynep Şahin

ABSTRACT

EFFECTS OF SALES PROMOTION STRATEGIES ON CONSUMER BUYING DECISION: AN APPLICATION IN BEVERAGES ON FAST-FOOD CHANNEL

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The increase in employment rate and socio-economic development lead to the growth of the habit of eating outside the home. This motivates restaurants and fast food businesses to examine the behavior of consumers and take actions in this direction. This research aims to provide insights to businesses about what affects consumers' beverage preferences. Since consumer behaviors during purchasing processes vary regarding to their demographic characteristics and consumption habits, understanding the effects of these factors on purchase decision is a milestone in the success of a business. To clarify their effects, descriptive research is used in this study. According to findings obtained by literature review and descriptive research, hypotheses about the relation between consumer's approaches to brands, menus and promotions in beverage preferences and their demographic characteristics and habits of eating outside the home have been developed and tested. The results of our statistical analysis provide a comprehensive explanation about the influencing factors of consumers purchase decision.

Key Words: Consumer Behavior, Sales Promotions, Consumer Buying Decision, Out-of-Home Consumption

ÖZET

SATIŞ PROMOSYON STRATEJİLERİNİN TÜKETİCİ DAVRANIŞ SÜRECİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ: FAST-FOOD SEKTÖRÜNDE İÇECEKLER ÜZERİNE UYGULAMA

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İstihdam oranındaki artış, ve sosyo-ekonomik gelişmeler ev dışı yemek alışkanlığına paralel bir büyümeye sebebiyet vermektedir. Bu büyüme restoran ve fast food işletmelerini tüketicilerin davranışlarını derinlemesine inceleme ve bu doğrultuda aksiyonlar alma konusunda motive etmektedir. Bu araştırma işletmelere tüketicilerin içecek tercihlerini etkileyen faktörler hakkında bilgi vermeyi amaçlamaktadır. Tüketicilerin satın alma süreçleri demografik özelliklere ve tüketim alışkanlıklarına göre değişiklik gösterdiği için bu faktörlerin satın alma kararı üzerindeki etkilerini anlamak işletmelerin başarılı olmasında büyük önem taşımaktadır. Bu etkileri açıklamak için tanımlayıcı araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Literatür araştırması ve tanımlayıcı araştırma yöntemi sonucunda elde edilen bulgular doğrultusunda tüketicilerinin demografik özellikleri ve tüketim alışkanlıkları ile içecek tercihlerinde marka, menü ve promosyonlara olan yaklaşımları arasındaki ilişkileri ortaya koyan hipotezler geliştirilmiş ve test edilmiştir.

İstatistiksel analizlerin sonucunda tüketicilerin satın alma süreçlerini etkileyen faktörlerle ilgili kapsamlı açıklamalar sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Tüketici Davranışları, Satış Promosyonları, Satın Alma Kararları, Ev Dışı Tüketim

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
2. CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR.....	3
2.1 DESCRIPTION AND STRUCTURE	3
2.2 CONSUMER DECISION PROCESS.....	4
2.2.1 Need Recognition.....	5
2.2.2 Information Search	7
2.2.3 Evaluation of Alternatives	9
2.2.4 Purchase Decision.....	11
2.2.5 Post-Purchase Evaluation.....	11
2.3 MODELS OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOURS	13
2.3.1 Traditional Models	13
2.3.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs	13
2.3.1.2 Marshallian model	14
2.3.1.3 The Pavlovian learning model.....	15
2.3.1.4 The Veblenian social-psychological model.....	16
2.3.2 Modern Models.....	17
2.3.2.1 Howard and Shelth model.....	17
2.3.2.2 Enger-Blackwell-Miniard model	19

2.4	TYPES OF PURCHASE DECISIONS	21
3.	PROMOTION MIX AND SALES PROMOTION ACTIVITIES.....	25
3.1	PROMOTION MIX	25
3.1.1	Definition of Promotion Mix	25
3.1.2	Promotion Mix Tools	26
3.1.2.1	Advertisement	26
3.1.2.2	Public relations.....	27
3.1.2.3	Personal sales.....	28
3.1.2.4	Direct marketing	29
3.1.2.5	Sales promotions	30
3.1.3	Three Directions of Sales Promotion Effects	31
3.1.3.1	Economic effects.....	32
3.1.3.2	Informational effects.....	32
3.1.3.3	Affective effects.....	33
3.2	SALES PROMOTION ACTIVITIES	35
3.2.1	Definition of Sales Promotion Activities.....	35
3.2.2	Consumer Oriented Sales Promotion Activities	37
3.2.2.1	Sampling	37
3.2.2.2	Couponing	40
3.2.2.3	Bonus packs	44
3.2.2.4	Premiums	46
3.2.2.5	Price-offs	47
3.2.2.6	Contest and sweepstakes	49

3.2.2.7	In-store demonstrations	51
3.2.3	Dealer Oriented Sales Promotion Activities	52
3.2.4	Sales Force / Sales Team Oriented Sales Promotion Activities	53
4.	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	55
4.1	PURPOSE OF RESEARCH	55
4.2	RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD	55
4.3	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	56
4.4	RESEARCH MODEL	56
4.5	RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	57
4.6	STATISTICAL METHODS USED FOR DATA ANALYSIS	59
4.7	ANALYSIS OF COLLECTED DATA	60
4.8	DATA ANALYSIS	63
4.8.1	Factor Analysis	63
4.8.2	Testing Proposed Hypotheses	65
5.	CONCLUSION.....	93
5.1	LIMITATIONS.....	96
5.2	RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....	96
	REFERENCES.....	98
	APPENDICES.....	106

TABLES

Table 3.1: Monetary or non-monetary gains for economic effects	32
Table 3.2: Informative aspects of sales promotion effects.....	33
Table 3.3: Effect of emotional aspects on sale	35
Table 4.1: Proposed hypotheses	57
Table 4.2: Distribution of data.....	60
Table 4.3: Factor analysis results for promotion	63
Table 4.4: Factor analysis results for menu	64
Table 4.5: Factor analysis results for brand.....	64
Table 4.6: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 1.....	65
Table 4.7: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 2.....	67
Table 4.8: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 3.....	68
Table 4.9: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 4.....	69
Table 4.10: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 5.....	71
Table 4.11: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 6.....	72
Table 4.12: Independent samples t-test for hypothesis 7	73
Table 4.13: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 8.....	74
Table 4.14: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 9.....	75
Table 4.15: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 10.....	77
Table 4.16: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 11.....	78
Table 4.17: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 12.....	79
Table 4.18: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 13.....	81

Table 4.19: Independent samples t-test for hypothesis 14.....	82
Table 4.20: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 15.....	83
Table 4.21: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 16.....	84
Table 4.22: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 17.....	86
Table 4.23: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 18.....	87
Table 4.24: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 19.....	88
Table 4.25: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 20.....	90
Table 4.26: Independent samples t-test for hypothesis 21.....	91
Table 4.27: Proposed hypotheses and their test results	91

FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Consumer decision process	5
Figure 2.2: Howard and Shelth model	19
Figure 2.3: Enger-Blackwell-Miniard model	21
Figure 4.1: Proposed model	57
Figure 4.2: Box plot for income levels and brand rankings	66
Figure 4.3: Box plot for age groups and brand rankings.....	66
Figure 4.4: Box plot for occupation groups and brand rankings.....	68
Figure 4.5: Box plot for meal types and brand rankings.....	70
Figure 4.6: Box plot for meal spend and brand rankings	70
Figure 4.7: Box plot for promotion types and brand rankings	72
Figure 4.8: Box plot for income levels and menu rankings	74
Figure 4.9: Box plot for age classes and menu rankings.....	76
Figure 4.10: Box plot for consumer's occupation and menu rankings	76
Figure 4.11: Box plot for meal types and menu rankings	78
Figure 4.12: Box plot for meal spend levels and menu rankings.....	80
Figure 4.13: Box plot for promotion types and menu rankings	80
Figure 4.14: Box plot for consumer's income and promotion rankings	82
Figure 4.15: Box plot for consumer's age and promotion rankings	84
Figure 4.16: Box plot for consumer's occupation and promotion rankings.....	85
Figure 4.17: Box plot for meal types and promotion rankings	87
Figure 4.18: Box plot for meal spend and promotion rankings	89
Figure 4.19: Box plot for promotion type and promotion rankings.....	89

1. INTRODUCTION

In the ever increasingly intense competition environment of the 21st century, businesses give more importance to consumers' behaviors and expectations in order to be able to provide competitive advantage and gain customer loyalty. Factors such as increases in the number of employees and socio-economic development lead to a parallel growth in out-of-home eating habits. In this context, many restaurants and fast food businesses are deeply examining the behavior of consumers and taking actions in this direction.

In purchasing processes of consumers, besides products and services, there is also a significant effect of activities, promotions and menus. The main purpose of this study is to examine not only the effects of the demographic characteristics of on-premise channel consumers but also factors such as branding, promotion and menu (drink & meal etc.), which are among the most important elements of consumer behavior in purchasing decisions. The rest of the study is organized as follows:

In the first section, a detailed literature on consumer behaviors is given. Consumer behavior decision models, consumer behavior decision making steps and types of purchase decision are explained in detail.

The second section includes the literature review about promotion mix and sales promotion activities. In this part of the study, the promotion tools, promotion effects on consumer and the activities of sales promotion are deeply investigated.

The third part explains research methodology, questions, restrictions, method and model, and proposed hypotheses that are formed by the obtained findings from literature. 21 hypotheses are proposed to examine the effect of buying process. Descriptive research method is used to collect data to test the proposed hypotheses. For descriptive research, survey consisting of 21 questions are prepared to investigate

the consumer behavior and sales promotion activities effects on purchasing decision. The survey is applied 380 people who are eating outside in a fast-food channel. This part also includes the analyze of data collected from the survey and the statistical analysis of hypotheses. Hypotheses are statistically tested by Independent Samples T-test and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). During the statistical analysis, R program is used.

In the last part of the study, obtained results from statistical analyses are summarized and recommendations to the business and other academic researchers are provided.



2. CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

The 21st centuries, consumer behavior research getting more and more importance for business. Even if every living creature consume to satisfy their desires in addition to consumption to satisfy their primary needs, as different from other species, economic, commercial and social environment have an effect on human consumption. Different kinds of people in consumer class and the various factors that affect their decision processes widen the range of products offered to satisfy consumer needs and desires. Consumer behaviour topic becomes a special expertise in marketing discipline over years.

2.1 DESCRIPTION AND STRUCTURE

Consumer behaviour has different definitions in the literature. Some of them are given by Wilkie (1994), Zikmund & D'Amico (1996), Hoyer & MacInnis (1997) and Solomon (1995). While Wilkie (1994) defined it as behaviours displayed when individuals select, purchase and use of products and services to satisfy their desires and needs, Zikmund & D'Amico (1996) defined it as decision processes and actions of individuals to select, purchase and use of products and services with an economic value. According to Hoyer & MacInnis (1997), consumer behaviour is a concept whose content extends beyond how a consumer purchases a product. It consists of decision processes reflecting savings, consumptions and gains of consumers obtained by products, services and ideas. Another definition of consumer behaviour given by Solomon (1995) is that it can be described as a process in which individuals or groups are involved while selecting or purchasing a product or a service to satisfy their needs and desires. Since every person who buy or can afford to buy a product or a service for his/her own needs or the need of people related to his/her is in the class of consumer, consumer class has a wide diversity (Nicosia 1966). Besides the compulsory consumption, people have a tendency to modify their consumption decisions according to their desires.

A basic marketing concept states that firms exist to satisfy the needs of consumers (Solomon 1995). It can be deduced from this argument that marketing understanding puts

the consumer satisfaction at the forefront. The only way to satisfy the needs of consumers is to understand the consumers using the offered products. Therefore, a base of a successful marketing plan should be information about consumers (Solomon 1995). The content of this information should include the answers of following questions: to whom are we marketing?, which products do they purchase? when do they purchase?, who do they purchase these products for?, why do they purchase these products?, where do they purchase these products?, how often and how much do they purchase?, what affects their attitudes towards products?, which situational factors do their purchase decision affect?, what are the influencing factors of consumer satisfaction and loyalty to products? (Odabasi 1998). Various models have been developed to answer these questions and to understand the reasons behind them.

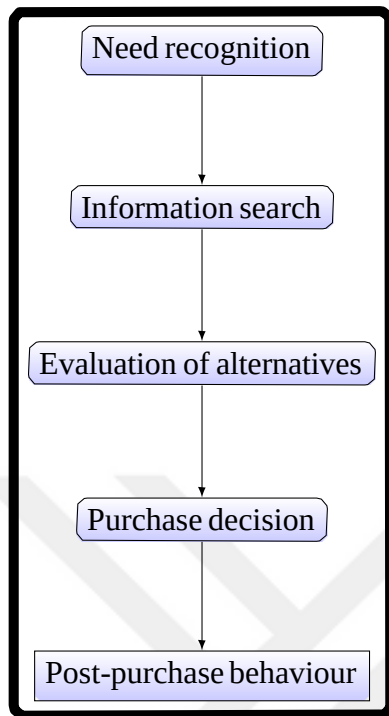
2.2 CONSUMER DECISION PROCESS

The decision-making process is a series of steps that a buyer takes to choose which products and services to buy (Hogg et al. 2006).

Dacko (2008)) defined the consumer buying decision process as the decision-making process that followed the purchase of a product or service. This process time; depending on the urgency of the product needed. Classical theory of consumer behavior suggest that; the purchasing decisions of the consumer are the result of largely rational and economic calculations. Many models have been developed to explain consumer purchasing behavior. Marketing academics have developed a "stage model" to explain the purchasing decision process of the consumer (Kotler & Armstrong 2010).

These stages are shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Consumer decision process



2.2.1 Need Recognition

The first step in each decision-making process of the consumers is arising needs. Consumers tend to realize their unsatisfied needs because of the effects of that need on their lives (Mucuk 2001, p 77). The perception of the difference between the current state and the desired state after the need is fulfilled either leads to a buying action or the consumers may just ignore the need if it is not so crucial. When the difference is realized, there are two possible actions the consumer may choose. The first one is that the difference is not great enough to trigger the buying decision, so the purchase process ends here. The other one is taking action to buy to eliminate the need. The buying decision process begins with the realization of an unfulfilled need. The actual situation and the desired situation are different from each other. So a need arises in order to reach the desired state, and this overall process ends in satisfaction.

The consumer is initially motivated to solve the problem and satisfy their needs. The other steps of the decision process depends on how the problem will be solved. Marketers are focused to use marketing activities for influencing consumer wants and wishes instead of their needs (Blythe 2006, p 42).

If the needs of consumers are well-analyzed by marketers it is possible to direct them to particular brands or products. Maslow's Needs Hierarchy is a common tool of determining consumer needs and wants. Maslow's hierarchy is that best describes the motivation of consumers. According to studies on the effects of needs of consumers on their product selection, obtained results are as follows (Solomon 1994, p 92);

- i. Consumers who care for personal success often have a higher need for success. For this reason, they tend to focus on products and services that emphasize success.
- ii. Consumers with higher social needs tend to choose group members' choice of products.
- iii. Consumers who try to control their environment are directed to products and services that provide superior service to their environment.
- iv. Consumers who are trying to be discrete and special in their environment prefer high distinctive quality and special products.

Marketing research has an important role in understanding the consumer's problems and underlying needs because marketing success relies on how accurate the results are. For instance, in 21st century, eating clean and organic is one of the most important areas of interest for consumers. Therefore, if a catering firm establishes an organic food line it is almost certain to result in a great success.

Repositioning the company and their strategy regarding the consumers' demands will probably bring a long-lasting future for businesses. Besides, it is quite common that some brands abuse human emotions and manipulate consumer minds to achieve greater profits. A good example for that would be anti-aging creams since aging is considered to be an unwanted condition (McCarthy 2016, Hoyer et al. 2017).

In the consumer decision-making process, the factors that lead to the arising need can be listed as follows (Hogg et al. 2006):

- i. Finished goods or services in the consumer's or stocks
- ii. Dissatisfaction with existing products and services
- iii. Change of environmental conditions
- iv. Change of financial conditions

2.2.2 Information Search

At this stage, individuals are gathering information about the products they may need (Koç 2013, p 457). When collecting information, source have to meet the requirements about the brands, products and services (Mucuk 2001, p 77). Individuals want to conduct market research by comparing the quantities and qualities of all products in the same product group before purchasing the products they want to own. The search for information is defined as the collection of appropriate information that is translated so that a good decision can be made by referring to some sources before a decision is made.

According to Fodness & Murray (1999)), the consumer will first collect information from the internal source. Utilizing internal resources is based on the knowledge gained from their own knowledge, learning and experience. If the internal information source is sufficient to reach the necessary information to make a decision, it will make the purchase decision without needing more information. In addition to being dependent

on the individual's knowledge and experience, the type of product, the high price or the degree of importance can also affect the adequacy of the internal source. Internal resources may be sufficient for some products but not enough for some (Altunisik et al. 2010, p 42). If not enough, the consumer will start to seek information from external sources. When making use of external sources of information, the individual tries to obtain sufficient information through the media and other people he can collect information about the product (Beatty & Smith 1987). In the process of searching for external information, the consumer can search for information by consulting the neighborhood, neighborhood, family or friends, try to access information with media tools, visit stores and consult salespeople and examine the product. If the consumer is loyal to a brand or product, it is not likely to seek out external information (Yavuz & Baris, 2004, p 359). In general, the following factors contribute to the prolongation of the information gathering process "(Schiffman & Kanuk 2000, p 447) :

Product related factors: The frequent changes in product prices, large volume purchases, high product-related features, high prices and a large number of brand choices.

Situational factors: Experience; first time purchase, new product, dissatisfaction in product category, social acceptance; To buy for a gift, to be seen by others, value; the choice of products for pleasure, the positive and negative consequences of all options, the inability of family members to agree on which brands to buy, the different use of products within reference groups, the ecological importance of purchasing, the acquisition of conflicting information with different sources.

Consumer related factors: Demographic features; high education, high income, being a white-collar business owner, being under 35 years of age, Personality; avoid from risk, other factors (such as enjoy shopping and doing research, etc.)

Another critical issue that is as important as the consumer looking for information before purchase is to investigate the direction of the search. It is important that

information such as which brands are taken into consideration and which stores are visited can form the basis of marketing strategies. Apart from these, it is also important to know which characteristics are examined.

2.2.3 Evaluation of Alternatives

In the course of the evaluation of the alternatives, the consumer firstly determines what characteristics should be the product that he wants to buy, and then evaluates what he expects from that product or service (Durmaz 2008, p 87). Consumers are struggling to minimize the total risk of the alternative they choose while evaluating the alternatives of the products they will buy (Yavuz & Baris, 2004, p 365). The criteria set for the product are sometimes assessed together, sometimes at same time. At this stage, consumers choose the most suitable brand among the brands they are planning to choose according to the criterion they determined. For this reason, information obtained from various sources during the information gathering phase is used at this stage. Criteria used in the evaluation of options are various characteristics related to product or brand. For this reason, these criteria vary from product to product (Engel et al. 1995, p 208). We can gather the most important criteria under the headings;

Price: An important criterion, however, is that in some cases the product may change according to the consumer.

Brand name: Very well-known and high quality certified brands are able to sell three times more than the believed brand to be acceptable quality (Loudon David & Della 1993, p 518).

The aim in marketing activities is to ensure that the consumer prefers the products of the company to the products of the competitor company. In order to achieve this goal, companies can influence the consumer's alternative assessment criteria with different

tactics (Wells & David 1996, p 362). Consumers review the information gathered about the identified alternatives and make comparisons between them. According to the quality of the product to be used, the comparison of the products that will meet their needs in the most efficient way takes place at this stage.

Consumers make the following assessments before purchasing the products (Schiffman & Kanuk 2000):

Product Compliance: How well is the product compatible with the existing emotions, beliefs, and behaviors that the consumer has?

Testability: Is the consumer able to test the product without risk?

Observability: Do consumers often see this product, feel it with five senses?

Speed: How quickly consumers get benefit from the benefits of the product.

Simplicity: How easy is the product to be understood and used by the consumer?

Competitive Advantage: What advantages does the product have when compared to competitors?

Product Symbolic Meanings: What does the product mean to the consumer?

Marketing Strategy: When compared to ratios, what are the relative advantages of the company's marketing component applications as a function or image?

2.2.4 Purchase Decision

Procurement is defined as the acquisition of the required product by paying a certain price. The consumer has to spend a limited amount of time, money and power for the product that he decides to purchase. If the purchase is a product or service that they routinely buy for the individual, it can be a short process because the brand, location and time factors are pre-determined. The purchase of a rarely purchased product or service can be a lengthy and cumbersome process because it requires a comprehensive decision (Demir & Kozak 2013, p 171).

The consumer who evaluates the alternatives decides which to buy from different brands and products with different characteristics and goes to the point of sale and applies the decision. At this point, persuasive, informative sales tactics play a significant role. Visual stores such as packaging stand out in large stores offering pick-up service (Yükselen 2006).

Purchasing is a function of two decisive factors. The first is the intention to buy, the second is the environmental effects or the personal differences (Engel et al. 1995, p 537). If the end of the appraisal period for the consumer is positive, product type, brand, price, color, amount, and where to buy the goods. At this stage, the marketer informs the consumer through advertising and other means; making decisions easier.

After all; price, delivery, installment and credit issues, and implements the resolving purchase decision (Pride & Ferrell 2004, p 136).

2.2.5 Post-Purchase Evaluation

In this phase of the buying decision process the consumer experiences the product or service, observes and evaluates the effects/benefits and develops positive or negative

buying behavior accordingly (Yavuz & Baris, 2004, p 386).

Consumer gets the chance to compare their expectations and the actual performance of the product after using it. If their expectations are met, the consumers get satisfaction, which will then lead to a brand or product loyalty and repurchase behavior. On the other hand, dissatisfaction incurs when there is a significant gap or difference between the expectations and the actual experience. For this reason, introductory activities in sales promotions and marketing communications should be clear and realistic (Kotler et al. 2001, p 197).

Businesses should examine consumer behavior and post-purchase satisfaction level very carefully and in detail. In an aspect of satisfaction, consumer behaviors can be listed as below;

Satisfied consumer behavior;

- i. Develops positive attitude to the company's products and services
- ii. Drives the consumers to give positive feedback to other people about the products
- iii. Competent products lose popularity
- iv. Triggers repurchase action and creates a brand/product loyalty
- v. Drives the consumers to be a potential buyer of the company's other products

Unsatisfied consumer behavior;

- i. Develops negative attitude towards the company's products and services
- ii. Drives brand switching instead of brand loyalty
- iii. Mostly negative sides and experiences of the product are told to other people
- iv. Develops a complaining attitude

As a result of unsatisfaction consumer behaviors can be examined in two groups. First one is that consumers take no action, because they think it is not worth the energy, time and effort to correct the situation and satisfy their complaints.

On the other hand, consumers have some possible actions towards their dissatisfaction;

- i. Not buying the same brand or product again
- ii. Boycotting the company
- iii. Warning their friends about their bad experiences
- iv. Requesting their money back or a repair/change of the product
- v. Claiming their loss paid back by applying to commercial courts
- vi. Applying to complaint centers, commerce chambers and directorates so that the producers fix their product or correct the situation (Yavuz & Baris, 2004, p 393-94).

2.3 MODELS OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOURS

2.3.1 Traditional Models

2.3.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow hierarchy of needs theory covers human needs comprehensively in a hierarchical form. Since it provides a basis to understand human behaviour, it was used to analyze human behaviours in many fields. Maslow believes that what stimulates people is to satisfy certain needs. He demonstrates these needs under five different categories in the shape of a pyramid that are physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualization needs; as follows:

Physiological needs: This level of needs includes the basic needs for human survival such as food, drink, air and shelter. As survival is impossible in the absence of physiological needs, when such needs are unmet, then they have the higher priority among other needs. Since the most basic human instinct is the instinct to survive, all of the features explained above are also valid for all consumers. Once the physiological needs are satisfied, the individual pursues safety needs (Benson & Dundis 2003)).

Safety needs: This level of needs indicates the aim of individuals to achieve stability, health, comfort, protection and balance (Trigg 2004). When safety needs are in the acceptable level defined by individual, individuals seek to satisfy social needs.

Social needs: This level of needs is related to belongingness, acceptance, friendship and love. It can be interpreted as establishing strong social bonds, having close relationships, being part of a family, being accepted by society (Lutz & Lux 1979, p 11). After the satisfaction of social needs, individuals can progress to tackle to satisfy esteem needs.

Esteem needs: This level of needs consists of achievement, prestige and feeling confident (Benson & Dundis 2003). Predecessor relation with former levels can be explicitly understood when the requirements of prestige are considered. It can only be achieved by socially accepted individuals. Individuals satisfying the esteem needs can attain self-actualization needs.

Self-actualization needs: This level of needs identifies with realizing personal potential. Self-actualized individuals are the ones achieving everything they could do.

2.3.1.2 Marshallian model

Marshallian theory holds that individuals attempt to purchase products that will provide the highest satisfaction conforming to their tastes and relative prices. Therefore, he defined decisions as a consequence of “rational” and conscious economic calculations (Kotler 1965). Price sensitive consumers conforms to the definition of individuals of Marshal.

Since economic calculations form their decisions, the change in quantity and price leads to an instantaneous reaction for this kind of consumers Golledge (1976).

Adam Smith developed his doctrine of economic growth on the basis of that what motivates man in all his actions is self-interest (Smith & McCulloch 1838).

Smith's idea is clarified by Jeremy Bentham. According to Bentham, man's decisions are the result of calculations and analyzes of the expected pleasures and pains of every planned action (Müller-Schneider 2013). These ideas underlies the idea behind Marshallian Model. After Marshallian Model, Bentham's ideas started to apply to consumer behaviour.

Marshallian theory had some simplifying assumptions initially. It analyzed the effect of a change in a single variable while holding other variables constant. He modified his assumptions gradually to get close to reality. Getting more realistic over the years, his methods and assumptions formed a basis for modern utility theory.

According to Marshal, "measuring rod of money" demonstrates the intensity of human desires. When Marshallian Model is applied to consumer behaviour, even if it may provide valuable insights for the effect of economic factors on buying decisions, it cannot provide an explanation for what forms consumers' choices of products and brands.

2.3.1.3 The Pavlovian learning model

This model is based on the experiments of psychologist Pavlov. During the experiment, Pavlov rang a bell whenever he fed dogs. After a while, even when he just rang the bell without supplying food, dog started to salivate. Pavlov deduced that through learning process, brain makes correlation among different things and the major part of behaviours are conditioned by the connections established during the learning process. The content of this experiment have widen to explain learning, forgetting and the ability to discriminate of human (Kotler 1965). These concepts are also used by later researchers to model the consumer behaviour as will be explained in next sections. After the modifications over years, the content of Pavlov experiment has been divided into four central concepts that are explained as follows:

Drive: It is the stimuli leading to response. They can be either primary like thirst or secondary like fear.

Cue: It is a weaker stimuli required by drives. Since the drives are very general, they need a particular structure of cues to create a particular response. The place, time and kind of response is affected by cues.

Response: It is the reaction to a particular structure of cues. However, the same structure of cues may lead to different responses in individuals as the degree of reward associated with this experience is also an effect on the type of response.

Reinforcement: It is an impulse to repeat the same response for rewarding experiences when the same structure of clues occurs. Reinforcement is a key factor to develop a habit. For instance, the housewife prefers to purchase the same brand of coffee whenever she goes to the supermarket if the cue structure are the same. However, if she cannot find the brand several times, the strength of the habit to buy this brand reduces or even be abolished because of the absence of reinforcement (Kotler 1965). However, just reinforcement may be inadequate to the permanence of a habit. Habits may also be forgotten when the impulse of learned associations becomes weaker as a result of non-use (Kotler 1965).

2.3.1.4 The Veblenian social-psychological model

Veblen defined consumer behaviours from completely different point of view than Marshal. According to Veblen, what motivates people in their consumption is prestige-seeking rather than needs or satisfaction (Kotler 1965), he believed that people's wants and behaviours are formed by the culture of the society and the standards of the subcultures to which they are belong, and the groups of people being in touch. This kind of consumers have a tendency to purchase product used commonly in the class of consumer (Golledge 1976).

Some of Veblen's ideas are found as exaggerated for the perspective of today's people (Kotler 1965). For example, one of the arguments he emphasized is that what affect consumer consumption decisions in conspicuous products are imitative factors. This idea conflicts with what Whyte Jr (1954) found. As stated in Whyte Jr (1954), many resident

are not willing to purchase appliances which their neighbors do not have.

Veblen's observations about the social effects on behaviours provided an inspiration for other researches. Whereas Malinowski (2013) investigated to the effect of society and culture on people's behaviours in primitive societies, Park (1952) and Sands (2014) made important contributions to explaining this effect in urban societies. Researchers like Wertheimer & Wertheimer (1959), Köhler (1970) and Koffka (2013) took a step further and examined the small-group effects on people's behaviours.

2.3.2 Modern Models

2.3.2.1 Howard and Shelth model

This model is also known as "The Theory of Buyer Behaviour". Model is shown in Figure 2.2. It consists of four variables which are explained as follows:

Input: It is the stimuli starting the purchasing process. Inputs are divided into three types which are significative, symbolic and social inputs. Significative inputs are stimuli directly about the features of products and brands such as price, service and availability (Foxall 1990, p 10). Symbolic inputs are stimuli related to the description of brands and products. Their effect on consumers is indirect. The impact of advertisements on consumers is an example for symbolic inputs (Foxall 1990, p 10). Social inputs are the stimuli coming from the people socially related to consumers such as their family, reference group and social class. Their effect on consumer decision process is occurred as a consequence of an internalization of stimuli (Foxall 1990, p 10).

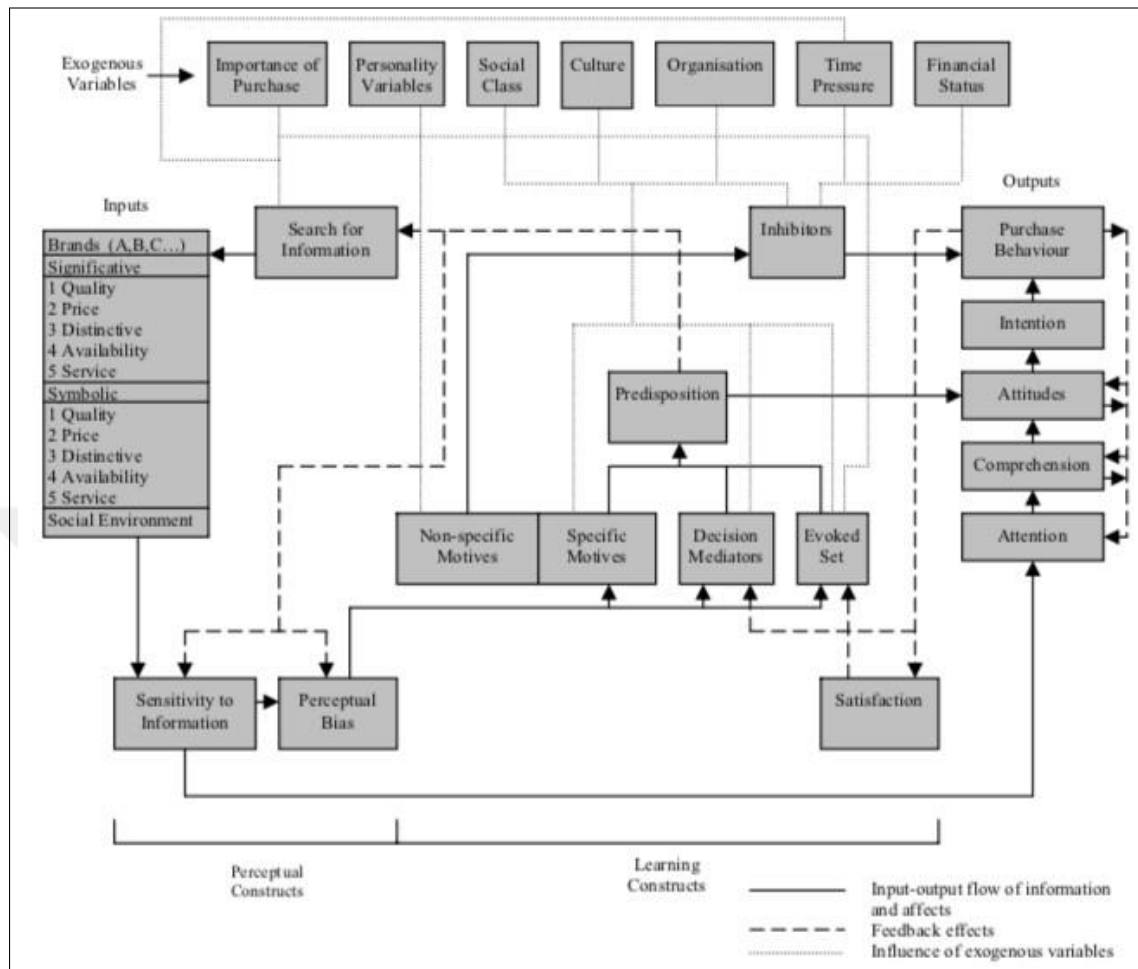
Perceptual construct: It is a term referring to the internal information process of consumers (Foxall 1990, p 10). Perceptual constructs help consumers to analyze the received stimuli. Thanks to them, consumers can separate the unrelated stimuli and process the related ones. Perceptual constructs contain sensitivity to information which represents the degree of control of consumer on the flow of stimulus information, perceptual bias which refers to falsification and change of the information because of

adding a new information into consumers' existing mental set and search for information which means the pursuit of information on consumer choices (Jeff 2008).

Learning construct: Six learning construct are represented on learning theory concepts in (Loudon David & Della 1993) which are motive (specific or general goals impelling action), evoked set (the evaluation of consumers about whether the consumption choices can satisfy his or her goals), decision mediators (rules of consumers having an effect on the evaluation of purchase choices), predispositions (a preference toward brands in the evoked set expressed as an attitude toward them), inhibitors (inhibitive factors on the consumption choice like limited budget), satisfaction (effect of the information received by former purchasing experiences on the new purchasing decisions) (Jeff 2008). Learning process enables consumers to decide the extent of their future purchases. According to Howard, decision making processes differ for consumers with regard to the degree of their knowledge about the product since it has a crucial influence on whether or not they have a strong attitude towards the product. Consumers whose attitude strength is low do not have enough knowledge about the products to discriminate different brands. Search for information forms the major part of decision processes of this kind of consumers. On contrary, consumers whose attitude strength is high can discriminate different brands and generally have a well-defined evoked set and a preference in this set. Since they have knowledge about brands coming from their experiences, search for information is barely observed in their decision processes. Predispositions are predominant in their purchase decisions.

Output: It represents both purchase action and perceptual and learning correlates (Foxall 1990, p 10). Outputs are divided into five variables which are attention representing the amount of the consumer information used throughout purchase action process, comprehension which covers the information used in purchase action process after the evaluation of consumer, attitudes referring to the judgment of consumers on the potential of a product or brand to satisfy the purchase motives, intention that shows the consumer's prediction of the product that will be bought, purchase behaviour demonstrating the consumer's predisposition altered by inhibitors (Loudon David & Della 1993).

Figure 2.2: Howard and Sheth model



Source: Howard AND Sheth 1969, Loudon AND Della Bitta 1993

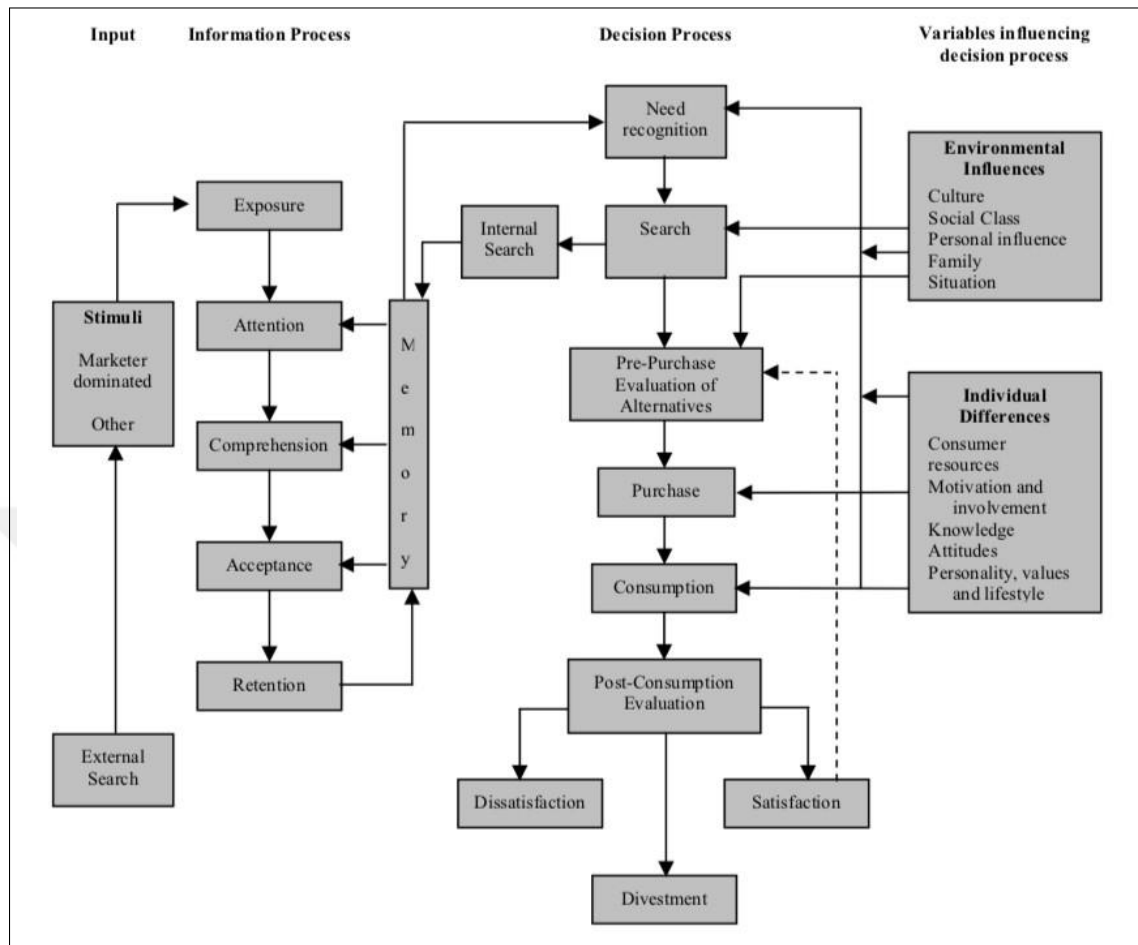
2.3.2.2 Enger-Blackwell-Miniard model

This model is also known as “Consumer Decision Model”. It is shown in Figure 2.3. Although consumer decision model and the Theory of Buyer Behaviour have many common components, they define the relationship between components in different ways. As a consequence, the structure of models are also different. Model consists of seven decision processes which are need recognition, search of external and internal information, the evaluation of alternatives, purchase, post purchase reflection and divestment (Jeff 2008). Stimulus and external variables have an effect on these decision processes. Stimulus are used in the same content as in the Theory of Buyer Behaviour. External variables are divided into two parts which are environmental and individual factors. While

culture, family, and social class are included by environmental factors, personality, lifestyle, attitude and consumer resource are in the scope of individual factors Blackwell et al. (2001). Received stimulus is processed by consumers considering external factors and provides information with consumers in their decision process.

When consumers realize that what they have in their current situations does not include all of what they are looking for, purchase process starts for them. Consumers recognize their needs using the information given by stimuli and external factors. After need recognition, they engage in a search for information about this need. Searching for information can be external, internal or both considering the type of the need. The scope of the search expands as the complexity of the need increases. For example, while internal search can be enough to choose a brand for chocolate, the choice of brand for a car requires comprehensive external searches. To decide that whether or not achieved information is worth to be used in current purchase decision and be stored for future purchase decisions, consumers have five processing stages which are exposure, attention, comprehension, acceptance and retention Blackwell et al. (2001). Once the required information is gathered, consumers become enough sophisticated to distinguish between different alternatives. In other words, they move to the evaluation of alternatives level. During the evaluation process, consumers' beliefs affected by both environmental and individual variables forms their attitudes towards alternatives which are of importance in determining their purchase intentions. Purchase intentions are the predecessors of purchase action. However even after consumers determines their purchase intentions, individual factors may prevent consumers from realizing their intentions. An example is the situation which consumer whose has a specified purchase intention cannot make a purchase due to the financial limitations (Van Tonder et al. 2003). When consumers perform purchase action, they evaluate their satisfaction level after consumption. This output, satisfaction or dissatisfaction, becomes an input for the future purchase decisions affecting the beliefs of consumers.

Figure 2.3: Enger-Blackwell-Miniard model



Source: Blackwell, Miniard et al.2001

2.4 TYPES OF PURCHASE DECISIONS

Impulse Purchases: Impulse purchase is defined as unintended, unreflective and immediate (Rook 1987, Rook & Fisher 1995). Need recognition step is skipped by consumers during impulse purchases. In other words, purchase decision does not occur as a result of the recognition of a need, occurs from an abrupt urge to buy a product. This is the reason why it is defined as unintended or unplanned (Kollat & Willett 1967). Since the need recognition step is not a component of purchase decision process, consumers do not search information and evaluate products considering obtained information. Therefore, impulse purchase decision does not reflect consumers' purchase intentions or attitudes towards the product which means that the act of purchase is unreflective. As

consumers perform impulse purchases as a result of sudden and generally irresistible urge to purchase, it occurs immediately (Beatty & Smith 1987).

The reason behind the impulse purchase decision is generally emotional. Consumer may experience emotional conflict and urge to satisfy some emotions can be the drive behind the purchase decision. Since such consumers have an intense desire to buy the product, what affects them to purchase is just to satisfy this desire. As it is not a result of an intention, whether or not the product fits with what they need is not significant. Therefore, they do not spend much time to evaluate alternatives and the results of their purchase. This is why relatively rapid decision making is seen as one of the important characteristics of impulse purchases (Rook 1987, Rook & Fisher 1995).

Effects on the degree of tendency for impulse purchases have been investigated by researchers. Existing researches suggest that cultural differences, gender, age, income and product types are related factors to impulse purchases. It is shown that people having a more traditional lifestyle have a less tendency of impulse purchases than the ones with modern lifestyle. The reason behind that traditional people are more likely to save money (Tuyet Mai et al. 2003). This makes their purchase decisions more rational.

The effect of gender on impulse purchase has not been shown yet because the results of existing studies are inconsistent. Whereas Kollat & Willett (1967) finds that the possibility of impulse purchase are higher for women than men, the results presented by Bellenger et al. (1978) show the insignificance of previous results. (Coley and Burgess 2003) reported the results showing the significance difference between men and women for the tendency of impulse purchase. Their results support the claim of Kollat & Willett (1967). However, the opposite of this claim is found by Cobb & Hoyer (1986). Different results about the effect of gender on impulse purchases may show that the related factor is the role of women and men in the society, not gender.

Rawlings et al. (1995) suggest that younger people are more likely to purchase on impulse. Results proposed by Tuyet Mai et al. (2003) is consistent with this claim. The reason of this correlation is based on the stronger control mechanism of older people.

Also, having a standard purchase pattern like shopping at the same market, buying same kind of products as a result of deep-seated lifestyle diminishes the possibility of exposure to objects that can trigger impulse purchase.

Income is another factor whose effect on the degree of tendency for impulse purchases has been shown (Tuyet Mai et al. 2003). Since the concern about the consequences of purchase action diminishes and the affordability of unplanned purchases increases as income rises, it may be expected that the characteristics of impulse buyers are more likely to be observed in people with higher income. Despite this, results presented by Tuyet Mai et al. (2003) show that although there is a significant difference between higher income groups and the lowest income group, the difference between the highest and lowest income groups are not significant. Consequently, the idea that income level and impulse buying are linear positive related was not fully supported.

Studies on the influence of product types on impulse purchase have started with the categorization of products as impulse and non-impulse. The thought of that just the categorization of products is not enough to analyze the consumers' internal motivations of impulsive purchase has directed researchers to investigate types of products that triggers consumers to buy on impulse and reasons behind this behaviour.

Dittmar et al. (1995) claim that consumers tend to purchase on impulse when products represent who they want to be. Similarly, Kacen & Lee (2002) highlight the importance of the specification of products reflecting the personal or group identity of individuals. They also mention the effect of cultural factors on the categorization of products. Tuyet Mai et al. (2003) modify this concept. They define products as personal-use and collective-use products. While personal-use products is purchased for personal usage like personal care products, collective-use products can be used by people related to the consumer. Gifts are example for this kind. As a result of their studies in Vietnam, they conclude that the frequency of impulse purchase of personal-use products are higher compared to collective-use ones. They use pleasure principle of Freud to explain the underlying reason of this result. This principle advocates the instant satisfaction. Since satisfaction depends also on the other people who will use product for collective-use

products, consumers have to wait to see their reaction. However, the satisfaction of personal-use products is immediate. This immediate reward makes them more attractive for impulse purchase (Tuyet Mai et al. 2003).

Routine (Automatic) Procurement Behavior: The consumer buys without buying anti static brands. It is not possible to assess requests or think of different brands. The stimulator directs him to direct purchase.

Limited Problem Solving: Consumer has a brand with a little experience. But learning new conditions may suggest that other brands need to be addressed. The effect of promotions is clearly evident in consumers in this group.

Common Problem Solving: It is the decision to buy a good that has little knowledge about the buyer's product, that is important and the price is high. In such a case, the consumer is very sensitive to information and thoroughly investigates. It can be very effective on the financial situation and the purchasing situation of the personality. In this case, certain brand-related cohesion develops.

3. PROMOTION MIX AND SALES PROMOTION ACTIVITIES

In 21st century, the development of technology and communication brings a mass competitive market. Developing technology also helps companies to improve their products. Therefore, consumer can easily find new products and brands all together with lower price.

3.1 PROMOTION MIX

The promotion mix; which provides communication between consumers and businesses by transferring various information to consumers and directing them to the products produced by the business (Kotler 1976, p. 71-74).

3.1.1 Definition of Promotion Mix

According to AMA (American Marketing Association) promotion mix is the process of shaping, pricing, distributing and promoting goods, services and ideas to provide changes that satisfy individual and institutional candidates (Uray & Özkale 1991).

Businesses spend a lot of money on advertising and sales promotion activities each year in hopes of creating consumer awareness, reaching consumer to products and increasing market share (Abratt & Goodey 1990, Valette-Florence et al. 2011, Huff et al. 1999).

Mucuk (2001) describes the reasons of the importance of marketing mix are:

- i. Increasing consumer numbers
- ii. Growth in income and number of consumers growing markets
- iii. Increased competition due to similar and substitute goods
- iv. Increase in intermediary institutions and distribution channels
- v. Consumer needs change according to Maslow Needs Hierarchy

3.1.2 Promotion Mix Tools

Various models have been developed to explain how the holding activities carried out in enterprises affect consumers. The most commonly used of these models was E.K. AIDA Model developed by Strong. The AIDA model examines the stages of influencing the consumer in 4 steps. It is possible to explain the stages of the AIDA model as follows (Kotler 1973, Mucuk 2001).

- i. *Attention:* It is the stage in which the operator announces the product to the consumer and attracts attention.
- ii. *Interest:* The stage of ensuring that the customer is interested in the product being noticed.
- iii. *Desire:* It is the stage of providing the interested customer with a desire to buy the product.
- iv. *Action:* The stage in which the buyer is asked to buy.

3.1.2.1 Advertisement

There is no doubt one of the most important intermediaries in the hands of marketing executives is advertisement. Especially in the age of information and communication brought by the developments in technology, advertising has become an indispensable part of modern life.

According to Bolen (1984), advertising is the totality of voices and images that appeal to a consumer, stimulate the consumer about a product or service, appeal to the product, and create a consciousness and consciousness to the product and then promote the sale (Sohodol 2003, p 57).

- i. Supporting product sales development efforts
- ii. Demand stimulation
- iii. Providing competitive advantage

- iv. Responding to a rival's ad
- v. Ensure salespersons are more effective by supporting them
- vi. Increase product usage
- vii. Reminding customers
- viii. Balancing fluctuating consumption in sales
- ix. Creating brand image
- x. Show the suitability of the product

Advertisements show certain characteristics when considered together with similar and related concepts (Tek 1999);

- i. Spreading feature
- ii. Ability to offer a large audience
- iii. Wider expression power
- iv. Not being individual

3.1.2.2 Public relations

"Public relations is a management function that assesses public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an individual or organization with public interest, and plans and implements action programs to create public understanding and acceptance" (Cutlip 1962). According to Sharpe (2000), public relations involves planning, analyzing and estimating the results of events that are relevant and operating. Public relations activities; not only the groups outside the institution, but also the attention of the individuals and groups within the organization attracting, improving and managing relationships (İslamoglu 2009, p 445):

- i. Arranging meetings for socially-specific situations such as commemoration, celebration.

- ii. Sponsorship, investing in scientific studies, organizing public festivals,
- iii. Organizing international events

Contributions of public relations activities to businesses can be summarized as follows (Cengiz 2002, Tuncer 1994):

- i. It ensures the correct introduction of the operator.
- ii. Announces business news to the media.
- iii. Improve the image of the business in the eyes of the customer.
- iv. The operator sends information about the new products to the consumers through different channels.
- v. Provide good relations between business and media.
- vi. Strengthen relationships with employees and partners
- vii. Correct inaccurate news about the business.

Public Relations tools can be summarized as Sohodol (2003) press releases, newsletters, conferences, articles, parties, ring propagation, events of skill demonstration, sponsorship, interviews, seminars-symposiums, field surveys, mediation touring, introduction with radio-TV, speeches, contacts communication, web sites, publications, professional exhibitions, product placement, in-house adds, public service advertising, corporate advertising, special events, press conferences and special news.

3.1.2.3 Personal sales

Personal sales is a face-to-face, persuasive communication and promoting activity that attempts to direct marketing activities of a particular company to direct customers through sales responsibilities and to direct their purchasing needs to their own products and services (Tek 1999, p 708).

Personal sales is a flexible communication method because the representative can talk to each customer, learn the customer's specific needs, and perform separate services for that customer (Weitz et al. 1998, p 7).

Benefits of personal sales are indicated in the following items (Uyar, 2008: 48):

- i. Establish direct and live relationships between the seller and the buyer. This allows the parties to understand each other more accurately.
- ii. Friendship relationships may arise between the seller and the buyer. This could lead to a positive discrimination.
- iii. Recognition of the product is ensured due to the obligation to listen and respond. There is no need to be responsive to the ad or to be ad-aware, but the buyer will listen and respond, even if the salesman is courtly.
- iv. The seller has the chance to obtain more accurate and accurate information on the gathering of necessary information about the final vendor, the buyer or the needs and expectations of the target market.

3.1.2.4 Direct marketing

"Direct marketing is an interactive marketing system that uses one or more advertising media to influence any gauging measurable response and / or commercial transaction" (Roberts & Berger 1999, p 3). Direct marketing is an interactive marketing system that uses one or more advertising tools to perform a measurable response (reaction) or business operation in any location (Kotler et al. 2000, p 650). The meaning of direct marketing is sending a specific messages directly to a potential or existing customer. Direct marketing has different methods. These methods are;

- i. Direct Posting
- ii. Catalog Marketing
- iii. Telephone Marketing
- iv. Marketing through Newspapers and Magazines
- v. Automatic Machine Sales
- vi. Kiosk Marketing
- vii. Electronic Marketing
- viii. Marketing with TV and Radio

Direct marketing has 4 basic elements;

- i. Direct marketing is an interactive (bi-directional) communication system. There is a two-way communication between the product or service marketer and the customer.
- ii. It recognizes the opportunity to respond to the direct marketing target. Possible reaction of the guest has the chance of watching.
- iii. In direct marketing, communication can be everywhere. This means that the potential customer does not have to come to a point of sale or be visited by a salesperson.
- iv. The easy monitoring of whether or not a customer responds to a personal response allows easy measurement of direct marketing activities

3.1.2.5 Sales promotions

Companies allocate large marketing budgets and spend a lot of money each year to increase sales. The expenditures made for sales promotion activities especially for consumers are quite large (Valette-Florence et al. 2011, DelVecchio et al. 2006, Carpenter & Moore 2008, Garretson & Burton 2003, Mittal & Sethi 2011). Kotler et al. (2009) describe sales promotion as short-term and multiple incentives that encourage product testing and purchase. According to another definition, sales promotion is a temporary incentive and opportunity to generate more sales by enabling existing customers to purchase more products and affecting new customers (De Pelsmacker et al. 2007, p 354). Egan (2007) defines sales promotion as "incentives" in order to stimulate buyers in an "urgent" manner and to increase sales rapidly. Raghubir (2004) describes sales promotion activities as short-term incentives aimed at the consumer, such as price reduction, free products, coupons, etc.

Sales promotion is a series of stimuli presented irregularly, and this stimulus strengthens promotional activities by encouraging the purchase of certain products (Alvarez Alvarez & Vázquez Casielles 2005, p 56). Techniques such as price reductions, in-store impressions, and sample product distribution are included in this group of stimuli (Abratt

& Goodey 1990, p 112). According to Sales Promotion Agency; sales promotion activities are a marketing communication tool that provides sales-related incentive prizes to create specific, measurable behavior and response for a product or service (Burnett & Moriarty 1998, p 312). Also, the use of each sale promotional tool for a specific purpose is an important point in terms of sales promotion activities. For example; coupons are used to distinguish between consumers who are sensitive to receivables and those who are not sensitive to receivables; sample product distribution is used to test the consumer's product (Srinivasan & Anderson 1998).

From these definitions, we can get out of the way and it is possible to list the following features (Korkmaz 1995, p 5):

- i. In order to mobilize the purchasing of consumers, extra incentives are needed in relation to personal sales, advertising and public relations.
- ii. Sales promotion activities are usually non-persistent applications that are applied for a certain period of time.
- iii. These activities are carried out on three levels of target consumers, consumers, sales force and intermediaries.

3.1.3 Three Directions of Sales Promotion Effects

In marketing literature, the perception of benefits and the cost of proposals are analyzed in three different ways. These methods can affect the intention of the client to evaluate and purchase the bid (Parguel et al. 2007). Use of sales promotion activities Chandon et al. (2000) perceived by the consumer as perceived by the sales promotion experience. In other words, sales promotion activities provide cognitive, economic and emotional benefits to consumers (Chandon et al. 2000, p 65-66). Raghurir et al. (2004) suggests that sales promotion can affect consumers in three ways:

- i. Change in the economic benefit of purchasing the product - economic effects
- ii. The influences of consumers on brand and industry beliefs - the informational effects

- iii. The effects of emotions and feelings of the consumer - emotional effects

3.1.3.1 Economic effects

The economic aspect deals with monetary or non-monetary gains or losses related to sales promotion to the consumer shown in Table 3.1. Sales promotion activities can provide financial benefits to consumers or non-monetary costs such as time and effort required to make decisions can be reduced by sales promotion. For this reason, sales promotion really makes it easier to make decisions (Parguel et al. 2007, Chandon et al. 2000)

Table 3.1: Monetary or non-monetary gains fo economic effects

	Monetary	Non-monetary
Positive	• Reduce price of a given quantity • Increase volume for a given price • Upgrade brands for same price • Provide additional product at lower cost ("buy one, get one" type offers) • Low cost opportunity for trial	• Increase awareness of product • Reduce length of decision process • Signal a good deal • Provide reason to buy ("free gift with purchase" offers) • Provide a cue for purchase quantity
Negative	• Increase stockpiling costs to hold inventory • Require consumption of non-essentials to obtain deal (for deals contingent on purchase of another product) • Maintain high prices via national brand cooperation	• Increase search time to find best deal • Delay purchases to wait for deal • Reduce consumption to wait for deal • Increase consumption due to extra inventory • Reduce choice set through loyalty program lock-in

Source: Raghubir, P., Inman, J.J. and Grande, H., "The three faces of consumer promotions", California Management Review, Vol. 46 No. 4, 2004, pp. 23-42

3.1.3.2 Informational effects

The informed direction discloses cognitive activities that occur in the presence of sales stimulation (Parguel et al. 2007, p 350) Also, the functional benefit from the benefits of sales promotion activities also includes the informational direction of sales promotion

activities. In other words, the informational side of sales promotion activities provides functional benefits to consumers (Chandon et al. 2000, p 66). Table 3.2 summarizes the informative aspects of sales promotion effects (Raghubir et al. 2004, p 28).

Table 3.2: Informative aspects of sales promotion effects

Customer related inferences	• Taking advantage of this offer tells one that I am: ▪ Smart ▪ Lucky ▪ Cheap • Other people will think this is a good deal	
Brand related inferences	• Presence of restrictions signals customer demand for the deal • Deeper discounts lead to higher perceived prices • Deep discounts (including being offered for free) lead to perceptions of lower costs and higher margins • Discount offers lead to lower quality perceptions and expectations for the brand, especially when others do not promote • Offering a range of deals leads to perceptions of unfairness for those who receive shallower discounts • Presence of a promotion may create uncertainty about the value of the brand	
Channel and industry related inferences	Industry related inferences	Store related inferences
	• Asymmetric deal patterns may indicate quality variation across firms • Dealing patterns of competing firms signals the level of competition within the industry • Frequent industry dealing may lead to perceptions of low industry costs and margins	• Promotional offers will affect a store's price and quality reputation regardless if the deal is offered by the manufacturer or store

Source: Raghubir, P., Inman, J.J. and Grande, H., "The three faces of consumer promotions", California Management Review, Vol. 46 No. 4, 2004, pp. 23-42.

3.1.3.3 Affective effects

Affective effects of a sales promotion are defined as the feelings and emotions aroused by exposure to a promotion, purchase on a promotion, or as a result of missing a promotion. These are categorized along two dimensions: general/specific and positive/negative. New theories of the manner in which sales promotions work have implicated the affective effects of sales promotions, though most of the evidence has been in terms of the positive affective routes by which a promotion promotes sales

(Chandon et al. 2000, Schindler 1992). General influences include the environmental influences of the shopping experience, depending on the hedonic entertainment. Special effects include inferences such as the feeling of being intelligent or lucky about the consumers themselves (Raghubir et al. 2004, Chandon et al. 2000). The emotional benefits provided by sales promotion are not concrete and are experiential benefits. This benefit is assessed as whether it is valuable for the consumer only, regardless of practical or functional purposes (Hirschman & Holbrook 1982, p 92-93).

In addition to the positive emotional aspects of sales force effects, negative aspects also exist. Especially when the discount levels are high, the consumers are disturbed. Opportunities offered by producers or retailers; consumers are attempting to find out whether changes in prices are fair or unfair changes. For example; the rising costs can be perceived as fair in the event of a price increase; but a price increase driven by profit motive is perceived as unjust. Additionally; the current customer of the company feels cheated when they see the sales promotion activities such as the lower price for new customers, and the feeling of jealousy is also present in the current customer. Another negative effect is the regret that consumers are embarrassed after a cheap product purchase and an opportunity missed (Raghubir et al. 2004, Chandon et al. 2000).. Table 3.3 summarizes how emotional aspects affect sales.

Table 3.3: Effect of emotional aspects on sale

	General	Specific
Positive	• Hedonic benefits and entertainment of buying on deal • Exploration and thrill of trying new things	• Feeling of being smart to buy on deal • Feeling of being lucky to avail of the deal
Negative	• Annoyance of dealing with coupons or restrictions	• Disappointment and regret of missing out on deal • Embarrassment of appearing cheap • Feeling of unfairness or envy if other consumers (e.g., new customers) receive a better deal.

Source: Raghubir, P., Inman, J.J. and Grande, H., “The three faces of consumer promotions”, California Management Review, Vol. 46 No. 4, 2004, pp. 23-42.

3.2 SALES PROMOTION ACTIVITIES

3.2.1 Definition of Sales Promotion Activities

Recently, one of the most important developments in business is getting to know human behaviour better. Businesses are trying to make greater profits by understanding the consumer purchasing decisions. It is a fact that the actual product is only a part of the total consumption, along with the guarantee, after-sales services, packaging, advertising and some other factors to enhance satisfaction (Kotler 1973, p 48).

Sales promotion activities aids marketing promoters in many aspects (Chunawalla 2008, 262):

- i. Accelerating slow cash flow products
- ii. Balancing sales fluctuations and coping with seasonal sales declines

- iii. Finishing unsold old products from the stock
- iv. Selling products in special packaging quantities or in special markets
- v. Help a new product entering the market
- vi. See rival strategies and take counter actions against them
- vii. Increase the visibility of the product at the shelves

Sales promotion activities can be applied both for the consumer target groups and for the retailers, stores or dealers that the company is engaged. These activities should be defined according to the company goals (Alvarez Alvarez & Vázquez Casielles 2005, p 57). In practice, companies may choose to use single sales promotion tool, as well as more than one mixed together to maximize the benefit. Srinivasan & Anderson (1998) discussed that combined use of multiple instruments results much more effective even than the sum of the effects of the two sales retention tools.

There are various types of sales promotion activities. These activities may be grouped into two as Monetary Activities (like discounts, coupons, etc.) and Non-Monetary Activities (like contests, samples, sweepstakes, etc.) (Kwok & Uncles 2005, p 2). Monetary activities usually aim for short-term goals like increasing market share, encouraging brand-changing and instant purchase behaviour. On the other hand, long-term goals like improving brand-awareness or loyalty can be achieved by non-monetary activities (Oyman 2004, p 55-75). However, it is possible and actually more common to group these activities in a target group perspective (Moreau et al. 2001, p 549-553). In this regard, sales promotion activities could be grouped into three:

- i. Consumer oriented activities
- ii. Dealer oriented activities

- iii. Sales force oriented activities

3.2.2 Consumer Oriented Sales Promotion Activities

This type of sales promotions used by producers targets the end users of the product, which could be consumers or businesses, to encourage their purchasing decisions. The main focus in these methods are supermarket and pharmacy products mostly. Targeting consumers in sales promotion strategies has been the most significant effect on product sales (Sunoo & Lin 1978, p 38). Most sales promotion methods are intended to influence and attract consumers (Fill 2009, p 555). Sales promotions for consumers include either instant or post-purchase awards (Ünüsan & Sezgin 2007, p 288).

3.2.2.1 Sampling

A sample product, usually serves to promote a new product to consumers to increase its awareness (Heiman et al. 2001, p 533). It is a small sample which allows the customers to try the product free of charge (Yin-Fah et al. 2011, p 79). These samples are considered to be one of the most effective ways not only to introduce but also test the product with consumers, despite its high costs (Belch & Belch 2004, Egan 2007, Odabaşı & Oyman 2002). Consumers may hesitate to make a purchase because of insufficient information and awareness about the products or services. Sample product distribution helps eliminate these hesitations and incomplete information (Akyüz 2008, p 114). Sample products enable the consumers test the product for free or a small charge before they make a purchasing decision. Sample products can be of actual size or a small amount of the product.

Sample product distribution is one of the most effective ways when introducing a new product to the market (Belch & Belch 2004, p 526). When talking about a new product, the best way to get people like it is to give them a free and easy way of testing for themselves. Sample products is very helpful for introducing the product to the customer about its specifications and quality (Aytug˘ & Özgüven 1997, p 238).

However, sample distribution is quite ineffective on unchanged mature products since it is difficult to influence consumers of a different brand to break their loyalty and change their choice of brand or product with this method (Kinnear & Bernhardt 1986, p 531).)

There are several methods for sample product distribution;

- i. *In-store distribution:* Especially food and cosmetics products. The consumer has the chance to test the product and make a purchasing decision instantly (O'guinn et al. 2014, p 648).
- ii. *Door-to-door distribution:* An expensive method because of work power costs. But also could be very effective due to residential advantages.
- iii. *Distribution by mail:* Usually small sized, light and lasting goods can be distributed by mail to consumers. The biggest advantage of this method is to directly address a specific target area. The biggest disadvantage of mail distribution is postal limitations and increases in costs.
- iv. *On-product packaging:* This method is usually chosen by the companies with a wide product range, which is attaching the sample product onto another product's packaging. But this limits the audience of the sample product only to the buyers of the actual product (Belch & Belch 2004, p 528).

- v. *Through institutions:* Some sample products can be delivered to consumers in public places like schools, hospitals or establishments.
- vi. *Public distribution:* This method allows sample products to reach a very wide range of consumers in city centers, shopping malls, parks or exhibitions.
- vii. *Through newspapers and magazines:* This is the most common distribution method recently. According to a survey by Direct (1998), 42% of cosmetics products are distributed this way (O'guinn et al. 2014, p 649).

According to Direct (1998), 43 percentage of consumers said that they can change their brand if they like the sample product, 41 percentage that they get to know new or improved products with samples and coupons, 75 percentage that door-distribution is very effective on their buying decision.

Nowadays, many ways have been developed to make the distribution of sample products even more interesting, like skateboarders delivering samples, or interesting costumes in front of a store, etc. But besides its high costs, another risk about this method is the samples might be delivered to irrelevant consumers who are not likely to buy the product ever.

Sample product distribution is significantly advantageous under these circumstances:

- i. If a product is new in the market, or improved to be better than its competitors
- ii. If a product is too complicated or different to be introduced only by advertising
- iii. If the producer has enough budget to enable consumers test the product thoroughly

According to a study in the USA, in 1996 sales were improved by 18% compared to 1995 with the help of sample products distribution. Besides, there are some exhibitions and fairs nationwide like Motivation Show and Premium Incentives Show (D'Astous & Jacob 2002, p 36).

3.2.2.2 Couponing

Coupon is one of the oldest and most used sales promotion tools (Belch & Belch 2004, p 532). Coupons that encourage buyers to buy consumers who do not use the brand (Belch & Belch 2004, p 532) and buyers to re-purchase their brands (De Pelsmacker et al. 2007, p 360) is a type of sales promotion given to the consumer by the manufacturer or retailer and giving the right to use the price reduction by use. According to Kotler (1976) coupon is a certificate to show that the person who buys a certain product has a certain deduction. A coupon is a type of promotional activity used to measure the effectiveness of an advertisement (Chunawalla 2008, p 186).

For consumers, coupons are intended to influence direct purchasing and consumption behaviors. Coupon applications represent one of a variety of consumer selection criteria such as price, availability, and so on. The purposes of using coupons are as follows (Tek 1999, p 786):

- i. Introducing new products,
- ii. To balance seasonal sales,
- iii. During maturity / saturation phases where competition is intense during product life cycle,

- iv. For products whose sales are inadequate or falling in the product line,
- v. To remove stocks quickly,
- vi. To break brand habits,
- vii. Promoting re-purchases

Since coupons and short-term price reductions are the most common form of sales development, most research has considered monetary savings as the sole consumer benefit of sales development. However, sales development can offer hedonic and functional benefits beyond financial savings.

The hedonic benefits promotion includes a value expression, entertainment and excitement. Functional benefits include cognitive, functional, economic, quality, and convenience benefits. Non-monetary incentives provide more hedonic and less functional benefits. Monetary incentives are more effective in hedonic products than in functional products (Chandon et al. 2000, p 77).

Coupons divided by two categories as commercial and producer coupons. Commercial coupons are coupons that are developed without a specific manufacturer. Coupons are the types of coupons that large grocery chains prepare to attract consumers to their stores. Commercial coupons give consumers the chance to try out the goods, provide a rapid increase in the short sales of the merchant, increase the reputation of the merchant and the product, and allow the manufacturer to make stocked production and distribution. Producer coupons are coupons organized and distributed by producers. Stores only mediate these kinds of coupons. These coupons are mostly like buy one get two types. (such as coke). Usually these coupons are suitable for promoting the product.

The use of coupons is quite old. In 1894, the first Coca-Cola distributed a complimentary glass of Coca Cola offering coupons, and other businesses followed this practice. Thirty years later, Procter & Gamble distributed coupons of 25 cents that could be paid for filling out a form of information such as name, place of purchase of the product. Procter & Gamble is one of the largest coupon distributors in consumer products (Odabası 2001, p 207).

As noted in The Wall Street Journal, producers have distributed an estimated 267.6 billion coupons annually. This means an average of 2,910 households per household (Porter 1993, p 13).

Today, coupon applications are increasing rapidly. It is possible to list the reasons for the rapid increase in coupon applications as follows:

- i. The changing of economic conditions in favor of consumers,
- ii. The increase in the number of brands in the market and hence the multiplication of consumer purchasing alternatives.

Coupons can be expressed as an important selling tool for both producers and retailers. (Guimond et al. 2001, p 131-137). The most important indicator of this is the dramatic increase in coupon distribution over the past 30 years. According to a study conducted by the NHC Promotional Service, approximately 80% of consumers in the United States of America use coupons and 25% spend their coupons in their shopping. (Belch & Belch 2004, p 528).

According to Tellis (1998), coupons are a special variant of price reductions that firms offer directly to consumers and are used to attract consumers' attention. One of the concepts related to the coupon is the value of the coupon. Coupon value is a concept that has significant effects on both consumers' purchasing intentions and coupon redemption. The increase in the value of the coupon also increases the return rate of the coupons. However, according to the results of the studies done, the increase of the value of the coupon does not always increase the intention of purchasing. Presence of past price information about the brand, information about the prices of other brands by the company, and the price of the competitors alleviate the effect of the coupon value (Raghubir 2004, p 1-12).

Coupons can make consumers happy to be a rational customer if they buy goods at low prices for consumers or use coupons to give them the image that they are different from other consumers. Another issue that matters is whether the distribution of coupons can be done on the sidelines. The main tools used in the distribution of coupons; newspapers, market inserts, special coupon inserts in newspapers, magazines, special inserts in magazines, direct mailing, inside or outside of the product packaging. The main methods of distribution of coupons are listed below:

Distribution via postal mail: In this method coupons are mailed to the target group. It is an increasing method of distribution because of its convenience in reaching the targeted specific consumer group.

Distribution through media coupons: coupons sent via newspapers and magazines. More than 64% of the coupons are distributed in this way (Tellis 1998, p.274). The advantages

of coupons distributed via newspapers; to select the market, to reduce the lag time to the lowest level, to provide efficiency in costs by creating mass advertising options, and to reach a wide audience (Belch and Belch, 2004, p.533).

In-package distribution: These coupons used to re-purchase the same product are placed in or on the package. It is also the most widely used method of distribution in Spain and Italy.

Cross coupon method: Coupons placed on a product can also be used to purchase another product. These coupons are called "cross coupons".

Distribution in the magazine: It constitutes approximately 8% of total coupon distribution. The coupons are placed in the shop, in front of the store or at the point of sale (Tellis, 1998, p.274).

3.2.2.3 Bonus packs

Packaging is to offer two or more products / services in a single package at a special price (Guiltnan 1987, Gardener & Trivedi 1998, Mittal & Sethi 2011, De Pelsmacker et al. 2007) or a special packaging method which enables consumers to buy extra products besides the actual one at no additional costs. (Urseth, 1994, p.43) A brand selling 750 grams of a product at the price of 500 grams would be a good example of advantageous packaging.

Packaging or bonus packs is one of the most used methods of sales promotion (Parguel et al. 2007, p 348). Packaging costs like barcodes, special packaging, special handling may cause additional cost to products. Producers use another bonus pack method to avoid

these extra charges, so they ensure that products are delivered without wrapping together. The most common examples of this method is “buy two, one free” campaigns (Parguel et al. 2007, p 348).

Advantageous packaging can be used to serve some purposes, which are listed below;

- i. To increase the use of the product by enlarging the original package size and the amount of the product in it,
- ii. To respond the competitor activities,
- iii. To stock the product,
- iv. To develop consumer bonding and loyalty,
- v. To win new consumers,
- vi. To encourage consumers to change their brands

Some research show that consumers may have biases about advantageous packaging. Especially when the bonus is big, the consumers think that the prices have risen prior to the advantageous packs are introduced so they pay the the additional value already (Clow 2004, p 428). According to Hardesty and Bearden’s study in 2003, proposed bonus packs result in more misunderstanding and suspicions among consumers when compared to price discounts. These price and quantity promotions method motivate consumers to buy more. Manufacturers and retailers of the product offer advantageous prices for purchases of a certain amount. Methods like “50% discount on the second product” and “buy 3, pay 2” are good examples of such promotional activities (Gilbert & Jackaria 2002, p 315).

Bonus packs or advantageous packaging method is also known as price-quantity advantage and quantity promotion (Smith & Sinha 2000, p 84).

3.2.2.4 Premiums

The premiums can be described as promotions offered by the firm to the purchasers of the product free of charge or at a low price. In premium distribution, it is aimed to transfer the real or trial size of the products to the consumers (Korkmaz 1995, p 38). The main aims of the distribution of this offer are listed below (Tellis 1998, p 273).

- i. To win the good intentions of the consumers: In order to achieve this, the buyers should be selected on the basis of the goodness of the consumers.
- ii. Encouraging consumers to buy the product: In order for this to happen, companies need to provide their premium at a price much lower than consumers can afford. For example, IBM sells its personal computer with the latest versions of DOS and Windows at no additional charge.
- iii. Creating brand equity by encouraging repurchase.
- iv. Ensure that the award-winning product is remembered by the consumer.

Marketing executives can apply different methods to reach the target group of sample products. These methods are listed below:

Accurate Premiums: Accurate gifts are widely used in the restaurant industry, especially in fast food chains such as McDonald's and Burger King. For example, McDonald's is on track to become the world's greatest toys by distributing 750 million games each year with the Happy Meal menu (Belch & Belch 2004, p 533). There are four different application schemes for direct distribution (Öztürk 1993, p 53):

- i. The donations given in the package: Premiums included in the product package. These are usually small-sized and cheap.
- ii. Bonded wafers: They are delivered to the product or to the product package.
- iii. The gifts given separately from the package: The premiums given to the consumer after the product is purchased.
- iv. Reusable packaging: Place the product in a packaging that is independent of the product. After the product is finished, the packaging can be used by the consumer.

Distributed by mail: Consumers are required to send proof to the manufacturer that they have purchased the product in order to be able to buy it. Sometimes consumers are asked to buy more than one product (Clow 2004, p 423).

Gifts that pay the cost to the consumer: These are the gifts the consumer pays part or all of the cost of the product. One of the most popular gift programs that cost money is Pokemon toys and game cards offered by Burger King. In this program, children receiving Kid's Meal or Big Kids menu pay \$ 1.99 for Pokemon toys and playing cards. The Pokemon gift program is described as the greatest achievement on the history of Burger King. In many Burger King magazines, sales volume increased by 30% in the last week of sales promotion activity (Clow 2004, p 418).

3.2.2.5 Price-offs

Price offs, the most popular sales promotional tool, are intended to encourage customers psychologically to compare the promoted price with the previous price (Green 1995, p 86). Price reduction should only be used to reach a specific goal. Reducing the price without some reasonable and achievable targets means giving up part of the profits (Rogers & Anapa 1996, p 153).

Price reductions can be applied in the form of a combination of these two methods, which may be in YTL or percentages. In either case, price reductions are offered to all consumers or preferred customers without restrictions (Chen et al. 1998, 353-372). Chen et al. (1998) stated that monetary discounts on high-priced products are far more effective than discounts on percentages, in a study of price-reduction messages on consumers' perceptions of buying and buying intentions. On the contrary, we propose that the discounts made as a percentage of low-priced products are more effective on consumers' purchasing intentions.

Price off promotions have also some negative affects on customer. Price reductions are an activity that consumers often notice and often expect price reductions, which is why low prices could be a problem. De Pelsmacker et al. (2007) stated that frequent repetition of price reductions can cast doubt on the quality of consumer goods or the magazine.

Another frequent negative result of frequent price reductions is that it can reduce the effectiveness of sales. Consumers can not be in purchasing behavior without price reduction (Clow 2004, p 418)

Kotler et al. (2000) argues that the application of price reduction would be most appropriate in the maturity phase of the product life cycle, in order for competitors to perform in order to crack down on oppressive competition activities. If a product is purchased only when a discount is made, this may be due to a number of reasons. If we could sort these reasons;

- i. The price of the goods is really high
- ii. There is a difference between the price of the product and the perceived value of the mark.
- iii. The product is not sufficiently different from competitive products.
- iv. The company gives the impression that it sells only goods, not services.
- v. The brand does not add any value to the product.
- vi. The company has enough information about the product benefits.
- vii. The company is operating in the wrong market.
- viii. The product does not meet consumers' expectations and needs (Panwar 1997: 214).

Price offs can be applied in different forms. Three types of price reductions can be mentioned (Tig̃li & Pirtini 2003, p 122). These are:

- i. Direct price-off is the amount applied at the price of a product (such as TL 1,000,000) or percent (such as 30%). This issue is also known as shelf price reduction.
- ii. Extra product or quantity can be reduced in two ways. One of them can be free in one area or free in another area. Although these are considered as bonus packaging, there is a discount in essence.
- iii. Mixed discount is realized as 50% discount for the second place or 50% discount for another product

3.2.2.6 Contest and sweepstakes

Contests and sweepstakes are similar in concept with some major differences. Contests may require physical attendance in some activities, so the talent and skill factors are involved in the process and depends on the performance of the participating consumer. In addition, consumers need to buy the product for participation unlike the sweepstakes. Consumers can participate in sweepstakes any time they want, the result only depends on the factor of luck (Clow 2004, p 421). This leads a greater number of participants than the contests (Odabaşı & Oyman 2002, p 209).

There are two levels of perception of the given prize value in contests and sweepstakes which are temporary and actual value. Temporary value is about the attractiveness of the prize and when the perceived value increases the participation also increases. Actual value requires physical demonstrations of skills and remains the prize on the second level (Clow 2004, p 421-422).

Contests and sweepstakes serve to fulfill the following purposes (Öztürk 1993, p 60):

- i. Creating excitement and attractiveness to increase the sales of the product
- ii. Introducing a new product
- iii. Differentiating the product from other brands
- iv. Ensuring existing consumers buy more products

Contests and sweepstakes are effective in reaching certain goals. However, there are some weaknesses to these methods as listed below (Clow 2004, p 423):

- i. Due to campaign costs like prizes, entry forms, legal requirements, advertising etc., when contests or sweepstakes cannot reach the desired success, these events lead to increases in company costs.
- ii. Increasing popularity of various contests and sweepstakes results in a decrease of the consumers' attention and excitement. Prizes lose attractiveness.

- iii. Consumers now have the chance to participate in many online/on-site contests, so going shopping and participating in the competition lose attractiveness day by day.

It is supposed that 70% of American companies support contests and sweepstakes while 30% of the consumers participate in such activities. Leading sectors to use these methods are non-alcoholic beverages and fast-food chain restaurants (Lane et al. 1993, p 432). Such activities have some major advantages and disadvantages as listed below;

Advantages;

- i. Introducing new products to consumers
- ii. Enabling consumers to try the product without buying
- iii. Increasing the frequency of store visits of the consumers

Disadvantages;

- i. Difficult to create attractive contests
- ii. In unsuccessful cases it may lead to decreases in sales

Some major key points when developing contests or sweepstakes to increase the attractiveness and attention can be listed as below(Oluç 2006, p 650):

- i. The purpose and type of the contest must be well-established
- ii. Directing consumers to make purchase
- iii. Encouraging consumers to be a loyal buyer
- iv. Strengthen retailer and dealer cooperation
- v. Increasing sales team effectiveness
- vi. Planning and optimizing the contest duration
- vii. Choosing and deciding on suitable awards
- viii. Valuable awards, like cars etc.
- ix. Setting the right communication plan to maximize the consumers to be reached

- x. Monetary awards
- xi. Determining the number of people to be rewarded
- xii. Awards that attract children
- xiii. Including references to actual events
- xiv. Including celebrities or influencers
- xv. Considering laws and regulations

According to a study in 2004 by Trio in Turkey, the participation rate in such contests has been quite low. 81% of the consumers in the study stated that they do not participate. The reason behind this is the lack of trust and confidence in the companies or that they consider themselves unlucky in such activities.

3.2.2.7 In-store demonstrations

In-store demonstrations are introducing the product and its use to the consumer in retail stores. Producers organize such demonstrations to increase purchases by enabling consumers to try or experience their products. This method is not very common because of its high costs, however it is considered to be quite effective to draw attention (Öztürk 1993, p 64). This method is popular on sites with a high rate of consumer traffic like supermarkets or large stores. Especially in cosmetics sector, in-store make-up or skin-care demonstrations are very effective for consumer attention.

There are three types of in-store demonstrations, which are:

Live Demonstrations: This method is highly effective especially for new products, since consumers do not have enough information or experience on the product. Also the consumers can ask questions about the product and get answers instantly in these demonstrations. It is very effective to encourage customers make a purchasing decision.

Moving Demonstrations: The promoter walks around the store to introduce the product to the consumer in this method.

Still Demonstrations: The product is presented in a specific location. In this method, consumers must be familiar with the product.

In-store demonstrations have some major advantages as listed below (Korkmaz 1995, p 51-52):

- i. In-store demonstrations focus on the purchasing behavior reminding the consumers their advertising and messages.
- ii. In-store demonstrations aim the right consumer group at the right place at the right time unlike other methods. Consumers tend to visit the most suitable stores to their economic strength and buying power, so demonstrations at these stores can speed up consumer's purchasing decision and usually result in a greater success.
- iii. A well-designed presentation of the product is very effective in attracting the consumer whose intention is already to buy the product.
- iv. In-store demonstrations are very helpful to introduce and emphasize the uses and benefits of the product much more quickly. This leads to speed up the purchasing decision.
- v. In-store demonstrations of products like food and cosmetics often attract or remind the consumer to buy the product.

The stores are designed to have the perfect atmosphere to create and encourage the purchasing decision of the consumer (Kumar & Karande 2000, p 168).

3.2.3 Dealer Oriented Sales Promotion Activities

Businesses get benefit from sales promotions for their intermediaries as well as for final consumers. Producer enterprises have significant sales promotion spending for retailers and wholesaler vehicle businesses. This application aims at ensuring that vehicle owners undertake and maintain the distribution of a particular brand, allocate shelf space to it, present new goods, keep inventory level high, undertake to hold advertising, pricing discounts, defend brands against competitors (Bearden 2006, p 441-442).

Sales promotional activities for dealers are expenditures used by producers or other members of the marketing channel to push through the product distribution channel. Sales promotion activities for intermediary institutions include retailers, wholesalers and distributors. In this way, producers can convince other members of the channel to carry their products. Wholesalers and distributors can use these activities to encourage retailers to purchase products (Clow 2004, p 307).

There are many reasons behind the above-mentioned basic objectives of the brokerage activities for intermediaries (Clow 2004, p 325). These objectives are listed below.

- i. Priority in distribution,
- ii. To increase the number of retailers on the shelves,
- iii. To ensure the acceptance of brand,
- iv. To respond to the activities of the competitors,
- v. Increasing order quantity,
- vi. To increase retailer stocks,
- vii. To dissolve excess stocks,
- viii. To develop relationships in the channel,
- ix. Introducing new products (Pickton and Broderick, 2001, 538),
- x. Motivating agents to act,
- xi. To collect consumer information in the database.

There are too many ways to do dealer oriented sales promotion activities which are commercial discounts, commercial demonstrations, joint advertising discounts, commercial contests, commercial incentives and deal meetings.

3.2.4 Sales Force / Sales Team Oriented Sales Promotion Activities

Increasing of the distance between producers and consumers, consumer demand and expectation, competition in the market due to the proliferation of substitute products, the number of consumers increasing in revenue increase, intermediary institutions and distribution channels, retailers and establishment of distribution chains It is developments

that force. Businesses focus on the competitiveness and sustainability advantage of the business by developing and maintaining close proximity.

Businesses create value by differentiating their activities towards products and lowering their costs. Salespeople play a key role in the creation of long-term buyer-seller relationships (Gürbüz and Erdoğan 2007). The salesperson has a critical prescription in the relationship between the customer and the business and in persuading the customer. Some businesses want their sales staff to spend a large part of their time on existing customers and to spend a small part on searching for new customers (İslamoğlu 1999). For this reason, businesses conduct sales promotional activities to motivate their own salespeople and to make them work more efficiently (Mucuk 2001, p 209). We can list the sales promotion activities of the operator for their own sales force as follows:

- i. Promotion
- ii. Bonuses
- iii. Appreciation
- iv. Competitions
- v. Training Programs

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Today, sales promotion activities have become an important tool of marketing communication mix. Such activities can be used either as the main tool, or as they are used to support and complement other marketing communication activities. The shares they allocate for sales promotion activities on their marketing communications budgets are reaching incredible proportions.

4.1 PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

In many countries, the influence of sales promotion activities on consumers' behavioral responses has been addressed in various dimensions. However, it is noteworthy that the studies on the behavioral dimension of sales promotion activities in our country are inadequate. It is important that there is a research in this function in the continuously growing out-of-home consumption channels, especially considering the increase in the number of working people and other factors such as urbanization. This research examines the consumers' behavioral responses to the sales promotion activities in fast-food restaurants.

As a result of the research, fast food restaurants will be determined according to the demographic characteristics of the effects of sales strategies on consumers, the combo menus and pricing of beverages will be evaluated by observation of effects on the sales volume.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

In order to determine the research model, sales promotions and other factors affecting consumers' purchasing decisions and brand choices were examined by a literature search. First prior studies conducted in the past were examined, then results and findings shaped the progress of the project. Internal research conducted in a fast moving consumer goods company has helped to shape these research questions. Various hypotheses were

stated according to this model afterwards, and then tested using the information obtained from the prepared questionnaire.

In the first part of the study, selected 3 focus groups consisting of 4 students and 4 working people between the ages of 15 and 50. Answers of focus groups form the questionnaire used in the research.

4.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

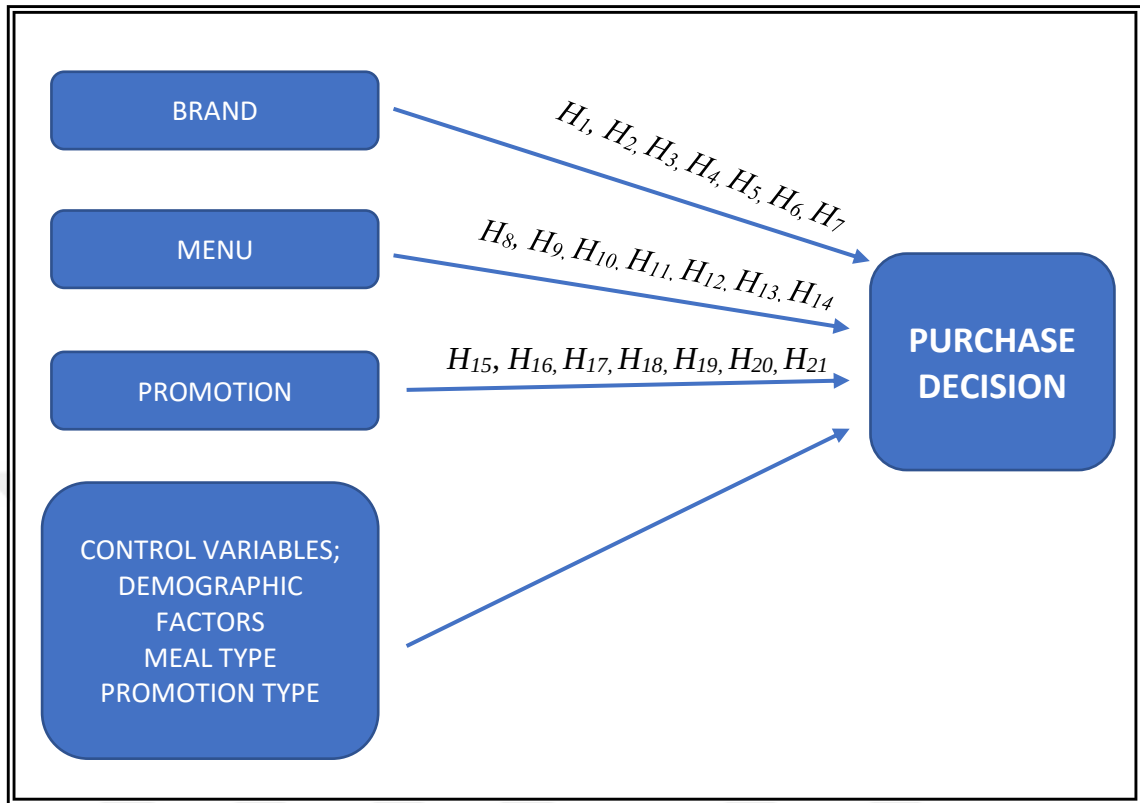
This research aims to analyze what affects consumer on their purchase decisions in fast-food restaurants. Consequently, research questions are as follows:

- i. Does brand of the drink have an impact on consumer purchase decision?
- ii. Can menu option change consumer decision?
- iii. What are the effects of promotions in consumers purchase decision?
- iv. Are there any relations between consumers' demographic features and the answers of above questions?

4.4 RESEARCH MODEL

Considering the findings obtained during the literature review and descriptive research performed to determine factors affecting consumers' purchase decision, model shown in Figure 4.1 has been developed.

Figure 4.1: Proposed model



4.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Considering the proposed model that is suggested as a result of the literature review, hypotheses listed in Table 4.1 have been proposed.

Table 4.1: Proposed hypotheses

<i>Hypothesis 1</i> ----- <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's income
<i>Hypothesis 2</i> ----- <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's age

<i>Hypothesis 3</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation
<i>Hypothesis 4</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to meal type
<i>Hypothesis 5</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to meal spend
<i>Hypothesis 6</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to promotion type
<i>Hypothesis 7</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to gender
<i>Hypothesis 8</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's income
<i>Hypothesis 9</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's age
<i>Hypothesis 10</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation
<i>Hypothesis 11</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to meal type
<i>Hypothesis 12</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to meal spend
<i>Hypothesis 13</i> == ~ ~ ~ == <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to promotion type

<i>Hypothesis 14</i> ===== <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to gender
<i>Hypothesis 15</i> ===== <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's income
<i>Hypothesis 16</i> ===== <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's age
<i>Hypothesis 17</i> ===== <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation
<i>Hypothesis 18</i> ===== <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to meal type
<i>Hypothesis 19</i> ===== <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to meal spend
<i>Hypothesis 20</i> ===== <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to promotion type
<i>Hypothesis 21</i> ===== <i>H₁</i>: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to gender

4.6 STATISTICAL METHODS USED FOR DATA ANALYSIS

Factor analysis, Independent samples t-test, and ANOVA test are used to test proposed hypotheses. Factor analysis is a method that analyzes the relations between different variables by looking at their covariance structure. It simplifies the data by explaining the variables that measure the same structure with fewer numbers of factors. Factor analysis is used to cluster variables indicating the same structure.

Independent samples t-test is used to analyze the statistical importance of variables with two different categories. On the other hand, ANOVA test is used for variables with more than two categories. In addition to the number categories variables have, ANOVA test and t-test differ from each other with regard to the form of answers. Whereas interval scales is used for the questions analyzed by t-test, in one-way ANOVA test, questions for the dependent variables can provide answers in either interval or ratio scale, and for independent variables, answer can be in nominal or ordinal scale. Nominal scales do not provide any quantitative information, they just label the variables. In our model, the answers of gender, occupation, meal type and promotion type are in the form of nominal scale.

Ordinal scales provide information about the order of choices but not the quantitative difference between them. Interval scales give information about both the order and exact differences between choices. However, they do not allow to calculate ratios between choices. When all the order, exact difference and the ratios between choices are required, ratio scales are used. Since the only variable with two categories in our research is gender, we use t-test to show whether or not gender has an affect on purchase decision. To demonstrate the relations between other variables in the proposed method, one-way ANOVA test is used.

4.7 ANALYSIS OF COLLECTED DATA

This section explains the features of collected data.

Table 4.2: Distribution of data

Factors	Details	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	182	47,89
	Male	198	52,11
Age	15-18	34	8,94
	19-24	64	16,84
	25-34	138	36,32
	35-44	99	26,05
	45-50	45	11,85

Educational Status	Primary School	26	6,84
	High School	150	39,47
	Associate Degree / Bachelor's Degree	192	50,52
	Master's Degree	12	3,17
Income Per Month	<1000	64	16,85
	1000-2499	155	40,79
	2500-3999	110	28,94
	>4000	51	13,42
Occupational Group	Student	97	25,53
	Working	254	66,85
	Retired	12	3,15
	Unemployed / Housewife	17	4,47
Marital Status	Married	155	40,79
	Single	218	57,37
	Divorcee/ Widow(er)	7	1,84
Frequency of Dining Out	Once in two weeks	20	5,26
	One	60	15,79
	Two	150	39,47
	Three	70	18,42
	More Than Three	80	21,06
Meal Expenditures	<10	51	13
	10-19	124	33
	20-29	147	39
	>30	58	15
Type of Meal	Breakfast	76	20
	Lunch	186	49
	Dinner	118	31

Total 380 participants who participated in the survey, 182 were female and 198 were male. The female ratio is 47.9% and the male ratio is 52.1%. The female and male participants are almost the same ratio.

In this research, the age of participants was asked with open-ended questions. Although the restriction was 15-50 years. At the end of the survey the ages are grouped, for simplify the research. 8.94% participants belong to 15-18 years old, 11.85% participants belong to 45-50 years old, 16.84% participants belong to 19-24 years old, 26.05% participants belong to 35-44 years old and 36.22% participants belong to 25-34 years old. As it seems

most of the participant are about 19-45 years old in this survey. The average age is 31.

As it seen in the Table 4.2, vast majority of attendees are at associate / graduate level with 50.52%. 6.84% had primary school education, 39.47% had high school education and 3.17% had master degree education.

Income level is one of the most important criteria of this research. Compared to the income level of the consumers, it is the basic building block of the criteria of the restaurant, food and beverage selection and the expenditures they make at the point. 40.79% participants belong to an income group between TRY 1000-2499, 28.94% participants belong to an income group between TRY 2500-3999, 16.85% participants belong to an income group between TRY 0-1000, 13.42% participants belong to an income group TRY 4000 above. Income status of the majority of participants was at associate TRY 1000-3999.

The occupational status of the participants is, 25.53% student, 66.85% working (state & private sector), 3.15% are retired and 4.47% unemployed or housewife. Most of the participants were employed. When the data on the marital status of the participants were examined, it was seen that 57.37% were married and 40.79% were single. Only 1.84% of participants are divorced / widow(er).

The biggest part of participants eating out two times a week. (39.47%), 18.42% eats three times a week, 21.06% eats once in two weeks, 15.79% eats once a week and 5.26% eats more than three times in a week. The average number of eating outside is 2.37 days per week.

According to the results of this question, spending's between TRY 10-29 has a great ratio of 72%. 39% of participant spend TRY 20-29, 33% of participant spend TRY 10-19, 15% of participant spend more than TRY 30 and 13% of participant spend less than TRY 10. The average of spending's for a meal is TRY 17.09.

A huge percentage of participant go fast food restaurant for lunch (49%), 31% go for dinner and 20% go for breakfast.

4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

This section provides the results of statistical analysis and tests of proposed hypotheses.

4.8.1 Factor Analysis

Before reducing the number of variables into fewer factors, reliability analysis is performed. To test the reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Barlett sphericity tests are used. Cronbach's Alpha test demonstrates the internal consistency between variables

and alpha values that are greater than or equal to 0.7 are taken as acceptable. The acceptable lower limit for KMO value is 0.5. These tests are applied the 3 options under questions about promotion, 4 options under questions about brand and 3 options under questions about menu. Results are provided in Table 4.3, Table 4.5 and Table 4.4.

Table 4.3: Factor analysis results for promotion

Questions	Factor's weights	Reliability
I choose only the options with promotion.	0.76	0.82
Promotion options can affect my decisions	0.74	
I decide what to eat or drink before going to the restaurant. My decision does not change according to promotions.	0.75	
KMO Scale Validity		0.72
Barlett Sphericity Test	Chi-Square	398.26
	DoF	3

Considering the results shown in the Table 4.3., variables for the effect of promotion are reduced to one factor. Average of the questions in the table is used to test Hypothesis 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20 and 21.

Table 4.4: Factor analysis results for menu

Questions	Factor's weights	Reliability
I purchase a drink if it is offered as menu.	0.79	0.86
I look at menu options before giving the order.	0.84	
I decide my drink choice before looking at menu options.	0.78	
KMO Scale Validity		0.73
Barlett Sphericity Test	Chi-Square	527.81
	DoF	3
	p Value	0.00

Considering the results shown in the Table 4.4., variables for the effect of menu are reduced to one factor. Average of the questions in the table is used to test Hypothesis 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14.

Table 4.5: Factor analysis results for brand

Questions	Factor's weights	Reliability
If I could not find the brand I want, I did not purchase a drink.	0.79 0.71 0.74	0.79
I have several favorite brands. I purchase a drink if at least one of them is offered in the restaurant.		
I do not decide my drink choice before going the restaurant. I choose among restaurant offerings.		
Type of drink is more important than the brand for my drink choice.		
KMO Scale Validity		0.78
Barlett Sphericity Test	Chi-Square	433.57
	DoF	6
	p Value	0.00

Considering the results shown in the Table 4.5., variables for the effect of brand are reduced to one factor. Average of the questions in the table is used to test Hypothesis 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7.

4.8.2 Testing Proposed Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's income are shown in Table 4.6.

H0: The effect of the brand on buying decision does not change according to consumer's income

H1: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's income

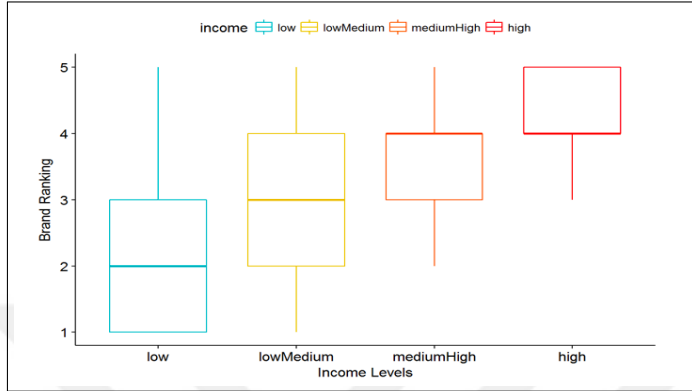
Table 4.6: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 1

Dependent Variable: Brand					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	169.702	56.567	52.799	0.000
Within Groups	376	402.835	1.071		
Total	379	572.537			
Multiple Comparisons					
Income groups	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
lowMedium-low	0.332	0.154	0.137	-0.065	0.729
mediumHigh-low	1.364	0.163	0.000	0.944	1.784
high-low	1.884	0.194	0.000	1.383	2.385
mediumHigh-lowMedium	1.032	0.129	0.000	0.699	1.365
high-lowMedium	1.552	0.167	0.000	1.121	1.983
high-mediumHigh	0.52	0.175	0.017	0.067	0.972

Since $p \text{ value} < 0.05$, H_0 would be rejected. The effect of brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's income. Multiple comparisons show that consumers whose income in medium-high or high class give more importance to brand than the ones whose income in low or low-medium class. This can also be observed from

Figure 4.2. Figure 4.2 is a box plot which is used to analyze different groups of data through their quartiles.

Figure 4.2: Box plot for income levels and brand rankings



Hypothesis 2

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's age are shown in Table 4.7.

H_0 : The effect of the brand on buying decision does not change according to consumer's age

H_1 : The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's age

Figure 4.3: Box plot for age groups and brand rankings

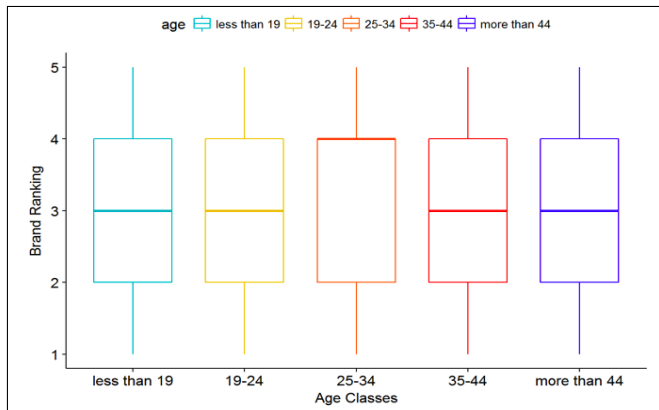


Table 4.7: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 2

Dependent Variable: Brand					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	4	10.849	2.712	1.811	0.126
Within Groups	375	561.688	1.498		
Total	379	572.537			
Multiple Comparisons					
Age groups	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
(less than 19) - (19-24)	-0.043	0.26	1.000	-0.755	0.669
(less than 19) - (25-34)	-0.421	0.234	0.377	-1.063	0.221
(35-44) - (less than 19)	0.261	0.243	0.821	-0.406	0.928
(25-34) - (19-24)	0.378	0.185	0.248	-0.129	0.885
(35-44) - (19-24)	0.218	0.196	0.802	-0.320	0.756
(more than 44) - (19-24)	-0.007	0.238	1.000	-0.659	0.646
(35-44) - (25-34)	-0.16	0.161	0.858	-0.602	0.282
(more than 44) - (25-34)	-0.385	0.21	0.358	-0.96	0.191
(more than 44) - (less than 19)	0.037	0.278	1.000	-0.726	0.799
(more than 44) - (35-44)	-0.224	0.22	0.846	-0.827	0.379

As p value exceeds the significance level (0.05), there is no enough evidence to reject H_0 at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. It can be seen in multiple comparisons and Figure 4.3, average differences between five categories are not significant, which have a consistency with the main result. It is deduced that there is no sufficient evidence to state that consumer's age changes the effect of the brand on buying decision.

Hypothesis 3

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation are shown in Table 4.8.

H_0 : The effect of the brand on buying decision does not change according to consumer's occupation

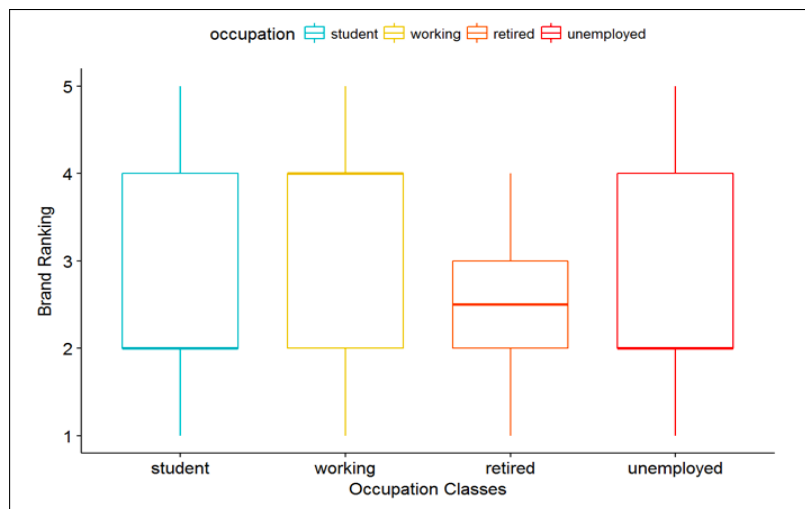
H_1 : The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation

Table 4.8: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 3

Dependent Variable: Brand					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	39.661	13.220	9.328	0.000
Within Groups	376	532.876	1.417		
Total	379	572.537			
Multiple Comparisons					
Occupation groups	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
working-student	0.645	0.142	0.000	0.278	1.012
retired-student	-0.336	0.364	0.793	-1.276	0.604
unemployed-student	0.012	0.313	1.000	-0.796	0.82
retired-working	-0.981	0.352	0.028	-1.889	-0.073
unemployed-working	-0.633	0.298	0.148	-1.403	0.137
unemployed-retired	0.348	0.449	0.866	-0.81	1.506

H_0 would be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ because p value is lower than the alpha value. As can be seen in multiple comparisons and Figure 4.4, consumers in working group are affected by brand more than the ones in retired or student group.

Figure 4.4: Box plot for occupation groups and brand rankings



Hypothesis 4

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to meal type are shown in Table 4.9.

H_0 : The effect of the brand on buying decision does not change according to meal type

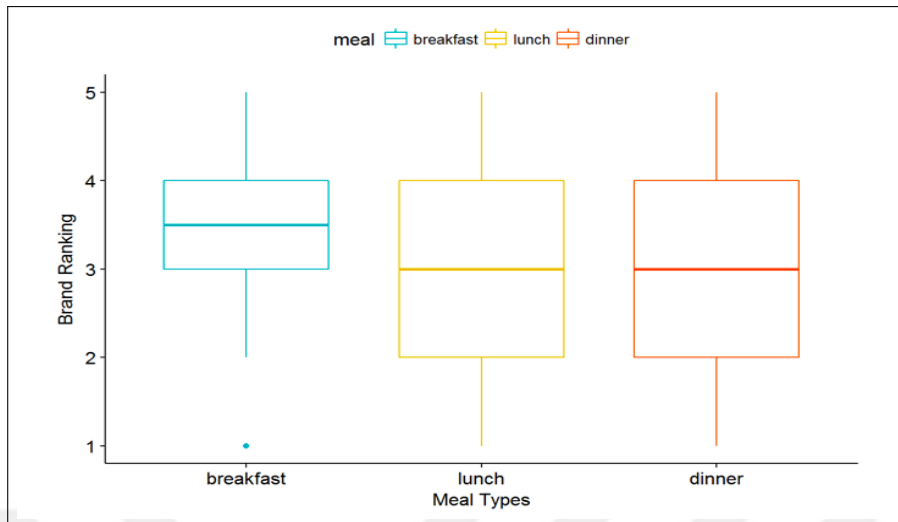
H_1 : The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to meal type

Table 4.9: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 4

Dependent Variable: Brand					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	2	2.891	1.446	0.957	0.385
Within Groups	377	569.646	1.511		
Total	379	572.537			
Multiple Comparisons					
Meal types	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
lunch-breakfast	-0.003	0.201	1.000	-0.475	0.47
dinner-breakfast	-0.186	0.211	0.652	-0.681	0.31
dinner-lunch	-0.183	0.138	0.380	-0.507	0.141

Since p value is greater than the significance level (0.05), H_0 would not be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. Evidence is not sufficient to determine whether or not meal type changes the effect of the brand on buying decision. Insignificance in average differences between three meal types which can be seen in multiple comparison analysis and Figure 4.5 supports that null hypothesis would not be rejected.

Figure 4.5: Box plot for meal types and brand rankings



Hypothesis 5

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to meal spend are shown in Table 4.10.

H_0 : The effect of the brand on buying decision does not change according to meal spend

H_1 : The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to meal spend

Figure 4.6: Box plot for meal spend and brand rankings

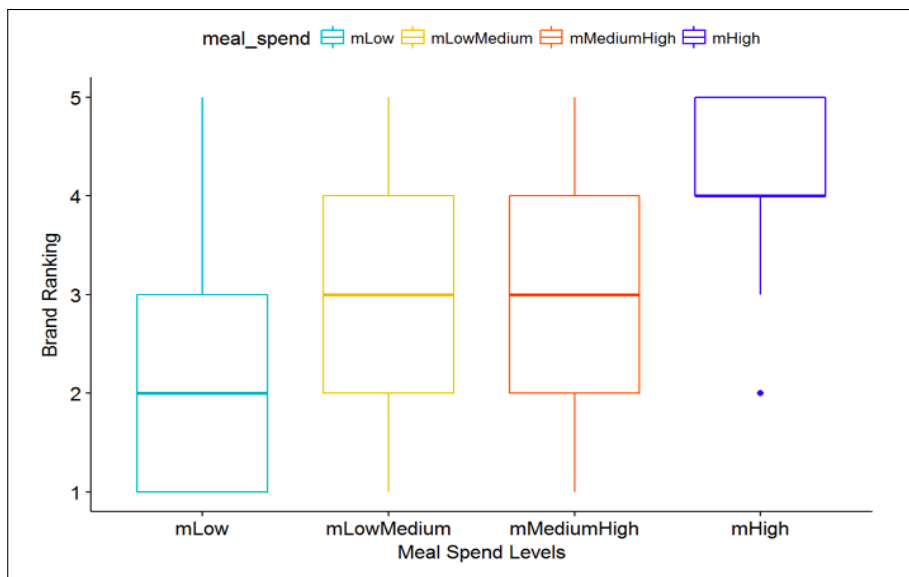


Table 4.10: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 5

Dependent Variable: Brand					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	74.882	24.961	18.859	0.000
Within Groups	376	497.655	1.324		
Total	379	572.537			
Multiple Comparisons					
Meal spend levels	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
mLowMedium-mLow	0.513	0.191	0.038	0.019	1.007
mMediumHigh-mLow	0.761	0.187	0.000	0.278	1.243
mHigh-mLow	1.581	0.221	0.000	1.011	2.151
mMediumHigh-mLowMedium	0.247	0.14	0.293	-0.115	0.609
mHigh-mLowMedium	1.068	0.183	0.000	0.596	1.54
mHigh-mMediumHigh	0.82	0.178	0.000	0.36	1.281

Since $p \text{ value} < 0.05$, H_0 would be rejected. The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to meal spend. Multiple comparisons and Figure 4.6 demonstrate that brand is more important in purchase decision for consumers whose meal spend in high level than the ones whose meal spend in medium-high, low-medium or low level. In addition, it can be said that consumers whose meal spend in medium-high or low-medium level are affected by brand more than the ones whose meal spend in low level.

Hypothesis 6

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to promotion type are shown in Table 4.11.

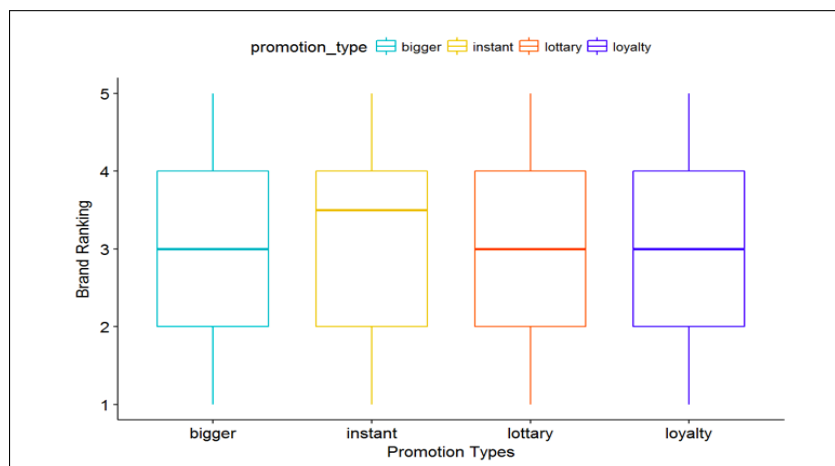
H_0 : The effect of the brand on buying decision does not change according to promotion type

H_1 : The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to promotion type

Table 4.11: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 6

Dependent Variable: Brand					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	3.182	1.061	0.700	0.552
Within Groups	376	569.355	1.514		
Total	379	572.537			
Multiple Comparisons					
Promotion types	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
instant-bigger	0.142	0.154	0.792	-0.255	0.538
lottary-bigger	-0.026	0.208	0.999	-0.563	0.510
loyalty-bigger	-0.115	0.176	0.914	-0.570	0.339
lottary-instant	-0.168	0.215	0.863	-0.722	0.387
loyalty-instant	-0.257	0.184	0.504	-0.733	0.219
loyalty-lottary	-0.089	0.232	0.980	-0.687	0.508

H_0 would not be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, as p value exceeds the α value. There is no enough evidence to deduce that whether or not the effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to promotion type as supported by the result of multiple comparisons analysis and Figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7: Box plot for promotion types and brand rankings

Hypothesis 7

Results of independent samples t-test applied to test whether or not the effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to gender are shown in Table 4.12.

H_0 : The effect of the brand on buying decision does not change according to gender

H_1 : The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to gender

Table 4.12: Independent samples t-test for hypothesis 7

Gender	Average difference	St. deviation	t value	p value	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower limit	Upper limit
male-female	-0.088	0.126	-0.700	0.484	-0.337	0.16

P value is greater than the significance level so H_0 would not be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. Evidences are not sufficient to state whether or not gender is an influencing factor of the effect of brand on buying decision.

Hypothesis 8

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's income are shown in Table 4.13.

H_0 : The effect of the menu on buying decision does not change according to consumer's income

H_1 : The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's income

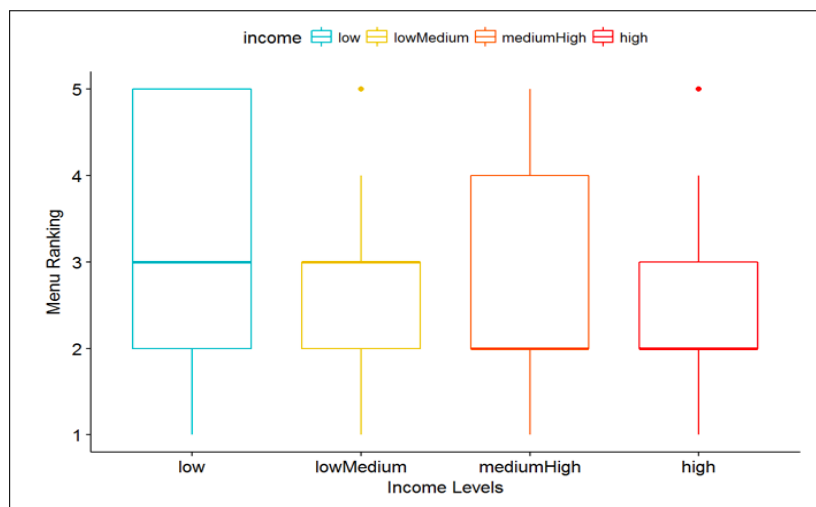
Table 4.13: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 8

Dependent Variable: Menu					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	26.586	8.862	5.614	0.001
Within Groups	376	593.569	1.579		
Total	379	620.155			

Multiple Comparisons					
Income groups	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
lowMedium-low	-0.666	0.187	0.002	-1.148	-0.185
mediumHigh-low	-0.68	0.198	0.004	-1.19	-0.17
high-low	-0.814	0.236	0.003	-1.423	-0.206
mediumHigh-lowMedium	-0.014	0.157	1.000	-0.418	0.39
high-lowMedium	-0.148	0.203	0.885	-0.671	0.375
high-mediumHigh	-0.134	0.213	0.922	-0.683	0.415

P value is lower than the significance level so H_0 would be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. Consumers' income is an influencing factor of the effect of menu on buying decision. As multiple comparison and Figure 4.8 show, consumers whose income levels are in high, medium-high or low-medium class are affected by menu less than the consumers whose income levels are in low class.

Figure 4.8: Box plot for income levels and menu rankings



Hypothesis 9

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's age are shown in Table 4.14.

H_0 : The effect of the menu on buying decision does not change according to consumer's age

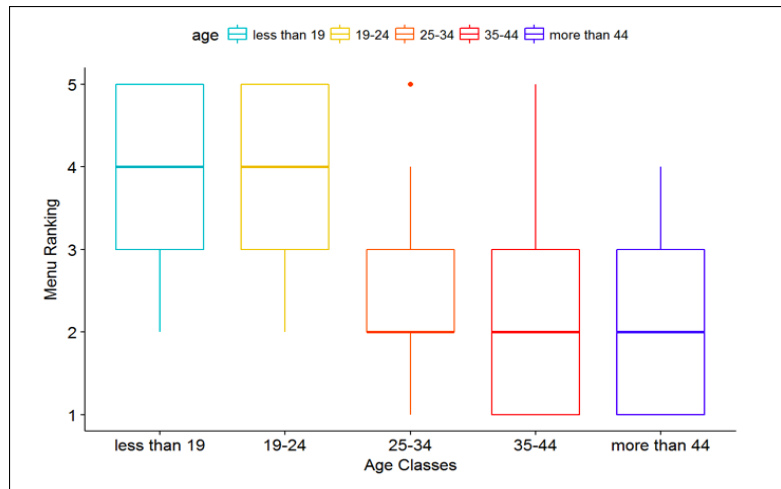
H_1 : The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's age

Table 4.14: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 9

Dependent Variable: Menu					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	4	186.458	46.614	40.306	0.000
Within Groups	375	433.698	1.157		
Total	379	620.155			
Multiple Comparisons					
Age groups	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
(less than 19) - (19-24)	-0.055	0.228	0.999	-0.681	0.57
(less than 19) - (25-34)	1.317	0.206	0.000	0.753	1.882
(35-44) - (less than 19)	-1.731	0.214	0.000	-2.317	-1.145
(25-34) - (19-24)	-1.372	0.163	0.000	-1.818	-0.926
(35-44) - (19-24)	-1.786	0.172	0.000	-2.259	-1.313
(more than 44) - (19-24)	-1.715	0.209	0.000	-2.289	-1.142
(35-44) - (25-34)	-0.414	0.142	0.03	-0.802	-0.025
(more than 44) - (25-34)	-0.343	0.185	0.342	-0.849	0.163
(more than 44) - (less than 19)	-1.66	0.244	0.000	-2.33	-0.99
(more than 44) - (35-44)	0.071	0.193	0.996	-0.459	0.601

As p value is lower than the significance level, H_0 would be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. It states that the effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's age. Which age groups have a significant difference can be seen in multiple comparisons analysis and Figure 4.9.

Figure 4.9: Box plot for age classes and menu rankings



Hypothesis 10

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation are shown in Table 4.15.

H_0 : The effect of the menu on buying decision does not change according to consumer's occupation

H_1 : The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation

Figure 4.10: Box plot for consumer's occupation and menu rankings

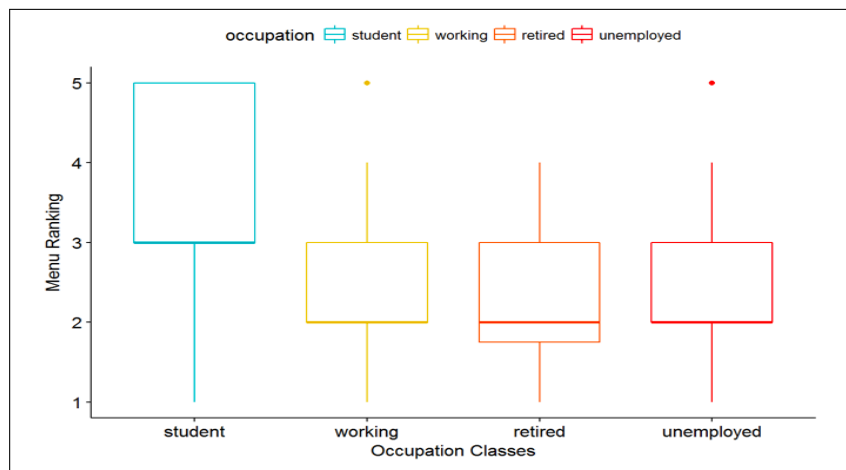


Table 4.15: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 10

Dependent Variable: Menu					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	97.786	32.595	23.462	0.000
Within Groups	376	522.369	1.389		
Total	379	620.155			
Multiple Comparisons					
Occupation groups	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
working-student	-1.164	0.141	0.000	-1.527	-0.801
retired-student	-1.296	0.361	0.002	-2.226	-0.365
unemployed-student	-0.982	0.31	0.009	-1.782	-0.182
retired-working	-0.131	0.348	0.982	-1.03	0.767
(unemployed-working	0.182	0.295	0.926	-0.58	0.944
unemployed-retired	0.314	0.444	0.895	-0.833	1.461

Since p value is lower than the significance level, H_0 would be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation. It can be concluded that menu affects students purchase decision more than any other groups that can be observed in multiple comparisons analysis and Figure 4.10.

Hypothesis 11

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to meal type are shown in Table 4.16.

H_0 : The effect of the menu on buying decision does not change according to meal type

H_1 : The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to meal type

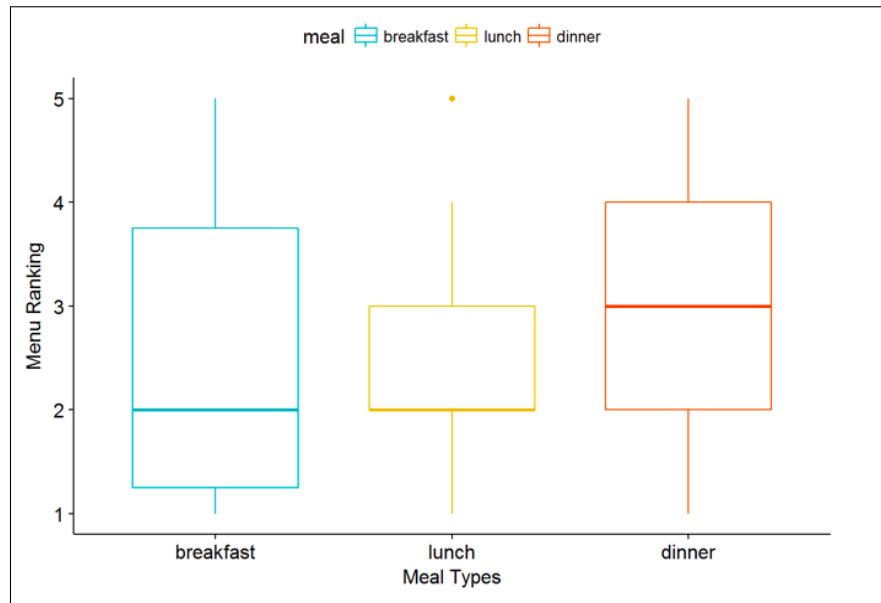
Table 4.16: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 11

Dependent Variable: Menu					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	2	19.282	9.641	6.049	0.003
Within Groups	377	600.873	1.594		
Total	379	620.155			

Multiple Comparisons					
Meal Types	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
lunch-breakfast	-0.008	0.206	0.999	-0.493	0.477
dinner-breakfast	0.468	0.216	0.079	-0.041	0.977
dinner-lunch	0.475	0.141	0.002	0.142	0.808

H_0 would be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ because p value is lower than the significance level. The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to meal type. Multiple comparison analysis and Figure 4.11 show that consumers are affected by menu more in their dinner decision than in lunch.

Figure 4.11: Box plot for meal types and menu rankings



Hypothesis 12

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to meal spend are shown in Table 4.17.

H_0 : The effect of the menu on buying decision does not change according to meal spend

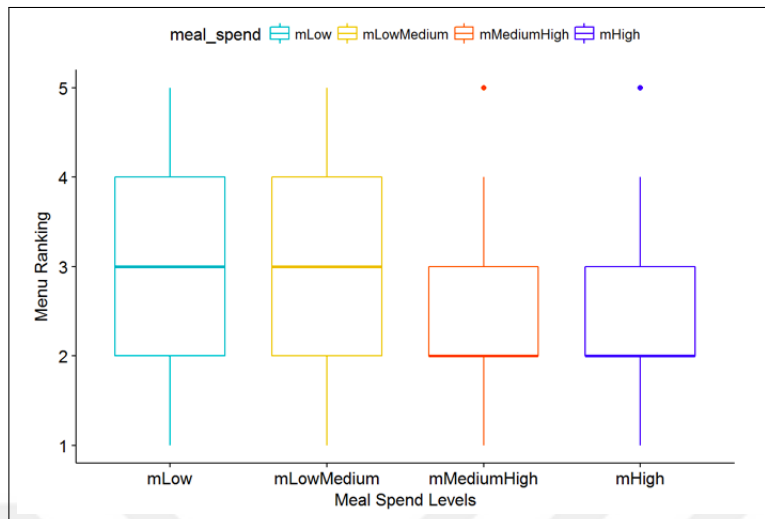
H_1 : The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to meal spend

Table 4.17: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 12

Dependent Variable: Menu					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	36.910	12.303	7.932	0.000
Within Groups	376	583.245	1.551		
Total	379	620.155			
Multiple Comparisons					
Meal spend levels	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
mLowMedium-mLow	-0.021	0.207	1.000	-0.556	0.514
mMediumHigh-mLow	-0.648	0.202	0.008	-1.171	-0.126
mHigh-mLow	-0.618	0.239	0.05	-1.235	-0.001
mMediumHigh-mLowMedium	-0.627	0.152	0.000	-1.019	-0.236
mHigh-mLowMedium	-0.597	0.198	0.015	-1.108	-0.085
mHigh-mMediumHigh	0.031	0.193	0.999	-0.468	0.529

As p value is lower than the significance level, H_0 would be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. Consumer meal spend changes the effect of menu on buying decision. Its effect is observed more in consumers whose meal spend is in low or low-medium level than the ones whose meal spend is in medium-high or high level.

Figure 4.12: Box plot for meal spend levels and menu rankings



Hypothesis 13

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to promotion type are shown in Table 4.18.

H_0 : The effect of the menu on buying decision does not change according to promotion type

H_1 : The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to promotion type

Figure 4.13: Box plot for promotion types and menu rankings

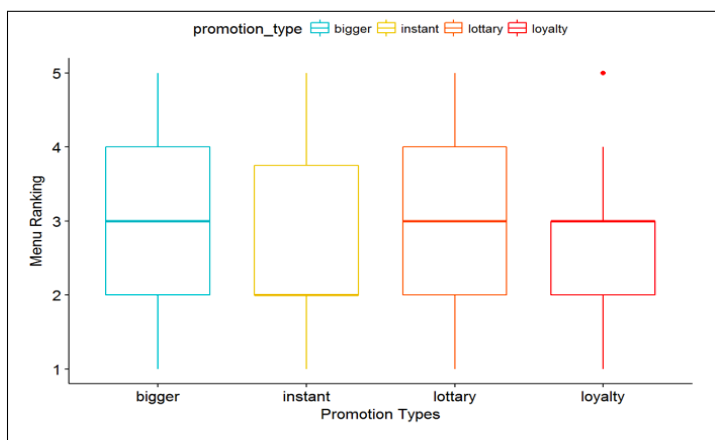


Table 4.18: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 13

Dependent Variable: Menu					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	1.788	0.596	0.362	0.78
Within Groups	376	618.367	1.645		
Total	379	620.155			
Multiple Comparisons					
Promotion types	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
instant-bigger	-0.161	0.16	0.745	-0.574	0.252
lottary-bigger	-0.032	0.217	0.999	-0.591	0.527
loyalty-bigger	-0.097	0.184	0.952	-0.571	0.377
lottary-instant	0.129	0.224	0.939	-0.449	0.707
loyalty-instant	0.064	0.192	0.987	-0.432	0.56
loyalty-lottary	-0.065	0.241	0.993	-0.688	0.558

P value is greater than the significance level so H_0 would not be rejected at significance level

$\alpha = 0.05$. Evidences are not sufficient to state whether or not promotion type is an influencing factor of the effect of menu on buying decision. It is also supported by the results of multiple comparisons and Figure 4.13 because there is no such promotion types that diverges from each other significantly.

Hypothesis 14

Results of independent samples t-test applied to test whether or not the effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to gender are shown in Table 4.19.

H_0 : The effect of the menu on buying decision does not change according to gender

H_1 : The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to gender

Table 4.19: Independent samples t-test for hypothesis 14

Gender	Average difference	St. deviation	t value	p value	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower limit	Upper limit
male-female	-0.017	0.132	-0.13	0.896	-0.276	0.241

As p value exceeds the significance level, H_0 would not be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. There is no enough evidence to state whether or not the effect of menu on buying decision changes according to gender.

Hypothesis 15

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's income are shown in Table 4.20.

H_0 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision does not change according to consumer's income

H_1 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's income

Figure 4.14: Box plot for consumer's income and promotion rankings

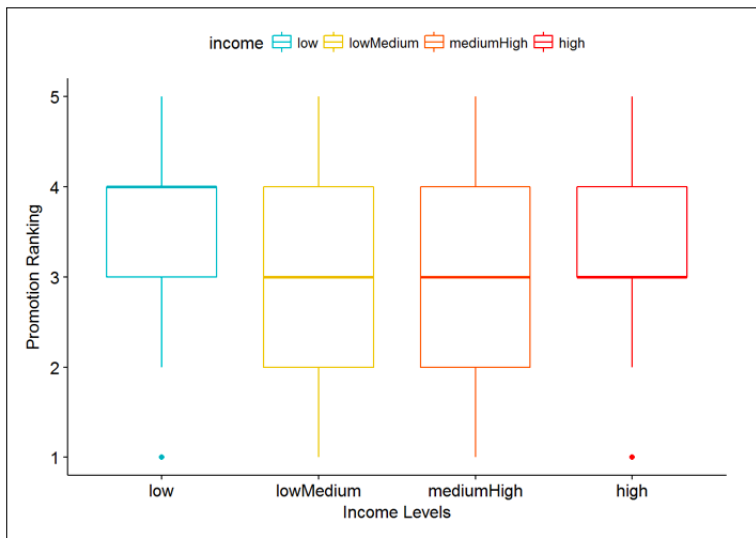


Table 4.20: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 15

Dependent Variable: Promotion					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	7.745	2.582	1.807	0.145
Within Groups	376	537.126	1.429		
Total	379	544.871			
Multiple Comparisons					
Income levels	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
lowMedium-low	-0.372	0.178	0.157	-0.83	0.086
mediumHigh-low	-0.296	0.188	0.394	-0.781	0.189
high-low	-0.096	0.224	0.974	-0.675	0.483
mediumHigh-lowMedium	0.076	0.149	0.957	-0.309	0.46
high-lowMedium	0.276	0.193	0.482	-0.222	0.774
high-mediumHigh	0.2	0.202	0.757	-0.323	0.722

Since p value is greater than the significance level, H_0 would not be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. There is no enough evidence to say whether or not consumers' income changes the effect of promotion on buying decision. It is supported by the results of multiple comparisons and Figure 4.14 since there is no such two groups whose average difference is significant.

Hypothesis 16

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's age are shown in Table 4.21.

H_0 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision does not change according to consumer's age

H_1 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's age

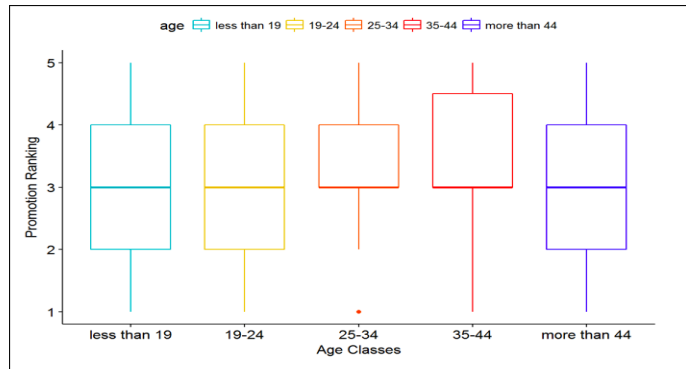
Table 4.21: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 16

Dependent Variable: Promotion					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	4	4.834	1.208	0.839	0.501
Within Groups	375	540.037	1.440		
Total	379	544.871			

Multiple Comparisons					
Age groups	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
(less than 19) - (19-24)	-0.111	0.255	0.992	-0.809	0.587
(less than 19) - (25-34)	-0.217	0.23	0.879	-0.847	0.413
(35-44) - (less than 19)	0.334	0.239	0.627	-0.32	0.988
(25-34) - (19-24)	0.106	0.181	0.978	-0.392	0.603
(35-44) - (19-24)	0.223	0.192	0.775	-0.305	0.751
(more than 44) - (19-24)	-0.074	0.233	0.998	-0.714	0.566
(35-44) - (25-34)	0.117	0.158	0.946	-0.316	0.551
(more than 44) - (25-34)	-0.18	0.206	0.907	-0.744	0.385
(more than 44) - (less than 19)	-0.037	0.273	1.000	-0.71	0.785
(more than 44) - (35-44)	-0.297	0.216	0.643	-0.888	0.294

P value exceeds the significance level so H_0 would not be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. There is no enough evidence to say whether or not what changes the effect of promotion on buying decision includes consumers' age. Besides this, multiple comparisons and Figure 4.15 also show that all differences between age groups are insignificant.

Figure 4.15: Box plot for consumer's age and promotion rankings



Hypothesis 17

H_0 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision does not change according to consumer's occupation

H_1 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test H_0 are shown in Table 4.22.

Figure 4.16: Box plot for consumer's occupation and promotion rankings

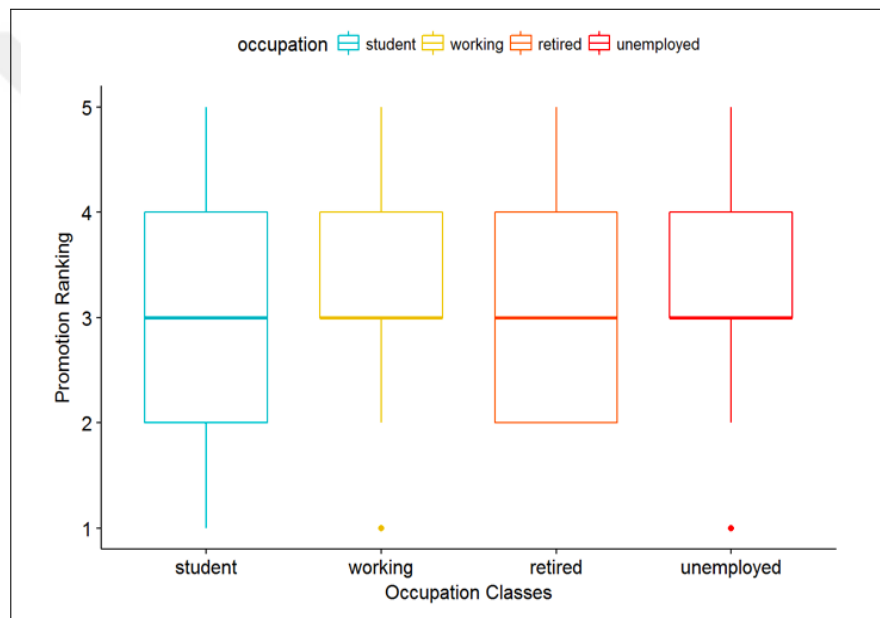


Table 4.22: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 17

Dependent Variable: Promotion					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	0.815	0.272	0.188	0.905
Within Groups	376	544.056	1.447		
Total	379	544.871			
Multiple Comparisons					
Occupation groups	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
working-student	0.082	0.144	0.941	-0.289	0.452
retired-student	0.012	0.368	1.000	-0.938	0.962
unemployed-student	0.198	0.316	0.923	-0.618	1.014
retired-working	-0.07	0.355	0.997	-0.987	0.847
unemployed-working	0.117	0.301	0.98	-0.661	0.894
unemployed-retired	0.186	0.454	0.977	-0.984	1.357

Since p value is greater than the significance level, H_0 would not be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. As a result of this, groups with significant difference do not appear in multiple comparison. Therefore, evidences are not enough to state whether or not the effect of promotion on buying decision changes according to consumers' occupation. Results of multiple comparisons analysis and Figure 4.16 have a consistency with this result.

Hypothesis 18

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to meal type are shown in Table 4.23.

H_0 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision does not change according to meal type

H_1 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to meal type

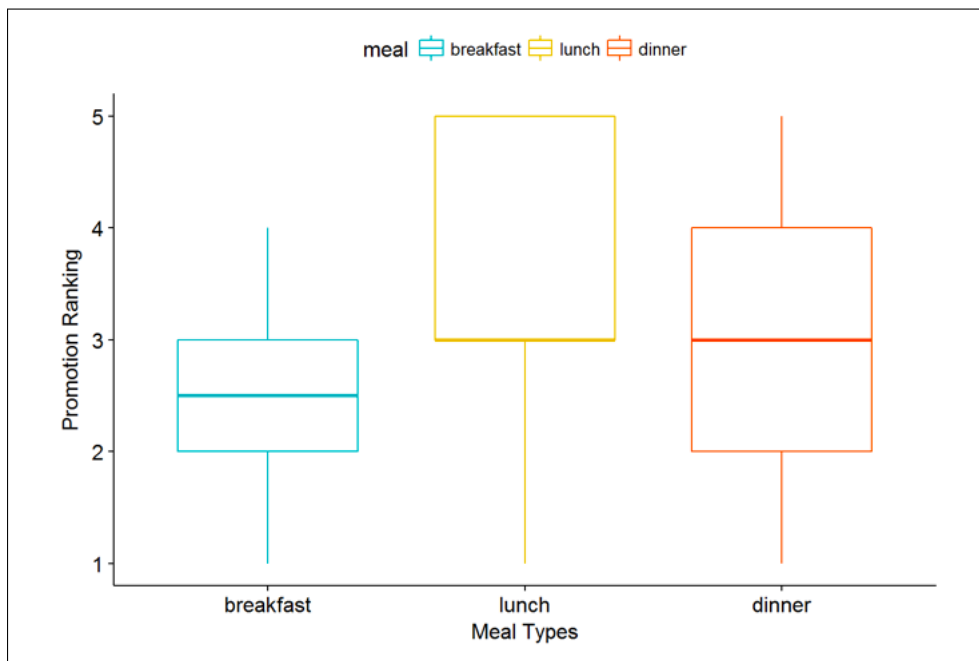
Table 4.23: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 18

Dependent Variable: Promotion					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	2	45.776	22.888	17.289	0.000
Within Groups	377	499.095	1.324		
Total	379	544.871			
Multiple Comparisons					
Meal types	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
lunch-breakfast	0.974	0.188	0.000	0.532	1.416
dinner-breakfast	0.449	0.197	0.060	-0.015	0.913
dinner-lunch	-0.525	0.129	0.000	-0.828	-0.221

As p value is lower than the significance level, H_0 would be rejected at significance level $\alpha =$

0.05. This indicates that the effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to meal type. As multiple comparisons and Figure 4.17 show, consumers are affected by promotion more in their lunch than in breakfast or dinner.

Figure 4.17: Box plot for meal types and promotion rankings



Hypothesis 19

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to meal spend are shown in Table 4.24.

H_0 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision does not change according to meal spend

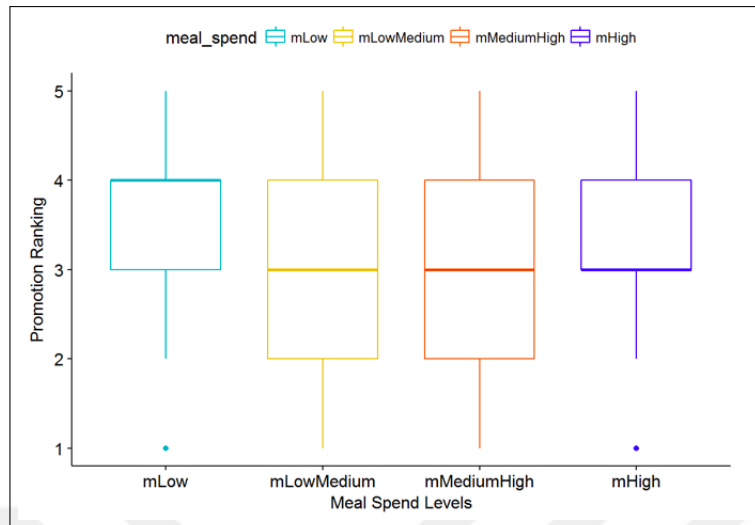
H_1 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to meal spend

Table 4.24: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 19

Dependent Variable: Promoti on					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	5.460	1.820	1.269	0.285
Within Groups	376	539.411	1.435		
Total	379	544.871			
Multiple Comparisons					
Meal spend levels	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
mLowMedium-mLow	-0.306	0.199	0.418	-0.82	0.208
mMediumHigh-mLow	-0.308	0.195	0.39	-0.81	0.194
mHigh-mLow	-0.089	0.23	0.98	-0.682	0.504
mMediumHigh-mLowMedium	-0.002	0.146	1.000	-0.379	0.375
mHigh-mLowMedium	0.217	0.191	0.666	-0.275	0.709
mHigh-mMediumHigh	0.219	0.186	0.64	-0.26	0.698

H_0 would not be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ because p value is greater than the significance level. This indicates that the evidences are not sufficient to say whether or not meal spend is an influencing factor of the effect of promotion on buying decision. Absence of groups with significant difference in multiple comparisons and Figure 4.18 is also the evidence of this.

Figure 4.18: Box plot for meal spend and promotion rankings



Hypothesis 20

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to promotion type are shown in Table 4.25.

H_0 : The effect of promotion on buying decision does not change according to promotion type

H_1 : The effect of promotion on buying decision changes according to promotion type

Figure 4.19: Box plot for promotion type and promotion rankings

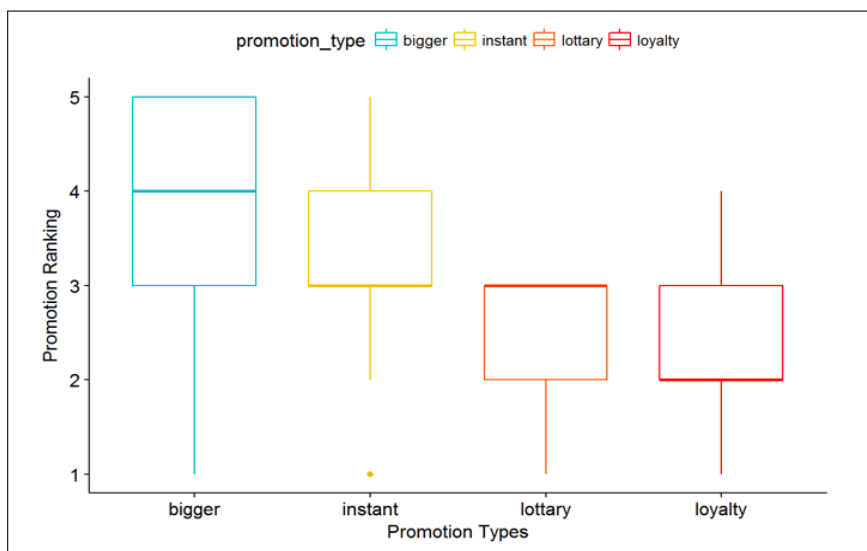


Table 4.25: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypothesis 20

Dependent Variable: Promotion					
	Dof	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Between Groups	3	157.339	52.446	50.886	0.000
Within Groups	376	387.532	1.031		
Total	379	544.871			
Multiple Comparisons					
Promotion types	Average difference	St. deviation	p value	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower limit	Upper limit
instant-bigger	-0.871	0.127	0.000	-1.198	-0.545
lottery-bigger	-1.611	0.172	0.000	-2.054	-1.169
loyalty-bigger	-1.48	0.145	0.000	-1.855	-1.105
lottery-instant	-0.74	0.177	0.000	-1.198	-0.282
loyalty-instant	-0.608	0.152	0.000	-1.001	-0.216
loyalty-lottery	0.132	0.191	0.901	-0.362	0.625

H_0 would be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ since p value is lower than the significance level. The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to promotion type. Multiple comparisons and Figure 4.19 show that when the promotion type is adding a price

and make it bigger, consumers are more affected by the promotion compared to loyalty campaign, instant win gift and lottery gift promotions. They also show that instant gift promotions are more effective than lottery gift and loyalty campaign promotions.

Hypothesis 21

Results of one-way ANOVA test applied to test whether or not the effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to gender are shown in Table 4.26.

H_0 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision does not change according to gender

H_1 : The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to gender

Table 4.26: Independent samples t-test for hypothesis 21

Gender	Average difference	St. deviation	t value	p value	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower limit	Upper limit
male-female	-0.017	0.132	-0.13	0.896	-0.276	0.241

As p value exceeds the significance level, H_0 would not be rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. There is no enough evidence to state whether or not the effect of promotion on buying decision changes according to gender.

In conclusion as seen on table 4.27 ;

Table 4.27: Proposed hypotheses and their test results

Hypotheses	Test Results
H1: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's income	Accepted
H2: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's age	Rejected
H3: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation	Accepted
H4: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to meal type	Rejected
H5: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to meal spend	Accepted
H6: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to promotion type	Rejected
H7: The effect of the brand on buying decision changes according to gender	Rejected
H8: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's income	Accepted
H9: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's age	Accepted

H10: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation	Accepted
H11: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to meal type	Accepted
H12: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to meal spend	Accepted
H13: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to promotion type	Rejected
H14: The effect of the menu on buying decision changes according to gender	Rejected
H15: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's income	Rejected
H16: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's age	Rejected
H17: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to consumer's occupation	Rejected
H18: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to meal type	Accepted
H19: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to meal spend	Rejected
H20: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to promotion type	Accepted
H21: The effect of the promotion on buying decision changes according to gender	Rejected

5. CONCLUSION

Through the prior studies and literary research, there exists focusing on sales promotion activities from various perspectives. Some of these studies deal with one or several of the sales promotion activities, while others focus on consumer behaviors. There are also studies that examine various factors related to sales promotion activities. In the literature, it is seen that there are very few studies in which a large number of behaviors are observed together with more than one sales activity.

With the aim of filling this gap in the literature, a survey composed of 21 questions is prepared according to answers of focus groups consisting of students and working people aged between 15 and 50. The study was conducted with the participation of 380 people. In this study, a fast-food chain with different beverage brands and very frequent customer circulation with different demographic characteristics was preferred.

The number of male and female consumers participating in the survey is almost the same. Half of those contributors are college graduates. Participants dine out two or three days a week on average. Consumers' habits of eating outside cannot be denied. In order to ensure the survey has a healthier outcome, the surveys were scheduled to be on different periods of different days.

Brand loyalty, including the product in a menu and the effects of promotional activities (add a price make it bigger, loyalty cards, gifts, discounts, etc.) on customer preferences; are tested depending on not only demographical scales such as income, age, occupation, gender but also behavioral and periodical factors like meal type, meal expenses, and promotion type.

In the first part of the study, the questions were intended to identify the demographic and behavioral characteristics of the participants. The last ten questions aim to scale the effect of brand, menu and promotion on consumers purchase decisions. These questions are in the form of five-point Likert scale and their answers are used for the reliability test. Reliability of the items was tested using Cronbach's Alpha, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Barlett sphericity tests methods. Obtained values are as follows: Cronbach's Alpha value was calculated as 0.82, 0.79 and 0.86 and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) values are 0.72, 0.78 and 1.73 in the answers given under the promotion, brand and menu headings, respectively. P value in Barlett sphericity test was calculated as 0.00 for all three headings.

The hypotheses developed in accordance with the model were statistically tested using the R software. Independent Samples T-test and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) are used in statistical analysis.

Eventhough Keller et al. (2011) defended the brand loyalty is decreasing , as a result of the research, the effect of the brand on purchasing decision is higher in people in the high and medium-high income level group than in the low-income level group. It has been observed that meal expenses at the point is proportional to income levels. Therefore, consumers who spend more money on food were claimed to be sensitive about the brand according to the survey. Besides, it was determined that the brand perception among the employed is stronger than it is among students and the unemployed / housewives. Considering that 66.85% of the participants in the survey are employed, it can be concluded that brand loyalty is high in consumers in the on-premise channel and that the brand is one of the most important factors in beverage preferences.

Placing the product in the menu positively affects the purchase decision in general. Especially for people with low income, the menu is the reason for a strong buying preference. In addition, the age factor, which is one of the most important demographic characteristics, directly affects the menu choice. Consumers under

25 years of age, the influence on the purchase decision of menus is higher than that of consumers 25 years and over. The fact that you create a menu with the food and drink at the point also plays an important role combined with the occupational situation factor. Especially for students finding such a menu at the point encourages them to buy beverages.

Besides all these factors, it has been determined that creating a menu is a preference of the consumer especially at dinners. Considering the importance of age and occupational status factors, the creation of menus especially for students will bring greater success in businesses. Besides, considering that low and low medium meal spending customers constitute 46.5% of the total universe, and that one of the strongest influences of these consumer groups is the menu, creating menus below 20 TRY will lead to an increase in sales volume.

The effect of promotions on out-of-home consumption channels varies by meal type. Particularly at lunchtime promotions have a positive impact on consumers' purchasing decisions. Considering that the majority of surveyed consumers prefer fast food channels for lunch (49%), it is expected that the promotion will have solid effect on buying decision at lunch.

The most popular promotion type is a price and make it bigger. This is followed by instant gift promotions. From this it can be reached that the vast majority of consumers who participate in the survey prefer to pay a price difference and take advantage of their own choices rather than the gifts and lotteries.

As a result of the questionnaires made, there is no direct connection between gender and procurement decisions. McDowall (2010) investigated whether the purchase decision differed by gender, the result of the study was the same, purchase decision did not differ by gender Besides, income level and the meal expenditures at the point are directly proportional.

Analyzing the needs and expectations of the consumers in a rapidly developing competitive environment and guiding them to take actions in this direction plays a key role in terms of marketing strategies in determining the consumers which they want to attract in the first place in accordance with the responses of the participants.

As seen in the questionnaire, the criteria for purchasing beverages in different income groups and different occupational statuses differ. In general, it is possible to summarize the factors affecting the purchasing decision as below:

- i. Brand; the employed and with a high-level income
- ii. Menu; low-level income, students and teenagers. Especially in the evenings
- iii. Promotion; regardless of demographics

5.1 LIMITATIONS

As in any research, there are some limitations in this study as well. The most important limitations are the selected sample group and the scope. This research has been conducted in a fast food chain in Istanbul, to men and women between the ages of 15 and 50.

5.2 RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This research finds important findings for academics who want to implement in the future on different consumer spots to determine the consumer's instant buying tendencies or the impact of promotions on instant buying behavior in general. However, it will be useful to extend the target group further and examine the results with more extensive studies.

Despite the fact that there are many researches on purchasing behaviors in retail markets, the fact that such studies are limited in on-premise necessitates an increase in the number

of studies. The survey can apply in different cities, target groups can be enhanced and the restriction can be changed.



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APPENDICES

Survey Questions in English

1 Your gender?

- A. Female
- B. Male

2 Your age?

3 What is your educational status?

- A. Primary School
- B. High School
- C. Associate Degree/Bachelor's Degree
- D. Master's Degree

4 What is your income per month?

- A. <1000
- B. 1000-2500
- C. 2501-4000
- D. >4000

5 What is your marital status?

- A. Married
- B. Single
- C. Divorcee/Widow(er)

6 What is your occupational status?

- A. Student
- B. Official
- C. Retired

D. Unemployed/Housewife

7 How many times a week do you eat outside?

A. Once in two weeks

B. One

C. Two

D. Three

E. More than three

8 Which meal do you prefer to eat outside?

A. Breakfast

B. Lunch

C. Dinner

9 When do you prefer eat outside?

A. Weekday

B. Weekend

10 How much do you spend for meal ?

A. <10TL

B. 10TL-20TL

C. 20TL-30TL

D. >30TL

11 Which promotion do you prefer?

A. Add a price and make it bigger

B. Loyalty campaign

C. Instant win gift

D. Lotary gift

What is your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements?

	(1. Disagree strongly, 2 Disagree, 3. Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4. Agree, 5. Strongly Agree)	1	2	3	4	5
12	I choose only the options with promotion.					
13	Promotion options can affect my decisions					
14	I decide what to eat or drink before going to the restaurant. My decision does not change according to promotions.					
15	If I could not find the brand I want, I did not purchase a drink					
16	I have several favorite brands. I purchase a drink if at least one of them is offered in the restaurant.					
17	I do not decide my drink choice before going the restaurant. I choose among restaurant offerings.					
18	Type of drink is more important than the brand for my drink choice					
19	I purchase a drink if it is offered in the menu.					
20	I look at the menu before giving the order.					
21	I decide my drink choice before looking at the menu					

Survey Questions in Turkish

1 Cinsiyetiniz?

- A. Kadın
- B. Erkek

2 Yaşınız?

3 Eğitim Durumunuz?

- A. İlköğretim
- B. Lise
- C. Ön lisans/Lisans
- D. Yüksek Lisans

4 Aylık Geliriniz?

- A. <1000
- B. 1000-2500
- C. 2501-4000
- D. >4000

5 Medeni Durumunuz?

- A. Evli
- B. Bekar
- C. Boşanmış

6 Meslek Grubunuz?

- A. Öğrenci
- B. Çalışıyor
- C. Emekli
- D. Çalışmıyor/ Ev Hanımı

7 Haftada kaç gün dışarıda yemek yiyorsunuz?

- A. İki haftada bir
- B. Bir
- C. İki
- D. Üç
- E. Üçten fazla

8 Daha çok hangi öğünde dışarıda yemeyi tercih edersiniz?

- A. Kahvaltı
- B. Öğle yemeği
- C. Akşam yemeği

9 Hafta içi mi hafta sonu mu dışarıda yemek yiyorsunuz?

- A. Hafta içi
- B. Hafta sonu

10 Yemek alışverişinize bir öğünde ne kadar harcıyorsunuz?

- A. <10TL
- B. 10TL-20TL
- C. 20TL-30TL
- D. >30TL

11 En çok hangi kampanya tipi sizi memnun eder?

- A. Fark ödeyerek menüyü büyütme
- B. Sadakat kampanyaları
- C. Anında kazan hediyeler
- D. Çekilişli hediyeler

Aşağıdaki ifadelere katılım durumunuzu belirtir misiniz?

	(1. Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum, 2. Katılmıyorum, 3. Tarafsızım, 4. Katılıyorum, 5. Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)	1	2	3	4	5
12	Sadece promosyonlu opsiyonları tercih ediyorum.					
13	Promosyonlar içecek tercihimı etkileyebilir.					
14	Ne yiyip içeceğime restorana gelmeden karar veririm, promosyonlar tercihimı etkilemez.					
15	İstediğim markayı restoranda göremezsem içecek satın almam.					
16	Tercih ettiğim farklı markalar var. Restoranda herhangi biri varsa onu alırım.					
17	Restorana gelmeden ne içeceğime karar vermem. Restorandaki önerilere göre hareket ederim.					
18	İçeceğin türü markasından daha önemlidir.					
19	İçecek menü içinde yer alıyorsa tercih sebebim olur.					
20	Sipariş vermeden menüleri kontrol ederim.					
21	Menüye bakmadan ne içeceğime karar veririm.					



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