Apparel Clothing Reference Points for Important Shopping Occasions and Decision-Making Styles of Greek College Students

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ABSTRACT

The current study conceptualized the categories of consumer referents, concerning how they form their consumption preferences by elaborating reference points, in order to be better informed on items for a measurement scale. In addition the current study conceptualized the categories of shopping orientations (or decision-making styles) of Greek college students, as they better represent how consumers behave, act and make decisions.

In the initial purification stage (i.e. pilot test, n=330), principal component analysis, with a varimax and oblique rotation was developed. In the final purification stage with a new data set (i.e. primary survey, n=556), confirmatory factor analysis was performed to examine the factors that define the two measurement models. Furthermore the methodology of Pearson's correlation helped in checking the potential relationships between those two scales.

The results of the conceptualization of consumer referents produced a model made up of seven dimensions. These are: Explicit referents (Brand, Price and Store), and Implicit referents (Personal, Financial, Social and Cultural). Furthermore the conceptualization of the decision-making styles inventory helped in analysing the utilization of consumers' referents. The results contributed to the identification of Greek college students' decision-making styles. The final model of the CSI produced six highly correlated dimensions: 1. Perfectionist, high quality conscious, 2. Recreational conscious, 3. Brand conscious, 4. Novelty conscious, 5. Impulsive conscious, and 6. Confused by over-choice. The technique of Pearson's correlation helped in analysing the effects of the six decision-making traits on the selected categorization of reference points (i.e. the seven categories of referents).

The main findings suggest that consumers use reference points based on their distinct shopping orientations. As a whole the findings from this research offer new insights to marketing managers and research practitioners in analysing consumers' apparel consumption decision-making patterns. A summary, discussion of the results and recommendations for further research are proposed.

DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this dissertation to my wife and to my parents.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CSI	Consumer Decision-Making Styles Inventory
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICAP	Name of a private consulting Company
IFF	If and only if (mathematical quotation)
LISREL	Linear Structural Relationships
MLE	Maximum Likelihood Estimation
MNEC	Ministry of Economic and Finance
NSSG	National Statistic Service of Greece
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PH	Primary Hypothesis
RPI	Reference Points Inventory
SPSS	Statistics Package for the Social Science
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America

OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

Chapters	Content	Description
Chapter 1	Introduction	A conceptual framework of the research is presented, by introducing the problem under investigation. The aims and objectives of the thesis are stated, by providing an overview of the research techniques utilized.
Chapter 2	Contextual Background Information	The contextual background of the research problem is presented. It offers an analysis of the Greek apparel clothing market by giving information about the selected area for collecting the data (i.e. city of Thessaloniki), and Greek college students apparel consumption shopping habits.
Chapter 3	Literature Review on Reference Points	Presents an overview of the current literature on reference points by justifying the need to examine referents from the consumer's own perspective.
Chapter 4	Literature Review on Decision-Making Styles	Presents an overview of the current literature on decision-making styles by connecting the consumer decision-making characteristics with the selection of reference points for apparel clothing purchase decisions.
Chapter 5	Research Design and Methodology	Proposed hypotheses are stated. An overview of the research methods applied.
Chapter 6	Analysis and Results of the Qualitative Research	Analysis of the qualitative data captured from focus-groups discussion (N=30), and preliminary categorization of the reference points inventory (RPI).
Chapter 7	Analysis and Results of the Quantitative Research (i.e. pilot study and main survey)	Pilot study: Data was collected from undergraduate university students (N= 330). Exploratory factor analysis is used to purify the reference points inventory (RPI), and the decision-making styles inventory (CSI). Primary survey: Data was collected from a different student sample (N=556). Confirmatory factor analysis is used to further purify the inventories of the RPI and the CSI, by testing hypotheses 1 and 2. The method of Pearson's correlation technique helped in analysing the relationship between the two models, by testing hypothesis 3.
Chapter 8	Conclusion	Provides a summary and discussion of the findings. Concluding remarks are made for policy makers and marketing practitioners. Recommendations for future study are given.

1. CHAPTER ONE: Introduction

1.0 Introduction

The research carries out an empirical investigation of consumers' selections of reference points for apparel clothing consumption on important shopping occasions. It uses apparel clothing consumption on important shopping occasions to enable a deeper understanding of the dynamic concept of reference points. A careful examination of the related literature on reference points pointed to the need to analyse reference points from the consumer's own perspective.

This chapter outlines the focus of the thesis and provides the justification for that study. Section 1.1 lays out the overall plan of this thesis by crafting a research framework. Section 1.2 explains the problem under investigation. The research aim and objectives are presented in section 1.3. Section 1.4 presents the rationale and the key contributions of the current study. Finally Sections 1.5 and 1.6 offer a brief description of each chapter of the thesis, followed by the conclusions summary.

1.1 Research framework

Many scholars argue that reference points must be defined in a number of ways, reflecting their multifaceted nature (Puto, 1987; Devetag, 1999; Bettman et al., 1998; Babutsidze, 2007; Tarnanidis and Owusu-Frimpong, 2009). A reference point is a neutral point against which other objects are measured or compared (Helson, 1964; Thibaut and Kelley, 1959) and more recently, reference points have been described as any stimuli that are related to other observed stimuli (Rosch, 1975; Dholakia and Simonson, 2005; Gonul and Popkowski Leszczyc, 2011)

Zhang (2004) contends that reference points are formed by consumers through past experience and previous choices. In addition, they act as a standpoint in the evaluation of current choices. Similarly, Dholakia and Simonson (2005) address the distinction between implicit reference points (those which are used by consumers) and explicit reference points (those which are used by the seller or advertiser). This brings together a continuum of existing theories (e.g. Beggan, 1994; Kahneman, 1992; Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Mussweiler, 2003; Tversky and Kahneman, 1991).

Following a review of the reference point literature by Dholakia and Simonson (2005) and work by Tarnanidis and Owusu-Frimpong, 2010), the researcher can arrive at the following definition: *A reference point (or referent) is an indicator or a stimulus which orients consumers as they form their choices. This indicator originates from two sources, of (a) the marketing programme of a seller, and can be called an 'explicit reference point', and (b) the perspective of a consumer, and can be called an 'implicit reference point'.* Reference points may be considered as constructs that have been formed by current and previous information cues concerning a specific consumption good (Kinley et al., 2000). Ultimately they impact upon consumer buying behaviour by activating mechanisms of inner psychological interpretation that involve current and/or future buying decision, i.e. perceptions, learning and attitudes (Bettman et al., 1998; Irmak et al., 2010).

A careful examination of the literature indicates that consumers simultaneously use both explicit and implicit reference points (Dholakia and Simonson, 2005). The former arise mainly in terms of the perspective of the seller (e.g. rewards, product attributes, assortments, framing effects and reference prices) and are made explicit in advertisements and promotional material. The latter arise mainly from the perspective of the consumer (e.g. goals, time or point of purchase, emotional state or other aesthetics, previous experience, reference groups and culture). The main problem seems to be that there is a major gap in our understanding of how explicit reference points and implicit reference points are interconnected and developed by individuals in order to help them simplify their choices. For example all the research till today on referents has been guided inside the domain of prospect theory and examined those two primary dimensions of referents separately (Babutsidze, 2007). Therefore a stronger approach needs to be implemented in order to identify all the referents that consumers' utilize during their buying decision-making process.

Because of the multi-dimensionality of the concepts, and with the distinct nature of the problem in mind, it was decided to make use of certain stimuli, such as the apparel clothing for important shopping occasions (e.g. weddings, social parties, anniversaries, celebrations, and work), the aim of which was to provide a more specific decision-making situation.

Clothing is a code of communication which reflects one's self-image, identity and personal status (Forney et al., 2005; Azuma and Fernie, 2003). Apparel consumption is herein defined as the purchase of clothing items. Such apparel clothing consumption for important shopping occasions are the purchases of professional outfits, and evening dress. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2004) most consumers buy clothes that match their own expectations and perceptions, which in turn enable them to communicate to others relevant information regarding their own social class.

Therefore to test the merits of that evolving scale, apparel clothing consumption was selected, as it entails both sensory and aesthetic reactions from consumers (De Klerk and Lubbe, 2008). It can be argued that consumers' shopping orientations or decision-making styles will be expected to enrich the findings from our analysis (Babutsidze, 2007), in terms of providing valuable information on understanding consumers' motivations towards the selection of apparel clothing reference points.

First of all, the literature on reference points revealed that there exist many discrepancies and anomalies in the existing research with regard to reference points, as all the research till now has been guided by the embroilment of prospect theory and mental accounting theory (Kahneman, 1979; Thaler, 1985, 2008a). Such anomalies are the fact that reference points were given to actors in pre-formatted decision task options, without examining further to uncover the basis of the formation and use of reference points. Moreover consumers do not always behave following the principles of prospect theory, i.e. they are not always seeking absolute maximization over their choices, and they are not always interpreting decision tasks in terms of perceived gains and losses (Van Osselaer, 2005; Babutsidze, 2007).

Secondly, consumer choices are affected by many factors, such as:

- The accompanied perceived risk of the decision, i.e. price implications (Jacoby et al., 1994; Stampfl, 1978; Chung -Hoon and Young-Gul, 2003).

- The emotional state and condition of the consumer (Holt, 1995). For example consumers connect their moods (e.g. happy/sad) with their preference judgements (Barone and Miniard, 2002).

- The need to satisfy different sets of values, i.e. utilitarian and hedonic, social, personal feelings, and learning (Sheth et al., 1991; De Klerk and Stephna, 2008).

- The role of internal and external information (Babutsidze, 2007). The former is information that has been stored in memory from previous and past experiences. The latter is information that is acquired during the decision process (Kinley et al., 2000).

Through all these factors, consumers form their cognition, their attitudes and their preferences (Bettman and Zins, 1977; Simonson and Tversky, 1992; Payne et al., 1992; Fitzsimons et al., 2002; Biehal and Chakravarti, 1982; Rajagopal , 2009). One important question that has emerged from the literature is how do consumers anticipate and shape those factors in order to make coherent choices? According to Babutsidze (2007) they evaluate different information arising from the shopping environment and follow different strategies that will minimize the costs and possible efforts, e.g. one such strategy is the elimination by aspects, in which they distinguish central reference points after excluding the different attribute preferences (Payne, 1976; Kahneman, 2003). They use personal feelings, their intuition, rationality, and their emotional compliances (Bettman and Park, 1980). More concretely they form and use heuristics (Bettman et al., 1998; Chaiken , 1980) that are consistent with their personal values and goals (Sheth et al., 1991; Jagdish and Parvatiyar, 2000).

Another important question derived from the literature is why they use such heuristics or, to be precise, why they use and form reference points (Bettman et al., 1998). Due to the fact that they have to make clear-cut choices among many alternatives, consumers want to make simplifications and eliminations of the efforts and the risks taken (Payne, 1976; Jacoby, 1994). Additionally they seek to satisfy their needs and wants, and their personal and social justifications (Maslow, 1970; Simonson, 1989; Puntoni and Tavassoli, 2004). Moreover, Babutsidze (2007) points out that these questions have been ongoing and have occupied scientists over the last 30 years, and are still characterized by incomplete findings and methodological rigorousness, as the void on analysing consumer motivation and behaviour is vast and unbounded.

Specifically, three main streams of research disciplines are striving to achieve this. The first one is economists, who have turned their research from optimal and absolute maximization models and problems, to a more behavioural one (e.g. Friedman and Savage, 1948; Simon , 1958; Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Thaler, 1980). The other two are social psychologists and marketers, who seek to identify the logical reasoning of

consumers' behaviour, by building illations from individual differences and explanations (Payne, 1982; Kahneman, 2003).

The main findings from the relevant literature on reference points suggest that reference points are characterized as dynamic constructs that are influenced by many factors. The literature revealed that these factors can be divided into two distinct dimensions, explicit and implicit (Dholakia and Simonson, 2005). Most literature regarding the problem under investigation was concerned with examining those dimensions separately, and without clear indications of how they are elaborated by individuals. However the main findings from the literature are somewhat disjointed and context-dependent (Devetag, 1999). On the other hand the literature on reference points proposes that there is a considerable need to connect the impact of reference points with individual differences (Levin et al., 2002). Therefore decision-making styles were selected and especially the cognitive personality domain of consumer decision-making styles, as it better represents how consumers behave, act and make decisions.

Moreover in the area of reference points no research has been found as a theoretical framework to guide this study. Therefore the construct of reference points is to be guided by merging the findings of the extant literature. In the area of reference points, most of the research done so far has been based only on examining separately the effects of explicit reference points, like price, framing, assortments, etc. (e.g. Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Bettman et al., 1998; Dholakia and Simonson, 2005), and therefore there is a considerable need to embrace a more holistic and comparable research approach in examining reference points effects. This can be achieved by introducing into the decision tasks the impact of the effects of implicit reference points (Dholakia and Simonson, 2005; Maimaran and Simonson, 2007). Hence the research focuses on the distinction between implicit and explicit reference points (Dholakia and Simonson, 2005), by trying to elaborate a theory from the conceptualization and categorization of the existing dimensions of reference points.

In contrast the area of decision-making styles is a sub-category of cognitive styles (Park et al., 2010). Cognitive styles include individual differences in terms of how people structure their own beliefs, attitudes, perceptions and learning in order to form their preferences (Schaninger and Sciglimpaglia, 1981; Siu et al., 2001). As learning is an antecedent of consumer beliefs, which in turn influence their perceptions, their final

attitudes and behaviours (Fitzsimons et al., 2002), hence cognitive factors determine consumer choices. Thus the formation of reference points should be influenced by the way people think, behave and make decisions (McGuire, 1976; Thaler, 2008).

A review of the literature identified that the construct of decision-making styles has been defined in numerous ways during the last 30 years. For example decision-making styles refer to:

- the habitual pattern individuals use in decision-making (Driver, 1979; Thunholm, 2004)
- the mental orientation characterizing a consumer's approach to making choices (Sproles & Kendall, 1986; Galotti et al., 2006)
- the way one visualizes and thinks about situations (Rowe and Bulgarides, 1992; Hiu, 2001; Park et al.,2010)
- the way people deploy their intellectual abilities (Rayner and Riding, 1997; Radder et al., 2006)
- the manner in which people approach cognitive tasks (Sternberg , 1997; Kozhevnikov, 2007)
- the way people respond to any stimuli seen (Leonard et al., 1999; Price, 2004)

The key pointer from the perspective of decision-making styles that has been adopted as a theoretical framework to guide this study is the Consumer Styles Inventory (Sproles and Kendall, 1986).

Sproles and Kendall (1986) formulated eight consumer decision features, named the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI), that best represent mental characteristics of consumers (1-perfectionism or high-quality consciousness, 2-brand consciousness, 3-novelty and fashion consciousness, 4-hedonistic, recreational shopping, 5-'value for money' shopping consciousness, 6-impulsiveness, 7-confusion by over-choice, and 8-habitual, brand loyal orientation). A more detailed description of those categories is made in chapter four. Those mental characteristics represent how consumers structure their final shopping orientations (Bauer et al., 2006). The use of the CSI is a very helpful tool to consumer researchers, as it enables them to classify consumers based on their cognitive patterns (Baoku et al., 2010). In addition it helps marketing managers to segment their markets more profoundly and therefore enables them to reach their

customers more efficiently (Wesley et al., 2006). As the CSI constitutes the way that consumers make their choices, it should therefore also affect the formation of reference points.

1.2   Statement of the problem

During the last decades clothing merchandisers have developed to become the most prominent, dynamic, and successful category of both national and international retailers (Wigley and Moore, 2007). According to Abraham -Murali and Littrell (1995) clothing retailers face increasing competition. Especially, the competition inside the single European market seems in many ways to have changed. For example according to a recent report carried out by Eurostat (2009) national clothing markets have traditionally been served by the existence of local shops and national chains. Nowadays, however, there has been a shifting towards the internationalization of retailing which led to the appearance of global clothing retailers.

Likewise consumers' priorities have changed markedly over the last years and clothing retailers find it difficult to satisfy them (Dickerson, 2003). Consumers in their apparel clothing selections have become more informed, educated and, thus, increasingly demanding (De Klerk and Lubbe, 2008). Just as apparel retailers need information about how consumers evaluate the different garments, and store-layouts, apparel researchers also need insight on a broad range of consumer-perceived evaluations to design coherent studies that could advance the knowledge of consumer decision-making.

The major problem for the Greek clothing industry is that consumers demand imported apparel clothes and this has had a negative impact on the existence of national retailers. According to Kamenidou et al. (2007) textile industries have been closed due to the fact of international competition. As a result of the negative economic climate many Greek enterprises have moved their branches to other Balkan countries. Hence this research is considered of great importance for Greek clothing retailers, as it will help them to know better consumers' beliefs and wants on evaluating clothing products, since limited research has been found in the context of this issue (e.g. Kamenidou et al., 2007)

On the other hand there exists a gap in the literature on examining the selection of reference points from the consumers' own perspective, together with mental accounting

theory. This will help in categorizing consumer reference points for apparel consumption. The outcome is the building of a justifiable scale. According to Van de Ven (2007, p.101) that type of reasoning is justified through the method of abduction, which is a combination of induction and deduction. The author posits that this can be captured with the use of conjectures with the accompanied anomaly of the research problem. More explicitly the method of abduction is a continuous process of reproducing existing theories and concepts, in order to elaborate a new hypothesis or a conjecture. In this study this is achieved by identifying the paradigms that have unsolved problems or anomalies, and trying to analyse them through insertions, revisions, and reconnections of different ideas (Punch, 2006). For example the lack of systematic evaluation in examining the construct of reference points from the consumer's own perspective, together with the lack of previous relevant consumer research in Greece, pointed to the need to investigate how consumers structure their referents during their consumption decisions, and how cognitive differences have an impact on them. In the case of reference points the data was inducted as previously no scale existed in the extant literature. And in the case of shopping orientations the data was deducted from an existing inventory or theory, which was applied to Greek consumers.

Finally there was found only one study (e.g. Lysonski et al., 2006) that tried to analyse individual differences arising from the domain of cognition (i.e. decision-making styles) in the context of Greece. However, this study examined the applicability of the CSI to a small student sample (i.e. 95), and without making any inference to a specific product category. Therefore there exists a second gap in the literature on evaluating Greek college students' decision-making characteristics, and in linking the different decision-making style traits with the selected categorization of reference points to a specific product category (i.e. the clothing consumption for important shopping occasions).

1.3   Aim and objectives of the study

A careful review of the research pointed to the need to examine the effects of explicit and implicit reference points (e.g. Dholakia and Simonson, 2005; Babutsidze, 2007),

together with prospect theory (Thaler, 2008). Prospect theory suggests that people make rational choices to purchase products on the basis of explicit reference points, against which they evaluate competing products and choose those which will maximise pleasure and minimise pain/cost/effort. In addition to those explicit reference points, people also use implicit reference points, including personal and social referents (Arkes et al., 2008; Dholakia and Simonson, 2005; Betts and Taran, 2005). For example consumers, when they are making their consumption purchases, are not using only the referents that originate from the unique perspective of sellers, but they craft and use referents that come from their own personal perspective.

On the other hand the extant literature on reference points revealed that the construct of reference points is strongly dependent upon individual differences, arising from the cognitive domain (e.g. Kahneman, 2003; Levin et al., 2002; Devetag, 1999; Novemsky et al., 2007). For example consumers choose to use reference points based on their own personality traits. Thus the main aim of this study is to shed light on the literature by directly tapping into the consumers' own perspective, concerning how they form their consumption preferences by:

1. conceptualizing the categories of consumer reference points used by Greek college student shoppers for their clothing consumption preferences on important shopping occasions, and

2. examining how the different types of reference points are associated with the types of consumer decision-making styles

The first objective of this study is to conceptualize the categories of consumer reference points used by Greek college student shoppers (implicit and explicit) for their clothing consumption preferences on important shopping occasions.

The second objective is to categorize these Greek college student shoppers' decision-making characteristics.

Lastly, the third objective is to examine the relationship between the selected categorization of consumer reference points and the decision-making characteristics identified among the selected group of Greek college students as apparel shoppers.

1.4   Rationale of the study

This study investigates the use of reference points with apparel consumption in the domain of Greece by connecting more extraneous variables that arise from individual differences (i.e. decision-making styles or shopping orientations).   Decision-making styles were selected in order to understand better the consumption behaviour of Greek college students (Radder et al., 2006). Apparel clothing consumption has been selected as the stimulus that can guide that study, as it demands from consumers the evaluation of different sources of information (personal and non-personal). For example consumers, when purchasing clothes, use different sources of reference points or referents (i.e. price, brand, rewards, assortments, product attributes, reference groups, economic, and culture).

Within the last two decades clothing retailers in Greece have come to change substantially. According to Bennison and Boutsouki (1995) the entrance of the Greek market to the united European Union has brought immense competition to the national retailers, as now they have to compete with foreign retailers, either directly or through creating corporations with joint ventures. Likewise this trade liberalization that pertained inside the Greek retailing market had an impact on consumers' perceptions. For example Greek consumers became more informed about the latest fashion trends. Simultaneously, they can evaluate and acquire a variety of product alternatives at better prices and at better offers. This transition of the Greek consumers can be seen more profoundly in the big cities (i.e. Athens and Thessaloniki), where consumers show greater tendency to homogenize themselves with the shopping habits of Western populations (Cardoso and Tsourvakas, 2005; Nielsen, 1993).

Within the emerging economy, Greek consumers seek to possess more skills that could help them to develop unique abilities in order to make more efficient and effective consumption decisions (Aulonitis et al., 2008; Cardoso and Tsourvakas., 2005). This can be portrayed inside the domain of decision-making styles, as it enables consumers to develop their own decision-making characteristics.   Previously, the investigation of decision-making styles of consumers in Greece has been explored in terms of its applicability only to a small sample of college students, i.e. 95 (Lysonski et al., 1996). Thus, the scale needs to be further refined by adopting exploratory factor analysis with

larger consumer samples, and it also needs to be further linked to specific shopping occasions, like the apparel consumption.

Finally, knowledge of the consumers' assessment, about the use of selected reference points of apparel clothing products that may influence the purchase decision, could be effectively used by retailers and marketers in order to promote their products in a more efficient way. Moreover, this would enable the retailers and marketers to store and portray their products better, guiding customers to select their reference points in order to form their final preferences. For example retailers need adequate information about how to guide consumers more profoundly. By knowing how consumers categorize reference points for apparel clothing purchase decisions, they can better emphasize those attributes or attachments (i.e. functional and salient) that consumers consider as important when purchasing clothes. Additionally, that understanding could be used, as well, in satisfying other salient aesthetics, which consumers subconsciously use in their selections.

Moreover by profiling Greek college students' decision-making styles or shopping orientations, retailers can better identify the characteristics of that segment, i.e. how students categorize the different decision-making styles. This, as a result will reveal consumers' priorities on how they are making their consumption preferences. Furthermore this will help retailers to target their apparel products according to consumers' own individual traits. On the other hand, by linking the relationship to decision-making styles and the reference points inventory, they can develop communication strategies better-aimed at specific segments.

The selected categorization of reference points inventory could also be used by different academics and scientists (e.g. behavioural economists, and social psychologists) as a theoretical framework which could guide similar streams of research. For example, the generation of measurement items through the combination of both qualitative and quantitative techniques could be used as a research model. The findings from that study also pertain to many implications for other areas of consumer behaviour. Given that the decision-making process of apparel clothing is strongly affected by the utilization of reference points, this may mean that the construct of reference points could also be used in other related product categories.

Additionally the research provides an empirical based insight into the factors and mechanisms driving consumers' behaviour in selecting their reference points or referents. The perceived categorization of reference points model provides a structured way to investigate apparel shopping consumption decision-making.

1.5   Organization of the thesis

The first chapter introduces the research problem, by covering the domain under investigation, and concludes with the objectives, the usefulness of the study and the structure of the thesis. Moreover it builds a conceptual framework and outlines a rigorous approach in doing so, and summarizes the main outcome of the research. The second chapter covers background information to the research problem. The third and fourth chapters provide the reader with an overview of the current published literature on reference points, apparel clothing consumption, and decision-making styles.

Chapter five outlines the research design and methodology and the rationale for research and methodology, discussing the strengths and weaknesses. Chapter six analyses the results of the qualitative research. The next chapters, chapters seven and eight include the first and second stage purification of the two scales. They cover the process of analysing the quantitative research data, by developing and justifying the categorization of reference points and decision-making inventory styles, and their conceptualizations in a structured way. Chapter nine summarizes the overall conclusions, recommendations and implications for future research.

1.6   Summary

The thesis provides a conceptual framework for apparel reference points, which so far has not been found in the existing literature. Moreover it aims to connect the findings from three scientific areas, i.e. behavioural economics, social psychology and consumer behaviour, in a meaningful and structured way. It tests and combines existing research findings such as decision-making styles, by looking to analyse the links and the inter-relationships among the selected categorizations of reference points in apparel clothing consumption.

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2.   CHAPTER TWO: Contextual Background Information

2.0   Introduction

This chapter analyses the contextual background of the research. Section 2.1 presents an overview of the Greek economy. The next section, 2.2, includes the contextual background to the research problem, analysing the Greek apparel clothing market. Sections 2.3 and 2.4 assess the competition level of clothing retailers by offering an extensive industry market analysis.   The next sections, 2.5 to 2.7, give information about the selected area for collecting the data (i.e. city of Thessaloniki), and Greek college students apparel consumption shopping habits. Section 2.8 offers concluding remarks about the concept under investigation.

2.1   Overview of the Greek economy

According to ICAP (2007) the Greek economy is based mainly on the production of agricultural products and on services. For example the sector of agriculture relies upon the production of tobacco, cotton and on fishing. More specifically these sectors account for nearly 30 percent of the GDP, whereas the sector of services accounts for 70 percent of the national GDP (i.e. vendors, hotels, public services, and telecommunications).

The majority of clothing retailers that operate inside the Greek market are well-established international retailers (e.g. Zara, Stefanel, Max Mara, Cookai, and Miss Raxevsky). According to Dadakas and Katranidis (2010) the Greek clothing industry operates in a turbulent environment, marked by technological changes and political and economical interventions. Those changes resulted from the Greek entrance to the single EU market, and also from changes occurring in consumer buying habits and processes. More specifically, the strength of the Euro affected the international money markets which encouraged short-term imports and similarly prevented prices from rising in mass markets in the long-term (Ministry of Finance: MNEC, 2009).

According to the Greek Ministry of Finance: MNEC (2009) the Greek economy has an average annual growth rate of 4%. This growth has been achieved through private investments and exports. As a result, the public deficit saw a decrease (i.e. 5.8%) in the GDP for the year 2008.   Furthermore the report underlines that the rates of unemployment in the last four years to 2008 fell from 11% to 7.5 %. Those trends were

also foreseen by the European Commission. Moreover it has been predicted that the performance of the Greek economy will remain strong over the next few years, which will allow clothing retailers to increase their revenues.

More recently, due to economic financial crisis, the economy of Greece went to a recession in 2010. This actually resulted from the uncontrollable increase of the public debt over the last years. Therefore the Government in Greece struggles to boost revenues and increase tax rates so as to meet the targets set by the EU (European Union) and the IMF (International Monetary Fund). On the other hand consumers and retailers in Greece try to adjust to the new environment, making them more selective and more logically oriented towards their expenditures.

2.2 The Greek apparel clothing market

According to the National Statistics: NSSG, in 2009 the Greek population reached 11.25 million. The 2001 census report estimated the population of Greece to be approximately 10,964,020 million. Based on that report the distribution of population in various age groups was as follows:

- 2 million (0-14): 46% males and 54% females
- 2.3 million (15-24): 48% males and 52% females
- 2.2 million (25-39): 45% males and 55% females
- 2.3 million (40-54): 51% males and 49% females
- 2 million (55 and above): 40 % males and 60% females

In terms of sex distribution, the female population of Greece in the 2001 census was 52% whilst the male population was 48%. The life expectancy rate for males is estimated 74 years, while for women is 79 years. In the same census of 2001 it was estimated that the majority of Greeks live in the areas of Athens and Thessaloniki, with Thessaloniki being the second largest city in Greece, behind Athens, the capital. Athens accounts for around 4.5 million inhabitants, while the region of Thessaloniki has 1.25 million inhabitants. As a whole 60% of Greek people live in urban areas.

Moreover these two distinct regions produce the majority of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), with the retail market of Thessaloniki accounting for 11% of the national GDP. Thessaloniki is located in northern Greece, and serves as a gateway to potential investors for the south-eastern European markets. Most of the retailers are

concentrated in the city centre. However, the appearance of major shopping centres located in the outskirts of the city (e.g. Cosmos, Carrefour, Hondos Center, Macro) have developed a very strong presence within the retail market. According to ICAP (2007) the clothing market attracts both national and international retailers (i.e. Marks and Spencer, Mango, Notos Galleries, Benetton, Glou, Fokas Stores, Hondos Center, Gary Weber, etc).

The Greek apparel clothing market is represented by the existence of small and medium-sized retailers. In the last decade retailing in the context of modern Greece seems to have changed considerably. Twenty years ago the clothing industry was represented by small shops, which were run by individuals, with the majority being family-based (Kamenidou et al., 2007). According to the findings of a recent report conducted by ICAP in 2007, nowadays the competition among clothing retailers within the Greek market is very intensive. This is most evident in the sector of chain-retail outlets, which initially emerged at the beginning of the last decade. This proliferation in the industry, particularly, brought into existence many foreign franchisors whose appearance increased competition inside the market, and reduced the power of the other individually based retailers.

Furthermore, according to Bennison and Boutsouki (1995), and more recently, according to a recent report conducted by the Greek Ministry of Development in 2008, the majority of retailers operate in the four largest region capitals, i.e. in Athens, in Thessaloniki, in Patras and in Heraklion. However most of the outlets are family-owned (Lysonski et al., 1996). On the other hand the entrance to the EU has brought immense competition from large multinational enterprises (i.e. Benetton, Levis, Diesel, Marks and Spencer). For example many multinational companies from Greece, Germany, England and other European countries have allocated their production in other countries such as China, India, Bulgaria, and East European Union countries, which have cheaper labour, and wages, or even greater legislation, so as to waive the higher costs of production in their own home country (Eurostat, 2009). Therefore the competition inside the clothing industry is very aggressive and companies must transform their strategies and expand their horizons to other countries in order to survive in the competitive environment and sustain their current position in the near future (Smallbone et al., 1999).

The particular case of Greek apparel shoppers was selected as the focus of this research for several reasons. Firstly, consumer spending has been climbing rapidly, turning Greece into a fast-growing market. In addition the industry of apparel consumption is characterized by 9,000 enterprises, employing approximately 80,000 workers (Aslanidis, 2004). Secondly, expenditure on clothing constitutes an impressive proportion of the overall volume of purchased goods, around 25 percent (NSSG, 2008). Finally, as a result of international competition from new entrants, many Greek consumers tend to be more selective with their consumption choices (Kamenidou et al., 2007).

The supply of clothing items comes from different national wholesalers and retailers. Furthermore many of them are combining their operations by importing clothes from foreign retailers and trying to expand their sales into different regions both inside and outside the Greek market. According to research conducted by ICAP in 2007, it was found that in terms of the demand for clothing within the whole Greek market, the sector of men's formal clothes had shown negative growth over the last decade whereas the women's formal clothing sector had seen a positive increase in sales.

It can be concluded that the demand for clothing items is generally affected by the economic environment of the industry. However, when Greek consumers purchase apparel clothes they tend to focus more on the sale price (Visa Europe, 2007). For example they evaluate the different retail prices by having as a point of reference their own personal income. Likewise, Greek consumers tend to shop more frequently in the major sale periods. Young Greek consumers especially have been found to follow the new fashion trends more readily compared with older people, and they are mainly kept informed by the different advertisements on commercial programmes or in selected fashion magazines.

2.3   The competition level of clothing retailers

Increasing global expansion and international competition have brought new challenges to the industry. Manufacturers have increasingly become subordinate to the retailers in a climate where leading outlets such as Marks & Spencer and Prince Oliver have

immense buying power worldwide (Aulonitis et al., 2008). As retailers' own brands have become more common and accepted by consumers, the bargaining power of multiples has increased compared with the manufacturers. Thus, the bargaining power of suppliers in this respect isn't very strong due to the fact that there are so many of them. Also, a vast majority of the retailers corporate with many suppliers in different parts of the world, such as Hong Kong, China, Germany, Italy, France and others (ICAP, 2007).

Generally, it can be assumed that the bargaining power of buyers is not very high (Seock and Bailey, 2009). On the one hand clothing customers are numerous and cannot affect the entire demand of the industry but on the other hand it is the customers who exert the greatest influence on the company because, firstly, without them the organizations couldn't survive, and secondly, they have a number of options to purchase clothes from other competitors. So, in order to survive in this competitive environment, successful companies must protect and retain their existing customer base by all means. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2004) companies are forced to develop stronger bonds and loyalty with their potential customers by delivering superior service.

It is hard for new potential competitors to enter the industry because the barriers to entry are very high and well-built. Moreover, in the market there are already huge organizations with well-established brands such as Lacoste, Naf-Naf, Polo Ralf Lauren, Trussardi, Benetton, Sisley, etc. After all, it has taken many years for those companies to become established in the market. They have invested heavily in technology, plant, distribution, service outlets and other areas. It is clear that their well-structured branding and their good knowledge of the customers and the market needs have created barriers that force the new entrants to provide extra funds if they want to establish their position in the market. In contrast, because of the globalization and the internationalization of companies, there are many foreign rivals with outstanding reputations and brands who are keen to enter the Greek market and can easily gain a market share, for example the H&M Company.

The clothing industry does not have substitute products because the main purpose of the industry is to manufacture clothes in order to satisfy the need for clothing (Solomon et al., 2006). Clothes are dependent on the culture and the volatility of the fashion (Wang et al. 2004). So, firms have to follow the fashion in order to satisfy the current trends and boost sales as well. For example, the latest fashion supports the expansion of the

casual wear sector of the clothing market with greater purchasing of less formal clothing and a growth in sales of sportswear and leisurewear. Another factor that needs to be analysed by the companies is the expansion of their existing brands to specialize in a wider range of sizes and fittings, in order to gain a new market share and satisfy other types of customers as well.

Hence, the competition within the industry is very aggressive, especially among the leaders, who on the one hand are trying to fight to protect their existing market share and on the other hand are trying to gain a further share over the others. The clothing market is growing slowly and the companies are facing the problem of how to sustain their dominance and their power by expanding into new markets or by trying to 'steal' sales from their close competitors. Moreover, companies are trying to differentiate their products by offering extensive customer support and other related services (Cardoso and Tsourvakas, 2005).

2.4   Industry market analysis

The Greek clothing market emerged from the recession of the late 1980s, around 1992 and has continued to benefit from the resurgence of High Street spending (ICAP, 2007). The market has also benefited from the growth in the number and range of clothing retailing outlets with expansion and diversification of outlets both in the chain and independent sector at the high-, mid- and low-end of the market. The resurgence of the retail clothing market towards the end of 1996 and 1997 reinforced the general belief of the industry that clothing retailers perform poorly in times of recession, but have the ability to emerge from downturns rapidly in comparison with other retailers, in different industries.

According to the findings of a recent report, the volume of the market followed a positive increase over the last decade (ICAP, 2006). For example the total turnover of the year 2006 was € 2.860 million while the previous year was reaching € 2.500 million. The clothing sector is organized into three customer business units which according to ICAP (2006) have the following volume of sales:
- Womenswear (54.3%)
- Menswear (30.4%)
- Childrenswear (15.3%)

Based on recent findings the following retailers have the biggest market shares:

- Zara (7.5%)
- Sprider (3.5%)
- Marks & Spencer (3%)
- BSB (2.5%)
- Benetton (2%)
- Polo Ralph Lauren (1.5%)

    (Source: ICAP 2006)

2.5 The city of Thessaloniki

Thessaloniki is located in northern Greece, and serves as a gateway to potential investors for the south-eastern European markets. Most of the retailers are concentrated in the city centre. However, the appearance of major shopping centres located in the outskirts of the city (e.g. Cosmos, Carrefour, Hondos Center, Macro) have developed a very strong presence within the retail market. According to ICAP (2007) the clothing market attracts both national and international retailers (i.e. Marks and Spencer, Mango, Notos Galleries, Benetton, Glou, Fokas Stores, Hondos Center, Gary Weber, etc).

According to the National Statistics, in 2009 the Greek population reached 11.25 million. The majority of Greeks live in the areas of Athens and Thessaloniki, with Thessaloniki being the second largest city in Greece, behind Athens, the capital. Athens accounts for around 4.5 million inhabitants, while the region of Thessaloniki has 1.25 million inhabitants. Moreover these two distinct regions produce the majority of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), with the retail market of Thessaloniki accounting for 11% of the national GDP.

2.6 Students in Thessaloniki

The city of Thessaloniki was selected as the area for collecting the data. It has two universities and one Technological Educational Institution. The Aristotle University has 88,000 students and the University of Macedonia has 10,000 students. Similarly the Technological Education Institute has 18,000 students. For reasons of convenience and due to the limited availability of budget, we further restricted the collection of data to the students whose major was in business and marketing and who were studying at the Technological Educational Institute.

The Technological Educational Institutions in Greece were established in 1983 according to the Greek Law 14014/1983. They are technology-oriented institutions which are funded by the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs. Recently they were elevated according to the law 3549/2007, as being of equal standard to Greek Universities.

Students are trained in different scientific disciplines, which include; Engineering and Technological applications, Health and Caring professions, Food Technology and Nutrition, Fine Arts and Design, and the sciences of Management and Economics, as well. The majority of the programmes are designed for undergraduate students and last four years. However, recent changes in the Greek Educational System gave them the privilege to provide postgraduate studies as well, with the collaboration of other National or International Universities. The quality of educational standards which they provide has considerably improved over the last years, as the Greek Government spends huge investments on them. The Greek Government aims to transform them to Technical Universities, which will differentiate them from the other National Universities.

All Greek universities are strictly public, including TEIs. They do not charge tuition fees. The university halls of residence do not charge rent, but they can only accommodate a small number of students. Therefore the majority of them prefer to stay in private halls or to rent a flat or share an apartment with other co-students. Because most universities and TEIs are situated in large cities, such as Athens, Thessaloniki, Patra, and Heraklio, they usually attract students from all over the country. Hence the collection of data from universities that are in the major cities in Greece would be expected to be representative of educated young Greeks as consumer shoppers.

2.7   Greek university students as apparel shoppers

College students were selected as a target group for examining the problem under investigation, as they spend a great proportion of their income on clothing consumption. Evidence from the literature shows that young people tend to follow the fashion trends more easily compared with other groups. Therefore most of the apparel retailers target their products to that special group. Greek college students, when they choose to

purchase clothes, are influenced by many sources. Such sources arise from the effects of different media, fashion magazines, word of mouth, social groups, and store environment/layout (Cardoso and Tsourvakas, 2005). The authors, after exploring young Greek clothing consumers' attitudes, and using a qualitative analysis (i.e. focus groups) on a student sample, found that they are interested in buying clothes that offer value for their money. More explicitly, Greek college students select branded apparel clothes that simultaneously provide them with comfort, design, and quality.

Moreover, Greek consumers, in order to form their final preferences evaluate those attachments in conjunction with the accompanied satisfaction received. Recent findings show that Greek consumers as apparel clothing shoppers are primarily influenced by the level of the price paid. On the other hand it was found that they show less interest in the benefits acquired (Greek Ministry of Development, 2008).

While it was found that price acts as an important referent for them. The report also identified that consumers who are driven by the different prices seen on their apparel shopping trips are not influenced by the quality of the product. Thus they prefer to buy less expensive apparel clothes. The same is true for those who have as referents the discounted prices, or special offers. On the other hand those who are interested in buying expensive apparel products are interested more in the quality of the fabric and other aesthetics (i.e. beauty and image). Greek students are also characterized by a compulsive behaviour toward clothes. Given that, they are more impulsive driven, and do not spend additional effort and time on their purchases.

Research carried out by Aulonitis et al. (2008) tried to examine what influenced consumer perceptions and consumption incentives, during real-time purchase decisions, i.e. inside a shopping centre. Data was collected from 593 customers, using the method of personal interviews. It was found that the majority of the customers were strongly interested in selecting products that were offered in shops that had a unique shopping environment and image (i.e. variety of assortment, price comparisons, friendly atmosphere, good service, and efficiency). However the data was collected from a consumer sample that was not just limited to students. Moreover shopping centres are usually located at the outskirts of a city, where it is possible to go only by public transport, or by car. In that case students have less chance to go to multi-centres as most

of them do not have their own transport. Thus their findings are not generalizable to capture students' behaviour, as well.

Similarly, a more complete report was carried out by a private organization (Visa Europe, 2007) that belongs to the banking sector. That organization frequently conducts marketing research targeted towards different groups of the shopping public. The specific research identified was targeted to young Greek consumers, aged over 17 years old, who lived in the city of Thessaloniki. Personal interviews were employed for a sample of 1000 young consumers, most of whom were working students, the aim of which was to measure customers' profiles in that domain. The following findings were noted that best characterize their shopping behaviour:

- Greek young consumers in their consumption purchases tend to visit big stores only if they are accessed easily (i.e. they are inside the city centre). In contrast they prefer small stores, that are close to the city and to their neighbourhood
- The majority of them prefer to do their shopping in the city centre
- They seek branded products, but on the other hand if they like a non-branded one they will proceed to a purchase
- They are more influenced by new trends and are fashion-oriented
- They are more impulsive driven, and they do not keep tracks and records on their expenses.

To conclude, the report identified that their clothing shopping behaviour is strongly influenced by other social groups. For example they prefer to go shopping alone, but they make their final decisions according to advice from their close peers, and their family.

2.8   Summary

The main conclusion is that reference points are characterized as dynamic constructs that are influenced by many factors. The literature revealed that these factors can be divided in two distinct dimensions, e.g. explicit and implicit. Most literature about the problem under investigation examines those dimensions separately, and without a clear indication of how they are elaborated by individuals. Therefore the main findings from the literature are somewhat disjointed and context dependent. On the other hand the

literature on reference points suggests that there is a considerable need to connect the impact of reference points with cognitive individual differences. Therefore decision-making styles were selected and particularly the cognitive personality domain of consumer-decision making styles, as they better represent how consumers behave, act and make decisions.

The next chapter analyses the literature on reference points, to try to capture a more concrete analysis of what constructs should be included in the conceptualization of reference points, which will be used in the qualitative approach that serves to build the reference points inventory. The current research on decision-making styles is also examined.

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3. CHAPTER THREE: Literature Review on Reference Points

3.0 Introduction

A careful examination review of the literature indicates that consumers use simultaneously both explicit and implicit reference points (Dholakia and Simonson, 2005; Babutsidze, 2007). The former appear from the perspective of the seller (i.e. benefits, rewards, product attributes, assortments, framing and price), while the latter happen because of the consumer perspective (i.e. goals, timing or point of purchase, emotional state or other aesthetics, previous experiences, reference groups, culture).

The main problem in the current literature on reference points is that those two dimensions of referents have been examined separately and inside the domain of prospect theory (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Thaler, 2008). To date, no research has tried to bring together in a coherent way the findings of the considerable literature on consumer reference points. In addition the extant literature reveals that there is a substantial need for practitioners to study reference points with a wider variety of attributes, targeted to specific decision-making situations, trying in a meaningful way to conceptualize reference points (Hu et al., 2006). However this research differs significantly from the origins of prospect theory, in that the examination of reference points emanates directly from the consumers' minds on more realistic decision-making tasks. In fact reference points haven't yet been conceptualized as a whole construct. Therefore the problem addressed in this study is to identify which reference points consumers utilize in order to form their consumption preferences by developing a valid measurement scale.

3.1 Theoretical background of reference points

The literature on reference points has largely been guided by the principles of prospect theory. For example the main argument of prospect theory is that it is possible to examine every decision as a choice between prospects (reference points) and ultimately by framing those prospects or violating them by anchoring them differently one can gain more reliable results (Kahneman, 2003). Moreover reference points were given to actors in specific decision tasks, without examining further to uncover the basis of the formation of reference points. However, consumers do not always behave following the

principles of prospect theory, i.e. they are not always seeking absolute maximization over their choices, and they are not always interpreting decision tasks in terms of perceived gains and losses (Van Osselaer, 2005; Babutsidze, 2007).

Prospect theory derives from the work of Kahneman and Tversky (1979) which presented an alternative to the principles of the earlier utility theory (Friedman and Savage, 1948; Shafir and Thaler, 2006; Staddon, 1992; Thaler, 2008; Tversky and Kahneman, 1986). According to utility theory individuals seek absolute maximization of the expected value (Friedman and Savage, 1952; Van Osselaer et al., 2005). The expected value is derived rationally by evaluating different choice alternatives and selecting the option that has the maximum return (Friedman and Savage, 1948). Thus the principle of utility theory stands upon absolute maximization of choices and preferences (Shafir and Thaler, 2006).

However, prospect theory argues that individuals do act in this way, but, rather, make subjective evaluations which can be regarded as irrational in the world of specific presuppositions (Tversky and Kahneman, 1986; Devetag, 1999; Mayhew and Winer, 2002). The prospect theorists examined multiple categories of examples, in which preferences in diverse situations violate the axioms of utility theory (see also Thaler, 1980; Laibson and Zeckhauser, 1998; Kahneman, 2003).

Devetag (1999) points out that preferences are structured by association with a reference point, which has an impact on the anticipated gains and losses. In addition, she argued that consumers have time-inconsistent preferences, and their evaluations of different products are qualified by self-structured heuristics that arise from social and self-interest considerations. Laibson and Zeckhauser (1998) concluded that the work of Tversky and Kahneman explained in general the inequalities in human judgement about decision-making, highlighting only the externalities for their rationale, but without giving any further explanation for the origin of those irregularities.

According to prospect theory, when decisions are made under risk, people (consumers) under-weight or underestimate outcomes that are only probable, as opposed to those that are certain. Prospect theory has been examined by placing actors in bounded rationality problems, using several prospects and distinct preferences, to study phenomena such as

the gambling effect. The results indicated that consumers are risk-seeking for losses that are below the reference point and risk-averse for gains that are above the reference point. In other words, consumers are risk-averse in choices that involve sure gains, and risk-seeking in choices that involve sure losses. This is depicted in figure 3.1.as an S-value function:

Figure 3:1 S-value Function
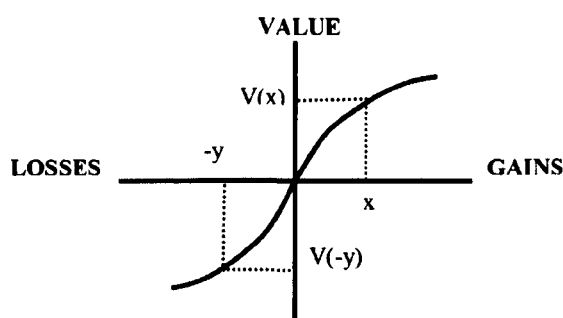
Hypothetical value function adapted by Kahneman and Tversky (1979: p.279)

The main two characteristics of the S-value function are the following:

(i) The value function is concave in the domain of gains ($U''(x) < 0$, $x > 0$) and convex in the domain of losses ($U''(x) > 0$, $x < 0$) and

(ii) The value function is loss aversion, declining steeply in the domain of losses (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Thaler, 1985; Kahneman, 1992).

Laboratory experiments have shown that people absorb more disutility or negativity for a potential loss, compared with the value and benefit from a potential gain (v(x) < |v (-x)|, x>0), i.e. the 'disutility' for losing $50 exceeds the 'utility' of obtaining (gaining) the same amount of money (v (50) < v (-50)) (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Tversky and Kahneman, 1986). In addition, the S-value function follows the rules of diminishing sensitivity. For example the importance of the pleasure for moving from $50 to $60 is less compared with the movement from $5 to $10 (Heath et al., 1999).

One drawback of prospect theory is the difficulty of predicting how consumers reframe decision-making problems and behave in a real-time situation. Barkan et al.'s (2005)

investigation into the area of integration and segregation recognizes that there exists a dynamic inconsistency bias, between the process of planned and actual consumer choices. The author's verdict was that people have more concrete knowledge about a specific product when they have already acquired one, rather than when they are buying it for the first time. Munro and Sugden (2003) criticized the endowment effect or status-quo bias, by underlining that reference points so far have been tested exogenously, which means that they are applied to decision-makers without examining possible discrepancies in other endogenous variables, such as customary or habitual consumption.

For example, consumers are most likely to search for additional information that will iterate and transform their initial reference points to more concrete and reliable ones, which on the actual decision frame will become their final reference points. That presupposition was previously suggested, in the work of Kahneman and Tversky (1979), to be risk-averse for positive frames and risk-seeking for negative frames. Related to that, Kinley et al. (2000) stressed that consumers, during their consumption tasks, have to process a plethora of information arising from personal cues, such as family, friends, co-workers, culture and from non-personal (or promotional) cues, that originate from marketing mix intensive variables (Kinley et al., 2000).

Furthermore in order to form their preferences, they use as a path their personal subjective maximization of utilities for evaluating specific products. For example it is envisaged that each option is a collection of attribute claims (Bettman et al., 1998) which consumers subjectively select and anchor in their mindsets (Babutsidze, 2007) with the most salient one dominating the others (Tversky and Sattath, 1979; Busemeyer and Johnson, 2003). They adopt this strategy by formulating individual justifications so as to constantly support and convince themselves that they have made the best choice, e.g. a trade-off between price versus quality (Simonson, 1989; Sheth et al. (1991). Therefore as a key path they elaborate on and use different reference points.

On the other hand, Bettman et al. (1998) suggested that consumers often make decisions on the spot, and that rather than having existing well-structured preferences, they develop them using a variety of constructive choice strategies (e.g. weighted added strategy, highest value strategy, lexicographic and elimination by aspects strategy). A

good example of a constructive consumer decision task is the purchase of a car with various attributes as presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3:1 Constructive Consumer Decision-Making Task

Car	*Reliability*	*Price*	*Safety*	*Horsepower*
A	Worst	Best	Good	Very poor
B	Best	Worst	Worst	Good
C	Poor	Very good	Average	Average
D	Average	Poor	Best	Worst
E	Worst	Very poor	Good	Best

NOTE -Attributes are scored on seven-point scales ranging from best to worst, with best indicating the most desirable value for the attribute and worst indicating the least desirable value.
(Bettman et al., 1998)

Bettman et al. (1998) noted that the same individuals can use different strategies in order to make their final decisions. However their preferences are always context-dependent. This also indicates that preferences are subject to information processing. As consumers acquire more information regarding a specific consumption decision task, their initial preferences will be reformed and reshaped.

Because consumers have limited capacity to process the amount of information presented to them, they use different indicators as reference points simultaneously, so as to make their final selections, e.g. the use of attributes such as reliability only, or reliability versus price, and price versus safety. Betts and Taran (2005) showed empirically that consumers are risk-seeking below the average reference point, e.g. the reliability of a car brand compared with the price of it, or vice versa. Novemsky et al. (2007) added that consumers construct their choices during their buying process in terms of preference fluency.

In addition, it is commonly accepted by social psychologists that when consumers have to make a decision, they take into consideration the engagement of a possible stimulus that may arise from past or current experiences. Klein and Oglethorpe (1987), in their research, posed a question regarding the meaning of possible reference prices and whether they can be perceived as reference points. They identified that a consumer creates reference points, e.g. the price, for different reasons.

They summed up those categories as: aspirational price (the price that I would like to pay or a reasonable price); the market price (which is the average retail price); and historical price (which is the last price I paid or the price I usually pay). Their question is not significant however, as in their research they could not find reasonable explanations. They stated that further research needed to be conducted, which would be targeted at the inner psyche and mindsets in order to assess the meaning and reasoning of how consumers utilize and categorize reference points. Thus, in order for this to be achieved, it is necessary to open up the factors that affect the conceptualization of reference points.

3.2 The explicit reference point literature

Explicit reference points are those that arise from a seller's perspective (Dholakia and Simonson, 2005). A review of the literature on explicit reference points has highlighted the following:

3.2.1 Price referents

A reference price is an indicator that influences consumer price preferences. A reference price can arise from different sources, i.e. the price of past purchases (Briesch et al., 1997), the current prices of an alternative product (Biehal and Chakravarti, 1983), or a suggested price that comes from a friend or other peer group (Mussweiler, 2003). The main point is that the construct of a reference price appears in the domain of the seller, whatever its source. The effect of time on reference prices is an important factor that drives consumers to reorganize and shape their final preferences. For example, a consumer, during a buying-decision process, untangles different sets of reference prices, as new information is collected from various sources (Tarnanidis and Frimpong, 2009). Briesch et al. (1997), after making a comparative analysis of existing reference price models (Hardie et al., 1993; Rajendran and Tellis, 1994; Mazumdar and Papatia, 1995; Krishnamurthi et al., 1992; Kalyanaram and Little, 1994; Kalwani et al., 1990; Winer, 1986), identified five models on which consumers make their choices with respect to the indicators of possible reference prices:

- First, the consumer choice may be based on *"Random Brand's Current Price"*, and is associated with a lack of familiarity and knowledge. These consumers usually choose a brand out of habit, and it makes consumers pick a random choice from the available alternatives. The authors argue that consumers create an initial reference

point, i.e. brands that are presented inside the store, and then a comparison analysis with other brands is inevitably made.

- Second, the consumer choice may be based on *"Reference Brand's Current Price"*, which relates to retrieved memories from past purchases of a specific brand and acts as an indicator for the formation of reference prices.

- The third indicator is the *"Prices of Previously Selected Brands"*, and it enables consumers to screen rapidly all the available price information given, by starting to eliminate options according to their past knowledge. The elaboration of this model is based on the work of Biehal and Chakravarti (1983) who argued that consumers often store and use information about products that they can relate to previous experience, rather than products they have not experienced, or similar products which they reject as a bundle of products (for a review see Biehal and Chakravarti 1983).

- The fourth indicator is *"Brand-Specific Past Prices"*, and is common to the history of a specific brand, its previous price and its current price.

- Fifth, there is *"Brand-Specific Past Prices and Other Information"*, which arises with most of the previous models, but includes information regarding the willingness to buy specific brands according to a favourable current deal.

Reference price indicators are important sources of reference points that consumers utilize during their decision-making (Wertenbroch et al., 2007). However, according to Yin and Paswan (2007) the construct of reference price is very volatile as it depends on the product type and on the different price comparisons that consumers usually make. Besides, the research carried out by Briesch et al. (1997), assumes that most consumers use memory-based models in which they assess information that comes from the perceived price history. However, it should be noted that those five models were developed to identify possible indicators of reference prices in purchases of specific products, such as peanut butter, liquid detergent, tissues, or coffee. Therefore further research needs to be conducted in order to capture factors that can act as an antecedent for price referents and which will help in the conceptualization of the construct.

As an example, one such factor, according to the research undertaken by Johnson et al. (1999), is the effect of bundled and de-bundled product offerings. These days, marketers clearly use reference point assimilation of multiple complementary products, offering

consumers a unique set package with a favourable price, e.g. a package that includes a perfume, a deodorant, and a bath lotion, at a fixed price (Mulhern and Leone, 1991; Simonson et al., 1994). It was found that two dimensions of perceived gains and losses should be included with an overall package price (i.e. bundled=integrated), the price discount information displayed separately (i.e. debundled=segregated).

As Hamilton and Koukova (2006) indicate, consumers judge the different product packages according to the presentation format that they have, e.g. labelling. For example, we can consider the discounted bundling of a computer and a printer, which can be labelled as 'suitable for students' or 'for office use only'. Thus, the presentation format of bundling options influences consumer choices and the formation of reference points.

Adaval and Monroe (2002) investigated the influence of contextual information on price evaluation, that is, consumers perceive different prices when the product is in either a high or low price context. Product B may be perceived as expensive in a low price context [A=$60, B= **$100,** C= $70] or as inexpensive in another context with higher prices [B= **$100,** D=$125 E=$150]. What is more, the authors showed that consumer judgements about product price are reflected in the first price they see. They illustrate with the example of a $30 shirt, which can be perceived as cheap or expensive depending on whether consumers saw it before their exposure to a more expensive or cheaper shirt.

The extant literature suggests that the selection of a reference price can be strongly influenced by other extrinsic cues, such as the country in which the product was manufactured, or Country of Origin (COO). For example Piron (2000) examined the effects of COO on (in)conspicuous consumption by employing Bourne's (1957) typology of four dimensions, i.e. public versus private consumption and luxury versus necessity consumption. The author defined conspicuous consumption as *"the social and public visibility surrounding the consumption of the product"* (p.309). He maintained that COO had a significant impact on consumer decision-making in a wide variety of consumer product categories, such as clothing, food products, beverages, perfumes and electronics or even cars. In addition, he showed that the effects of COO being displayed

on the labels of products would be more influential for luxury products than for necessity goods.

Another such factor which has an indirect effect on consumer judgement about the formation of price referents is the locus of control, either external or internal. This factor does not belong with extrinsic cues that accompany a product offer, nor intrinsic ones, though it arises from deep personal cues, and it is associated with other social referents (Kongsompong , 2006). Kongsompong attempted to measure the impact of internal versus external locus of control, in two different countries, Australia (individualist) and Singapore (collectivistic). He concluded that people with an internal locus of control are more direct with their decisions and are less influenced by other social and cultural referents (e.g. reference groups). Therefore those consumers who have a high internal locus of control are not influenced by others and could be characterized as self-referents. An external locus of control however is more important for those consumers who are more ambivalent about their consumption choices and who ultimately are more vulnerable to social influences. Finally, the author showed that individualistic cultures are more internally oriented, whereas collectivistic cultures are externally oriented.

Chandrashekaran (2001), and Chandrashekaran and Jagpal (1995), analysed the construct of reference price in terms of a unitized and non-unitized internal reference price. They suggested that four constructs of reference prices could be developed from previous findings, i.e. a fair price (Thaler, 1985), a reservation price (Bearden et al., 1982), a lowest-observed price and a normal price. Their examination was based on the measurement of effects of different levels of involvement with regard to the offer value. The authors utilized a model which included two separate processes in which internal reference prices act as reference points and could be used differently by consumers as presented in figures 3.2 and 3.3.

Figure 3:2 Unitized Internal Reference Price Model
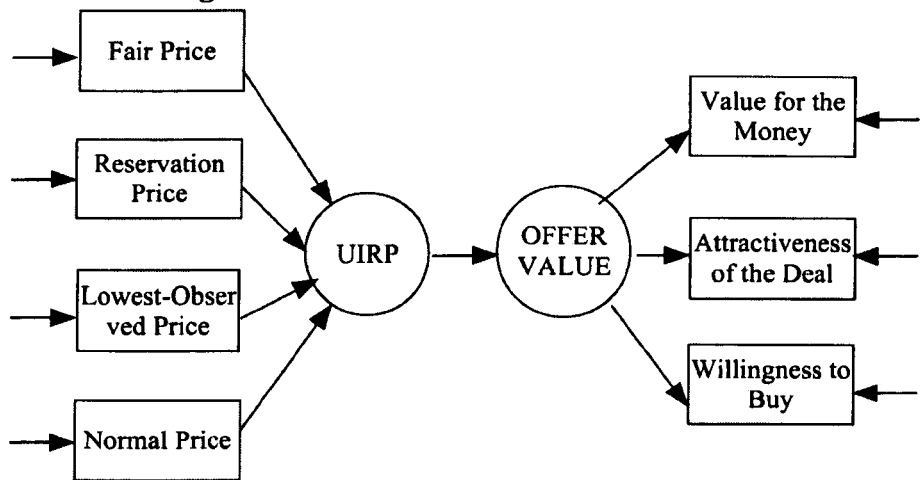
Source: Chandrashekaran and Jagpal, 1995

Figure 3:3 Non-Unitized Internal Reference Price Model
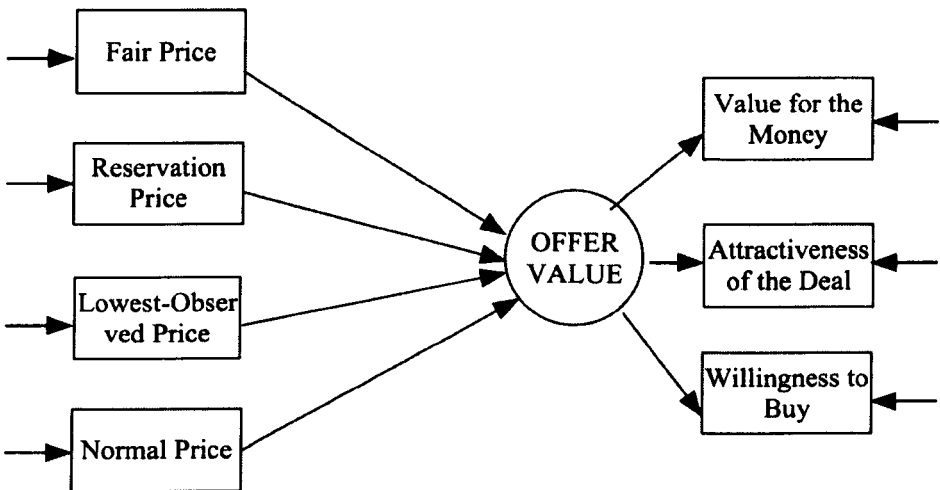
Source: Chandrashekaran and Jagpal, 1995

The idea of the offer value is a strong mediator in the buying decision process (e.g. Greenwald and Banaji, 1995), and directly affects the formation of an internal reference price (Zaichkowsky,1985). Chandrashekaran (2001) found that the level of the consumers' involvement in different product categories (e.g. high or low) influences the strategy that they employ in their consumption choice. In addition he found that consumers prefer to use multiple internal reference prices. However one limitation of his findings was that the results are valid and consistent with regard to only one construct, offer value.

Wertenbroch et al. (2007) examined consumer choices between the nominal and real value of money, in terms of assessing the differences of reference values such as budget constraints. The authors found that consumers make choices between different products by having as implicit reference points their own available budget. For example consumers always consider perceived differences between the money spent on a specific product (e.g. nominal value) and their own shopping budget (e.g. real value). Therefore there is a considerable need to develop the links between such constructs.

As a whole it can be concluded by the researcher that the construct of reference price belongs to the category of explicit reference points, which consumers select to use, in order to form their final consumption preferences. In addition the construct of reference price is an important source of referent, which helps consumers to form their final preferences. For example consumers evaluate apparel clothes based on the aforementioned different sources of reference price (Kongsompong, 2006; Briesh et al., 1997). Therefore price referents strongly affect consumers' product evaluations and decision-making, and which needs to be included in the aforementioned conceptualization of referents.

3.2.2 Framing referents

Most research on reference points has been guided by behavioural economics, which has constantly challenged the principles of normative economics (Friedman and Savage, 1952). According to Friedman and Savage (1948) normative economics explicitly underpins the domain of rational choice theory. In economics, rational choice theory relates to the principles of utility theory, in which individuals act rationally and seek absolute maximization of their choices (Lichbach, 2003). On the other hand, behavioural economics implicitly underpins the domain of rational choice theory, where individuals act rationally, but without seeking to maximize their preferences and choices. Instead they suggest that consumer choices and preferences are context-dependent (Bettman et al., 1998). This can be seen in the different framing of preferences.

McKenzie and Nelson (2003) state that framing effects involve the rewording of descriptions of attributes and have a direct effect and impact on people's choices and

preferences. For example research on measuring the effects of framing has been made in the areas of:

- Aggregation and segregation of paying back a loan from one's current wealth (Kahneman and Tversky, 1984; Tversky and Kahneman, 1981; Thaler, 1985; Frisch, 1993; Beggan, 1994)

- Bargaining and purchase negotiations (Neale and Bazerman, 1985; Neale et al., 1987; Schurr, 1987; Beggan and Manelli, 1994)

- Medical treatments (Levin et al., 1988; Levin and Chapman, 1990, Levin and Chapman, 1993; Maule, 1989)

- Organizational and financial decisions (Qualls and Puto, 1989; Roszkowski and Snelbecker, 1990; Arkes et al., 2008)

- Promotions and advertisements, i.e. for positive/negative experiences of products that exert strong/weak framing effects (Hoch and Ha, 1986; Dunegan, 1996; Grewal et al., 1994)

- Product attributes (Levin et al., 1988; Dholakia and Simonson, 2005; Hu et al., 2006; McDaniels, 1992).

Those constructs can be perceived as gains when they are framed positively, and as losses when they are framed negatively (Tversky and Kahneman, 1981, Tversky and Kahneman, 1986; Fagley and Miller, 1997; Reyna and Brainerd, 1991; Bohm and Lind, 1992; Highhouse and Paese, 1996). For instance, one can consider the ubiquitous example that was constructed initially by Tversky and Kahneman (1981) of the prospect of an Asian disease from which 600 people were expected to die. Respondents had to make a decision between two equal alternative options (i.e. If programme A was adopted, 200 people would be saved, whereas if programme B was adopted, there would be 1/3 probability that 600 people would be saved, and 2/3 probability that no people would be saved). The majority of respondents (78%) preferred the positive framing, which is the first option. Fagley and Miller (1997) reported that in risky choices such as life or money matters, outcomes showed that the former is predominantly perceived in a negative frame, while the latter is preponderant in a positive frame.

As Levin and Gaeth (1988) realized, people tend to focus on positive/negative characteristics of the product, according to positive/negative messages. They measured the impact of framing effects on intrinsic product attributes, e.g. qualitative attributes of

ground beef, that were framed as either 75% lean or 25 % fat. They concluded that the consumers' preference was for the beef with the more favourable information, and stressed the importance of this labelling when consumers actually use the product itself.

For example in the case of the '75% lean' labelling, consumers evaluated only the positive attributes, and conversely, only the negative attributes in the other case of the '25% fat' labelling. McKenzie and Nelson (2003) added that credible and accurate frames resulted in more implicit information. For example in the case of ground beef, the message '25% fat' immediately conveys its fat content in the ingredients, and thus consumers describe it likewise. Similarly Levin et al. (1988) examined attribute framing for success or failure rates in medical treatment, where they found the same results. And in more recent research they concluded that the findings were consistent and reliable, as the same alternative was evaluated as more favourable in the case of the positive description and less favourable in the case of the negative description (Levin et al. 1998). However these findings also suggest that consumer perceptions and previous experience about specific products are reframed according to the information presented.

In a similar vein, Levin et al. (1988) developed a typology distinguishing three types of framing effect: *risky choice framing* (e.g. if programme A is adopted 1/3 of the persons treated will reduce their cholesterol, and if programme B is adopted there is a 1 in 3 chance that all the people will reduce the cholesterol, whereas there is a 2 in 3 chance all will fail), *attribute framing* (e.g. the example with ground beef) and *goal framing* (e.g. not eating red meat because it increases the probability of heart disease).

More recently, Levin et al. (2002) examined the relationship between those three types of framing referents, by using the aforementioned examples and connecting them with the individual differences that arise from the use of the "Big Five Personality Inventory" (Digman, 1990) and the "Rational–Experiential Inventory" (Epstein et al., 1996). The results from the laboratory experiment indicated that framing effects for attribute and risky choice were most reliable, and that among those three types there was low interdependency. Furthermore their results supported the hypothesis that individual differences arise from the domain of personality affecting the way people judge reference points.

Simonson and Tversky (1992) proposed two principles which affect consumer buying decisions: trade-off contrasts and extremeness aversion. The authors used an experimental method to examine consumers' evaluations of different product trade-offs (e.g. three types of video cameras). The principle of extremeness aversion is that only intermediate options will be considered. They found that the same product appears more attractive when compared against less favourable alternatives and vice versa. In addition, they showed that the principle of trade-off contrasts can be effectively applied when making trade-offs amongst different product attributes.

Simonson (1989) pointed out that consumers evaluate products by making comparisons with alternative brands. He stressed that brands can increase their share and their image when they manage to become alternatives in a specific set of potential market choices. It can be argued that this indicator of reference points is more applicable to expensive purchases (e.g. clothing items). However, Simonson and Tversky (1992) concluded that consumers are more likely to be influenced by context effects if they do not have established preferences. In contrast, when consumers have articulated preferences, then context effects will exert less impact on them.

The research carried out by Dholakia and Simonson (2005) was based on examining on-line bidding behaviours. Specifically they managed to discover the most important behaviours in how consumer judgement is formed during an on-line buying process. They concluded that explicit points of reference engender more cautious and risk-averse behaviour. On the other hand they found that the use of comparisons brought in context effects and framing. They proposed, for example, that the use of comparisons as reference points could be made more effective for strong brands, compared with intermediate ones, which are less challenging. Strong brands would thus be more effective in engaging implicit reference points, while intermediate ones engage explicit reference points.

3.2.3 Product attribute referents

Van Ittersum et al. (2005) stated that prime attributes act as internal reference points, which are shaped through previous use of the product. When the trade-offs among different product attribute levels are larger, the attributes become more prominent in the consumer's mindset. The implications of priming attributes were examined in the work

of Yi (1990), in which he demonstrated that consumers make different judgements of the same product, depending on contextual factors, e.g. information in ads or information in magazines, which ultimately can change the consumer's initial beliefs.

Heyman et al. (2005) examined reference points in terms of shifting from background reference points to immediate ones, with regard to the measurement of pleasure anticipation in the pre-purchase and post-purchase decision processes. In their research, they reported that background reference points (e.g. previous knowledge) can modify the gratification of immediate reference points (e.g. current knowledge), and ultimately can make the difference between pleasure and counterfactual outcomes. For example "what might have been" does not outweigh "what actually occurred" in a losing gamble, and "being on a winning streak" produces greater pleasure after losing some money than after not losing any. This refers to when someone loses a bet but doesn't lose as much as they could have done

Evidence from the literature also suggests that satisfied customers usually re-purchase the same products (e.g. Dabholkar, 1994; Erevelles and Leavitt, 1992; Fournier and Mick, 1999). Those consumers also have more vivid and ambiguous expectations. The same implications can be seen in consumption situations in terms of acquisition or forfeiture of distinct product attributes, between hedonistic and utilitarian product attributes (for a review see: Batra and Ahtola, 1990; Wertenbroch and Dhar, 2000; Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Mano and Oliver, 1993; O'Curry and Strahilevits, 2001; Lageat et al., 2003).

Wertenbroch and Dhar (2000) argued that consumers make their purchases according to an evaluation of sensory and non-sensory attributes and that consumers during the buying process are influenced differently in their choices by those two classes of attributes. In the first category consumers are trying to satisfy their needs and wants more profoundly. Thus they seek attributes for pleasure, passion, and excitement. Such purchases are items such as branded clothes, perfumes, and luxury cars. In the other category consumers are seeking satisfaction more theoretically. In that case they use instrumental and functional attributes. Such purchases would be microwaves, alarm clocks, and computers (Wertenbroch and Dhar, 2000).

The practical implications that Wertenbroch and Dhar (2000) examined were based on the extent to which those different reference points entwine and influence consumer choices between the trade-offs among specific core attributes. For example, where one is faced with the choice of a simple non-branded generic wrist watch versus a branded one, like Gucci or Timberland.. In addition, Lageat et al. (2003: p.97) pointed out that "Closing the door of a Rolls Royce produces a more elegant sound than closing the door of a Volkswagen Beetle". Likewise Hirchman and Holbrook (1982: p.92) argued that "smelling a perfume may cause the consumer not only to perceive and encode its scent but also to generate internal imagery containing sights, sounds and tactile impressions, all of which are also experienced".

However Lageat et al. (2003) and Seock and Bailey (2009) maintained that the existing literature had not addressed thoroughly the relevance of those two attributes since it is difficult to understand why consumers act in a favourable manner towards certain products. Hence the authors concluded that consumer evaluations are built on subjective sensory experiences. For example if consumers do not have the tacit knowledge or expertise to assess the different attributes of a product, or simply lack interest, as an alternative strategy they obtain some reference points according to their sensory experiences and beliefs, which all play a dominant role in the actual purchase decision-making.

3.2.4   Reward referents

Consumer choices are also affected by the value of rewards which are acquired from the selection of products. Marketers use frequency loyalty programmes (FPs) as an extension of their marketing mix tools, in order to retain their customers (Kivetz and Simonson, 2002). Evidence from the literature suggests that nowadays sellers are using FPs extensively, with the ultimate goal of retaining their existing sales and customers. It is generally accepted that retaining an existing customer is more cost-effective than acquiring a new one (O'Brien and Jones, 1995).

Furthermore sellers are seeking to change customers' willingness to buy, from impulsive to planned purchasing behaviours. This will help customers as well, since they will favour more stable gains (Kopalle and Neslin, 2003; Dowling and Uncles, 1997). Therefore they create long-term marketing programmes which are based on

measuring individual purchases more easily in terms of future cumulative rewards (Lewis, 2004). Significant research carried out by Kivetz and Simonson (2003), contributed to the development of assessing individual choices with regard to their idiosyncratic patterns of heuristics. The authors suggest that consumer choices arise from their self-beliefs about the suitability of different product offers, which stem from satisfaction of their personal needs. In their research they tried to analyse idiosyncratic fit versus individual efforts in joining different FPs, e.g. a gas station programme that is close to one's house (low individual effort=high idiosyncratic fit) or not close (high individual effort=low idiosyncratic fit). They outlined that the differences in the two extremes among consumers are based upon the advantages of reference efforts.

According to Kivetz (2003) consumers make positive or negative evaluations of rewards according to the magnitude of prospects related to investing contingent efforts. He attempted to associate the intrinsic motivation of contingent effort with the outcomes of prospect theory. He asserted that consumer preferences are more favourable with certain, small, and sure rewards, compared with large and uncertain rewards. For example a consumer choice that includes a possible and substantial reward is either to become a card member that provides for future discount purchases, which are relatively small but easily realized rewards, or to collect miles from an airline company, so as to enjoy a free voucher for a romantic destination that includes free hotel offers.

Similarly with effort rewards the author adds that they usually take risky forms, e.g. uncertain prizes in frequency programmes, like participation in a lottery, with a low probability of winning a super prize, as the participation rate will be very high. According to mental accounting theory the outcome of not receiving a reward by not adding any effort can be seen as a neutral value of "status quo", and not as a loss, i.e. $V_0(x) = x$ and $R_E = 0$ (reference point effort equals zero). Conversely, the other case where a choice demands a substantial effort by the participant, transforms the value of x and the reference point to greater than zero, i.e. $V_E = x$ and $R_E \succ 0$. This presupposition follows the rules of prospect theory and can be explained from the perspective of value, which is greater when there is effort and reward, i.e. $V_E(x) - V_E(0) \succ V_0(x) - V_0(0)$.

Kivets and Strahilevitz (2001) underline that consumers, by utilizing such promotional tools, want to satisfy their status quo, i.e. they seek self-justification and more

accountability for their choices. Accordingly, Ordonez et al. (2000) have examined the effects of multiple reference points with regard to potential satisfaction and fairness appraisal. They argue that usually consumers use multiple reference points, i.e. price versus quality and rewards versus fairness. The authors tried to measure the discrepancies and asymmetries of accompanying multiple referents in the domain of salary gains among MBA graduate students. They used comparison judgements in terms of having a focal point (target), which in that case would be the salary that MBA graduates would obtain when they were employed. However, they found that the costs of 'pain' were greater for those who received lower salaries in relation to their colleagues, than for those who received higher salaries. With fairness assessment they found many discrepant effects, such as the focal target being perceived as less fair by those who received a salary below it, and more fair by those who received a salary above it. Likewise, consumers would be more elated and happy if, with a purchase of one product, they received an unexpected reward or offer, but would feel more displeasure if they had been expecting a reward but didn't get one.

3.2.5 Assortment referents

Chernev (2003) notes that the breadth of assortment in a specific product category has a strong impact on consumer preferences, since they have to evaluate more choices before making the final selection. However, recent research has shown that when consumers have more choices, the decision tasks become more vague, confusing and uncertain (Dhar, 1997; Oppewal and Koelemeijer, 2005).

The research carried out by Chernev (2003) was based on measuring the factors on which consumer choices and preferences are strengthened or weakened, in conjunction with large/small assortments. His contribution was based on measuring as a factor, 'an ideal point availability' that makes consumers narrow down their choices. He demonstrated the importance of this 'ideal point availability' as a combination of attributes that act as a mediating factor on consumer preferences pointing to larger/smaller assortments. More recently, Chernev (2006) found that when consumers have articulated preferences, like a combination of favourable attributes which they will seek to identify when being exposed either to large or to small assortments, then, where there is a wide choice, they will have stronger preferences in distinguishing their ideal choice from the alternatives while with a smaller assortment they will be less

committed by strong preferences. Therefore the 'ideal point availability' can be interpreted as an explicit reference point.

3.3   The implicit reference point literature

Implicit reference points are those that arise from the perspective of a consumer (Dholakia and Simonson, 2005). The following referents were identified from a review of the literature on implicit reference points:

3.3.1 Goal referents

Heath et al. (1999) claim that consumers make their choices according to their personal goals. Personal goals are a focal source of implicit reference points, e.g. buying one's favourite perfume by the end of month. The authors suggest that the literature on goals (for a review see Tolman, 1959; Locke & Latham, 1991; Markus and Ruvolo, 1989; Pervin, 1989) gives new insights into the decision-making literature (e.g. Kahneman and Tversky 1979; Thaler 1980, 1985). Their research was based on the principles of the S-value function (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979), where they demonstrated that goals can be examined as reference points which can alter the values in terms of loss aversion and diminishing sensitivity. For example when people are below their goals (losses) they try harder to attain the target results. On the other hand when they are above their goals (gains), their additional performance or effort will be less (e.g. Loewenstein et al., 1989; Loewenstein et al., 2001). Sheth et al. (1991) defined goals as seeking and satisfying multiple values. The elaboration of those multiple values was taken from the previous work Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943, 1954, and 1970) and also from recent personality models (Sheth , 1974; Sheth et al., 1990). Those multiple values are presented in figure 3.4.

Figure 3:4 Multiple Consumption Values
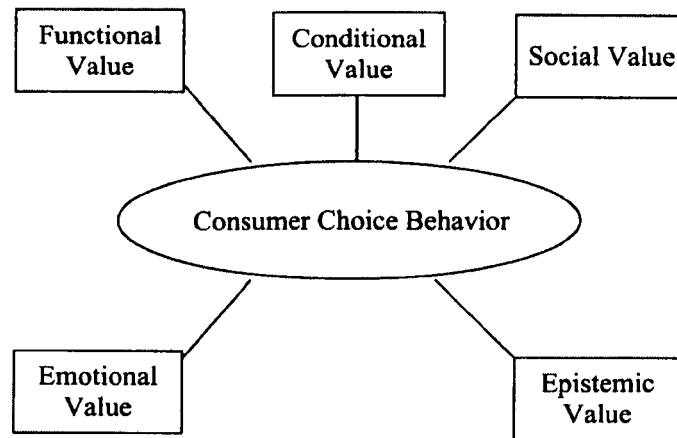
Source: Sheth et al., 1991, p. 160

The authors suggest that consumer choice is a function of those multiple consumption values and their influences arise from the specific choice situation. They have defined the values as follows:

(a)   Functional value: The perceived utility acquired from functional utilitarian and physical performance.

(b)   Social value: The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's association with one or more specific social groups.

(c)   Emotional value: The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse feelings of affective states.

(d)   Epistemic value: The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and/or satisfy a desire for knowledge.

(e)   Conditional value: The perceived utility acquired by an alternative as the result of the specific situation or set of circumstances, facing the choice maker (Sheth et al., 1991: pp. 160-162).

They argue that consumer choices can be a combination of those values, or a duel or trade-off among them. They illustrate the example (p.163) of a home buyer who seeks to satisfy and combine all the five values in a decision regarding a new apartment.

(a)   Functional value: The new home is larger and more comfortable than his/her previous apartment.

(b)   Social value: His/her friends are looking to purchase a new apartment in the same area.

(c)   Emotional value: The new apartment offers more security.

(d)   Epistemic value: The consumer enjoys the whole process as he/she uses and acquires more knowledge.

(e)   Conditional value: The new apartment is closer to his/her work, or is closer to the city centre. Additionally he/she can start a new family as the new apartment is bigger.

From this example we can conclude that those associated values act as goals, which in turn play a vital role in the final formulation of the purchase decision. Thus, they are important implicit reference points. Bettman (1979) argues that the consumer buying-decision process has already previously been formulated through information-processing, suggesting that consumers are behaving more coherently and logically in formulating their goals.

In contrast Holbrook (1999) examined the experiential aspects of consumption, as opposed to the informational aspects. He found that consumers are not only looking to justify/satisfy their primary goals but are following a more complex process which embraces psychoanalytic and cognitive motivations, such as feelings, fun, and fantasies. To that extent, Adaval (2001) demonstrated that the status quo or the prevailing psychological situations of consumers, e.g. feeling happy/unhappy, exerts important influences on the final choices, thus the dominance of evaluating hedonistic attributes, compared with utilitarian ones.

Van Osselaer et al. (2005) identified three types of goals which act as implicit reference points, and influence the ultimate selection of specific preferences or alternative product bundles: consumption goals, criterion goals and process goals. These goals are activated either directly/consciously or indirectly/subconsciously. With the first category, the consumption goals, a selection of products is related to the perceived interpretation of potential benefits, i.e. consumers buy beverages because they seek satisfaction of their cognitive and sensory experiences (e.g. the products taste good or give them a better image that reflects their own lives and personality traits), rather than because they are considering them as a cluster of accompanied attributes (e.g. package, price, ingredients). The second category, criterion goals, emanates from consumer prospects of seeking absolute satisfaction, a lack of knowledge resulting from a limited capacity to

assess all the information presented in specific product bundles (e.g. Bettman et al., 1998) and the need to justify and self-present tastes and preferences to others (e.g. Simonson, 1989; Puntoni and Tavassoli, 2004). The third category, process goals, includes issues about the whole buying-decision process, such as negative or positive emotions and the impact of perceived ease or difficulty of acquiring the product.

Previous research findings suggested that consumer goals could be categorized as choice, value, and anticipated satisfaction-oriented goals (e.g. Schkade and Johnson, 1989; Tversky et al., 1988; Carmon and Simonson, 1998; Shiv and Huber, 2000). Those different goal-sets exert different influences on how consumers deal with products and how their preferences are altered and structured during the whole buying process. Shiv and Huber (2000) examined goals in relation to the anticipated satisfaction of mental images. They claimed that a consumer's cognitive system recognizes and interprets the different reference points based on presuppositions of visualized ease, and constructs such a selection of vivid and robust attributes that create both positive and negative imagery formation. This process forms their final consumption attitudes and shopping behaviours. So, before actually purchasing a product, consumers construct in their mindsets if it is suitable for them or if it satisfies their goals that pertain to their mental imagery (Frederick, 2005).

Petrova and Cialdini (2005) examined these imagery effects on consumer choice motivation. Consistent with previous findings (e.g. Keller and McGill, 1994; Keller and Block, 1997; Escalas, 2004) they found that consumers form imagery or pictorial maps before being exposed to the actual point of purchase. They suggest that it is not always beneficial for the sellers to provide imagery construals, e.g. "imagine yourself or how it would appear to you...", as it may create conflict with consumers' own initial judgements or imagery construals. Therefore consumers use as reference points their own judgements and self-perceptual maps of imaginary experiences. The key concept is that consumers always have as initial reference points their egos (i.e. self-referent) and their aspirations among their peers (i.e. reference groups), and that creates self-imagery constructs, before they actually acquire the products.

According to Fitzsimons et al. (2002: pp.270-274) consumer goals are formed by a mixture of conscious and non-conscious stimuli. Their research was based on analysing

factors that structure and form consumer behaviour. Such factors are attention and perception, goal activation, learning and memory, attitude and preferences, and finally the impact of effort on choice.

According to Corbetta et al. (1991) attention is an antecedent for learning, which in turn affects conscious goals. Related to that, Biehal and Chakravarti (1982) distinguished two types of learning in consumer decisions. The first type refers to 'direct learning', which is the process of intended learning (e.g. consumers obtain as much information as they can about a specific product so as to form their own preferences or to justify their acquired knowledge to others). The second type refers to 'non-direct learning', which is acquired unintentionally (e.g. targeted information from advertisements while consumers watch their favourite programme on TV or while they are visiting a store). Likewise, the formation of personal goals, according to Fitzsimons et al. (2002) is activated and structured most of the time accidentally, without the awareness and the control of the actor (Chartrand and Bargh, 2002). Hence it is assumed that most consumers form their preferences and set their goals subconsciously. As consumers cannot measure and predict the reasoning of their own consumption behaviours, it can be concluded that this type of reasoning stems from a combination of past and current influences.

3.3.2   Time referents

Reference points have so far been examined by intertemporal choice decisions (e.g. Loewenstein, 1989; Loewenstein et al., 2001) and by reference effects (Hu et al., 2006; Briesch et al., 1997; Kalyanaram, 1994; Kalwani et al., 1990; Kalwani and Yim, 1990). Bell and Bucklin (1999) tried to examine the impact of internal reference points of purchase decisions for non-durable products (e.g. habitual consumption), in which consumers buy more repetitively and frequently. Specifically they examined the buy/no-buy decision (for a review see Dhar, 1997; Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991) in terms of time-constrained preferences (i.e. accelerated or delayed purchases). This can be constantly changing, as the buying context in which consumers usually make their choices alters, where the sellers may use different explicit reference points for their product offers each time, such as mass discounts and other promotion coupons.

Bell and Bucklin (1999) noted that for the purchase of a necessity product, e.g. for a specific brand of detergent, consumers can have different reference prices on each shopping occasion such as the regular 'shopping trips' (Kahn and Schmittlcin, 1989) consumers make for their daily purchases, e.g. when the supplies of some products have run out, but at the same time they may spontaneously buy to top up the supplies of other goods Therefore they adjust different reference prices that effect the decision of whether to buy now or to postpone a specific purchase (i.e. delayed consumption).

Devetag (1999) argues that consumers have time-inconsistent preferences, and their evaluations of different products are qualified by self-structured heuristics that arise from social and self-interest considerations. Furthermore the research carried out by Tarnanidis and Owusu-Frimpong (2009) determined that the use of reference points depends upon three timing events (ex-ante, ex-interium, and ex-post reference points) on which they are updated or improved in order for the consumer to structure his final preferences during the decision-making process. This can be seen on figure 3.5.

Figure 3:5 The Effects of Time on Reference Points
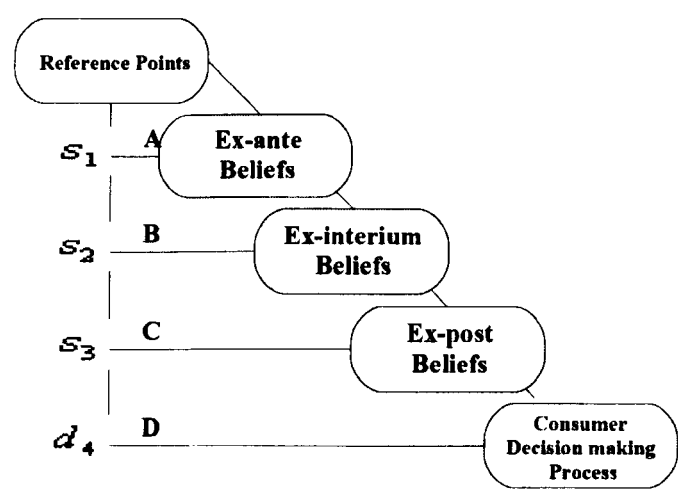
Source: Tarnanidis and Owusu-Frimpong, 2009: p.3

Consumers create multiple reference points that are elaborated through those three timing events. For example, ex-[ante/interium/post] beliefs refer to the utilization of explicit and implicit reference points, which have been formed by the consumers prior/during/after their exposition to the actual decision-making process. The authors

point out that reference points are dynamic constructs and are constantly being updated and changed with the arrival of new information.

3.3.3   Preference referents

Hoch and Lowenstein (1991) constructed a conceptual model of time-inconsistent preferences related to the construal of consumer self-control. They suggested a more coherent procedure of how consumers deal with their existing reference points in terms of planned and impulse shopping behaviours. They argued that consumers have, on the one hand, transient feelings and motives, and on the other, an anticipated self-control system, that simultaneously co-exist and interact together (i.e. immediate buying versus delayed buying, or impulse buying versus counterfactual feelings).

In addition, the authors claimed that physical proximity induces impatience. For example immediate inferior rewards versus delayed superior rewards, and social comparisons of different preference choices with superior peers, has an impact on decreasing delayed consumption and increasing proximity. They concluded that consumers oscillate between desire and willpower. In other words between their 'ego' which is more rational and logical, and their 'id' which is more intuitive and more impulse-driven, making them more inclined to buy. The shifting between those reference point effects was studied by White and McFarland (2006) where they analysed the influence of mood congruencies as a moderator on consumer preferences. It was found that the emotional state of a consumer shapes indirectly the outcome of his/her final choice, i.e. consumers connect their moods (happy/sad) with their judgements (Barone and Miniard, 2002). And since moods influence consumer judgements, they should have a direct effect on the selection of reference points.

3.3.4   Previous knowledge referents

Kahn and Schmittlcin (1989) found that the perceived gains for consumers are more for familiar brands and familiar store environments, than less familiar ones (for a review see Park et al., 1989; Lattin et al., 1989; Lichtenstein and Bearden, 1989). Moreover they asserted that the perceived value of gains was smaller compared with the value of losses, and that ultimately reference effects exert greater/smaller influence in unfamiliar/familiar environments respectively. Babutsidze (2007) points out that consumers evaluate commodities according to the information they have acquired from previous and current experiences but the consumer's evaluation depends upon their

limited capacity to store in their mindsets a large amount of information that can be retrieved by them coherently. For example novice consumers, due to the fact that they are unfamiliar with the product and its attributes, expend bigger efforts to acquire as much information as possible (Kahn and Schmittlcin, 1989). In contrast, experienced consumers or experts require low levels of effort (Coupey, 1994), since they have articulated preferences and stable use of heuristics (Bettman and Park, 1980).

Heuristics are rules of simplification in the choice process (Chaiken, 1980). In order to make their final choices among alternatives, consumers use heuristics and self-regularities (Bettman, 1971, 1977; Shirai and Meyer, 1997). According to social psychologists, any experience which a person acquires is subconsciously stored in the mindset and can be accordingly retrieved and used in the future (e.g. Maheswaran et al., 1996; Raju et al., 1995; Chi et al., 1981). Hence in the sequence of time, any experience that a consumer acquires is transformed and stored as potential information that can be used in the next consumer buying-decision process. Therefore novice consumers tend to use more complicated heuristics, compared with consumers with more experience (Shirai and Mayer, 1997).

3.3.5 Social and cultural referents

The impact of reference group influences on reference points is another mechanism that creates and shapes the final decisions of consumers. Reference groups mean the different social groups that interact with the consumer. According to Peter et al. (1999: p.307), a reference group involves "one or more people that someone uses as a basis for comparison or point of reference in forming affective and cognitive responses and performing behaviours". They identified two basic categories of reference groups. The first one was primary/secondary reference groups (e.g. professional associations, religious groups, working environment). The second one was primary/secondary informal reference groups (e.g. family, friends, co-workers, virtual groups).

The literature on reference groups suggests that there are two types of referents. There are normative referents, who endow individuals with basic norms and values, and which arise from family members, teachers, and other associative peers. The second type is comparative referents, in which individuals do not have direct association and interaction. Such referents would be sports heroes, actors, models, and other idols that

an individual esteems and admires (Childers and Rao, 1992; Bearden and Etzel, 1982; Kelley, 1947; Hyman, 1947).

Bearden and Etzel (1982) and Childers and Rao (1992) elaborated their research on constructing reference group influences based on the initial work of Deutch and Gerald (1955), who studied informational and utilitarian influences. Their research followed the principles of Bourne's (1957) typology of product and brand decisions. The authors, after having identified 20 product categories, placed them in four different clusters (public and private luxury, public necessity and private necessity). They found that reference groups exerted strong influences on public-luxury products and brand manipulations. On the other hand they found that reference groups' referents exerted weak influences on private-necessity products. In addition Childers and Rao (1992) made a further distinction between the influences of peer groups and family members.

Consumers seek to acquire a plethora of information targeted at them by different agents (e.g. reference groups), in order for them to form their initial reference points. That information according to Kinley et al. (2000) can be further divided into personal and non-personal (or promotional) information cues. Personal cues refer to the creation of implicit reference points such as the acquisition of information arising from family members, friends and co-workers. Non-personal cues refer to the creation of explicit reference points such as advertisements, store displays, media, and salespersons. It can be said that those reference points take the form of information 'cues', which act simultaneously in the decision process and which are constantly changing and reshaping the initial beliefs of reference points.

Moreover Mussweiler (2003) in his research analysed conclusions in social judgements from an informational perspective. Regarding the assimilation or dissimilation of reference points he suggested that they should be evaluated against accessible target knowledge. For example, one can compare oneself with others, such as close friends, regarding athletic abilities, rather than comparing oneself with a professional Olympic athlete. Those two types of reference groups are important sources of reference points which consumers use in their purchases either intentionally or unconsciously.

The findings of existing literature suggest that consumers are more likely to be influenced by different reference groups when they have more ambivalent attitudes towards a specific product category (Zemborain and Johar, 2007). They found that consumers with a high level of attitudinal ambivalence are more open to be influenced by other opinions. This arises from the fact that they do not have articulated preferences. Therefore they are influenced more easily by others (e.g. Priester and Petty, 1996; Zemborain and Johar, 2007).

Lee and Kacen (2008) addressed cultural influences on the consumer decision-making process, by measuring consumer satisfaction on the dimension of impulsive and planned purchase decisions. Specifically the authors considered two distinct issues. The one involved the influence of reference groups, such as one's best friend or other close peers who are actively present during purchases. The other was the subjective mapping of culture, like the distinction between individualistic and collectivistic consumers. Previous research signalled that individualistic consumers tend to rely on their self-beliefs, values and attitudes, taking more individual and more autonomous anticipated decisions, without seeking others' justifications. Conversely collectivistic consumers have high levels of interaction with different social and reference groups, where they follow their justifications and are more bound by specific norms, values, and perceptions, placing great importance on the perceived rewards from others (Lee and Kacen, 2008; Kacen and Lee, 2002; Aaker and Schmitt, 2001; Lee, 2000; Triandis, 1995; Hans and Shavitt, 1994; Hui, 1988). The research carried out by Aaker and Schmitt (2001) underlined the importance of self-perception patterns in a cross-cultural study between China and the United States. Those two countries have substantial cultural differences that arise not only from the context of tradition, religion, and social systems, but also from the asymmetric creation of self-construct.

Aaker and Schmitt (2001) stated that in each culture self-identity has the same characteristics. However, reasons for construing it vary substantially in each country (e.g. individualistic versus collectivistic viewpoint). The individualistic viewpoint is characterized by dominant independent self-perception attitudes, and is associated with the lifestyles and perceptions of Western societies such as the United States and Australia, where people are more independent of social contexts (e.g. friends, family, and other social values and norms). The collectivistic viewpoint however, is coloured by

dominant interdependent self-perception attitudes, and is associated more with Eastern societies, such as China and Malaysia, where consumers are more sensitive to confronting social norms (Aaker and Lee, 2001). Therefore in terms of reference points it can be understood that consumers from Western countries create internal or use implicit reference points that will make them more distinctive and esteemed by others, so the influence of different reference groups will-be minor. In contrast, consumers from Eastern countries will elaborate and borrow reference points from their close reference group associations.

3.4 Clothing purchase decisions

Consumers in previous years bought clothes mainly to satisfy their basic needs, i.e. they were interested more in buying clothes for their functional and utilitarian attributes (Karpova et al, 2007). However nowadays consumers have become more selective in their consumption choices; they are interested in satisfying more abstract values. Such abstract values that are ascribed by consumers are the importance of aesthetics which include emotional and cognitive reactions (De Klerk, 2008) and the perceived overall usability of the product that offers personal and social satisfaction (Peter and Olson, 1999).

Previous research regarding the evaluation of apparel clothes was made on the distinction of two bipolar modes (Hirschman, 1982). According to Abraham -Murali and Littrell (1995) the first one is a data-driven perceptual mode and the second one is a concept-driven perceptual mode. The former category includes the evaluation of abstract product attributes that result from the acquisition of available information seen. Such attributes are garment details, colour and feel. On the other hand the second category includes the evaluation of intangible attributes that arise from the domain of cognitive evaluations, such as performance, good fit, self-confidence, and social appraisal. Likewise the authors stress that the vast majority of research regarding product attributes was made through empirical investigations that aimed to propose conceptual categorizations of the different product attributes. For example:

- Olson and Jacoby (1972) categorize attributes as intrinsic and extrinsic features
- Busemeyer and Johnson (2003) propose three categories: product referent, outcome referent and user referent

- O'Neal et al. (1990) categorize attributes based on apparel quality, i.e. tangible attributes, aesthetics and emotional congruencies affections

It can be argued that up to now the research on apparel clothing has followed the distinction made between intrinsic and extrinsic cues. Intrinsic cues are those that pertain to the product itself and cannot be changed (Abraham-Murali and Littrell, 1995) whilst extrinsic cues are attributes that are added by the retailer and which are external physical characteristics of a product (Swinker and Hines, 2008). More explicitly De Klerk and Lubbe (2008) stress that the former encompass the intrinsic factors on assessing an apparel item (i.e. design, textile, fabric) and which are static and cannot be altered, as they represent the product bundling itself, whilst the latter include aesthetic behavioural characteristics (e.g. durability, comfort, beauty, value) which are dynamic and accordingly can be changed.

Therefore the selection of apparel clothes depends not only on assessing the intrinsic cues of them, but the extrinsic as well. Firstly, there exists a gap in the literature of how consumers form and use reference points. Secondly there is substantial need to analyse consumer preferences for apparel clothing from the domain of cognition, i.e. individual differences. Therefore this research will try to connect consumers' evaluations on the selection of reference points with regard to apparel consumption for important shopping occasions.

3.4.1 The apparel clothing reference points

Regarding apparel clothing consumption decisions it can be argued that consumers use a combination of multiple reference points. For example it was found that when consumers select apparel clothing products they evaluate different sources of information, which come from intrinsic and extrinsic cues. Those cues can be summarized in terms of brand, image, quality, design, fabric, colour, price, and country of origin (Wang et al., 2004). On the other hand consumers' evaluation of apparel clothing is also influenced by many personal cues (i.e. perceptions, personality, aesthetics, emotions, values, and goals).

Analytically in the domain of clothing consumption numerous studies have been published on evaluating the influence of those cues in consumers' apparel shopping

behaviour. Such studies mainly concentrated on assessing the influence of the following categories on specific shopping occasions:

- physical quality (O'Neal et al., 1990)
- colour (Eckman et al., 1985)
- price (Olson and Jacoby, 1972)
- garment details (Forsythe, 1991)
- beauty (De Klerk and Lubbe, 2008)
- fabric, brand image and labels (Forsythe, 1991)
- store image (Heisey, 1990)
- country of origin (Dickerson, 1982; Ulgado and Lee, 1998)

The extant literature also suggests that consumers evaluate and judge more easily the extrinsic cues, as opposed to intrinsic ones (Ulgado and Lee, 1998). It was found that consumers do not have the tacit knowledge to evaluate all the intrinsic cues that surround a product bundle. Thus they seek to capture and identify different external cues that help them to structure their preferences. Similarly, the existing literature suggests that extrinsic cues can be further sub-categorized and analysed from the domain of cognition (Abraham-Murali and Littrell, 1995). The authors point out that little research has been done on examining more salient attributes, such as the impact of aesthetics and the role of hedonics in the context of the apparel decision-making process.

More recently De Klerk and Lubbe (2008) have analysed the importance of aesthetics in relation to the evaluation of apparel quality. They found that aesthetics have a direct effect on the evaluations of the quality of products. However, their findings were drawn from a specific segment, i.e. a small sample of female consumers, and their findings are related only to the construct of aesthetics. Therefore future researchers should include multiple categories of constructs that affect consumer perceptions on evaluating an apparel product, i.e. the knowledge that arises from past purchases, consumer goals and values, or the impact of other referents that interact with the consumer.

Similarly the selection of an apparel product involves symbolic meanings to consumers that have a direct impact upon their own social image, identity and life (Radder, 2006; Oh and Fiorito, 2002). For example consumers purchase clothes in order to show others

their social status, and their consumption preferences (O'Gass, 2000). As such, they seek to satisfy salient psychological needs. Moreover they buy different clothes for different shopping occasions (e.g. daily clothes and professional clothes). Besides, according to Childers and Rao (1992), consumers are influenced by many social referents, such as family members, close friends, co-workers, or other aspirational groups (e.g. movies stars, celebrities). Therefore they spend adequate amounts of effort and time in order to constitute their final preferences which will be regarded in their own environment as acceptable ones.

As a whole those attachments that consumers seek while they are making apparel clothing purchases can be an important source of potential reference points. For example:

- The product attribute referents (e.g. quality, design, fabric, aesthetics), exert functional and utilitarian justifications which consumers are trying to achieve

- The price of an apparel product is an important referent. Consumers evaluate and make price comparisons, according to multiple sources of potential referents (e.g. media, friends, previous knowledge, and past purchases)

- When consumers select apparel clothes they usually make comparisons between other product alternatives (e.g. competitive brands, offers, possible rewards). On the other hand they are influenced by the store environment (e.g. location, service, store layout)

- When they purchase clothes they seek to satisfy their personal goals. They have as a rule of thumb the knowledge that has arisen from their previous purchases or the knowledge that comes from other social referents (e.g. friends, family, culture, media and other networks)

Hence we can conclude that these attachments that influence consumer behaviour are an important source of reference points.

3.4.2 Marketing implications

Marketers choose to use reference points as an extension of their marketing-mix tools (Kivetz and Simonson, 2003). Following the findings of the extant literature the explicit category of referents (i.e. those referents used by the sellers which aim to influence the consumers' buying decision-making process) can effectively enrich the intensive marketing-mix variables. Consumers evaluate the marketing-mix variables based on

what they want to buy. Thus they select those explicit referents that help them to structure their final preferences. Such referents are the different brands/product lines, the quality, and design features.

Based on that consideration, marketers should translate all those referents into their marketing strategies so as to maintain, reinforce, and enhance their brand image. A brand conveys a specific set of features, benefits and services to buyers (Solomon, 2006). For example in apparel purchases it brings to customers' minds certain product attributes, such as 'quality', 'durability', 'strong image', 'convenience', 'well-designed', 'economy' and 'value for money'. Furthermore, the brand is connected with buyer's benefits, values, and personality types. Researchers sometimes ask, *"If this brand were a person, what kind of person would it be?"* The same queries trigger *consumers, "If I buy those clothes what kind of person will I be?"*

Moreover it was found from the literature that consumers pay much attention to issues regarding warranties, contracts, and pre-purchase and post-purchase product evaluation experiences (Gardial et al., 1994). One of the most important categories of referents pertained to in the marketing-mix variables and which acts as a benchmark on consumer evaluations is all the issues around the price. Price is an important element in the marketing mix because:

- Consumers compare and weight the price against the perceived values.
- It determines the company strategy, marketing objectives and pricing objectives
- The price creates competitive advantage by positioning the product in the market and differentiates it from the other substitute products.
- Finally, it is the only marketing-mix element that produces revenue, while all the others produce costs (Kotler, 2005).

Throughout the consumption cycle, consumers form their judgements based upon examining the available list of prices, on previous and future price changes on competing alternative product bundles. Similarly marketers could strengthen their company's image by placing extra emphasis on using additional store and promotional referents, i.e. different sales promotions, advertising, public relations, personal selling, and other techniques of marketing such as flyers, coupons and other offers.

Furthermore distribution channels and distribution functions create value, by making products and services available to customers in the appropriate form at the right places and times. (Jagdish and Parvatiyar, 2000: p. 210). Distribution channel decisions usually

involve long-term commitments to other firms. For example when a company sets up distribution channels through contacts with franchises, it must be very careful about the reliability of the franchiser and his ability to successfully promote and distribute the products. Otherwise, if the franchise is unsuccessful, the impact will influence the company image and brand as well.

On the other hand the use of implicit referents (i.e. those referents that originate from consumers, and which they use in their consumption either intentionally nor unintentionally) are an important source for marketing managers to boost their marketing-mix variables more efficiently. It was found from the literature that those types of referents can be distinguished in the following categories: goal referents, time referents, preference referents, previous knowledge referents, and social and cultural referents. Consumers evaluate products according to past and recent purchases, suggestions received from their close environment (i.e. peers, friends, and family) and on any other information they acquire during their efforts to structure their buying preferences. Therefore marketers could strengthen their marketing programmes by using those types of referents inasmuch as this will give them the ability to know their customer needs/wants better, and to segment their products to the appropriate target audiences and potential markets.

3.5 Critical discussion

Reference points have been examined by conventional or normative economic theory and recently by behavioural descriptive theories in economics. The first approach is characterized by the intricacy of perfect and precise theories and models, in which, consumers as individuals to a large extent act rationally and are sensitive to absolute levels of maximization outcomes (Friedman and Savage, 1948; Shafir and Thaler, 2006). The second approach, on the other hand is guided by the embroilment of social psychology theories, in which consumers as individuals are more sensitive to the behavioural and cognitive apparatus that constantly violates the axioms and the principles of utility and maximization theories (Devetag, 1999; Kahneman and Tversky 1973, Tversky and Kahneman 1986; Kahneman, 2003).

The research problem is addressed by posing at the forefront a more realistic approach on examining reference points from a consumer perspective inside the area of

marketing, while using in the background, the existing theories and models on reference points, which have been elaborated by bounded rationality dimensions and problems, i.e. lottery winners (Brickman et al., 1978; Thaler, 1985), gambling effects (Thaler, 1980), medical treatments (Levin et al., 1988), and in product attributes (Levin et al., 1988; Dholakia and Simonson, 2005).

Moreover the scope and the level of the research problem is addressed by making more concrete inferences about individual structures of reference points. For example most research on reference points has been examined through prospect theory in terms of sensed gains and losses (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Mayhew and Winer, 1992; Dholakia and Simonson, 2005). The main argument of prospect theory is that every decision can be examined as a choice between prospects (reference points), and ultimately framing those prospects or violating them by anchoring them differently, then one can achieve more reliable results of how consumers' minds and psyche really work (Laibson and Zeckhauser, 1998). On the other hand the authors suggest that prospect theory explains in general the inequalities on human judgements about decisions, without giving any further explanation for the origins of those irregularities. The origins of those inequalities on human judgements can be found in terms of implicit reference points (Dholakia and Simonson, 2005). Their research characterizes reference points as implicit (those that are used by consumers) and explicit ones (those that are used by the seller or the advertiser), where both can be used spontaneously or solely during the decision process. However, the authors do not give further explanations of how and what implicit reference points are being used by consumers solely or in conjunction with explicit reference points.

The problem-solving process engages the existing findings of three different scientific areas, behavioural economics, social psychology, and consumer behaviour, by creating a theory and a justified concept of reference points, situated in the heart and eyes of consumer behaviour. Van de Ven (2007: p.101) argue that this type of reasoning is justified through the method of abduction that can be captured with the use of conjectures with the accompanied research problem. In addition, the method of abduction has been characterized as a continuous process of reproducing existing theories and concepts, by elaborating a new hypothesis or conjecture. One can achieve this by identifying the paradigms that have unsolved problems or anomalies, and trying

to analyse them through insertions, revisions, and reconnections of different ideas. Peirce (1931-58) and Hanson (1958) support the idea that "a theory is not pieced together inductively from observed phenomena, nor is it deducted from axioms or premises, it is rather an inductive process that makes it possible to observe phenomena as being of a certain sort, and as related to other phenomena" (Peirce and Hanson cited in Van de Ven, 2007: p. 104).

Regarding the research problem the goal is to understand how and what reference points are being used by consumers in order to help them make their choices. Following the existing findings on reference points from the literature many discrepancies and anomalies have been observed so far by different researchers. For example one main obstacle with existing theories on reference points is their inability to measure the reasoning of the beliefs of the potential actors, which are called cognitive psychology effects (Kahneman and Tversky, 1973). Moreover Rowe and Puto (1987) state that prospect theory cannot achieve the analysis of the roots of reference points, e.g. how reference points are being formed by individual actors.

The process that is followed in this research is to build a new hypothesis that will be elaborated by the findings of the literature, and to try to connect the gaps among the three examined areas in a meaningful way according to the needs and context specifications of the thesis. The outcome will be to build a sustainable theory that categorizes and conceptualises the construct of reference points. After the process of abduction it will then be useful to connect and measure the relationship between concepts and constructs. This, according to Van de Ven (2007), can be managed through the reasoning of logical deduction, inside the pre-specified boundary conditions. That aspect tests the level and the merits of abduction.

3.6 Proposed hypothesis on reference points

Since there does not exist in the literature on reference point any previous scale, which has conceptualized the construct as whole, it is too early to define the research hypothesis of the evolving categorization of referents. However based on the findings of the literature the researcher formulated the following initial research hypothesis that

guided the qualitative research study. The scope of the qualitative study was to identify and to capture all the relevant content areas of referents that could reliably explain the construct under investigation. Hence at that stage the following hypothesis was formulated:

PH₁: The categorization of reference points from Greek college students as apparel clothing shoppers for important shopping occasions is influenced by a number of factors that are underpinned under the higher order construct of implicit and explicit referents.

As far as the explicit referents are concerned the following factors or dimensions were calibrated that need to be decomposited: price referents, framing referents, product attribute referents, reward referents, and assortment referents. The implicit referents factors are: goal referents, time referents, preference referents, past purchase referents, and social and cultural referents. It should be noted that the name of those factors partially changed as the researcher proceeded in collecting data directly from consumers (i.e. qualitative interviews). This process had as an ultimate goal to build the initial research framework (i.e. thematic and content categorization) of referents, whose applicability was tested in the next quantitative research process.

3.7   Summary

This chapter analysed the main findings from the current literature on reference points, making specific inferences to apparel clothing consumption. When consumers evaluate clothes they use multiple sources that act as instant referents. These sources emanate from the sellers' perspective (i.e. extrinsic and intrinsic cues) and from their own personal perspective (i.e. personal or social cues).

The literature on reference points is divided into two dimensions that need better composition (e.g. explicit and implicit). However until today those two dimensions have been examined separately, and only from the domain of prospect theory in prespecified decision tasks. Moreover it was found that the selection and use of reference points strongly depends upon individual differences that arise from the domain of cognition. The same findings hold as well as for the selection of possible indicants as referents for apparel clothing consumption.

On the other hand the concept of reference points has not yet been analysed from the consumers' perspective, targeted to specific shopping decisions. Thus, we will fill that gap by trying to conceptualize reference points for apparel clothing consumption for important shopping occasions, developing a valid measurement scale, that will emanate directly from consumers' minds, through the use of a qualitative technique. Consumers use and evaluate products differently (i.e. they are influenced by different sources, or they select the same products for different purchasing reasons). Thus, in order to measure individual differences that arise from the cognitive domain, decision-making styles will be selected. The next chapter analyses the current literature on decision-making styles.

3.8   References

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4. **CHAPTER FOUR: Literature Review on Decision-Making Styles**

4.0 Introduction

This chapter aims to analyse the current literature on decision-making styles. Section 4.1 introduces the concept of decision-making characteristics. Sections 4.2 and 4.3 analyse the main findings of the studies that have applied the CSI across different countries. Sections 4.4 and 4.5 connect the consumer decision-making characteristics with the selection of reference points for apparel clothing purchase decisions. Section 4.6 critically discusses the problems that were encountered in the literature in that field. Section 4.7 presents the proposed hypothesis emanated from the literature, and Section 4.8 provides a summary.

4.1 Theoretical background of decision-making styles

'Decision-making styles' is a subset of the broader category of cognitive styles (Galotti et al., 2006). The research on cognitive styles emerged in the early 1950s (Kozhevnikov, 2007; Riding and Cheema, 1991). According to the authors, cognitive styles initially were introduced as a concept that attempted to measure a person's typical or habitual mode of problem-solving, thinking, perceiving and remembering (Allport, 1937). To that extent it is characterized as a concept that investigates individual differences (Witkin and Goodenough, 1981; Lewis, 1976; Price, 2004). Moreover Kozhevnikov (2007) stresses that many theorists use the term to describe those mentalities as either cognitive styles or learning styles. The author points out that the two terms have been used interchangeably in the literature, and they depend upon the context and the specific measurement task, for example in the context of personality characteristics, thinking processes, perceptions and intelligence (e.g. Klein, 1951; Curry, 1983; Riding and Cheema, 1991; Jonassen and Grabowski, 1993; Epstein, 1996).

According to Park et al., (2010 the literature on decision-making styles has been characterized by three approaches: the psychographic/lifestyle approach (Lastovicka, 1982; Wells, 1974), the consumer typology approach (Moschis, 1976; Stephenson and Willett, 1969; Stone, 1954), and the consumer characteristics approach (Maynes, 1976; Sproles, 1985; Westbrook and Black, 1985; Scott and Bruce, 1995).

According to those theories it can be argued that the first one connects over 100 characteristics of consumer behaviour and personality traits. The second one categorizes consumers as specific product families and the last one underlines cognitive and affective dimensions (such as from rational shopping and quality consciousness to impulsiveness and information overload) that affect consumer decision-making styles (Leo et al., 2005). On the other hand the vast majority of the literature on decision-making styles is concerned with the distribution to respondents of self-report measures that generally attach the potential rules of decision-making, which are disjointed to specific tasks (Galotti et al., 2006; Kozhevnikov, 2007). The main findings in the literature revealed that the consumer characteristics approach is the most consistent and valid one, as it encompasses the work of Sproles and Kendall (1986). Moreover this approach provides explanatory and powerful constructs in measuring consumer decision characteristics, as it is targeted towards consumers' cognition and affection (Kamaruddin and Mokhlis, 2003)

Sproles and Kendall (1986) formulated eight consumer-decision characteristics (i.e. 1-perfectionism or high-quality consciousness, 2-brand consciousness, 3-novelty and fashion consciousness, 4-hedonistic, recreational shopping, 5-'value for money' shopping consciousness, 6-impulsiveness, 7-confusion by over-choice, 8-habitual, brand loyal orientation). Prior to the research of Sproles and Kendall (1986) on consumer decision-making styles no other original study was found that encompasses in an articulated manner how individual consumers act, behave and make decisions. Moreover the inventory of consumer decision-making styles has been characterized as a stable cognitive personality inventory (Leonard, 1999).

4.2 The consumer decision-making styles literature

Consumer decision-making styles refer to the mental orientation that consumers exhibit for their consumption preferences (Sproles and Kendall, 1986: p.268). Sproles and Kendall (1986) after articulating the findings from the extant literature that focused on consumer decision-making characteristics (e.g. Moschis, 1976; Maynes, 1976; Lastovicka, 1982; Sproles, 1985) developed a consumer decision-making styles inventory, that encompassed the basic characteristics of adolescent consumers towards

specific shopping orientations for personal products (e.g. clothes, cosmetics). Specifically, this approach classified and categorized cognitive and affective orientations of consumers. This inventory is useful to marketers since it enables them to segment consumers according to their distinct mental orientations towards shopping.

Consumers, during decision-making, have different shopping orientations which directly affect their buying preferences (Siu, 2001). Many scholars argue that consumers differ in the way that they make their consumption choices (Lysonski et al., 1996; Galotti et al., 2006; Coward and Goldsmith, 2007). It was also found that consumers are influenced by many factors in order to structure their final preferences (i.e. personal and non-personal), and these factors vary between different consumer segments and markets (McDonald, 1994; Kongsompong, 2006). Therefore identifying the decision-making styles of different consumer segments is imperative for marketing practitioners.

In addition it was found from the extant literature that consumers structure their consumption preferences by using different reference points (Maimaran and Simonson, 2007). For example some reference points come directly from the perspective of the seller (e.g. product characteristics, prices, assortments, displays, offers, discounts, store location). Others come directly from the perspective of the consumer (e.g. personal goals, previous purchases, social and cultural referents). In contrast some consumers evaluate apparel for their functional attributes only (i.e. quality, cloth, fabric, performance). Others might seek more abstract attributes (i.e. beauty, design), while some of them seek to satisfy other aesthetic values, such as emotional and cognitive satisfaction (De Klerk and Stephna, 2008). Moreover there are different types of consumers, i.e. there are consumers who are brand-loyal, and who only purchase branded apparel. Hence, it is expected that consumers' shopping orientations or decision-making styles will enrich the findings from our analysis, in terms of providing valuable information on consumers' motivations towards the selection of apparel clothing reference points.

The Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986: p.271-2) is a tool which classifies 40 items that explain eight consumer shopping orientations. The Sproles and Kendall (1986) 40-item inventory supports that consumers have their own style during decision-making. The Consumer Styles Inventory was initially

developed to examine consumer behaviour in the US. The authors, for the elaboration of the CSI used principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation. The eight mental decision-making characteristics are:

1.   Perfectionist, High-Quality Conscious. Items loading on this factor measure consumer evaluations in searching for best quality products. Those consumers are also expected to shop more carefully by making comparisons, and more systematically. Moreover they are satisfied with 'good' products.

2.   Brand Conscious, Price Equals Quality. Those consumers associate quality with higher prices, and prefer buying judicious national brands. In addition they tend to believe that a higher price equals higher quality and vice versa.

3.   Novelty–Fashion Conscious. Those consumers who score high on this characteristic tend to gain pleasure by seeking out new products that follow the current fashion trends. Furthermore they are not compromised so easily by alternative products. Thus they demand variety in their consumption choices.

4.   Recreational Shopping/Hedonistic Shopping Conscious. Those consumers seek pleasure and entertainment from the shopping experience.

5.   Price Conscious, Value-for-Money. Those consumers consistently search for sales, bargains, and lower-priced products that offer them the best value for their money.

6.   Impulsive, Careless. Those consumers display impulse-driven behaviour. They are characterized by unplanned and careless consumption. They appear unconcerned about how much money they spend or gaining the best available offers.

7.   Confused by Over-choice. Those consumers find it difficult to make their choices due to different brands and due to many product alternatives. They easily become overwhelmed by the diverse sources of information.

8.   Habitual, Brand-Loyal. Those consumers have stable preferences and tastes towards favourite brands.

The consumer decision-making styles inventory (CSI) has been characterized as a stable cognitive personality inventory (Leonard, 1999) and has been examined across different countries and populations, ranging from developed countries like the USA, UK, Germany, New Zealand, Korea and Australia, to less developed countries including,

Malaysia, China, and several African countries. It was found that the CSI can be generalized across different populations only by making some further adjustments (Radder and Pieterson, 2006). Similarly the lack of previous relevant consumer research in Greece, pointed to the need to ascertain the generalizability of the CSI as applied to Greek shoppers. Hence this study examined the generalizability of Sproles and Kendall's (1986) consumer decision-making styles inventory (CSI) in a Greek context, by exploring its factor structure. This helped in profiling Greek college students' decision-making styles, which in turn helped in identifying how the different types of referents are related to the types of decision-making styles.

4.3 Studies applying the Consumer Styles Inventory

Because the reliability of the Consumer Styles Inventory was tested only with US High School students, Sproles and Kendall (1986) further suggested that in order to accomplish the generality of consumer style characteristics, the instrument should be validated across other contexts. Therefore different scientists mainly in the field of consumer behaviour used that specific inventory as a template to profile consumer decision-making characteristics. Such studies using the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) were conducted on students in different countries and cultures (Hong Youn Hahn and Kean, 2009).

Likewise Hafstrom et al. (1992) tried to assess those dissimilarities with Korean college students at four universities, in order to check the generality of CSI to other populations. They administrated the CSI to a sample of 310 students. They used the same method as Sproles and Kendall (1986) and they found that Korean young consumers share similar decision-making style characteristics. Although the eight-factor model produced sustainable results on each factor, the authors identified that some constructs overlapped each other. These were 'brand consciousnesses' and 'fashion consciousnesses'. Additionally they created a new factor, 'Time Energy Conserving Consumer' that emerged from items included in the brand conscious and habitual brand loyalty characteristics. On the other hand the construct of Novelty-Fashion was not applicable to the Korean sample. Despite the fact that the model fit the data well, the authors were

cautious to conclude that the generality of the CSI was applicable to Korean consumers. Hence the CSI needed to be tested with a greater adult sample, so as to capture the potential divergences in that respect.

Durvasula et al. (1993) using factor analysis on a student sample (i.e. 210 undergraduate business students) in New Zealand found that the instrument produced similar factor loadings compared with the Sproles and Kendall (1986) original study. However the authors identified that there were minor differences on the equivalence of the scale representing 'Habitual/Brand-Loyal Consciousness' and 'Price/Value-Consciousness' consumer. Overall the variance explained on the eight-factor solution was 56%, whereas on the US initial sample it was 46%. The authors stressed that those differences resulted from cultural dissimilarities, which needed to be taken into consideration in refining the CSI scale. McDonald (1994) after having applied the CSI to elderly people in the US, found identical results.

Lysonski, Durvasula and Zotos (1996) further investigated the factor adequacy of the CSI scale across four different cultures (e.g. United States, New Zealand, Greece, and India). They used a sample of 486 undergraduate college students (95 from Greece, 73 from India, 210 from New Zealand, and 108 from USA). They produced a seven-factor model that best represented the reliabilities of each factor. Their results were initially extracted from the eight-factor solution, but this was not applicable to the Greek and Indian student samples. Therefore they deleted six items that did not have adequate reliability. Those items were included in the price/value-conscious scale. In their findings they suggested that the CSI can be better generalized in countries that have high propensity (e.g. developed countries). On the other hand changes were needed in order to be applicable in developing countries. However their findings resulted from a small and specific target audience. Furthermore, consumers in India and in Greece have substantially changed their consumption and shopping orientations over the last decade (Kamenidou, 2007).

Shim (1996) tried to categorize adolescent consumer decision-making styles with regard to consumer socialization. He grouped Sproles and Kendall's (1986) eight decision-making styles into three shopping orientations (e.g. Utilitarian, Social/conspicuous, and Undesirable). They collected data from 29 high schools in the US and specifically from

South-western states. The majority of students were Hispanic and Native Americans (N=1954). They found that socialization agents (such as parents, peers, and printed media and TV commercials) had a significant influence upon their distinct consumer decision-making styles. The same correlations were found with antecedent variables of social structures (e.g. gender and ethnicity). However those antecedent variables did not exert any significant impact on the influence of the different socialization agents. Therefore future practitioners should examine more carefully the impact of different cultures (e.g. minority groups).

Similarly Shim and Gehrt (1996) employed the same findings in examining those three minorities in terms of their approach to shopping. They found that Hispanics had Social/Hedonistic orientation. On the other hand Native Americans further divided in two categories, Africans and Whites. The former had Impulsive/Confused by Over-choice shopping orientation while the latter had a Utilitarian orientation.

Additionally Shim and Koh (1997) expanded the findings of their previous work by employing a more concrete multivariate and cluster analysis (e.g. correlation matrix). They identified three clusters, and labelled them as Value-Maximizing Recreational Shoppers, Brand-maximizing Non-Utilitarian Shoppers, and Apathetic Shoppers. They determined that consumers who belong in the:

- First category, tend to be influenced by their parents, printed media and relevant consumer education
- Second category tend to be influenced by their related peers and television commercials
- Third category, tend not to be influenced by any of the socialization agents.

However it can be argued that their analysis emanated from a replication of their previous findings. For example they used the same data, derived from a specific context in the US. Therefore a better refinement is needed on the two models used from the measurement of the socialization agents' variables and the social structural variables, as they initially were developed by Moschis and Moore (1979) and Coleman (1983). Therefore in order for their findings to be generalized, a more heterogeneous group in that respect needs to be taken into consideration. Moreover, the socialization agents' variables need to include more information, as today's consumers are influenced by many other referents (e.g. internet and virtual groups).

Fan and Xiao (1998) applied the CSI in the context of China, by using a sample of Chinese college students. Based on the results of previous studies they used a modified model of five dimensions. The authors excluded three dimensions because some constructs overlapped each other. The remaining dimensions were Brand Consciousness, Price Consciousness, Quality Consciousness, Time Consciousness, and Information Utilization. However, the additional replications that were made on their model explained only 35% of the variances. Furthermore they compared their model with the ones used by Sproles and Kendall (1986) and Hafstrom (1992). The results were not identical, as the authors found that some constructs were perceived with different meanings and were placed in different dimensions (i.e. some items that were loaded on the dimension of Fashion Consciousness for the US sample, on their model were loaded on the dimension of Time Consciousness). Furthermore, the dimension of Impulsiveness was not supported as adequate enough to represent the Chinese sample. Therefore the examination of the CSI in different cultures has to be adapted slightly, as consumers have different characteristics (e.g. diverse shopping and consumption behaviours).

Mitchell and Bates (1998) tried to apply and confirm the eligibility of the CSI in the UK to a student sample by analysing its psychometric properties (N=401). The authors examined two models, an eight-factor solution model, and a ten-factor solution model. Similar to the previous research that was done in other non-English cultures the authors identified problems when attempting to validate the CSI with UK respondents. These were:

- Problems with the use of academic language of several items, since they could not capture the respondent's language.
- The composition of the items placing the verb at the end, which is not acceptable with the use of language in the UK.
- The items characterized were ambiguous, since they did not clearly indicate their possible meanings.

Therefore the authors, in their effort to reduce biases and measurement errors, made additional changes in order for items on the CSI to be understandable and interpretable for UK respondents. For example the item 'the more expensive brands are usually my

choice', were rephrased as 'I usually choose more expensive brands', and so forth with the other items.

On the eight-factor model the dimensions of Brand-Conscious and Brand-Loyalty traits were combined into one. The reliabilities of the factors were higher than the initial model of Sproles and Kendall (1986), except for two factors: 'Recreational Hedonism' and 'Impulsive Careless'. The same findings held for the ten-factor model. The ten-factor model fit the data well (e.g. 57% variance explained), as it confirmed all the factors from the initial model of Sproles and Kendall (1986). Moreover the dimensions of 'Brand-Loyalty' and 'Brand-Consciousness' that were combined on the eight-factor model, were separated in the ten-factor model. The authors concluded that decision-making orientations or traits can be generalized across populations. This can be achieved by clustering populations that share the same characteristics, so as to avoid additional replications. On the other hand the results from previous studies (e.g. Lysonski et al., 1996; Hafstrom et al., 1992) were extracted from relatively small samples, which can hamper the reliability of the results. Therefore they cannot express sufficiently the culture under investigation.

Walsh et al. (2001) tested the applicability of the CSI to a non-student sample in Germany (N= 455). The authors tried to profile German shoppers' decision-making characteristics. They drew up a seven-factor model that best represented the German shopper, since it fit the data more accurately. The authors, after a careful investigation of the extant literature, probed to use a more sophisticated strategy in creating their model.

Firstly they derived their findings from people that came from the general public. By doing that they wanted to test the initial model of Sproles and Kendall (1986) with a more heterogeneous group, apart from college students, which could better represent the general population. Many scholars in that respect argue that the selection of student samples or housewives in cross-cultural studies should be avoided as they cannot represent the whole population (Gordon et al., 1986; Samiee and Jeong, 1994; Hair et al., 1998). However the majority of research in cross-cultural studies prefers to collect data from students, as it is more convenient and more practical (Walsh et al., 2001).

For example, all the previous studies on examining the applicability of the CSI were made on student samples, apart from the one employed by McDonald (1994).

Secondly they used four alternative models in their analysis (e.g. eight, seven, six, and five factors), in order to capture potential discrepancies of the appropriateness of fit. Their findings were based on using both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Lastly their model confirmed six of the eight factors found by Sproles and Kendall (1986). The trait of Price-Value Consciousness was not confirmed. This was because a typical consumer in Germany is more interested in quality issues when purchasing goods as opposed to price ones.

Siu, Wang, Chang, and Hui (2001) via a staged process tried to modify the CSI for Chinese consumers. In the first stage they used confirmatory factor analysis on a student sample (N=357) with the use of structural equation modelling, so as to extract the best items from the original 40-item scale of Sproles and Kendall (1986). They deleted 15 items that had covariance errors (i.e. cross loadings). In the second stage they cross-validated their 25-item 8-factor model with an adult consumer sample (N=387). In their final findings they identified four decision-making styles that were stable for Chinese consumers (e.g. Perfectionist, Brand Conscious, Novelty-Fashion Conscious, and Recreational). On the other hand the dimension of 'Price Conscious' loaded low reliability on their final model. However, with their results they sampled people from one province of China (e.g. Southern China). Therefore it would need additional changes if it was going to be used in the future in another context in China (Radder and Pietersen, 2006).

A study was conducted (Kamaruddin and Mokhlis, 2003) with a sample of adolescents (N=934) in Malaysia. The authors followed the findings from the previous work of Shim and Gehrt (1996) and classified the eight constructs of Sproles and Kendall into three distinct types of decision-making characteristics (i.e. Desirable, Undesirable, and Social/Hedonistic).

- Desirable: Includes the first two decision-making styles (i.e. quality-conscious and price-conscious)
- Undesirable: Includes two traits (e.g. impulsive and confused by over-choice)

- Social/Hedonistic: Includes four traits (e.g. brand-conscious, novelty/fashion conscious, recreational and brand-loyal)

On their analysis they used 32 items, which were equally divided into four-item subscales. The sample consisted of a mixture of three different cultures, e.g. Chinese (46.9%), Malays (43.1%) and Indians (9.7%). Regression analysis was employed in order to test the possible relationships of social structures variables. It was found that both male and female adolescents scored high on the third category and that male adolescents associated with the dimension of brand-conscious, whereas the female ones associated with the dimension of recreational style. Malay adolescents exhibited social and hedonistic shopping orientations, whereas Chinese adolescents scored low on brand-conscious, fashion-conscious and recreational shopping orientations. A reversed score characterized Malays (e.g. high score on the three aforementioned dimensions). Indian adolescents scored low on the dimensions of impulsive and quality-conscious.

Nevertheless the authors identified that the influence of peers exerts a high impact upon individuals for the selection of decision-making styles. Additionally they found that young adolescents show undesirable decision-making from the influence of media in general. Their results also were comparable with the previous work of Shim and Gehrt (1996).

Leo et al. (2005) tried to underline cross-cultural differences in consumer decision-making styles in two samples (Australia and Singapore), by comparing them with Hofstede's (1980) typology of culture, which is represented on five dimensions (power-distance, uncertainty-avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, long/short term orientation). They collected data from 352 respondents from Singapore and 182 respondents from Australia. Descriptive statistics and analysis of variances were used. The reliability of Cronbach Alphas ranged from 0.70 to 0.80, respectively. This indicated high scores on reliability and validity (Devellis, 2003). They found that there were significant country differences on the following constructs of CSI: innovativeness and confused by over-choice. On the other hand there were no significant differences on quality-consciousness, recreation-consciousness, and brand-loyalty decision-making styles, between the examined countries.

The reliability of the CSI was also tested in South Africa (Radder, Li, and Pietersen, 2006) in the context of apparel clothing. The authors distributed the original CSI inventory to an equally heterogeneous student sample (e.g. Chinese, Motswana, and Caucasian students) at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. The total sample was 400 students (i.e. four groups of 100). The preferred language of instruction remained as English, since all students were considered to be proficient in that language, as it is a prerequisite for them to enter that University. The initial questionnaire comprised the 40 items. However out of the 40 items some were rephrased so as to be directly targeted to clothing consumption, as it was the main area of investigation. To minimize potential changes in the original meaning of the items, they pre-tested it to a small sample (N=10). The authors then tested the commonality of the eight factors identified by Sproles and Kendall's work. It was found that the reliability of many factors was not sufficiently acceptable (e.g. Chinese=four factors scored <.60, Motswana= six factors <.60, and Caucasian= two factors <.60). Therefore further modifications on the data were made in order for them to develop a more fitting model that could best represent the South African context. Principal axes analysis with direct quartimin rotation were used (Gorsuch, 1997; Fabrigar et al., 1999). This method was adopted because the use of varimax rotation results in uncorrelated factors.

The following was found:

- Chinese: 33 items loaded on five-factors, ranging from .70- .84

- Motswana: 18 items loaded on five factors, coefficients were >.60, except for factor one

- Caucasian: 33 items, loaded on seven factors, ranging from .66-.84

Finally, they found three common shopping orientations across the three groups under investigation (e.g. perfectionist, hedonistic, and habitual consumer). However they also identified that the Chinese tend to be habitual shoppers. Motswana students were characterized as image and quality-conscious consumers, whereas Caucasians were more price-conscious. However their findings resulted from a small sample of each population. Thus for generality issues, further research should be made with larger samples, and within other shopping categories.

Making a comparison with the findings of previous studies it can easily be argued that the CSI is more applicable with Western cultures (Lysonski at al., 1996). On the other hand the influence of culture acts as a strong mediator in examining the adequacy of the

CSI for different populations. Hence Radder and Pieterson (2006) support the idea that the CSI can be generalized across populations, if and only if, a priori modifications are made.

More recently Bakewell and Mitchell (2006) suggested that decision-making styles should try to capture gender issues (males versus females). More specifically, they identified from carefully reviewing the literature that males have different shopping orientations, when compared with women. For example Shim (1996) on examining the consumption behaviour of adolescent consumers identified that male adolescents tend to be more utilitarian-oriented in their intended purchases as opposed to female adolescent consumers who are more social and conspicuous-oriented. Similarly, Dholokia (1999) found that men perceive shopping as unpleasant and they are less interested in following the fashion trends (Cox and Dittmar, 1995). Hence they spend less effort/time on doing their shopping than women actually do. Men are found to make impulse and careless decisions (Campbell, 1997). On the other hand they are more confident in their choices, they are less influenced by their peers, and they enjoy risky options arising from money issues (Prince, 1993).

Therefore Bakewell and Mitchell (2006) tested the proposition that gender differences will exhibit dissimilar decision-making characteristics. In their effort to achieve that they used the CSI with an undergraduate sample in the UK, equally divided by gender (N=480). They found that nine decision-making traits were identical in both genders. However they identified three new male traits (Store Loyalty/Low Price Seeking, Confused-Time Restricted and Store Promiscuity). They also identified three female constructs that were composed from different items (Bargain Seeking, Imperfectionism, and Store Loyal). However they proposed two twelve-factor solutions, one for men and the other for women. Even though they accounted for the high explanation of total variances (e.g. 63% and 66% respectively) their perceived models have inadequate alpha coefficients on many factors. Moreover many of them partially overlap each other (this can be seen on Table 7:1). Consequently their two proposed models would need further adjustments before they could be perceived as stable enough for the measurement of decision-making characteristics between either male or female consumers.

Wesley, LeHew, and Woodside (2006) assessed the effectiveness of the CSI for multiple samples of adult consumers (N=527) in four shopping malls at different regions in the US (West Edmonton, Bloomington, San Francisco and Las Vegas). The authors found that there was a partial correlation between consumer decision-making styles (e.g. Fashion-Conscious is related to dimensions of Brand-Consciousness, Perfectionist and Recreational Shopping Conscious).

However, the dimension of 'Impulsive Consumers' did not relate significantly with any of the other consumer decision-making traits. Additionally they showed that demographic variables (e.g. income, education, and age) did not show a significant association in influencing consumer characteristics. Only the variable of gender was strongly associated with cluster group membership. Therefore it can be concluded that the CSI can be generalizable to different age groups (e.g. adolescents, undergraduate students, or to other adult groups). This is consistent with the initial findings of Sproles and Kendall (1986).

Bauer and Sauer (2006) tried to assess the validity and the reliability of the CSI in the cultures of Germany and the UK. Their initial goal was to apply the CSI to different product categories (e.g. high involvement, and low involvement). Firstly they used a student sample from Germany (N=203) applying exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses to 43 items, which came from previous research findings. Although they found adequate coefficient alphas on both the 8-factor and the 11-factor models, the perceived structure of the factors produced low validity on the appropriateness of fit. This anomaly was also noted by previous researchers (e.g. Walsh et al., 2001).

Secondly they modified the structure of the CSI and included five-factors (e.g. perfectionism, innovativeness, brand-consciousness, price-value consciousness, and spontaneity). Three factors of the initial Kendall model were excluded as unreliable (Confused by Over-choice, Recreational/Hedonistic, and Novelty-Fashion Consciousness).

Finally their modified model included 32 items and was tested in two product categories: wristwatch and yogurt. The questionnaire was administrated to students from the UK (N=361) and from Germany (N=121). They additionally identified that

consumer decision-making styles were strongly related with the product under investigation. Hence, the consumer's involvement in acquiring a product has an influence on the selection of consumer decision-making styles. Evidently the use of the CSI cannot be generalized across different product categories, and when the case involves a multi-country analysis, further readjustments need to be considered.

Coward et al. (2007) tried to measure the influence of the CSI in online apparel consumption by college students in the US. In total 367 undergraduate students were surveyed. The key questions on their survey focused on two issues stemming from whether respondents were using the internet to search for clothes (coded as shopping frequency) and if they proceeded to make a purchase (coded as spending). By using the method of regression analysis, they found that the frequency of online shopping was related to three dimensions of the CSI: hedonic/recreational shopping (β=0.17), value consciousness (β= -0.21) and impulsiveness (β=0.27) whereas the amount of time spent had a significant correlation with the traits of value consciousness (β= -0.27) and impulsiveness conscious (β=0.23).

They concluded that impulsive consumers were most likely to shop online and that price had a negative correlation with online spending. On the other hand price had a positive correlation with the dimensions of quality-brand-fashion consciousness, hedonistic shopping, impulsiveness and brand-loyalty. However their research was limited to power users of the internet. Therefore for a better generalization of their findings different target groups should be selected.

Recently Hong Youn Hahn and Kim (2009) explored the relationship between self-construals (e.g. independent versus interdependent) and decision-making styles of Korean college students (N=872) from three different university campuses, in the distinct domain of apparel clothing. Self-construals refer to individuals' self-behaviour in terms of thinking, acting and feeling (Singelis, 1994). According to Singelis (1994: p.581) 'independent self' refers to consumers who are motivated by their own tastes and preferences, whereas 'interdependent self' refers to consumers who are motivated in following the norms and the values that are enforced by their own social referents (e.g. peers, family, other groups, and culture). Moreover in the research carried out by Cross et al. (2011) it was found that the former distinction characterizes people from Western

cultures (e.g. US, Australia, and UK). The latter is more applicable to collectivistic cultures (e.g. China, Korea).

In their analysis they detected the same findings, e.g. the majority of Korean students were more likely to exert interdependent self-construals, as opposed to independent. In order to identify the shopping orientations of Korean students they used Shim's (1996) three categorizations of CSI (e.g. Utilitarian, Social/Conspicuous, and Undesirable orientations). The method of regression analysis was used. They identified that independent self-construals had a significant positive relationship with four dimensions of the CSI (e.g. Perfectionist, Novelty-Fashion Conscious, Recreational, and Brand Loyal traits). However, they had a negative relationship with the dimension of Price-Conscious. On the other hand interdependent self-construals had a positive relationship with the traits of Price-Conscious, Impulsive and Confused by Over-choice.

On Table 4:1 is presented a comparison summary of reliability coefficients of the research on decision-making styles across countries. It can be seen that the eight-factor model of the CSI is applicable to the US, New Zealand, China, the UK and Malaysia (Sproles and Kendall, 1986; McDonald, 1994; Shim and Gehrt, 1996; Shim, 1996, Durvasula et al., 1993; Siu et al., 2001; Mitchell and Bates, 2001; Kamaruddin and Mokhlis, 2003). The seven-factor model, however, is more applicable to Greece, India, and South Korea.

On the other hand new styles have been identified by different researchers.

- Time Energy Conserving: South Korea, UK and Germany (Hafstrom et al, 1992; Mitchell and Bates, 2001; Walsh et al., 2001)
- Time-conscious: China (Fan and Xiao, 1998)
- Store-Loyal: UK (Mitchell and Bates, 2001; Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006)
- Brand-Loyal: UK (Mitchell and Bates, 2001)
- Information Utilization: China and Germany (Fan and Xiao, 1998; Walsh et al., 2001)
- Confused Time-Restricted: UK (Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006)
- Store-Loyal/Lower Price Seeking: UK (Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006)
- Store Promiscuous: UK (Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006)
- Bargain-Seeking: UK (Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006)
- Imperfectionism: UK (Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006)

It can be argued that the majority of the new styles are not stable, since they include limited items that have been extracted from the initial work of Sproles and Kendall. In addition, they did not show good reliability, and were tested on small samples only, ranging from 100 to 300 respondents. For example in the case of Greece the study was conducted on a sample consisting of 96 students.

A closer examination of Table 4:1 shows that the majority of the previous studies that examined the generalizability of CSI across different cultural domains were made with homogeneous student samples, in order to sustain compatibility (Lysonski et al., 1996; Radder et al., 2006). However, student samples cannot be characterized as representative of the whole population on each examined country (Mitchell and Bates, 1998; Coward and Goldsmith, 2007). Furthermore, new items were identified by other researchers (Fan and Xiao, 1998; Walsh et al., 2001; Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006) as a result of the significant cross-cultural differences among different contexts and populations. It was also noted that the CSI is more applicable to developed countries, where consumers have more stable cognitive consumption behaviour, due to their high economic propensity and economic development (Hui et al., 2001). In contrast, it was found in less developed countries (such as China, Malaysia, India, Greece etc.) that the CSI cannot be applied without additional modifications (Bauer and Becker, 2006).

Another reason for the changes in the number of factors is the different shopping environments in which the CSI was examined. Durvasula et al. (1993) stress that the retail environment between different countries varies considerably. For example in New Zealand, stores close in the afternoons, whereas in other countries they are open (i.e. USA, Germany). The competition level among international retailers also differs (Walsh et al., 2001). Similar consumers in more developed countries have more disposable incomes (i.e. UK), as opposed to consumers in less developed countries (i.e. China).

Sui et al. (2001) contend that previous researchers were interested in applying the CSI scale to different populations by making judicious comparison with the initial work of Sproles and Kendall (1986). For example all previous studies of the CSI scale were made using the methodology of exploratory factor analysis, and substantial cross

loadings between items were found. According to Hair et al. (2006) exploratory factor analysis cannot assess the unidimensionality of the construct, and thus produces questionable results. From the findings of the literature review, few researchers have tried to validate and to refine the CSI by following more sophisticated techniques, i.e. confirmatory factor analysis. Therefore further research is needed in order to address these issues and to ascertain whether the scale can be made universal by making minor changes to it, or whether the scale is cultural dependent and needs further adjustments.

Table 4:1 Comparison of Reliability Coefficients for Studies on Decision-Making Styles

Year	1986	1992	1996	1996	1996	1996	2001		2001	2006	
Country	U.S.	South Korea	New Zealand	Greece	U.S.	India	China		Germany	UK	
Authors	Sproles and Kendall	Hafstrom, Chae, and Chung	Lysonski, Durvasula, and Zotos				Siu, Wang, Chang, and Hiu		Walsh, Mitchell, Hennig-Thurau	Bakewell and Mitchell	
Consumer Styles											
1.Perfectionist	.74(8)[1]	.77(7)[2]	.80(7)	.65(7)	.72(7)	.61(7)	.73(8)	.71(4)	.75(7)	.47(3)[11]	.64(3)[11,18]
2.Brand-Conscious	.75(7)[1]	.84(11)[2]	.59(6)	.68(6)	.63(6)	.71(6)	.70(7)	.68(4)	.73(6)	.76(5)	.76(5)
3.Novelty-Fashion Conscious	.74(5)	--	.75(4)	.63(4)	.75(4)	.72(4)	.77(5)	.69(3)	.71(8)	.73(3)[4,16]	.79(3)4,9
4.Recreational Shopping	.76(5)	.70(6)[2,3]	.82(5)	.61(5)	.85(5)	.45(5)	.76(4)	.73(3)	.65(4)	.56(3)[11]	.38(3)[11,12]
5.Price Value Conscious	.48(3)	.31(3)	--	--	--	--	.44(3)	.30(2)	--	.36(1)[15]	.39(2)[17]
6.Impulsive	.48(5)	.54(4)[4]	.71(5)	.64(5)	.68(5)	.41(5)	.50(5)	.50(3)	--	.26(2)[14]	.48(2)[18]
7.Confused by Over-choice	.55(4)	.54(5)	.66(4)	.55(4)	.69(4)	.64(4)	.59(4)	.54(3)	.75(4)	.64(4)	.71(4)
8.Habitual, Brand-Loyal	.53(4)	.34(3)[4]	.54(3)	.34(3)	.62(3)	.51(3)	.48(4)	.52(3)	--	.09(2)[15]	.43(2)[6,9]
9.Store-Loyal											68(3)
10.Time Energy Conserving		.35(3)							.70(5)		
11.Time-Conscious											
12.Information Utilization									.53(5)		
13.Time Energy Conserving										.66(4)	.41(3)
14.Confused Time Restricted										.32(2)	
15.Store Loyal//Lower Price Seeking										.36(2)	
16.Store-Promiscuous										.35(2)	
17.Bargain Seeking											.59(2)
18.Imperfectionism											.66(2)
No. of Items	40	38	34	34	34	34	40	25	38	38	38
No. of Factors	8	8	7	7	7	7	8	8	7	12	12
Total Variance	48%	47%	54.6%	53.7%	57.5%	52.5%	--	--	51.9%	63%	66%
Eigenvalues	1.3	1.28-6.19	>1	>1	>1	>1	--	--	1.58-5.44	1.05-4.76	1.07-4.43
Sample	High School	Under-graduate	Under-graduate	Under-graduate	Under-graduate	Under-graduate	Under-graduate	Shopping Public >18	Shopping Public >18	Male Undergraduate	Female Undergraduate

Values in parenthesis represent the number of items in each factor.
The superscript numbers from 1 to 18 indicate Factorial Complexity (load on two factors)
Source: Adapted from Siu , Wang, Chang, and Hui (2001)

Table 4:1. Continued from the previous page, Comparison of Reliability Coefficients for Studies on Decision Making Styles

Year	1998	2001	2001		2003	2006		2006		
Country	UK	Germany	China		Malaysia	UK		South Africa		
								Chinese	Motswana	Caucasian
Authors	Mitchell and Bates	Walsh, Mitchell, Hennig-Thurau	Siu, Wang, Chang, and Hiu		Kamaruddin and Mokhlis	Bakewell and Mitchell		Radder, Li, and Pietersen		
Consumer Styles										
1.Perfectionist	.41	.39	.75(7)	.73(8)	.71(4)	.75	.47(3)[11]	.64(3)[11,18]	.51	.78	.74
2.Brand -Conscious	--	.61	.73(6)	.70(7)	.68(4)	.72	.76(5)	.76(5)	.63	.69	.76
3.Novelty-Fashion Conscious	.77	.77	.71(8)	.77(5)	.69(3)	.70	.73(3)[4,16]	.79(3)4,9	.63	.56	.64
4.Recreational Shopping	.33	.33	.65(4)	.76(4)	.73(3)	.78	.56(3)[11]	.38(3)[11,12]	.77	.59	.77
5.Price Value Conscious	.51	.51	--	.44(3)	.30(2)	.57	.36(1)[15]	.39(2)[17]	-.25	.05	.08
6.Impulsive	.24	.44	--	.50(5)	.50(3)	.43	.26(2)[14]	.48(2)[18]	.49	.43	.55
7.Confused by Over-choice	.67	.67	.75(4)	.59(4)	.54(3)	.70	.64(4)	.71(4)	.71	.47	.77
8.Habitual, Brand-Loyal	--	.54	--	.48(4)	.52(3)	.69	.09(2)[15]	.43(2)[6,9]	.48	.32	.65
9.Store-Loyal		.46						.68(3)			
10.Brand-Loyal	.60										
11.Time Energy Conserving	.60	.63	.70(5)				.66(4)	.41(3)[17]			
12.Time-Conscious											
13.Information Utilization			.53(5)								
14.Confused Time Restricted							.32(2)				
15.Store Loyal//Lower Price Seeking							.36(2)				
16.Store-Promiscuous							.35(2)				
17.Bargain Seeking								.59(2)			
18.Imperfectionism								.66(2)			
No. of Items	39	39	38	40	25	32	38	38	39	39	39
No. of Factors	8	10	7	8	8	8	12	12	8	8	8
Total Variance	50.5%	57.5%	51.9%	--	--	--	63%	66%	--	--	--
Eigenvalues	--	--	1.58-5.44	--	--	--	1.05-4.76	1.07-4.43	--	--	--
Sample	Under-graduate	Under-graduate	Shopping Public >18	Under-graduate	Shopping Public >18	High School	Male Undergraduate	Female Undergraduate	Undergraduate		

Values in parenthesis represent the number of items in each factor. The superscript numbers from 1 to 18 indicate Factorial Complexity (load on two factors)

4.4 Consumer decision-making styles and clothing

The attachments that consumers seek to possess while they are making their consumption preferences are related to the Sproles and Kendall (1986) decision-making styles thus:

- **1. Perfectionist/High Quality Conscious**

Perfectionist or quality consciousness shopping orientation equates to the purchase of products that have high quality and are offered at higher prices (Sproles and Kendall, 1986; Wesley et al., 2006) Also it refers to consumers who choose to buy the best products available seen. Besides, quality acts as a strong indicator for the good functionality and duration of the product (Leo et al., 2005) and is also an important factor that orients consumer purchases of apparel products (Kim and Shim, 2002).

It was found that Greek apparel shoppers show great attention to that construct (Kamenidou, 2007) and it was ascertained that quality reasons are strongly related to apparel shopping consumption. For example the authors identified that Greeks prefer to buy well-known imported brands as opposed to the national ones, in order to eliminate the bias of making an unsuccessful clothing purchase. Additionally the research carried out by Lysonski et al. (2006) on evaluating the CSI in the Greek market, showed positive scores on that dimension.

This study investigates the selection of reference points for apparel clothing shopping on important shopping occasions. Clothing in that case refers to consumers' purchases of a professional outfit or dress that is bought especially for a specified event (e.g. weddings, parties, conferences, anniversaries, celebrations, and work meetings). Similarly the research under investigation involves the purchases of young Greek consumers and specifically students, where they attend such events on a regular basis. Therefore Greek college students as apparel shoppers will exhibit a greater tendency to score high on that dimension.

- **2. Brand Conscious/Price Equals Quality**

Brand Conscious/Price Equals Quality refers to consumers' shopping orientation for buying expensive and well-known brands (Sproles and Kendall, 1986). Brands evoke

aesthetic meanings that suggest status and prestige to consumers (Leo et al., 2005). Most items on that dimension are relevant to the problem under investigation. For example consumers for their consumption preferences are interested in selecting strong brand-name products such as Boss, Versace, etc. Also, well-known brands reflect one's individual status and prestige. According to Kotler et al. (2005) a brand name has different levels of meanings. A brand is a combination of attributes, benefits, values, culture and personality. Usually consumers prefer to use strong brand names for their consumption purchases, because they act as an indicator of bringing high performance, quality, safety and unique prestige to them (Kotler et al., 2005; Leo et al., 2005). Brands also help them to differentiate themselves from others (De Chernatory and Riley, 1998).

Furthermore it helps consumers to reduce the risks involved in purchasing (Kamenidou, 2007). It is found that consumers who score high in that dimension are characterized as risk-averse purchasers (Lehmann and Winer, 1997). For example the selection of a branded apparel product gives confidence to consumers and brings only gains to them (Kamenidou, 2007). It is also found that consumers attach different shopping orientation towards branded and non-branded apparel clothes, such that consumers who prefer buying high branded fashion clothes will have unique styles, as compared with those who are not so brand oriented (Siu et al., 2001). Therefore brand influences consumer intentions and perceptions in acquiring a specific product. For example the familiarity of a brand strongly influences consumers' purchase decisions and it helps consumers to create a positive tendency towards habitual consumption behaviours (Hafstrom et al., 1992).

From the findings of the extant literature on decision-making styles, it was determined that the dimension of Brand Conscious/Price Equals Quality is stable across different populations (i.e. USA, South Korea, New Zealand, Greece, India, Germany, China, and Malaysia). However, it was found that the selection of high-branded apparel strongly mediates consumer evaluation about the product quality and performance of it.

Consumers' purchasing criteria on that shopping occasion are targeted by consumers in evaluating the different brand names in terms of the benefits acquired, i.e. quality and price. As regards Greek apparel shoppers it was identified that they prefer to buy branded apparel clothes. The people who live in big cities (i.e. Athens, Thessaloniki)

especially prefer to buy imported high-fashion apparel clothes that boost their self-image and ultimately give them a unique prestige (Kamenidou, 2007). The author identified that young Greek consumers tend to spend a considerable amount of their budget on buying expensive branded clothes. Hence we can conclude that Greek college students will score high on that dimension.

- ### 3. Novelty/ Fashion Conscious

According to Sproles and Kendall (1986) the trait of Novelty/Fashion Consciousness refers to those consumers who seek variety and novelty during their consumption decisions. They seek to find products that will help them to enhance their lifestyle, by differentiating themselves from others. Likewise they find shopping a pleasant experience.

However, it was found that this dimension is more suitable for consumers that have more individualistic consumption behaviour. For example according to Leo et al. (2005) those consumers who score high on that dimension have a unique desire to purchase modern, trendy, and distinctive clothes. However those consumers have as a referent their own personal style, they are confident on their consumption preferences, and they have more articulated preferences. Thus their behaviour cannot be influenced so easily by others (Gardial et al., 1994). Greek consumers are strongly influenced by the opinions of others and they tend to follow trends according to the rules and the values used in society in general (Kamenidou et al., 2007). Hence it is expected that Greek college students will score high on that dimension.

- ### 4.Recreational Shopping/ Hedonistic Shopping Conscious

This dimension measures consumers' recreational and hedonistic shopping characteristics (Sproles and Kendall, 1986). It characterizes consumers who see the experience of shopping as fun, leisure, and enjoyment. According to Cardoso et al. (2005) consumers evaluate apparel clothes not only for their functional attributes, but for their hedonistic ones as well (i.e. aesthetics, lifestyle, perceptions, and abstract beauty).

Since the domain under investigation involves the consumption of apparel products for important shopping occasions, it is expected that Greek college students will score high on that trait. Thus most of them will exhibit hedonistic behaviours, as they will try to present themselves as well as possible.

- ## 5. Price Conscious/Value-for-Money

This characteristic refers to price-oriented consumers. They are interested in making purchases that will offer value for money. Thus they make price comparisons, and are looking for discount prices and unique offers (Sproles and Kendall, 1986; Leo et al., 2005). Similarly consumers, when they purchase clothes, are strongly influenced by the prices of available products seen in the store layout, or by prices in other sources (media, magazines, social groups, and internet).

However, because clothes are durable products, and they will have them in the wardrobe for some years, their price incentives are motivated by the duration of the perceived product and the new fashion trends. For example it is found that branded apparel clothes products suggest safety to consumer beliefs, as they would be expected to last longer, compared with less branded ones (Kamenidou, 2007). On the other hand consumers will purchase less branded apparel as long as it is within the new fashion styles and is suggested by strong clothing designers (Coward and Goldsmith, 2007).

Additionally, consumers evaluate the price offers according to the perceived quality obtained (Hui et al., 2001). Moreover, the study examines the case of students who have limited financial means, as most of them are not employed during their studies. Therefore Greek students as apparel clothing shoppers for important shopping occasions will show a greater tendency to score high on this trait.

- ## 6. Impulsive/Careless Orientation

According to Sproles and Kendall (1986) these dimensions characterize consumers who do impulsive shopping. For example they make impulsive purchases, which in most cases can be seen as careless consumption. This results from the fact that they do not spend adequate effort and time on searching for the best available offers. They are motivated only by their sensory motives and distinct intuition. Previous research

findings identified that there were a variety of factors that influenced consumer impulsive purchasing behaviour (Lee and Kacen, 2008). Furthermore, usually those consumers proceed to compulsive shopping in order to justify themselves to others (Luo, 2005). They are influenced by their moods (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998), and follow their self-identity (Cox and Dittmar, 1995) On the other hand it is found that younger consumers are more likely to display that behaviour, compared with old ones (Lee and Kacen, 2008).

The selection of apparel clothes entails both sensory and other aesthetic experiences that are targeted towards consumer minds. Hence Greek college students belong to that category of young people and are regarded as scoring high on that dimension. The same results were found in a recent research study that aimed at profiling young Greek consumers (Visa Europe, 2007).

- ### 7. Confused by Over-choice Consciousness

Those consumers are overwhelmed when they are exposed to different product bundles and product alternatives (Sproles and Kendall, 1986). They cannot distinguish between them to make their final choice so easily. This also results from having to simultaneously assess different sources of information (i.e. product attributes, offers, product assortments and alternatives). Regarding apparel clothing consumption it can be argued that they are high competitive products offered by different retail stores and many national and international outlets. In that respect consumers have to evaluate many brands so as to distinguish their final preferences.

It was found that when consumers have less articulated preferences in selecting a specific product, they become more confused and overwhelmed during the consumption decision. Similarly it is found that those consumers tend to be influenced more easily by others (i.e. friends or sales personnel). Therefore as the Greek retail market offers consumers a diverse selection of many choices of apparel clothes, it makes consumers' evaluations more difficult. Consequently, it is expected that Greek college students will score high on that dimension, as well.

- ### 8. Habitual/Brand Loyal Conscious

This dimension refers to consumers that make habitual purchases (Sproles and Kendall, (1986). They have preferences for certain brands and stores. According to Leo et al. (2005) those consumers follow a risk-reduction strategy. They have articulated preferences, and in their consumption decisions they choose to go to familiar store environments. It can be argued that the influence of the store environment acts as an initial standpoint for the consumers' evaluation of apparel products, as the environment (e.g. unique atmosphere, service, location, sales people, and culture) evokes feelings of safety and excitement in consumers' minds. Similarly satisfied consumers will tend to visit the same store again.

Likewise Greek students make habitual purchases and they tend to stick with the same stores. They prefer to go to small stores, where they have personal contact with the personnel, and they can demand discounts and other offers, as well. This is a common characteristic of the retail environment in Greece, as all the sellers are keen to have repeat satisfied customers. Hence it is envisaged that Greek college students will score high on that dimension.

4.5 Consumer decision-making styles and clothing reference points

It was noted that consumers differ in the way that they make their consumption choices. Likewise it was found that consumers use a combination of multiple reference points in order to structure their final preferences. Some reference points come directly from the perspective of the seller (e.g. product characteristics, prices, assortments, displays, offers, discounts, store location). Others come directly from the perspective of the consumer (e.g. personal goals, previous purchases, social and cultural referents). For example some consumers evaluate apparel for their functional attributes only (i.e. quality, cloth, fabric, performance). Others might seek more abstract attributes (i.e. beauty, design), while some of them seek to satisfy other aesthetic values, such as emotional and cognitive satisfaction (Klerk, 2008). Likewise there are consumers who are brand-loyal, and they only purchase branded apparel.

Perfectionist/High Quality Conscious consumers will have as explicit referents the selection of apparel products that combine high retail price and high quality. On the other hand those consumers have as implicit reference points the knowledge that comes

from their past purchases, they have more articulated preferences, and they are not influenced so easily by the opinions of others. They are self-referents.

Novelty/Fashion Conscious consumers will have as explicit referents to select products that have unique and stylish attributes. They will have as implicit referents their previous purchases, and the knowledge that comes from different sources (i.e. media, fashion magazines). Similarly they show a greater tendency to follow the fashion trends.

Recreational/Hedonistic Shopping Conscious consumers will use explicit reference points coming directly from the sellers. They will create their reference points during their exposure to real-time decision-making. They will seek as referents, product attributes that emphasize hedonistic abstract attributes. For example because those types of consumers enjoy shopping, they will prefer to purchase clothes from stores that have a friendly atmosphere, and which are easily located in the city centre where other merchandisers operate as well. They enjoy making comparisons between different sets of product alternatives.

On the other hand those types of consumers do not have articulated preferences, and they do impulsive shopping. Their referents can be their close social groups (i.e. friends, family). However it was found that the influence of cultural display referents will not have an impact on their consumption decisions (Leo et al., 2005). Cultural display referents refer to prescribed rules and norms that manipulate consumer behaviour towards the context of culture (Ekman and Friesen, 1969; Hofstede, 1984; Hofstede, 2001).

Price Conscious/Value-for-money consumers are willing to delay the consumption of a specific product, providing that in the near future they will find it at a better price. They will constantly seek to identify information that offers them value for their money. It is expected they will have as referents the information that comes from other peer groups, or information that comes from sales personnel.

Impulsive/Careless Conscious consumers will exhibit the use of selected reference points during their consumption process. As they are characterized by impulsive

behaviour, they will not be attached to specific brands. On the other hand their selections will be guided their instant mood congruencies.

It is likely to be found that consumers who have high uncertainty avoidance will be less likely to show impulse behaviour (Leo et al., 2005). Thus they make their final choices after evaluating carefully all the information regarding their decision problem. Kacen and Lee (2002) found that consumers from collectivist cultures tend to show less impulse-buying than individualist ones.

Despite the fact that Greece is a collectivistic culture, consumers who live in urban areas or in big cities act more individually in their shopping intentions. It was found in a recent survey that Greek young people and especially students show a preference towards this dimension (Visa Europe, 2007). Therefore this type of consumer tends not to be influenced by the proclivities of culture. It is expected they will show greater preference for acquiring instant rewards from their selections. However, as impulsive consumers they will make careless consumption.

Confused by Over-choice consumers will be influenced more by the use of explicit references of the seller (i.e. prices, offers, rewards, framing). They prefer sellers or retailers to guide their selections, as they cannot make distinct comparisons by themselves. They prefer others (e.g. friends) to be present while they shop. Thus it is expected that they would have as implicit referents, the preferences of their closest counterparts, their values and their goals.

Habitual/Brand-Loyal consumers will use as reference points the knowledge that comes from their past purchases. On the other hand it is expected that they will select familiar products and brands, and follow the opinions of other social groups. They follow a risk-reduction strategy (Leo et al., 2005). Thus they will avoid using new and challenging reference points. For example they will prefer clothes with certain gains (i.e. good trademarks, respected brand names that offer good value for their money). Acceptance by their peer groups is of interest to them, and they will be culturally oriented.

4.6   Critical discussion

It can be argued that the decision-making characteristic approach initially identified by the work of Sproles and Kendall (1986) entails a valuable measurement tool in categorizing effectively into eight dimensions the way that consumers act and behave during their consumption decision-making. The consumer decision-making styles inventory has been examined across different countries and populations, ranging from developed countries (USA, UK, Germany, New Zealand, Korea, Australia) to less developed ones (Greece, Malaysia, China, Africa).

It was found that the CSI can be generalized across different countries only by making some further adjustments on the pre-specified dimensions examined (Radder and Pieterson, 2006).

For example, Hafstrom et al. (1992), using a Korean sample, identified that there was an overlap between the constructs of Brand and Fashion-Conscious consumers. Likewise Durvasula et al., (1993) in examining a sample from New Zealand, identified that Brand-Loyal Conscious and Price Value Conscious consumers partially overlap. On the other hand in other studies it was found that some dimensions were not applicable to specific populations, i.e. in China, the dimension of Impulsiveness (Fan and Xiao, 1998), in Germany, where the trait Brand-Conscious was separated with a new trait name, Brand-Loyalty consumers (Mitchell and Bates, 1998) and Price Value Conscious (Walsh et al., 2001), in Malaysia, the trait Impulsive/Careless Conscious, and in Greece and in India, the dimension of Price Value Conscious.

Some researchers, while applying the CSI to specific contexts, identified new dimensions of new traits that emerged as presented in table 4.2:

Table 4:2 Consumer Decision-Making Styles, New Traits

New Traits	Country	
1.Store-Loyal	UK	
2.Brand -Loyal	UK	
3.Time Energy Conserving	UK, Germany	
4.Time Conscious		China
5.Information Utilization		Germany, China
6.Confused Time Restricted	UK	
7.Store Loyal//Lower Price Seeking	UK	
8.Store Promiscuous	UK	
9.Bargain Seeking	UK	
10.Imperfectionism	UK	

It can be seen that the majority of the new traits were identified in the UK, i.e. nine out of ten. However they were extracted by replicating the items of the initial inventory identified by Sproles and Kendall (1986). Some new constructs are limited to between two and four items only, i.e. Store Promiscuous, Bargain Seeking, Imperfectionism (Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006). Therefore they lack consistency and reliability. Additionally they were extracted from one or two studies only with a limited number of samples. Moreover it was found that cultural variables influence the effectiveness of the CSI across populations (Lysonski et al., 1996). However demographic variables (i.e. income, education, age) do not exhibit significant influences on consumer decision-making characteristics (Wesley et al., 2006). Bauer and Sauer (2006) identified that consumer decision-making characteristics are strongly influenced by the category of the product under investigation.

4.7 Proposed hypothesis on decision-making styles

Based on the findings of the considerable literature on decision-making styles the researcher concludes that Greek college students will have distinct decision-making styles, as the majority of the studies that examined the applicability of the decision-making styles inventory (CSI) in different countries and cultural contexts found that it could not be generalized without making further subsequent modification to it. Therefore the researcher formulates the following research hypothesis:

PH₂: Greek college students as apparel clothing shoppers for important shopping occasions will have distinct decision-making characteristics.

This hypothesis was tested in the second quantitative research study, as it was pertinent firstly to check the applicability of the CSI to the context of Greece and then to craft generalizable concluding remarks.

Additionally, as it was found from the literature review that reference points are strongly dependent upon individual differences, the following hypothesis is formulated:

PH₃: There will be a relationship between the decision-making characteristics and reference points among Greek consumers as apparel shoppers for important shopping occasions.

The hypothesis was tested after defining the exact dimensions of the two scales (i.e. final scale of the reference points inventory, and final scale of the decision-making styles inventory).

4.8   Summary

This research uses as a theoretical framework the initial version of the CSI developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986) as most of the constructs are stable among different countries, by employing minor modifications to them only. This helped us to profile the shopping orientations of Greek college students in selecting apparel reference points for important shopping occasions. By identifying the shopping orientations of Greek college students, apparel retailers could better segment their products to the appropriate buyers since that proliferation enables them to design better marketing strategies. Furthermore the traits of consumer decision-making styles are strongly related to the selection of reference points for apparel clothing consumption (Siu and Wang, 2001; Wang et al., 2004). For example it is expected that consumers will differ in the way they make their consumption decisions, and thus will use different reference points for their apparel clothing purchases. The next chapter includes the methodology that will help us to solve the research problem under investigation.

4.9   References

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5. CHAPTER FIVE: Research Design and Methodology

5.0   Introduction

This chapter analyses the methodology that was employed to achieve the research objectives. Firstly, a proposed conceptual framework is introduced and the purposes of this study are outlined, followed by the proposed hypotheses formulated from a careful review of the extant literature. Thirdly, the research methods and the research plan and rationale are analysed. Fourthly the sampling method is defined, and fifthly, the instruments that are used are introduced. Lastly, the data collection techniques are presented and related ethical issues are addressed.

5.1   Conceptual framework

From the literature review it was found that reference points have been examined from prospect theory (Kahneman, 1992). More recently, reference points have been examined from reference dependence theory (Hardie et al., 1993; Maimaran and Simonson, 2007). This theory suggests that consumers use multi-attribute reference points, that is, a combination of different sets of attributes that they have as a benchmark when making their consumption choices. Dholakia and Simonson (2005) stress that, in addition to those explicit reference points, people also use implicit reference points, including personal and social referents. For example consumers, when making their purchases, are not only using the referents that originate from the unique perspective of the sellers, but are also crafting and using referents that come from their own personal and social perspective. However, studies in this field have been limited to particular attributes of reference points, which are the price, the assortment, and reward referents. Therefore there is a gap in the literature regarding analysis of the dimensionality of consumer reference points, in terms of a multi-attribute level analysis, together with mental accounting theory. The outcome of such analysis would be the building of a justifiable scale.

It has been found that the dimensionality of reference points strongly depends upon individual differences that arise from the domain of cognition (e.g. Kahneman, 2003; Levin et al., 2002; Devetag, 1999, Novemsky et al., 2007). However, in the context of Greece only one study was found (Lysonski et al., 1996) that tried to analyse these

individual differences (i.e. decision-making styles). Furthermore, this study examined the applicability of the CSI to a relatively small student sample (i.e. 95), and without making any inference to a specific product category. Therefore there exists a second gap in the literature in terms of evaluating Greek college students' decision-making characteristics, and linking the different decision-making style traits to the selected categorization of multi-attribute reference points for a specific product category (i.e. clothing consumption on important shopping occasions).

5.2   Study objectives

The aim of this research is to shed light on Greek consumers' attitudes towards apparel products, particularly clothing for important shopping occasions, by firstly conceptualizing the categories of consumer apparel reference points and secondly, examining how the different types of reference points are associated with the decision-making styles inventory developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986).

Analytically, the first objective of this study is to conceptualize the categories of consumer reference points used by Greek college student shoppers (implicit and explicit) for their clothing consumption preferences on important shopping occasions. The second objective is to categorize these Greek college student shoppers' decision-making characteristics. Lastly, the third objective is to examine the relationship between the selected categorization of consumer reference points and the decision-making characteristics identified among the selected group of Greek college students as apparel shoppers.

5.3   Summary of research questions and null hypothesis

A review of the literature led to the formulation of the following research questions and primary null hypotheses (PH):

Question 1: Which factors influence the categorization of reference points of Greek college students as apparel clothing shoppers for important shopping occasions?

Null PH₁: The categorization of reference points from Greek college students as apparel clothing shoppers for important shopping occasions is influenced by a number of factors. Based on the findings of the literature these factors are conceptualized under the higher-order construct of: <u>explicit referents</u> (i.e. price referents, framing referents, product attribute referents, reward referents, assortments referents, and other referents) and <u>implicit referents</u> (i.e. goal referents, time referents, preference referents, previous knowledge referents, social and cultural referents, and other referents).

Question 2: Are there distinct consumer decision-making styles of Greek college students?

Null PH₂: Greek college students as apparel clothing shoppers for important shopping occasions will show different decision-making characteristics compared with eight decision-making characteristics initially proposed by Sproles and Kendall (1986).

Question 3: Is there a significant relationship between the decision-making characteristics and reference points among Greek consumers as apparel shoppers? If so to what extent?

Null PH₃: There will be a relationship between the decision-making characteristics and reference points among Greek consumers as apparel shoppers for important shopping occasions.

5.4 Research strategy and procedures

Until now, reference points have been examined from the distinct domain of prospect theory without making any clear inference to a specific product category. It was found from the literature that the elaboration of reference points strongly depends upon different cues that arise from the domain of cognition. Therefore, decision-making styles were selected in order to measure and understand consumer shopping orientations in that respect. There is a considerable need to examine the effects of reference points from a consumer perspective. Thus, apparel clothing for important shopping occasions was selected, and ultimately acted as the stimulus that guided the study.

The research methodology that has been adopted in order to fulfil the objectives of this study is a mixture of qualitative and quantitative techniques. The rationale of selecting a mixed-method strategy combining the use of qualitative and quantitative techniques was to enrich the emerging data.

For the initial conceptualization of the categories of consumer reference points for apparel clothing consumption, a focus group analysis was utilized. The advantage of this technique is that it enhances the research with a more abstract examination of the problem under investigation (Cassell and Symon, 2004: p.21). It can be perceived as a technique that epistemologically articulates and 'vessels' the production of meanings to peripheral issues of a precise research question (Holstein and Gubrium, 1995: p.17). It helps create general themes that can be used in constructing questionnaires (Cassell and Symon, 2004: p.144). Many scholars argue that it enables interviewees to structure their own thoughts and assumptions, without any a priori categorization, or any pre-formatted restrictions being imposed on them (Cassell and Symon, 2004; Lee, 1999; Denzin, 2000; Fossey et al., 2002). On the other hand the main disadvantages are that they are time-consuming, and the interpretations of the responses need a skilful interviewer (Silverman, 2000; Holloway, 1997).

The main themes and categories of consumer reference points were put together from the findings of existing literature on reference points, in order to better guide the interviewees. Because of the multidimensionality of the different categories of consumer reference points for apparel clothing, it was envisaged to derive them from the consumer's own perspective. Therefore this specific qualitative method aimed to analyse and break down the main categories of reference points, which helped in the elaboration of the aforementioned conceptualization. Therefore by the selection of focus group discussions, the dynamic construct of reference points was analysed from the consumers' own perspective and categorized more effectively. According to Krueger and Casey (2000), focus group discussions serve to uncover salient factors that motivate and influence consumers. It helped the researcher to quantify and generalize the results and design a large-scale quantitative study to address this goal.

On the other hand the applications of the quantitative research methods were used to achieve the research objectives and to test the merits of the hypotheses, for example to

profile Greek college students' decision-making styles and to check if there was any relationship with the selected categorization of referents for apparel clothing consumption for important shopping occasions. The instruments used in the survey were the evolving categorization of reference points that emanated from the findings of the qualitative analysis, the consumer decision-making styles inventory, and demographic information.

In the initial purification stage (i.e. pilot study), exploratory factor analysis was used as it serves to identify factors that cannot be measured directly. Additionally it helps to identify the number of latent dimensions that account for the common variance explained among the items (Reise et al., 2000). More specifically, principal component analysis (PCA), with both varimax and oblique rotation was developed (DeVellis, 2003; Hair et al., 1998). According to Hair et al. (1998) principal component analysis is utilized when the objective is to summarize the variance explained in a minimum number of factors for predicting a reliable model adequacy. The use of varimax rotation refers to 'orthogonal rotation', which serves to maximize the factor loadings by creating a factor matrix. Likewise it serves to produce uncorrelated variables (Bauer et al., 2006). However when the variables are inter-correlated then oblique rotation should be used, as it provides better explanations for the interpretability of the data (Field, 2005; Bennett, 2005).

In the final purification stage (i.e. primary survey), confirmatory factor analysis was used. Confirmatory factor analysis (Hair et al., 1998) was performed to examine the factors that define the two measurement models, i.e. the reference points inventory (RPI) and the consumer decision-making styles inventory (CSI). The next part discusses the sample and related sampling measures, followed by the data analysis techniques.

5.5   Research philosophy

An epistemological methodology was used to identify overlaps between deduction and induction, including the application of triangulation.

- Triangulation is the use of multiple combinations of processes, which produces more robust and interpretable results, that will ensure the repeatability of the data being examined (Denzin, 2000; Cho and Trend, 2006). It gives a breadth of more rigorous

clarification by examining the same facts from different focal points (Campbell and Fiske, 1959; Smith, 1975; Seale, 1999; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995; Denzin, 1978, 2000, 2003). By using this method, we could effectively find out consumer intentions. It helped to uncover all the deviant dimensions of the measurement problem under examination in a manageable and constructive way (Jick, 1979).

- Induction is the theory tested through observation of the empirical world (Cassell and Symon, 2004)

- Deduction is the observation of the empirical world which generates grounded theory (Cassell and Symon, 2004).

The use of these multiple staged processes helped to build a foundation for the formation of reference points by linking them to the different decision-making styles.

- In the area of reference points, the application of an inductive procedure produced a conceptual theory, which resulted from the findings of the existing literature and through the implementation of the qualitative technique. The outcome was the building of the selected categorization of apparel clothing reference points.

- In the area of decision-making styles, the use of a deductive procedure served to investigate the possible linking of the existing theories with the use of selected reference points.

In philosophical terms, the research process followed the principles of the interpretivist approach and the principles of logical positivism (Van de Ven, 2007). More explicitly the first approach employed qualitative analysis (i.e. focus groups). In this section the main aim was to understand consumers' behaviour, in terms of selecting reference points for apparel clothing consumption. It can be said that qualitative research methods are characterized as obtaining information from individuals according to their own beliefs, views, and experiences. On the other hand quantitative research methods are concerned more with counting and measuring things. Therefore the interpretivist approach was followed as it provided a deeper understanding of salient and unobservable behaviours, giving meaningful explanations to further induct data.

Logical positivism aims to test and analyse existing data sets and findings, by deducting their applicability and use to different streams of research. Therefore this approach

followed the principles of testing theories and existing phenomena through quantitative research analysis and applied the use of the consumer decision-making styles inventory to the problem under investigation in the specific domain of Greece.

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5.6 Selection of survey samples

The research population was defined as young male and female consumers who are studying at a university in a northern city of Greece (i.e. Thessaloniki). The city of Thessaloniki was selected as the area for collecting the data, because it has two universities and one Technological Educational Institution, which have approximately 110,000 students. The Aristotle University has 88,000 students and the University of Macedonia has 10,000 students, while the Technological Education Institute has 18,000 students. Therefore for reasons of sample homogeneity the researcher purposively chose that student sample in order to minimize potential discrepancies of acquiring data that would come from the use of a heterogeneous student sample (Lysonski et al., 1996). Moreover, students divided evenly by gender and year of study, e.g. freshman, sophomore, junior, senior. The sampling procedure selected was a purposive/judgmental probability sampling method (Hair et al., 1998). The study population was Greek college students.

The Technological Educational Institutions in Greece were established in 1983. They are technology-oriented institutions which are funded by the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs. Recently they were elevated, according to Greek law, as being of an equal standard with Greek Universities.

Students are trained in different scientific disciplines, including Engineering and Technological applications, Health and Caring professions, Food Technology and Nutrition, Fine Arts and Design, as well as the sciences of Management and Economics. The majority of the programmes are designed for undergraduate students, and last four years. However, recent changes in the Greek educational system gave them the privilege to provide postgraduate studies as well, with the collaboration of other national or international universities. The quality of educational standards which they provide has considerably improved over the last few years, as the Greek Government has made huge

investments in them. The Greek Government aims to transform them to Technical Universities, which will differentiate them from the other National Universities.

All Greek universities are strictly public, including TEIs. They do not charge tuition fees. The university halls of residence do not charge rent, but they can only accommodate a small number of students. Therefore the majority of students prefer to stay in private halls or to rent a flat or share an apartment with other co-students. Because most universities and TEIs are situated in large cities, such as Athens, Thessaloniki, Patra, and Heraklio, they usually attract students from all over the country. Hence the collection of data from universities that are in the major cities in Greece was expected to be representative of educated young Greeks as consumer shoppers.

5.7 Qualitative research data collection and analysis

The methodology of focus groups was selected from among other techniques in order to categorize consumer reference points and capture more advanced responses from individuals rather than viewing them from the perspective of pre-formatted groups or pre-formatted questions (Barbour and Kitzinger, 1999; Rowan and Wulff, 2007).

Initially a list of related topics was used in order to elicit participation, taken directly from the findings of the literature, for example, possible indicants that act as referents. This took the form of open-ended questions that helped the interviewer to guide the respondents' thoughts and beliefs on the problem under investigation.

5.7.1 Sampling and sample

According to Cassell and Symon (2004) in qualitative research the selection of the appropriate sample size results from recruiting and attracting those respondents who are willing to cooperate in the research project, by providing their knowledge on the issues under examination. In qualitative research, statistical representativeness is not of concern, as the researcher is interested more in recruiting suitable people (Rowan, 2007). Therefore the researcher used a combination of convenience and judgemental sampling. Specifically the study sample consisted of undergraduate students, evenly divided by gender and year of study, who were all majoring in Business Administration

and in Marketing (i.e. freshman, sophomore, junior, senior). In that respect, five focus groups of six was deemed suitable to produce reasonable results, as greater numbers lead to a permutation of data (Morgan, 1997; Cassell and Symon, 2004).The first group served as a pilot group in order to test the efficacy of the construction guidelines (Morgan, 1998).

However, researchers in this field suggest that when major analytic categories have been saturated then the facilitator should stop the group discussions (Morgan, 1997). So the selection of greater numbers of group interviews would have wasted valuable time and available resources (Bryman and Bell, 2007) and would have increased the complexity of the analysis (Morgan, 1998).Therefore the qualitative interview was administered in five consumer focus group discussions, to consist of six consumers in each (i.e. 30 college students), with one serving as a pilot group. A group of six members allows good interpretability of data, and helps the researcher with sufficient numbers in case one member does not turn up on the day (Morgan, 1998).

Qualitative research methods in marketing are concerned with capturing and analysing data that comes directly from the consumers' own perspectives and statistical sample techniques play a role in capturing a reliable sample (Barbour and Kitzinger, 1999). In this regard, many researchers suggest that the best selection of a sample is one that is familiar with the problem under investigation (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Cassell and Symon, 2004). A purposive sampling method was employed and participants were recruited using a combination of convenience and judgemental sampling (Punch, 2006).

According to Cieslak (2004) that type of sampling falls into the category of non-random sampling techniques. Non-random sampling includes the method of convenience sampling, quota sampling and purposive sampling. Convenience and purposive samples have the desired proportion of different respondent classes (Hair et al., 1998).

In contrast quota sampling is the equivalent of stratified sampling (Chisnall, 1997). That sampling method was left out due to the fact that it was too difficult to stratify our sample based on specific variables. This would have produced less accurate and biased inferences. Additionally, non-random sampling is more effective as it provides to the researcher the ability to save time and money. On the other hand according to Cieslak

(2004) none of the methods of non-random sampling are representative enough of the whole population under investigation. Hence the researcher decided on combining the non-random sampling methods to collect data (i.e. convenience and purposive sampling).

In focus groups analysis, selecting homogeneous groups, which have similar backgrounds and share similar interests, can minimize the bias of losing important information from interviewees (Krueger, 2000; Greenbaum, 1998). Thus the members of the groups were young students, aged over 17, studying in the Marketing and Management Department at the Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki (TEI). This specific university in Thessaloniki was selected, as the researcher had obtained permission to use the facilities of TEI during the collection of data from the students (see Appendix A: Data Collection Approval of TEI).

5.7.2 Data collection

As soon as the focus groups were finalized, data was gathered sequentially in five rounds. The collection of data from focus group sessions lasted eight weeks, as longer periods would have posed difficulties in terms of remembering, storing and analysing the data effectively (Greenbaum, 1998). The focus group discussions took place between early January 2010 and mid February 2010. The duration of each discussion was approximately one hour. The process and the number of respondents included in the focus group discussions are outlined in the timetable below:

- First focus group (round one, junior, 6 students), 11th January 2010
- Second focus group (round two, senior, 6 students), 18th January 2010
- Third focus group (round three, sophomore, 6 students), 25th January 2010
- Fourth focus group (round four, freshman, 5 students), 1st February 2010
- Fifth focus group (round five, junior, 7 students), 8th February 2010

The focus group discussions were implemented following specific guidelines, in order for respondents to feel secure and become familiar with the whole process. According to Krueger and Casey (2000) in order to obtain a smooth entrance to focus group discussions it is envisaged to first acquaint the interviewees with the purpose of the research, called the explanation phase. The second phase is the introduction, where each

member of the group was familiarized with the others, i.e. personal introductions, to break the ice. The discussion phase followed, and then the session ended with the conclusion phase (see Appendix B and C: English Version Focus Groups Discussions and Greek Version Focus Groups Discussions).

5.7.3 Ethical considerations

This section aimed to categorize Greek college students' apparel clothing reference points for important shopping occasions. Therefore a qualitative approach was used (the focus groups), and the following ethical issues were addressed at this stage.

According to Proctor (2005) participants usually feel more secure and comfortable when they are interviewed in their own familiar environment. Therefore the participants were asked, prior to their participation, what their preferred location was. Tape recording permission was sought in advance for the purposes of the personal interviews, so the participants could be assured that their identities remained secret and secure. It also enabled the moderator to transcript verbatim the work resulting from group sessions (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

The participants were provided with a consent form that explained the purposes and scope of the group interviews. The moderator also enabled participants to explain their views freely without any prejudice during the group discussions.

Because the research involved the collection of data from people, case-sensitive issues were highly respected. For example the data was used and stored only for the purposes of that research, excluding commercial uses. The questionnaires and tape transcripts were stored securely during the collection of the data, and according to the requirements of the ethics committee (Punch, 2006: p.119). As focus groups usually last approximately one hour, and sometimes even longer (Bryman and Bell, 2007), participants had the right to terminate their participation if they felt uncomfortable.

5.7.4 Analysis of the qualitative data

The data was analysed by the use of content analysis. According to Hsu and Hsien-Chen (2009: p.69) content analysis is "a procedure for classifying qualitative information into

numerical data amenable to quantitative manipulation". It is a technique that helps researchers to code the categorized data to thematic contents that can be analysed statistically (Mitchell, 1967; Kassarjian, 1977; Kolbe and Burnet, 1991; Schneider et al., 1992).

The results from the analysis were coded and grouped under labels of certain themes, that were produced after several revisions (Cassell and Symon, 2004; Rowan and Wulff, 2007). The outcome was the elaboration of the initial item pool of the reference points inventory. According to DeVellis (2003) the next step is to send it to experts for a review to make the final refinements.

The results of the qualitative research, guided the categorization of a reference points inventory of apparel clothing consumption for important shopping occasions. This was used in the phrasing of the structured questionnaire in the quantitative section. Thus the categorization of consumer reference points was achieved by building a sustainable inventory, which was tested in the quantitative part. This helped define the exact dimensions of the pre-specified inventory, by categorizing the number of items on each emerging dimension. In addition the researcher determined that the consumers' selection of reference points (e.g. implicit and explicit) was dependent upon a number of indicants/factors. See Appendix B and C for the English and Greek version qualitative method questionnaire.

5.8 Quantitative research data collection and analysis

The quantitative research data collection is divided in two parts. The first part (i.e. pilot study) was conducted to gather information and statistically assess the proposed items of both inventories (i.e. to quantify the results of the qualitative research by categorizing consumer reference points in a justifiable inventory, and to purify the existing inventory of decision-making styles as applied to the Greek context). Prior to the pilot study a preliminary interview was administrated to a small student sample by making refinements to the wording of the items.

The second part of the quantitative research is the primary survey which was conducted on different student samples and after the study results of the pilot study. In doing so the researcher was interested in assessing the construct validity of both scales. The method of Pearson's correlation was used as well, in order to measure the level and the length of the relationships between those aforementioned models. Pearson's correlation identifies the strength of the linear relationship between variables (Proctor, 2005; Brace et al., 2003). In addition Pearson's correlation analysis was selected as opposed to other correlation techniques (i.e. Spearman's Rho correlation) because the examined variables were measured on interval scale. But if the variables were extracted from ordinal data then the other technique would be more appropriate (Field, 2005).

5.8.1 Preliminary interview

The Greek version of the questionnaire was initially pre-tested on a small sample (i.e. N=10) of local Greek college students in order to make subsequent changes and final refinements to the wording of the items (Guadagnoli and Velicer, 1988; Hatcher, 2003).

The main aims of the small pre-test section were the following:
a) to confirm that the respondents were willing to participate and respond appropriately
b) to ensure the instrument items were properly understood and
c) to ascertain that the identified corrections and issues were satisfactory with the respondents in order not to remain an impediment in the face validity administration process (Cieslak, 2004).

The conductor provided the interviewees with a consent form prior to the completion of the questionnaire. The consent form informed participants about the purposes of that study and their rights. Clear instructions and guidance on how to proceed on each part of the questionnaire were given. The length of time needed to complete the questionnaire was estimated to be around 15 minutes. This helped ensure that respondents did not become overwhelmed. Additionally all the questions used in the questionnaire had a clear meaning, so as not to mislead respondents' answers, and not to cause them any feelings of pressure or discomfort (Chisnall, 1997; Bryman , 2007).

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5.8.2 Pilot study

The data of the pilot study was collected using paper-based questionnaires, as this method provides a high degree of confidence in the process (Hair et al., 1998). The collection of data took place in different classes at the university in April 2010. In order to ensure that the study tapped a wide range of consumption behaviours the data was collected from a purposive or judgmental sample (Hankinson, 2005).

The technique of non-probability judgmental sampling was used to ensure, firstly, that the sample included college students who had purchased at least one clothing item for an important shopping event. Secondly, judgement was used to ensure that the sample included a wide range of students. For example students that filled in the questionnaire were from different backgrounds ranging from urban to rural (Durvasula, 1993) and different years of study. Thirdly, the researcher chose to use a homogeneous group (i.e. undergraduate students) as it minimizes random error (Devellis, 2003), which could have occurred in the case of using a more heterogeneous sample (i.e. general public). This helped in better facilitating their apparel consumption behaviour.

According to Roman (2006), convenience samples are valid when the study under examination is exploratory and when the sustainability of the items on the questionnaire depends on the respondent answers. The researcher argues that this study satisfies these prerequisites. Since this is one of the first attempts to develop a scale to measure consumer referents, this research can be regarded as exploratory. In addition this research purifies an existing scale (i.e. consumer styles inventory) as applied to the Greek context. This helped in understanding college students' consumption evaluations. Also, since it was a necessary condition for students who took part in the survey to have purchased clothes for an important shopping occasion, the scale items characterize respondents' shopping intentions.

In contrast, many researchers argue (Hair et al., 1998; Leo et al., 2005) that the specific technique cannot assess the whole population under examination. Therefore they argue it produces inaccurate and biased results. However, convenience and purposive samples are less time-consuming, as the researcher collects data from a prespecified group (Aaker et al., 2004). For example recruiting a random sampling (i.e. every student to

have an equal chance of being selected) was not feasible as the population of Greek college students is very large. Therefore the researcher utilized the specific methodology.

Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to the necessary student sample at the beginning of the class period. The exact number of the student sample size was based on an examination of the number of indicators per factor (Hair et al., 2006). The authors hold that the sample size should be calculated based on the exact number per scale item. Usually ten observations for an item are essential, as it increases the probability of obtaining valid and reliable results. However they also posit that the minimum sample size should be five times the number of variables to be examined. Hatcher (2003) stresses that the sample size should be more than 300 respondents as some of the participants may provide inconsistent or inaccurate answers and thus they will be excluded in the analysis. For example in the case of the 40-item inventory of decision-making styles a conventional technique in assessing the exact number of sample size is 200 observations (i.e. 40 items x 5 = 200). On the other hand in the case of the evolving 50-item reference points inventory, more than 250 observations are needed. A total of 350 undergraduate students were asked to respond to the questionnaire. From these, only 14 students did not want to participate in the study. After elimination of the missing data (incomplete and missing answers), 330 responses remained in the data set for the factorial analysis. Hence it can be concluded that the sample in this study exceeded the conventional requirement of five observations per scale item (Hair et al., 2006).

The data collection adopted a face-to-face interview method. Prior to self-administration of the questionnaires, permission was obtained from the academics. The instructor, at the introductory stage, informed the selected students of the purpose of the study, giving them guidance on how to proceed and complete the questionnaire. Participants were informed that their personal details would remain confidential, and would not be disclosed within the dissertation. Their participation in the survey was entirely voluntary and that was stated explicitly to them. Equally the answers from the respondents participating in the survey remained confidential and were used only for the purposes of

the study. Anonymity and confidentiality were highly respected to protect the integrity of the research project.

5.8.3 Primary survey

The sample of the main study included students whose major was in business and marketing, studying at the other two remaining universities (i.e. Aristotle University and University of Macedonia). Again permission had been obtained from those two universities for the data collection ethical purposes. The paper-based questionnaires were translated through back-translation, in terms of capturing conceptual adequacy (Yin and Paswan, 2007). The method of non-probability judgemental sampling was selected, for all the reasons discussed in the previous sections. Moreover participants were requested to respond to the questionnaire based on their latest purchase of clothes for an important occasion.

The main purpose of the main study was to further examine the factor structure and reliability of the two modified scales (i.e. CSI and RPI). In addition, convergent and discriminant validity was assessed through confirmatory factor analysis (Roman, 2006). Following Hair et al.'s (1998) recommendations, the sample size of the second study was calculated based on the number of items on each scale multiplied by ten. So the appropriate sample size for such an analysis was estimated to be more than 500 observations. That process helped in producing more accurate and generalizable results (Parasuraman et al., 2005; Bentler, 2007; Maktoba et al., 2009). A total of 560 undergraduate students were requested to fill in the questionnaire. After elimination of the missing data 556 responses remained in the data set for that second stage purification process.

5.8.4 Sampling and sample

The fieldwork of the main study took place in North Greece, in the city of Thessaloniki. Students were selected from the TEI, University of Macedonia, and Aristotle University. Permission had been obtained so the survey met the ethical compliances and other privacy issues pertaining to the research Code of Practice. The sampling procedure selected was non-probability sampling, and particularly purposive/judgmental

sampling (Hair et al., 1998). Students were divided evenly by gender and year of study, e.g. freshman, sophomore, junior, senior. Although these samples are not representative of all sections of the population of Greek college students, they would be expected to be relatively homogeneous in terms of educational background and age. Many scholars argue that people with university degrees are the most affluent group of consumers in a society (Park et al., 2010; Baoku et al., 2010). In addition college students after their graduation will belong to this important group of consumers that marketers seek to satisfy. On the other hand most of the previous studies that examined the applicability of the scale reliability of CSI to other contexts have used student samples. Therefore for reasons of sample homogeneity the researcher purposely chose that student sample.

The language of instruction was Greek. The questionnaire was developed and refined in English and a professional scholar made a backward translation from English to Greek. It was distributed to the appropriate samples with face-to-face interviews, as they provide a high degree of confidence in the data (Hair et al., 1998). However, as this procedure is expensive and time-consuming, participants had the option to complete the questionnaire in their own environments, or to take part in the survey online, by email.

5.8.5 Definition of the questionnaire

The language of instruction was Greek and the questionnaire was developed and refined in English. A professional scholar made a backward translation from English to Greek. Sproles and Kendall's (1986) original measurement scale was adapted to measure Greek students' decision-making characteristics, with minor wording modifications to fit the purposes of this study.

The questionnaire was divided into three parts, (part one, consumer decision-making styles inventory, part two, reference points inventory for apparel clothing consumption, and part three, demographic information). The first part replicated the decision-making styles inventory identified by Sproles and Kendall (1986) which includes the aforementioned eight decision-making characteristics, measured by 40 items.

The questionnaire comprised closed questions that aimed to generate the potential factors of the scale, by representing a meaningful item pool. The closed questions provided a number of alternative statements which the respondents were instructed to

choose from (DeVaus, 1991; DeVellis, 2003; Spector, 1992). Agreement response choices were made following the format of the five-point Likert scale anchored on the range from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree (DeVellis, 2003). The use of the 5-point scale meant that the validity and the degree of reliability of the construct under examination were improved.

In the domain of Greece, only one similar study had been found, which was examined for the reliability and the generalizability of the CSI (Lysonski et al., 1996). However, in that study it was identified that only seven dimensions of the CSI were applicable to Greek consumers and the research had many limitations.

For example the findings were taken from a small sample, i.e. 96 undergraduate college students, and thus could not validly be expanded to profile Greek consumer decision-making styles (Bauer et al., 2006). Moreover that analysis was specifically aimed at examining the reliability of the CSI in a multi-country study, looking at commonalities between the different countries under investigation (e.g. USA, New Zealand, Malaysia, and Greece) without making any direct references to specific product categories or distinct shopping occasions.

Hence in order to profile Greek consumer decision-making characteristics it was proposed to test the applicability and reliability of the CSI with a larger study population, and to link it with a specific product category.

5.8.6 Variables and their measurement

Because the study focuses on apparel clothing consumption, it was decided to make additional changes in the format of the consumer styles inventory (CSI), targeted to that product category. Therefore some of the 40 items of the original CSI were rephrased to give a clear indication of clothing consumption, and then to determine the commonality of the factors initially identified by Sproles and Kendall (1986) within the Greek context. The rephrasing of the questions was based on similar research carried out by Radder et al., (2006) that was aimed at profiling the CSI for apparel clothing for the specific context of South Africa. From the original 40 items, the following items were rephrased:

1. <u>Factor one, Perfectionist/High Quality Conscious</u> (4 out of 8):

- The item *«when it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the very best or perfect choice»*, was changed to *«when it comes to purchasing clothing, I try to get the very best or the perfect choice»*.

- The item *«I make special effort to choose the very best quality products»* was changed to *«I make special effort to choose the very best quality clothes»*.

- The item *«I really do not give my purchases much thought or care»* was changed to *«I really do not give my clothing purchases much thought or care»*.

- The item *«my standards and expectations for products I buy are very high»*, was changed to *«my standards and expectations for the clothing I buy are very high»*.

2. <u>Factor two, Brand Conscious/Price Equals Quality Shopper</u> (2 out of 6):

- The item *«The well-known national brands are best for me»*, was changed to *«I prefer buying well-known national brands»*.

- The item *«The more expensive brands are usually my choices»*, was changed to *«The most expensive brands are usually my choices»*.

3. <u>Factor three, Novelty/Fashion Conscious Shopper</u> (2 out of 5):

- The item *«I usually have one or more outfits of the very newest style»* was changed to *«I usually have one or more outfits of the very latest style»*.

- The item *«To get a variety, I shop different stores and choose different brands»*, was changed to *«To get a variety, I shop at different stores»*.

4. <u>Factor four, Recreational/Hedonistic Shopper</u> (1 out of 5):

- The item *«Shopping the stores wasting my time»*, was changed to *«Shopping at different stores wastes my time»*.

5. <u>Factor five, Price Conscious/ 'Value-For-Money' Shopper</u> (2 out of 3):

- The item *«The lower price products are usually my choice»*, was changed to *«I usually choose lower priced products»*.

- The item *«I buy as much as possible at sale prices»*, was changed to *«I buy as much of my clothing as possible at sale prices»*.

6. <u>Factor six, Impulsive/Careless Shopper</u> (2 out of 6):

- The item *«I am impulsive when purchasing»*, was changed to *«I am impulsive when purchasing clothing»*.

- The item *«I carefully watched how much I spend»*, was changed to *«I carefully watch how much I spend on clothing»*.

7. <u>Factor seven, Confused by Over-choice Shopper</u> (1 out of 4):

The item *«The more I learn about products, the harder it seems to choose the best»*, was changed to *« The more I learn about clothing products, the harder it seems to choose the best»*.

8. <u>Factor eight, Habitual/Brand-Loyal Consumer</u> (3 out of 4):

- The item *«Once I find a product of brand I like, I stick with it»*, was changed to *«Once I find a brand I like I stick with it»*.

- The item *«I go to the same stores each time I shop»*, was changed to *« I go to the same stores each time I shop for clothing»*.

- The item *«I change brands I buy regularly»*, was changed to *« I regularly change clothing brands»*.

The second section included the categorization of reference points for apparel clothing consumption for important shopping occasions, which resulted from the findings of the qualitative research and consisted of 54 items using the same format of agreement responses, i.e. the 5-point Likert agreement responses, ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree (DeVellis, 2003; Sproles and Kendall, 1986). The exact categories were structured after analysing the qualitative data that resulted from the focus groups analysis (see the variables and their measurement in Chapter six: Analysis and Results of the Qualitative Research).

The third section of the questionnaire included demographic information of the respondents, i.e. gender, age, marital status and year of study. The exact format of the survey questionnaire can be seen at Appendix D and E: English version quantitative questionnaire, and Greek version quantitative questionnaire.

The Greek version of the questionnaire was submitted to a panel of experts in order to assess its content validity (five marketing professors). They were asked to answer the questionnaire and provide their comments. Additional changes were made according to their recommendations. They suggested the deletion of four items from the reference points inventory and the rewording of some statements on both inventories. A total of 50 items were identified as appropriately representing the construct of reference points.

The revised measurement scale was then transformed into a survey questionnaire. Again the questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section included the measures of the existing consumer decision-making styles (CSI) inventory (40 items, 8 factors). The second section included the evolving categorization of reference points that emanated from the findings of the qualitative research part (50 items) and which are analysed in chapter six. Prior to completion of that section, respondents were requested to think about their last clothing purchases for an important shopping occasion (e.g. wedding, christening, anniversary, celebration, social party, work obligation, conference, graduation ceremony, or other occasion). The third section consisted of the socio-demographic details of the respondents (age, marital status and university status).

5.8.7 Statistical analysis of the data

The data collected from the pilot study was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 16) software. In that initial purification the data analysis procedures included descriptive analysis and exploratory factor analysis. Descriptive analysis was conducted to display the distribution of the consumers' demographic characteristics. The exploratory factor analysis started with an assessment of the 50-item 11-factor RPI model, and the 40-item 8-factor CSI model, using principal component analysis by employing both orthogonal and direct oblimin rotation (DeVellis, 2003; Aaker et al., 2004). The use of principal component analysis was selected a priori as this technique helps in calculating the total variance of the variables for each of the extracting factors (Field, 2005). In addition this technique helps in creating composite variables that capture as much information as possible (DeVellis, 2003).

According to Costello and Osborne (2005) orthogonal rotation produces factors that are uncorrelated, whereas oblique rotation allows the factors to correlate. The vast majority of researchers in the scale development process use orthogonal rotation because it

produces more interpretable results (Aake et al., 2004). For example the previous studies that assessed the consumer styles inventory (CSI) used exploratory factor analysis with orthogonal rotation and a number of substantial cross-loadings and correlation between factors/items was found (Lysonski et al., 1996; Leo et al., 2005). This is evident in most of the cases as correlations between different factors always exist (Hair et al., 1998). Therefore when factors are found to have substantial correlations, oblique rotation should theoretically produce more justifiable and accurate results as opposed to orthogonal rotation.

The amount of variance explained by the extracted factors, and the item of factor correlation was calculated (DeVellis, 2003). The Cronbach alpha coefficients were computed, for the reliability of the factors identified, i.e. the coefficient should be above 0.70 (DeVellis, 2003). Thus the technique of exploratory factor analysis helped to purify and improve the psychometric properties by examining the validity and reliability of individual constructs (DeVellis, 2003; Reise et al., 2000) that were underpinned in the evolving categorization of reference points and decision-making styles.

In the final purification stage (i.e. primary survey), confirmatory factor analysis was used, by means of LISREL 8.8 (Joreskog and Sorbom, 2006). The technique of Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) was utilized in order to assess the degree to which the data meets the expected structure (Hair et al., 2006). Additionally it helped to identify the number of latent dimensions that account for the common variance explained among the items (Reise et al., 2000). For example the appropriate model fit was calculated and the exact number of factors that represent each construct computed.

The model adequacy was tested using a three-step criterion analysis (Byrne, 2001), which was to analyse the chi-square test; to examine other different estimates of fit indices, like the goodness-of-fit (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), the comparative index (CFI); and the significance of factor loadings representing each construct. Additional reliability of the measures was confirmed with the composite reliability index and an estimation of the average variance extracted for each presiding dimension (Hair et al., 1998). Convergent validity and discriminant validity were assessed by verifying the significance of the t-values associated with the parameter estimates, and by comparing the average variance

extracted in each construct. Hence, the outcome of that analysis finalized the format of the two scales, by assessing how the latent variables were measured from the observed variables. This procedure built the final format of both inventories.

Pearson's correlation was conducted, as well, in order to examine how the categorization of apparel reference points was associated with the decision-making styles inventory developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986). Pearson's correlation modelling is a technique that measures the degree to which there is a linear association between two models (Aaker et al., 2004).

The scores of the selected categorization of consumer reference points for apparel clothing consumption were the dependent variables, as they were found to have a strong reliance upon individual decision-making characteristics. The independent variables were the scores of each statement of the consumer decision-making styles inventory. Path coefficients with Pearson's correlation take any value from -1 to +1 (Field, 2005; Aaker et al., 2004). The closer the value is to -1, the weaker the correlation, while a closer value to +1 indicates a stronger correlation (Churchill, 1995; Jankowicz, 2000).

5.8.8 Ethical considerations

This section aimed to quantify the selected categorization of apparel clothes reference points for important shopping occasions that resulted from the qualitative analysis and to further link that categorization with the distinct decision-making characteristics of Greek college students. The findings from such an analysis can help both scientific practitioners (e.g. to better understand consumer behaviour in that specified field) and marketers (e.g. to better segment their markets and to promote their products more effectively). The data was collected from a survey with face-to-face interviews of college students who were studying at the TEI in Thessaloniki. Some major ethical concerns were addressed at that early stage.

For example, the personal details of participants remained confidential, and weren't disclosed within the dissertation. Participation in the survey was entirely voluntary and that was stated explicitly to them. Equally the answers from the respondents participating in the survey remained confidential and were used only for the purposes of

the study. Anonymity and confidentiality were highly respected to protect the integrity of the research project.

The interviewees were provided with a consent form prior to the completion of the questionnaire. The length of time needed to complete the questionnaire was estimated to be around 15 minutes. See Appendix D and E for the English and Greek version of the quantitative questionnaire.

5.9 Summary

The study collected data from three universities in Thessaloniki, Greece. It took place in the first eight months of 2010. The study population was students who were all majoring in Management and Marketing. The purpose of this study is to shed light on Greek consumers' attitudes towards apparel products, particularly clothing for important shopping occasions by firstly conceptualizing the categories of consumer apparel reference points and secondly examining how the different types of reference points are associated with the decision-making styles inventory developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986).

The statistical methods employed comprised a three-stage process. The first stage was guided by the focus groups analysis, in order to categorize consumer apparel clothing reference points for important shopping occasions. The second stage, i.e. the pilot study, aimed to quantify the results from the qualitative analysis, and likewise to profile Greek college students' decision-making characteristics. The third stage (primary survey) aimed to further purify the two models by examining possible overlaps and relationships between them.

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6. CHAPTER SIX: Analysis and results of the qualitative research

6.0   Introduction

In the previous chapter an overview of the research strategy was provided. For the conceptualization of apparel clothing reference points for important occasions the researcher employed the method of focus groups. The specific methodology helped in capturing from consumers a more concrete multi-level view of the problem under investigation.

The results were analysed by the use of content analysis and led to the production of the categorization of apparel clothing reference points. The selected technique was utilized to code the types of apparel clothing reference points prior to the design of the questionnaire in the consumer survey. More thoroughly the data collected from focus groups discussions guided the construction and phrasing of the structured questionnaire used at the final quantitative survey.

6.1   Group composition and sessions

The researcher conducted five focus-group sessions that took place at the premises of the Technological Educational Institute (TEI). As presented in Table 6:1 participants were grouped according to their year of study. Also they were selected equally by gender. In total, 15 men and 15 women participated.

Table 6:1 Focus Groups Composition by Characteristics

Characteristic	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5
No. of participants	6	6	6	5	7
Year of study	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	Senior
Age (median)	18	20	22	24	25
Mode of Study	Full-time	Full-time	Full-time	Full-time	Full-time

6.2 Discussion questions

Discussion questions asked of the college students in the five focus groups included but were not limited to the following:

- *So in order for everybody to become familiar with each other, I would like you to tell me your name, which year of study you are in, where you come from, and where you currently live while you are studying*
- *Think back to the last time you purchased a clothing item for an important shopping event or occasion. What was the occasion and what clothing item did you buy?*
- *What criteria or attachments did you consider as important when evaluating the clothing item that you bought?*
- *How did you evaluate those criteria or attachments which you considered as important when evaluating the clothing item that you bought?*
- *What benefits did you expect to satisfy through the purchase of an apparel clothing item for that important shopping occasion?*
- *What kind of rewards did you anticipate when purchasing clothing items for that specified event?*
- *What kind of comparisons did you make in order to structure your final preferences?*
- *Did the level of assortment (i.e. large versus small variety) have an impact on distinguishing your ideal choice among alternatives?*
- *What sources of information did you use in order to make your final selections, in that respect*
- *What personal goals did you have in your apparel purchases?*
- *How did your emotional conditions (i.e. moods) affect your selections?*
- *Did you sacrifice enough of your time to structure your preferences?*
- *How did social referents (i.e. family, friends, colleagues, etc.) influence you?*
- *How did cultural referents (i.e. norms, values) influence you?*
- *What other economic referents do you usually have?*

6.3 Research analysis

Having analysed the use of the specific qualitative approach, data was collected from students studying in the Marketing and Management Department at the Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki (TEI). Five separate group sessions (three groups had six, one had five and one had seven) were held at the facilities of the University, and students were evenly divided by gender and year of study. As soon as the focus groups were finalized, data was gathered sequentially in five rounds. The focus group discussions took place between early January 2010 and mid February 2010.

The researcher initially followed the guidelines proposed by the previous work of Krueger and Casey (2000) that were analysed in the previous chapter. The moderator guided the phrasing of the themes at the discussions, trying to accomplish an exhaustive coverage on each question asking for contributions from all the participants. The proceedings of each focus group were recorded using audio tapes. The tapes were transcribed verbatim, resulting in 50 pages of text. The findings were clustered, and categorized into different themes. These themes were: seller's referents, personal referents, economic referents, and social and cultural referents.

The format of the discussions followed a specific structure that was crafted from the findings of the literature review. However at some points during the discussions some participants wandered off around the topic. This was natural as they wanted to acquire more information regarding the problem under investigation, and how their participation could be done more efficiently and effectively. According to Krueger and Casey (2000) when participants feel that they haven't covered their opinions on some issues, it is clear that the researcher should spend some additional time and effort to let them express their thoughts and beliefs more freely. Therefore they were always allowed to go back to the main topic under discussion, especially when the point they were making was relevant to the issues being discussed.

The format of the focus groups discussions was divided into four sections. A summary of each section is presented below. Analytically, the following is a summary of the findings emanating from the majority of opinions from the focus group discussions that resulted from answers to the specific questions posed to them.

FIRST SECTION: The first section aimed to introduce the topic under investigation and to provide all the necessary guidelines to participants. Then a written consent form was given to all participants, explaining to them more thoroughly the main purpose of that study, and some ethical issues that needed to be addressed before the beginning of the sessions. The written consent form can be seen at Appendix B: Focus Groups Discussions: B1.English Version Consent Form.

SECOND SECTION: Once ethical issues had been rigorously covered, the second section concerned the opening of the discussions.

Q1: So in order for everybody to become familiar with each other, I would like you to tell me your name, which year of study you are in, where you come from, and where you currently live while you are studying.

At the beginning of each focus group all participants were encouraged to introduce themselves to the group, with their name, their year of study, and where they currently lived while they were studying. It resulted that the majority of them came from different parts of both rural and urban Greece. The course they were following demanded most of their daily time to be present on the University courses. Therefore all of them preferred to stay near the premises of the University School or near to the city centre of Thessaloniki.

THIRD SECTION: The third section aimed to provide participants with a more specific decision situation. Therefore it was decided to make use of certain stimuli, such as the purchase of apparel clothes for important shopping occasions or events (e.g. weddings, anniversaries, etc. Following the recommendations of different scientists in that field (e.g. Krueger and Casey, 2000; Cassell and Symon, 2004), it is important for conductors to provide participants with a familiar decision-making task, rather than a hypothetical or future decision problem. Hence at this stage the following question was posed to participants:

Q2: Think back to the last time you purchased a clothing item for an important shopping event or occasion. What was the occasion and what clothing item did you buy?

This question was the main focus of the discussions and in all cases used as an exemplar in order to guide interviewees' answers regarding their selections of apparel clothing reference points. A summary of the important events that were mentioned at all five focus groups by each participant is presented in Table 6:2.

Table 6:2 Important Shopping Events

Important Events	Focus groups(FG)					All groups mentioning item (%)
	FG1	FG2	FG3	FG4	FC5	
Wedding	1	2	1		2	6(20%)
Engagement		1	1	1		3(10%)
Christening	3	1	1	1		6(20%)
Anniversary	1	1			1	3(10%)
Social party	1		1		1	3(10%)
Conference				1	1	2(6.6%)
Graduation ceremony				1	1	2(6.6%)
Work events/work duties		1	2	1	1	5(16.6%)
No. of Participants	6	6	6	5	7	N=30(100%)

All of the interviewees had in their mind one of the aforementioned special events on which they guided their answers to the next questions. Those events can be characterized as social events, since many people are present during the whole process. The common characteristic of those special occasions is that all participants tend to be well-dressed, wearing formal outfits. Therefore Greek college students preferred to do their formal apparel shopping only when they wanted to renew their formal wardrobe so as to be present at those events. The majority of them bought a professional outfit, i.e. suits, dresses, which were accompanied by dress shirts, vests, jackets, coats, and scarfs.

FOURTH SECTION: The fourth section covered the main topics of each discussion and tried to accomplish a deeper understanding of how consumers structured their final preferences on buying apparel products, in terms of selecting their reference points or referents for the relevant important event. At this session the following questions were asked:

Q3: *What criteria or attachments did you consider as important when evaluating the clothing item that you bought, and how did you evaluate those criteria or attachments?*

The quality of the apparel clothes was most frequently noted as an important indicant of a reference point (mentioned in all five focus groups). The results showed that they evaluated the quality of the apparel based on their brand name. Strong brands symbolized good quality for most of the respondents. Moreover branded apparel entailed other salient cognitive referents such as good image and unique prestige for them. Usually brand-oriented consumers are not influenced by the selling price of the apparel (mentioned 15 times). For example many of them stated that they selected apparel clothes that were made from higher quality textiles. Furthermore, they had as initial referents strong clothing brands, which ensured positive gains for them. Thus they avoided buying less well-known brands.

Price is another factor that influenced their selections. The majority of them stated that they evaluated clothes based on the price (mentioned 27 times). They evaluated prices according to the price that they were happy to pay, i.e. how much money of their personal budget they wanted to spend. Some of them mentioned that they evaluated clothing price tags on items that they liked based on:

a) previous purchases,

b) the durability of the clothes that resulted from selecting good quality apparel and

c) the uniqueness and overall ease of use of the clothes.

The following comments on criteria or attachments were considered by participants as the most important that guided their final preferences:

"The current season affected the selection of my final purchases"

"I selected clothes that were made from good or higher quality textiles"

"I selected clothes that were always in fashion"

"The clothes outfit fitted my personal taste"

"I selected clothes that fit well with my personal appearance and lifted my image up"

"I selected an outfit according to the price that I wanted to pay"

"I evaluated clothes according to the price"

"Branded apparel was driving my shopping motives. Therefore I bought high-fashion designer apparel"

Q4 *How did you evaluate those criteria or attachments which you considered as important when evaluating the clothing item that you bought?*

Respondents indicated that they evaluated apparel clothes by using multiple indicants that acted as actual referents to them. For example many of them said:

"I evaluated product attributes based on the brand. If the clothes that I liked came from a strong brand retailer then I was 100% sure that it would be good quality. In this way I minimized the risk of making an inferior purchase"

"I evaluated the clothes I bought based on my previous purchases. My previous purchases drive my current motives and likes"

"I went to stores that I have used in the past"

"I preferred to do my shopping from familiar well-branded apparel stores"

"I evaluated products with the help of my friends"

"I extensively made comparisons with alternative brands"

"I didn't choose apparel clothes that were common and that anybody could wear"

Q5: *What benefits did you expect to satisfy through the purchase of an apparel clothing item for that important shopping occasion?*

The following statements were mentioned in all of the groups:

"I bought clothes that fitted well on me"

"I bought clothes that had more aesthetics"

"I selected an outfit which was simple, elegant, and offered me high durability and ease of care"

"The clothes outfit that I liked, fitted well on me and provided me with comfort"

"The fabric of the clothes that I liked felt soft against my skin"

Q6 *What kind of rewards did you anticipate when purchasing clothing items for that specified event?*

Most of the respondents reported that their final shopping selections were based on examining the different rewards/offers that accompanied their purchases. For example they preferred instant rewards which were offered at the point of the sale or inside the

store. Such rewards included reduced prices and other discounted coupons/flyers. However they didn't show much interest in acquiring future rewards, as they wanted to buy clothes only for their specified events. On the other hand they would make an effort to obtain a future reward as long as they were able to.

This is consistent with previous findings from Kivetz (2003) and Ordonez et al. (2000), where they found that consumers purposely avoided large and uncertain rewards. This is because they saw that they would have little prospect of acquiring the reward on offer. Therefore future discounted clothes and big offers were of less concern. The following statements were abstracted from the respondents' words:

"I preferred instant rewards at the point of the sale"

"I preferred small rewards only"

"I evaluated rewards according to the level of contingent efforts on acquiring the clothes that I bought"

"Because I had articulated preferences discounted clothes didn't exert any impact on my final choices"

Q7: *What kind of comparisons did you make in order to structure your final preferences?*

The literature revealed that consumers are constantly making comparisons between product alternatives (Van Ittersum et al., 2005; Chernev, 2003). They examine different sets of information cues in order for them to become able to distinguish their final choices (Babutsidze, 2007). The majority of these cues originate from their previous shopping experiences, i.e. past clothing purchases, favourable brands, and the variety of product alternatives that they anticipate during their shopping trips

Most of them stated that if they liked an outfit, then the next step was to compare it with their previous shopping habits, trying to match that purchase with their own personal self. However others indicated that they only made comparisons with less favourable brands, as this brought them feelings of assurance and confidence in making their best choice. For some what was important was the variety of the product line, the good quality, the season in which the important event was, and other salient aesthetics (i.e. how well it fit them, and what kind of comments they would receive from their close

peers). On the other hand some of them stated that they made comparisons between the credibility of different retailers (i.e. branded apparel retailers offered them more reassurance on purchasing original products and unique products). Thus they were willing to spend more money if they knew that the retailer had the original brands and not imitations of them.

The following are examples of respondents' comments:

> *"I evaluated the clothes I bought based on my previous purchases"*
> *"My previous purchases drove my final motives and likes"*
> *"I compared the clothes that I bought with less favourable brands"*
> *"The current season affected the selection of my final purchases"*

Q8: *Did the level of assortment (i.e. large versus small variety) have an impact on distinguishing your ideal choice among alternatives?*

The assortment referents refer to the breadth of variety in a specific product category (Chernev, 2003). Nowadays sellers offer a huge variety of product lines. This makes consumer decision-tasks more complicated (Dhar, 1997). The findings from prospect theory show that when consumers have articulated preferences (i.e. favourable attributes on specific products), then they can easily distinguish their ideal choice among alternatives. On the other hand, some of them indicated that when they did not have articulated preferences they became easily confused and felt overwhelmed.

Since the level of assortment (i.e. large versus small), influences final consumer choices, similar consumers' evaluations of assortment include multi-item cues. Therefore this question was placed as an indicant to assess how consumers are influenced by the level of assortment, in that domain. Consumers stated:

> *"I didn't choose apparel clothes that were common and anybody could wear them"*
> *"Because I had articulated preferences I distinguished my ideal choice among alternatives more easily"*
> *"I compromised with less strong preferences when I was exposed to a small variety of assortment"*

Q9: *What sources of information did you use in order to make your final selections, in that respect?*

With regard to the selection of reference points that result from the distinct domain of the sellers, consumers use a plethora of informational cues (Kinley et al., 2000). The majority of respondents indicated that they select apparel clothes that are made from higher quality textiles. More explicitly they have as initial referents strong clothing brands, which ensure positive gains for them. Thus they avoid buying less well-known brands.

On the other hand with regard to the selection of reference points resulting from their own personal domain, it was shown that they evaluate product attributes based on their previous experiences, and on the information presented in the store. They usually seek to obtain information from the sales personnel, and they visit stores that have a friendly environment. For example they buy from stores that are easy to get to, and like to do their shopping from stores that offer a huge variety of clothes. Some of the respondent's comments were:

> *"I evaluated product attributes according to the information presented in the store"*
> *"I preferred to do my shopping from familiar well-branded apparel stores"*
> *"I borrowed reference points from the sales personnel"*
> *"I bought an outfit which was advertised by fashion designers"*
> *"I borrowed reference points from fashion magazines regarding the clothes that I like"*

Q10: *What personal goals did you have in your apparel purchases?*

As was discussed in the literature review section, 'personal goals' refers to the consumers' satisfaction of different sets of values (Sheth et al., 1991). In other words consumers structure their preferences by having as initial reference points their personal goals.

Consumers, through their purchases, seek to satisfy cognitive sensations, i.e. from a specific purchase they seek functional and abstract enjoyment (Van Osselaer et al.,

2005). The former refers to the consumers obtaining an apparel product that satisfies the whole bundle of their seeking product attributes, whereas the latter refers to the satisfaction of their personal and social image. Having that in mind this question aimed to derive deeper responses from consumers that were coming from their personal distinct domain.

The majority of respondents claimed that their personal goals were to improve their personal image, by firstly satisfying themselves through their good selections of apparel clothes and secondly boosting their image which would bring social justifications. Moreover for some it was evident that they were trying to make a purchase that would bring them more satisfaction, i.e. to make a purchase that would offer them absolute value for their money. For example, respondents indicated:

> *"I selected clothes that fit well with my personal appearance and lifted my image up"*
> *"I bought clothes that impressed the people around me"*
> *"Fair-priced clothes drove my final choices"*

As a whole it was found that Greek students were also characterized by compulsive behaviour toward clothes. Given that, they are more impulse driven, and do not spend additional effort and time on their purchases

Q11: *How did social referents (i.e. family, friends, colleagues, etc.) influence you?*

Group referents refer to the different social groups that consumers use as a point of reference in order to structure their consumption behaviours (Peter et al., 1999). Usually they involve formal and informal referents, such as family, friends, co-workers, mates, etc. Consumers, during consumption behaviour, seek to satisfy their closest peers or similar with their selections, to impress them. This is imperative for visible products, i.e. clothes. Therefore the construct of group referents or social referents needs to be adjusted according to the examined problem.

Most of the students commented that their apparel consumption decisions are strongly affected by the opinions and beliefs of their close peers. They use their friends or other

celebrities as a reference point in order to structure their preferences. For example many of them indicated that before making a clothing purchase they carefully watch the latest fashion trends through television shows, magazines and newspaper advertisements.

The findings suggest that Greek consumers borrow reference points from their close friends. They are most likely to be influenced by them when they have ambivalent attitudes. It was found that the majority of them prefer to go shopping with their friends, and they strongly follow their recommendations. However, they tend not to pay much attention to the recommendations provided by their family members. They usually buy clothes that satisfy or impress the people around them. The following statements characterize their apparel consumption practice:

"For me social referents play a vital role in making my final selections. For example I evaluated clothing products with the help of my friends."

"I usually borrow reference points from celebrities, as their endorsement structures my preferences."

"Because with the clothes I bought I wanted to look unique, I bought clothes that impressed the people around me."

Q12: *How did cultural referents (i.e. norms, values, etc.) influence you?*

This question was posed to participants in order to examine the effects of culture in their apparel clothing decision process. Because consumers' shopping wants and needs are strongly motivated by the heuristics and rules of culture (Aaker and Lee, 2001), it was assumed that Greek students put great emphasis on adjusting their preferences accordingly. This is more evident for public products (i.e. clothes) that can easily be seen by others.

From the focus group discussions it was found that students avoided buying 'challenging' clothes, and thus avoided making extreme preferences. However some of them stated that they were willing to buy challenging clothes as long as they looked unique and elegant. Some of the students' responses included the following:

"Cultural norms are very important for me. Hence I avoided buying challenging clothes"
"I selected an outfit which didn't challenge the norms and the values of my own culture"
"With the clothes that I bought I was easily accepted by others"

6.4   Content analysis

Responses were then clustered into a number of categories that emanated from the findings of the literature review on reference points which made specific reference to consumers' apparel clothing experiences. The technique of content analysis (Hinkin, 1995) served to decomposite consumer referents by placing them in different categories. The findings were clustered and categorized into eleven different themes based on the distinction made between explicit and implicit reference points.

The main issues that emanated from the focus groups discussions were about the selection of reference points that derived from the domain of the seller, named as 'explicit referents', whereas those that derived from the domain of the consumer, are named 'implicit'. These were coded and categorized as presented in Table 6:3 and in Table 6.4.

The analysis of the focus groups indicated certain types of explicit referents identified in the focus groups: Product Attribute Referents, Brand Referents, Price Referents, Reward Referents, Assortment Referents, Store Referents, and Marketer Referents. These were selectively coded to 7 different types of explicit referents that consumers usually come across in their consumption decisions. The following implicit referents were also identified: Personal Referents, Economic Referents, Group Referents, and Cultural Referents. The aforementioned categories justify the multi-dimensionality of explicit and implicit referents. Below follows an explanation of the main emergent themes and categories.

Table 6:3 Content Analysis, Explicit Reference Points

Code	Respondent's Words/Statements
Product Attribute Referents	1. I selected an outfit which was simple, elegant, and offered me high durability and ease of care 2. The fabric of the clothes that I liked felt soft against my skin 3. I bought high-fashion designer apparel 4. I selected clothes that were always in fashion 5. I selected clothes that are made from good or higher quality textiles 6. I evaluated product attributes according to the information that I had acquired from my previous experiences
Brand Referents	1. I evaluated product attributes based on the brand 2. If the clothes that I like come from a strong brand retailer then I am 100% sure that it will be good quality 3. Strong brands minimize the risk of making an inferior purchase 4. Strong clothing brands ensure positive gains for me 5. I extensively made comparisons with alternative brands
Price Referents	1. I evaluated clothes according to the price sold 2. Fair-priced clothes drove my final choices 3. I compared prices of all other brands by randomly selecting a brand available on the current purchase 4. I formed my price judgements based on the current price of my reference brand 5. I compared the price of the clothes that I bought based on the price that I had paid on my previous purchases 6. I compared prices according to the frequency of purchasing each brand
Reward Referents	1. I preferred certain rewards 2. I preferred small rewards 3. I evaluated rewards according to the level of contingent efforts on acquiring the clothes that I bought 4. Because I had articulated preferences, discounted clothes didn't exert any impact on my final choices
Assortment Referents	1. I didn't select apparel clothes that were common and anybody could wear them 2. Because I had articulated preferences I distinguished my ideal choice among alternatives more easily 3. I compromised with less strong preferences when I was exposed to small assortments
Store Referents	1. I preferred to do my shopping from familiar well-branded apparel stores 2. I went to stores that I had used in the past 3. I evaluated product attributes according to the information presented in the store 4. I preferred to visit stores that had a friendly environment 5. I preferred to visit stores that had friendly personnel, who were willing to help me structure my preferences

	6. I borrowed reference points from the sales personnel
Marketer Referents	1. Positive information on product tags made me focus on positive characteristics
	2. I borrowed reference points from fashion magazines regarding the clothes that I liked

Table 6:4 Content Analysis, Implicit Reference Points (Consumer Referents)

Code	Respondent's Words/Statements
Personal Referents	1. I bought clothes that fitted well on me
	2. I bought clothes that had more aesthetics
	3. The clothes outfit that I liked fitted well on me and provided me with comfort
	4. I evaluated the clothes I bought based on my previous purchases
	5. My previous purchases drive my current motives and likes
	6. The current season we were in affected the selection of my final purchases
	7. The clothes outfit fitted my personal tastes
	8. I selected clothes that fit well with my personal appearance and lifted my image up
	9. I compared the clothes that I bought with less favourable brands
Economic Referents	1. I selected an outfit according to the price that I wanted to pay
	2. I had as a reference point my own available budget
	3. I selected clothes that had better credit terms
Group Referents	1. I evaluated products with the help of my friends
	2. I borrowed reference points from my close friends
	3. I borrowed reference points from celebrities
	4. I bought clothes that satisfied the people around me
	5. I bought clothes that impressed the people around me
	6. I preferred to go shopping with my friends
Cultural Referents	1. I avoided buying 'challenging' clothes
	2. I avoided making extreme clothing preferences.
	3. I selected an outfit which didn't challenge the norms and the values of my own culture
	4. With the clothes that I bought I was easily accepted by others

6.5   Summary

Overall the researcher generated 54 statements for the content categorization of referents by grouping them into eleven distinctive factors. Hence it could be concluded that the preliminary categorization of reference points was dependent upon these factors that were tested in the quantitative research survey. The next chapter includes the initial purification of the evolving categorization of reference points inventory. Additionally the applicability of Sproles and Kendall's (1986) consumer decision-styles inventory is examined in the Greek context.

6.6   References

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7. CHAPTER SEVEN: Analysis and results of the quantitative research

7.0 Introduction

This part has a twofold goal. Firstly it serves to test the explicability and reliability of the evolving scale of reference points. Secondly it examines the applicability of the existing scale of the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) in the domain of Greece, by testing its psychometric properties (Guadagnoli and Velicer, 1988).

In order to further refine the dimensionality of the two initial scales, a second stage purification process of the reference points inventory and the consumer styles inventory was carried out with new data, with the main purpose of further assessing the factor structure and reliability of the two scales. It also aimed to capture convergent and discriminant validity, with the use of confirmatory factor analysis.

In Section 7.1 the findings of the pilot study are analysed and Section 7.2 analyses the results of the main survey. Finally Section 7.3 provides a conclusion summary.

7.1 Data analysis and results of the pilot study

This section describes the results of the data analysis. Firstly the socio-demographic information of the respondents is presented based on the results taken from the descriptive analysis. Secondly the results of the exploratory factor analysis are analysed.

7.1.1 Demographic characteristics of the sample

Table 7:1 shows the socio-demographics, income characteristics and clothing purchases for important shopping events of the study student sample (N=330).

Table 7:1 Demographic Characteristics of the Pilot Study

Variable	Description	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	147	44.5
	Male	183	55.5
Age	17-19	50	15.2
	20-22	228	69.1
	23-25	34	10.3
	26-29	18	5.5

Variable	Description	Frequency	Percent
Marital Status	Single	312	94.5
	Married	18	5.5
Majors	Marketing	106	32.1
	Management	224	67.9
Education	Freshman	25	7.6
	Sophomore	88	26.7
	Junior	99	30
	Senior	118	5.8
Personal Student	<500 Euro	163	49.4
Budget (in Euros)	501-700	41	12.4
	701-900	14	4.2
	901>	20	6.1
	Didn't Answer	92	27.9
List of Important	Wedding	135	40.9
Shopping Events	Engagement	15	4.5
	Christening	49	14.8
	Social Party	87	26.4
	Conference	6	1.8
	Graduation ceremony	17	5.2
	Work	11	3.3
	Celebration	10	3.0
List of Clothing	Suit	43	13
Items	Dress	143	43.3
	Overcoat	11	3.3
	Jacket	33	10.0
	Trousers	68	20.6
	Shirt	23	7.0
	Blouse	7	2.1
	Scarf	2	0.6

From Table 7:1 the first study sample consists of 330 respondents, of which 183 = 55.5 percent were male students and 147 = 44.5 percent were female. Nearly all, about 94.5 percent, of the respondents were single (N=312) which is normal in the Greek context as young people prefer to get married after their graduation from university, which is natural, as the university degree will help them find a skilled job.

Regarding the age of the respondents the majority were below the age of 23, while only 5.5 percent were above the age of 26. Most of the students were second or third year

students majoring in marketing and management, and sophomore and junior students were 26.7 percent and 30 percent respectively, freshmen were 7.6 percent and seniors, 5.8 percent. Regarding the students' available budget for their studies, 49.4% had a monthly budget expenditure for their studies of below 500€ (Euro), and 12.4% had 501-700€. A small minority of the students (6.1%) indicated that they had more than 900€. As far as the important shopping events were concerned, the vast majority of the students indicated that the clothes bought were for a wedding ceremony (40.9%) or a social party (26.4%), with a small percentage stating that they were for a graduation ceremony, work interview or obligation, annual celebration, or conference. Furthermore all of them reported that they had bought formal clothes, such as professional suits, dresses, trousers, overcoats, and shirts.

7.1.2   Reference points inventory (RPI)

Exploratory factor analysis was utilized to assess the unidimensionality and to determine what factors accounted for the conceptualization of apparel clothing reference points for students in Greece. A preliminary analysis was made for the factorability of the data, by checking the normality of distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). For example skewness and kyrtosis and test of normality of assumption of the data were met. According to Hair et al. (1998) the normal limits of skewness are between -1 to +1, and for kyrtosis are between -2 to +2. The results showed that none of the variables fall inside those values. In addition linearity issues were examined by analysing the plots of the items, as well (Field, 2005).

The Keiser-Mayer-Oklin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were initially applied to see whether the sample size was sufficiently factorable to measure the underlining dimensions and constructs. Furthermore an initial inspection of the correlation matrix between each pair of variables showed many values of 0.3 and above (see Appendix F for the correlation matrix of the RPI). Analytically, the majority of the values are greater than 0.05 and below the threshold value of 0.9. For example inspection of the correlation matrix shows that there exist partial correlations between factors ranging from 0.3 to 0.7. According to Field (2005) this suggests that some factors are interrelated but still represent a different construct. In addition the determinant of correlation matrix is listed at the bottom of the last matrix. For this data the value is 0.000266, which is greater than the necessary value of 0.00001 (Hair et al.,

1998). This information suggests that multicollinearity is not a problem for the specific data. Thus the underlying statistical assumptions warrant that the technique of factor analysis is appropriate in identifying justifiable factors (Devellis, 2003). A comparison between orthogonal rotation and oblique rotation is presented in Table 7:2.

7:2 Comparison of extraction and rotation methods of RPI scale

Rotation Method		Orthogonal	Oblique
Variance accounted for after rotation		65.10	69.108
Item Loadings			
Factor 1	Item 12	.720	.731
	Item 13	.789	.803
	Item 14	.750	.751
	Item 15	.682	.722
Factor 2	Item 04	.759`	.760
	Item 08	.804	.806
	Item 09	.840	.850
	Item 10	.831	.837
	Item 24	.760	.720
Factor 3	Item 38	.830	.907
	Item 34	.835	.901
	Item 39	.721	.713
Factor 4	Item 50	.818	.825
	Item 54	.830	.836
Factor 5	Item 47	.850	.825
	Item 48	.895	.836
Factor 6	Item 18	.785	.800
	Item19	.820	.839
Factor 7	Item 41	.719	.731
	Item 42	.724	.711
	Item 43	.760	.778
Factor 8	Item 27	.870	.885
	Item 28	.805	.813

Table 7:2 shows the item loadings between both extraction methods i.e. varimax rotation versus oblique rotation. In this analysis the variance accounted for after varimax rotation was 65.10 whereas after oblimin rotation was 69.10, and over-estimation 4.00. As can be seen for this data set the rotation method with oblique rotation produced higher factor loading in most of the items. These initial results indicate that the oblique rotation provided better explanation for the data (Field, 2005). Moreover a preliminary analysis of the component correlation matrix justified the dependence between factors as the variables were hypothesized to be correlated (i.e. the

majority of the factors had a correlation ranging from .10 to .45). On the other hand the unrotated factor solution could not interpret the factors. Therefore for these reasons, the technique of oblique rotation was used (Costello and Osborne, 2005).

As presented in Table 7:3, the communalities of all the items were 0.60 and above, which indicates the variance explained among the variables (Hair et al., 1998). According to Field (2005) when this happens researchers should extract factors based on Kaiser's criterion. Hence factors that had eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were analysed and further examination was made through an analysis of the scree plot criterion. The factors that were identified were named according to the conceptual constructs on which they were assessed. The estimates of alpha coefficients of the items within every factor and for the whole scale were then reported.

The results of the exploratory factor analysis with principal component analysis and oblique rotation yielded 8 factors (see Table 7:3 Initial Scale of Reference Points Inventory). Based on the pattern matrix, items that loaded below 0.50 on a factor or items that had communalities of less than 0.40 were removed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001; Bryman and Bell, 2007). The remaining items were submitted to reliability analysis, and items-to-total correlations of more than 0.30 were retained (Hair et al., 1998). Overall, 27 items were deleted from the scale. As shown in Table 7:3, final exploratory analysis of the remaining 23 items yielded eight factors, accounting for a total of 69% of the variance. Factor loadings ranged from 0.907 to 0.712. Cronbach alpha values had significant levels ranging from 0.845 to 0.711.

Table 7:3 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Initial Scale of Reference Points Inventory

s	Communalities	ITTC*	Factor loadings							
			F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
nbach's Alpha			.760	.845	.795	.718	.745	.729	.749	.711
n/Std.			3.21/ .924	2.60/ .769	4.32/ .619	3.80/ 1.02	2.82/ .104	3.42/ .701	3.87/ .79	3.77/ .830
ance explained (%)		69.108	16.1	14.2	10.0	6.85	6.33	5.77	5.04	4.55
nvalues			3.72	3.28	2.32	1.57	1.45	1.32	1.16	1.05
er-Meyer-Olkin Measure of pling Adequacy		.749								
lett's test of sphericity ificance level)		.000								

Items	Communalities	ITTC*	Factor loadings							
			F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
Cronbach's Alpha			.760	.845	.795	.718	.745	.729	.749	.711
Mean/Std.			3.21/ .924	2.60/ .769	4.32/ .619	3.80/ 1.02	2.82/ .104	3.42/ .701	3.87/ .79	3.77/ .830
Variance explained (%)		69.108	16.1	14.2	10.0	6.85	6.33	5.77	5.04	4.55
Eigenvalues			3.72	3.28	2.32	1.57	1.45	1.32	1.16	1.05
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			.749							
Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)			.000							
F1.Price Referents										
RPI 13. Fair priced clothes drove my final choices	.688	.588	.803							
RPI 14. I compared prices of all other brands by having as reference points the brand I liked on the current purchase	.677	.603	.751							
RPI 12. I evaluated products according to the price sold	.606	.500	.731							
RPI 15. I formed my price judgements based on the current price of my reference brand	.604	.542	.722							
F2. Brand Referents										
RPI 09. Because the clothes that I liked came from a strong brand retailer then I was 100% sure that it would have good quality	.731	.691		.850						
RPI 10.Strong brands minimized the risk of making an unworthy purchase	.734	.714		.837						
RPI 08. I evaluated product attributes based on the brand	.686	. 687		.806						
RPI 04.I bought high-fashion designer apparel	.620	.626		.760						
RPI 24.I preferred to do my shopping from familiar well branded apparel stores	.644	.555		.720						
F3. Personal Referents										
RI38.The clothes outfits fitted my personal tastes	.803	.617			.907					
RI34.I bought clothes that had more aesthetics	.803	.641			.901					
RI39.I selected clothes that fit well on me, and lifted my image up	.668	.604			.713					
F4. Cultural Referents										
RPI 49.I avoided making extreme clothing preferences	.697	.447					.836			
RPI 50.I avoided buying challenging clothes	.732	.447					.825			
F5. Social Referents										
RPI 48. I bought clothes that	.780	.600						.836		

Items	Communalities	ITTC*	Factor loadings							
			F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
Cronbach's Alpha			.760	.845	.795	.718	.745	.729	.749	.711
Mean/Std.			3.21/ .924	2.60/ .769	4.32/ .619	3.80/ 1.02	2.82/ .104	3.42/ .701	3.87/ .79	3.77/ .830
Variance explained (%)		69.108	16.1	14.2	10.0	6.85	6.33	5.77	5.04	4.55
Eigenvalues			3.72	3.28	2.32	1.57	1.45	1.32	1.16	1.05
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			.749							
Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)			.000							
impressed the people around me										
RPI 47. I bought clothes that satisfied the people around me	.823	.600					.825			
F6. Reward Referents										
RPI 19. I evaluated rewards according to the level of contingent efforts	.696	.458						.839		
RR18. I preferred offers that had instant and direct rewards	.732	.458						.800		
F7. Financial Referents										
RPI 43. I selected clothes that had better credit terms	.647	.418							.778	
RPI 41. I selected an outfit according to the price I would like to pay	.610	.458							.731	
RPI 42. I had as reference point my own available budget	.619	.490							.711	
F8. Store Referents										
RPI 27. I preferred to visit stores that had a friendly environment	.790	.553								.885
RPI 28. I preferred to visit stores that had friendly personnel, who were willing to help me	.722	.553								.813

Note: (a) Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

(b) Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

(c) Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

d) Total number of Items: 23

(e) * Item-to-total correlations, Overall Cronbach's α = .749, Approx. $\chi2$ = 1524,7 df =253, total variance explained (%) = 69.10

The first factor named 'Price referents' (a=0.760) explains 16.1% of the total variance. The 4 items of this factor suggest that consumers select their referents based on the actual price of the products, on the price of their reference brand, and on price comparisons of favourable and fair-priced reference brands. The second factor of referents is 'Brand referents' (a=0.845). This factor includes 5 items and explains 14.2% of the variance. Items on that factor refer to consumer selection of reference points based on strong clothing brands that offer sure gains for them, i.e. high quality and

credible attributes. The third factor, 'Personal referents' (a=0.795), consists of 4 items accounting for 10.0% of the variance. This factor consists of consumer selection of salient referents that are derived from their own personal cognitive domain, i.e. they have as initial referents their own personal beliefs and personal tastes.

The fourth factor 'Cultural referents' (a=0.718), includes 2 items that explain 6.85% of the total variance. This construct measures referents that result from cultural values. The fifth factor 'Social referents' (a=0.745), explains 6.33% of the variance. This factor includes 2 items that measure referents that originate from their close friends and the people around them. The sixth factor 'Reward referents' (a=0.729), consists of 2 items that interpret 5.77% of the variance. Reward referents play a significant role at the actual point of purchase, as they guide consumers to shape their final preferences. The seventh factor 'Financial referents' (a=0.749) explains 5.04% of the variance. This factor measures consumer referents based on multiple economic sources, i.e. better credit-terms, their own available budget, and the price that they would like to pay. The eighth factor 'Store referents' (a=0.711), consists of 2 items that explain 4.55% of the variance. This factor suggests that consumers borrow reference points inside the stores, as they seek to visit stores that have a friendly environment, and friendly sales personnel.

The 8-factor oblique model reduced the initial 50 items of referents that resulted from the findings of the qualitative research and the findings of the literature review to a 23-item scale with 8 factors. For the reliability of the scale the researcher tested the Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Bentler, 2007). The reliability estimates of each subscale were above the recommended cut off value of 0.70 (Field, 2005; Aaker et al., 2004). Analytically the reliability estimates for the subscales were: for the Price Referents 0.760, for Brand Referents 0.845, for Personal Referents 0.795, for Cultural Referents 0.718, for Social Referents 0.745, for Reward Referents 0.729, for Financial Referents 0.749 and for Store Referents 0.711. Furthermore the communalities after extraction were all greater than 0.60 indicating a high proportion of the variance explained by the underlying factors (Field, 2005). As a whole the findings of the pilot study suggest that the 8-factor model is reliable enough to measure the construct of referents (Hair et al., 1998). The partial correlation between the evolving factors of referents justifies the findings of the literature review that when consumers select their apparel they usually seek a combination of different sources of referents (Dholakia and Simonson, 2005; Yin and Paswan, 2007).

7.1.3 Decision-making styles inventory (CSI)

The same data set was used to examine the psychometric properties of the CSI. The CSI instrument included 40 Likert-scaled items scored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In order to verify Sproles and Kendall's (1986) results and to compare consumer decision-making styles between young consumers in Greece and the United States the researcher collected data in Greece using a similar questionnaire to the one used by Sproles and Kendall (1986). In doing so the researcher used the same method as previously applied by Sproles and Kendall (1986). Hence, principal component analysis with a varimax rotation was performed. The main objective was to examine the applicability of the Consumer Styles Inventory to the Greek context. The objective of the first study was to determine if the factors identified by Sproles and Kendall (1986) were similar for the Greek sample. Furthermore Cronbach alpha coefficients of each sub-scale were assessed by making comparisons with the 8-factor model of Sproles and Kendall (1986).

Table 7:4 compares the results of the Sproles and Kendall 8-factor model with the results of applying this model to a Greek student sample. An analysis of this table shows that for the Greek sample the reliability coefficients of factors 1 and 5 were below 0.60, which indicates poor model adequacy (Hair et al., 1998). For only 3 factors the percentages of the corresponding factor loadings were above 0.40 (i.e. 100%). These factors were 2, 4 and 7. However the factorial solution showed 7 of the 40 items loaded on other factors as initially found by Sproles and Kendall (1986). In addition, 3 items (6, 37, and 38) cross-loaded on both factors, for example item 6, i.e. 'my standards and expectations for products I buy are very high', had a high loading on factor 1 (0.50) and on factor 2 (0.45). The values in parenthesis represent suggested factor and corresponding loading. This indicates factorial complexity which meant it should be deleted in the next refinement process. Therefore the 8-factor Sproles and Kendall model could not be confirmed in the Greek context without making additional modifications. One possible explanation for that is the fact that consumers in Greece have substantial differences from consumers in the US and more, respectively, with consumers in other Western countries (Lysonski et al., 1996). This arises from the different shopping and cultural environments that co-exist in this society. For example the retail environment in Greece

differs from that in the US. Most retail stores in Greece are family owned and during their shopping consumers do not have the privilege of walking freely inside the stores without being engaged by the salespersons. In contrast consumers inside big shopping centres can more easily examine and compare different product lines and categories. Another reason is the different economic environment which impacts on consumers' consumption evaluations (Kamenidou et al., 2007). This arises from the fact that Greek consumers do not have as much disposable income as they have in other Western countries (Aulonitis et al., 2008).

Table 7:4 The Sproles and Kendall (1986) Model as Applied to the Greek Sample

	USA Sample Item Loading	Greek Sample Item Loading
Factor 1- Cronbach Alpha Perfectionist, High Quality Conscious Consumer	.74	.52
1. Getting very good quality is very important for me	.68	.51
2. When it comes to purchasing clothing, I try to get the very best or the perfect choice	.66	.52
3. In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality	.62	.70
4. I make special effort to choose the very best quality clothes	.61	.69
5. I really do not give my clothing purchases much thought or care	-.54	-.23 (4, .67)
6. My standards and expectations for products I buy are very high	.54	.50 (2, .45)
7. I shop quickly, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough	-.41	-.10 (4, .62)
8. A product does not have to be perfect, or the best, to satisfy me	-.41	-.30
% of item loadings .40 and above	**100**	**62.5**
Factor 2- Cronbach Alpha Brand Conscious, 'Price Equals Quality'	a=.70	a=.85
9. I prefer buying well-known national brands	.63	.79
10. The most expensive brands are usually my choice	.61	.78
11. The higher the price of the product, the better its quality	.59	.58
12. Nice department and speciality stores offer me the best products	.57	.57
13. I prefer to buy the best-selling brands	.54	.79
14. The most advertised brands are usually very good choices	.48	.58
% of item loadings .40 and above	**100**	**100**

	USA Sample	Greek Sample
Factor 3- Cronbach Alpha **Novelty-Fashion Conscious Consumer**	a=.74	a=.69
15. I usually have one or more outfits of the very latest style	.75	.71
16. I keep my wardrobe up-to-date with the changing fashions	.70	.75
17. Fashionable, attractive styling is very important to me	.64	.64
18. To get a variety I shop at different stores	.50	.28
19. It is fun to buy something new and exciting	.46	.18 (4, .61)
% of item loadings .40 and above	**100**	**60**
Factor 4- Cronbach Alpha **Recreational, Hedonistic Consumer**	a=.76	a=.67
20. Shopping is not a pleasant activity for me	-.70	.58
21. Going shopping is one of the enjoyable activities of my life	.70	.55
22. Shopping at different stores wastes my time	-69	.57
23. I enjoy shopping just for the fun of it	.66	.49
24. I make my shopping trips fast	-.64	.67
% of item loadings .40 and above	**100**	**100**
Factor 5- Cronbach Alpha **Price Conscious, 'Value for Money' Consumer**	a= .48	a= .23
25. I buy as much of my clothing as possible at sale prices	.66	.25 (1, .42)
26. I usually choose lower priced products	.56	-.04 (2, .54)
27. I look carefully to find the best value-for-money	.54	.02
% of item loadings .40 and above	**100**	**0**
Factor 6- Cronbach Alpha **Impulsive, Careless Consumer**	a= .48	a= .60
28. I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do	.55	.51
29. I am impulsive when purchasing clothing	.53	.68
30. Often I make careless purchases I later wish I had not	.52	.62
31. I take time to shop carefully for the best buys	-.51	.36 (3, .42)
32. I carefully watch how much I spend on clothing	-.43	.54
% of item loadings .40 and above	**100**	**80**
Factor 7- Cronbach Alpha **Confused by Over-choice Consumer**	a= .55	a= .74
33. There are so many brands to choose from that often I feel confused	.68	.69
34. Sometimes it is hard to choose which stores to shop in	.61	.72

	USA Sample	Greek Sample
35. The more I learn about clothing products, the harder it seems to choose the best	.53	.76
36. All the information I get on different products confuses me	.44	.72
% of item loadings .40 and above	**100**	**100**
Factor 8- Cronbach Alpha **Habitual, Brand-Loyal Consumer**	**a= .53**	**a= .65**
37. I have favourite brands I buy over and over	.70	.45 (2, .62)
38. Once I find a brand I like, I stick with it	.60	.65 (2, .42)
39. I go to the same store each time I shop for clothing	.58	.51
40. I regularly change clothing brands	-.48	-.09 (8, .72)
% of item loadings .40 and above	**100**	**75**

In the light of the above, factor analysis was performed again but this time the extraction criterion was to keep factors that had eigenvalues over 1, and not to use a specific number of factors as previously analysed. Multiple studies have used the same methodology to investigate the applicability of that inventory (Hafstrom et al., 1992; Hu et al., 2001; Leo et al., 2005). Thus the researcher utilized the methodology of both orthogonal and oblique rotations in order to purify and improve the interpretability of the factors (Mayfield et al., 1995; Field, 2005).

The first iteration of exploratory factor analysis extracted 11 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. However 4 items did not contribute to assessing the factors (i.e. 32, 37, 40, and 9). The remaining 36 items were once again analysed. Another 3 items were deleted due to cross-loadings (i.e. 10, 28, and 26). After checking factorial validity on the 33 items, 11 items were dropped in the sequence of the fourth to ninth rounds. Item-to-total correlations were further used to test the factorial solution. According to Nunnally (1970) and Parasuraman et al. (1988) items in a sub-scale with low corrected item-to-total correlations (0.30) should be removed. In total, 18 items out of 40 were dropped. The final factorial solution from the ninth round accounted for 64.32 % of the total variance. These factors are presented in Tables 7:5 and 7:6, below, and represent six easily interpretable factors of the Consumer Styles Inventory.

7:5: Comparison of extraction methods of the Consumer Styles Inventory

Rotation Method		Orthogonal	Oblique
Variance accounted for after rotation		63.26	64.32
Item Loadings			
Factor 1	Item 9	.760	.763
	Item 10	.820	.823
	Item 11	.730	.754
	Item 12	.670	.691
	Item 13	.812	.815
	Item 14	.673	.695
Factor 2	Item 33	.767`	.766
	Item 34	.765	.765
	Item 35	.740	.793
	Item 36	.691	.701
Factor 3	Item 5	.790	.791
	Item 7	.830	.830
	Item 24	.719	.777
Factor 4	Item 15	.772	.790
	Item 16	.863	.870
	Item 17	.701	.710
Factor 5	Item 1	.731	.756
	Item 3	.750	.808
	Item 4	.830	.828
Factor 6	Item 28	.701	.711
	Item 29	.750	.751
	Item 30	.743	.802

Table 7:5 shows the item loadings between both extraction methods i.e. varimax rotation versus oblique rotation. In this analysis the variance accounted for after varimax rotation was 63.26 whereas after oblimin rotation it was 64.32, and over-estimation 1.06. As can be seen for this data set the differences between both rotation methods are minimal since the loadings are almost identical and in the same high-range. This indicates that both solutions produce high factor loadings, i.e. above 0.60 (Hair et al., 1998). According to Costello and Osborne (2005) varimax rotation produces less accurate results when data does not meet assumptions. This was not the case for the data examined. In addition the item loadings and the variance were higher for oblique rotation. Therefore the methodology of oblique rotation was selected.

Table 7:6 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Initial Scale of Decision-Making Styles Inventory

Items	Communalities	ITTC*	Factor loadings					
			F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
Cronbach's Alpha			.849	.755	.717	.798	.823	.748
Mean/Std.			2.91/ .764	2.87/ .792	3.80/ .649	3.24/ .843	3.56/ .881	3.03/ .778
Variance explained (%)		64.32	21.1	13.6	8.21	7.40	7.24	6.71
Eigenvalues			4.54	3.45	2.15	1.87	1.45	1.30
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			.788					
Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)			.000					
F1.Brand Conscious Consumer								
CSI 10. The most expensive brands are usually my choices		.666	.685	.823				
CSI 13.I prefer buying the best-selling brands		.716	.714	.815				
CSI 09.I prefer buying well-known national brands		.650	.658	.763				
CSI 11.The higher the price of a product, the better its quality		.694	.550	.754				
CSI 14. The most advertised brands are usually my choices		.689	.604	.695				
CSI 12.Nice department and speciality stores offer me the best products		.667	.599	.691				
F2. Confused by Over-Choice Consumer								
CSI 35.The more I learn about clothing products, the harder it seems to choose the best		.631	.594		.793			
CSI 33.There are so many brands to choose from that I often feel confused		.772	.533		.766			
CSI 34.Sometimes it is hard to choose which stores to shop at		.793	.495		.765			
CSI 36.All the information I get on different products confuses me		.632	.583		.701			
F3. Recreational, Hedonistic Consumer								
CSI 07.I shop quickly, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough		.781	.555			.830		
CSI 05.I really do not give my clothing purchases much thought or care		.717	.524			.791		
CSI 24.I make my shopping trips fast		.627	.558		.	.777		
F4. Novelty, Fashion Consumer								
DN16.I keep my wardrobe up-to-date with the changing fashions		.789	.719				.870	
DN15.I usually have one or more outfits of the very latest style		.663	.534				.790	
DN17.Fashionable, attractive styling is very important to me		.640	.582				.710	
F5. Perfectionist, High Quality Consumer								
DP4.I make special effort to choose the very best quality		.676	.647					.828

Items	Communalities	ITTC*	Factor loadings F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
Cronbach's Alpha			.849	.755	.717	.798	.823	.748
Mean/Std.			2.91/ .764	2.87/ .792	3.80/ .649	3.24/ .843	3.56/ .881	3.03/ .778
Variance explained (%)		64.32	21.1	13.6	8.21	7.40	7.24	6.71
Eigenvalues			4.54	3.45	2.15	1.87	1.45	1.30
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			.788					
Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)			.000					
DP3.In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality	.716	.522					.808	
DP1.Getting very good quality is very important to me	.620	.539					.756	
F6. Impulsive Consumer								
DI30.I often make careless purchases I later wish I had not made	.610	.567						.802
DI29.I am impulsive when purchasing clothing	.663	.622						.751
DI28.I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do	.610	.646						.711

Note: (a) Rotation converged in 6 iterations.
(b) Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
(c) Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
(d) Total number of Items: 22
(e) * Item-to-total correlations, Overall Cronbach's α = .788, Approx. $\chi2$ = 1376.234, df = 198, total variance explained (%) = 64.32, F1 = Brand Conscious, F2 = Confused Conscious, F3 = Recreational, Hedonistic Conscious, F4 = Novelty, Fashion Conscious, F5 = Perfectionist Conscious, F6 = Impulsive Conscious.

Table 7:6 shows the reliability estimates of each sub-scale. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for factors 1 to 6 were 0.85 to 0.71, indicating high levels of reliability (DeVellis, 2003). The rotated solution revealed the presence of a six-factor model with all components having strong loadings and all items loading significantly on only one factor. The communalities of all the variables were above 0.60, indicating the factorial solution of the data (DeVon et al., 2007). Thus the technique of exploratory factor analysis helped to purify and improve the psychometric properties by examining the validity and reliability of individual constructs (DeVellis, 2003; Reise et al., 2000) that were underpinned in the categorization of decision-making characteristics. These six styles describe the mental characteristics of Greek college students when purchasing clothes. As shown in Table 7:6 the number of factors and item numbers of the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) at this initial stage were as follows: Brand Conscious Consumer (6 items), Confused by Over-choice Consumer (4 items), Quality Conscious Consumer (3 items), Novelty Conscious Consumer (3 items), Hedonistic Conscious

Consumer (3 items), Impulsive Conscious Consumer (3 items). An analysis of the 6 evolving characteristics of the decision-making styles inventory is described below:

1. **Brand Consciousness:** This factor describes consumers' shopping intentions in buying strong clothing brands. Students who scored high on that factor select expensive branded apparel clothes from well-known national stores and retailers. Advertised clothing brands are usually their choices.

2. **Confused by Over-choice Consciousness:** This factor describes consumers' shopping confusion in structuring their clothing preferences. Students who scored high on that factor get easily confused by the variety of different clothing brands for sale. They easily become overloaded by the incoming information they get during their shopping experiences. Thus, it is hard for them to distinguish their ideal choice among different stores and product alternatives.

3. **Hedonistic Consciousness:** This factor measures consumers' hedonistic intentions. Students who scored high on that factor do not give much thought or care to their clothing purchases. They like to shop quickly by buying the first clothing products seen as long as they seem good enough

4. **Novelty/Fashion Consciousness:** This factor measures consumers' intentions in acquiring novel and fashionable apparel clothes. Students who scored high on that factor prefer to do their clothing shopping according to the latest fashion trends. It is important for them to purchase clothes that offer distinctive and fashionable style.

5. **Quality Consciousness:** This factor underlines issues that are related to the quality of the products. Students who scored high on that factor select apparel clothes that have the very best quality. For them it is very important to get the very best quality of the product seen on the market.

6. **Impulsive Consciousness:** This factor relates to issues of impulse shopping behaviour. Students who scored high on that factor have counterfactual feelings regarding their clothing shopping behaviour. They often make careless purchases which later on they wish they hadn't made.

7.2   Data analysis and results of the primary survey

This section presents the results of the primary quantitative study with the main purpose being to verify the factorial solution in the two proposed scales (i.e. reference points

inventory and decision-making styles inventory) and to identify whether any possible modifications needed to be addressed at this final stage. Data and results for the three hypotheses are reported in the next sub-sections

7.2.1 Measurement models

The two measurement models analysed in this study consisted of the assessment of the 8-factor model of referents (RPI) and the 6-factor model of decision-making styles characteristics (CSI). The hypothesized 23-item, 8-factor model of the reference points scale included items of both implicit (coded as I) and explicit (coded as E) referents, namely:

1. Brand referents (E= 4 variables: 4, 8, 9, 10, and 24)

2. Personal referents (I= 3 variables: 34, 38 and 39)

3. Price referents (E= 4 variables: 12-15)

4. Financial referents (I=3 variables: 41-43)

5. Social referents (I= 2 variables, 47-48)

6. Store referents (E= 2 variables, 27-28)

7. Cultural referents (I=2 variables, 49, 50)

8. Reward referents (E=2 variables, 18-19)

Additionally, the hypothesized 22-item, 6-factor model of the consumer styles inventory (CSI) comprised the following constructs:

1. Brand Conscious Consumer: (4 variables: 10-14)

2. Confused by Over-choice Consumer: (4 variables: 33-36)

3. Perfectionist/High Quality Consumer: (3 variables: 1, 3, and 4)

4. Novelty, Fashion Consumer: (3 variables: 15, 16, and 17)

5. Recreational Consumer: (3 variables: 5, 7, and 24)

6. Impulsive Consumer: (3 variables: 28-30)

7.2.2 Demographic characteristics

Table 7:7 shows the socio-demographics, income characteristics and clothing purchases for important shopping events of the second study student sample (N=556).

Table 7:7 Demographic Characteristics of the Final Study

Variable	Description	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	308	55.4
	Male	248	44.6
Age	17-19	84	15.1
	20-22	384	69.1
	23-25	59	10.6
	26 and Over	29	5.2
Marital Status	Single	525	94.4
	Married	31	5.6
Majors	Marketing	320	57.6
	Management	234	42.4
Education	Freshman	36	6.5
	Sophomore	161	29.0
	Junior	181	32.6
	Senior	178	32.0
Personal Student	<500 Euro	238	42.8
Budget (in Euros)	501-700	92	16.5
	701-900	39	7.0
	901>	37	6.7
	Didn't Answer	150	27.0
List of Important	Wedding	222	39.9
Shopping Events	Engagement	31	5.6
	Christening	72	12.9
	Social party	150	27.0
	Conference	11	2.0
	Graduation ceremony	52	9.3
	Work	26	4.7
	Celebration	19	3.4
	Date	3	0.5
List of Clothing	Suit	75	13.5
Items	Dress	249	44.8
	Overcoat	13	2.3
	Jacket	59	10.6
	Trousers	101	18.2
	Shirt	45	8.1
	Blouse	12	2.4
	Waistcoat	1	0.2
	Scarf	1	0.2

From Table 7:7 the second study sample consisted of 556 respondents, of which 248= 44.6 percent were male students and 308 = 55.4 percent were female. Again as was shown in the demographic analysis previously, the majority of the undergraduate students were single (N=525). Moreover most of the students were below the age of 23. Regarding the students' available budget for their studies, only 27 percent of them did not want to answer that question, compared with the 45 percent found on the pilot study. Of those who responded, 43 percent had a monthly budget expenditure for their studies below 500€ (Euro), and 16.5 percent had 501-700€. On the other hand only 7 percent of the students indicated that they had more than 900€. The greater percentage of them had bought formal clothes for going to a wedding or social party happening (i.e. 40% and 30%).

7.2.3 Data and results of hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was concerned with identifying the factors that categorize consumers' reference points. From the literature and from the data resulting from the focus discussions it was noted that consumers use different sources or indicants of reference points. In order to develop a model of reference points, which would successfully incorporate all the factors that measured the construct, it was necessary to test the relative strength of the measurement model, through a number of fit measurements that are presented in the next tables (Table 7:8 to Table 7:9).

Table 7:8 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Initial scale of Reference Points

Factors and Items	Factor loading		Measurement error		R^2
	λ_i	t	E_i	t	
Factor 1. Brand Referents					
RPI 09. Because the clothes that I liked came from a strong brand retailer I was 100% sure that they would be good quality	0.72	17.86	0.47	12.61	0.52
RPI 10. Strong brands minimized the risk of making an unworthy purchase	0.70	18.28	0.42	12.28	0.54
RPI 08. I evaluated product attributes based on the brand	0.71	18.12	0.45	12.41	0.53
RPI 04. I bought high-fashion designer apparel	0.63	13.70	0.76	14.77	0.34
RPI 24. I preferred to do my shopping from familiar well-branded apparel stores	0.57	13.30	0.67	14.90	0.32
Factor 2. Personal Referents					
RPI 34. I bought clothes that had high	0.48	15.99	0.29	13.65	0.44

Factors and Items	Factor loading		Measurement error		R^2
	λi	t	E_i	t	
aesthetics					
RPI 39. I selected clothes that fitted well on me, and lifted my image up	0.56	19.06	0.22	11.16	0.58
RPI 38. The clothes outfits fitted my personal tastes	0.53	19.32	0.19	10.87	0.60
Factor 3. Price Referents					
RPI 13. Fair-priced clothes drove my final choices	0.42	10.45	0.60	15.10	0.23
RPI 14. I compared prices of all other brands by having as a reference point the brand I liked on the current purchase	0.76	17.21	0.44	9.38	0.57
RPI 12. I evaluated products according to the price sold	0.40	9.03	0.76	15.55	0.18
RPI 15. I formed my price judgements based on the current price of my reference brand	0.74	16.18	0.53	10.85	0.51
Factor 4. Financial Referents					
RPI 43. I selected clothes that had better credit terms	0.48	9.96	0.82	14.93	0.22
RPI 42. I had as a reference point my own available budget	0.66	15.81	0.37	8.99	0.54
RPI 41. I selected an outfit according to the price I would like to pay	0.60	14.81	0.40	10.80	0.50
Factor 5. Social Referents					
RPI 48. I bought clothes that impressed the people around me	0.88	11.06	0.53	4.28	0.59
RPI 47. I bought clothes that satisfied the people around me	0.91	11.51	0.29	2.18	0.75
Factor 6. Store Referents					
RPI 27. I preferred to visit stores that had a friendly environment	0.68	11.63	0.33	4.80	0.58
RPI 28. I preferred to visit stores that had friendly personnel, who were willing to help me	0.77	12.14	0.23	2.64	0.72
Factor 7. Cultural Referents					
RPI 49. I avoided making extreme clothing preferences	0.89	10.01	0.39	2.72	0.67
RPI 50. I avoided buying challenging clothes	0.84	9.86	0.47	3.65	0.60
Factor 8. Reward Referents					
RPI 19. I evaluated rewards according to the level of contingent efforts	0.51	10.59	0.39	8.70	0.32
RPI 18. I preferred offers that had instant and direct rewards	0.53	10.47	0.45	9.15	0.38

Table 7:8 represents the results of the confirmatory factor analysis for the 23 manifest variables that measure the reference points inventory. All the identified variables represent a different indicant of referents, which resulted from the two different student samples. Therefore there does not exist an over lapping in sample All factor loadings

are above the cut-off value of 0.40 (Churchill, 1995; Hair et al., 1998. According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) that threshold value is more applicable to the development of new scales.

Additionally the above table shows the measurement error, t-values and coefficient of determination R^2 scores. The coefficient of determination examines the appropriateness of the model fit for every structural equation (Millan and Esteban, 2004). The authors suggest deleting those items that exhibit low scores of R^2 (i.e. below the value of 0.50). Following these recommendations the following eight variables were omitted from the scale: RPI 04 'I bought high-fashion designer apparel' (R^2= 0.34), RS24 'I preferred to do my shopping from familiar well-branded apparel stores' (R^2= 0.32), (R^2= 0.44), RPI 34 'I bought clothes that had high aesthetics'(R^2= 0.44), RPI 43 'I selected clothes that had better credit terms' (R^2= 0.22), RPI 12 'I evaluated products according to the price sold' (R^2= 0.18), RPI 13 'Fair-priced clothes drove my final choices' (R^2= 0.23), RPI 19 'I evaluated rewards according to the level of contingent efforts'(R^2= 0.32), and RPI 18 'I preferred offers that had instant and direct rewards' (R^2= 0.38).

Despite the fact that the confirmatory factor analysis results of the initial reference points inventory produced a high degree of convergent validity (CFI=0.90, IFI=0.90, NNFI=0.88, GFI=0.90, AGFI=0.87, NFI=0.97, RMSR=0.052, and RMSEA=0.064), there was still room to produce more reliable results. Therefore a second round of confirmatory factor analysis was carried out with Maximum Likelihood Estimation consisting of 15 items that loaded onto 7 factors. The results are shown in Table 7:9.

Table 7:9 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Final Scale of Reference Points

Factors and Items	Factor loading		Measurement error		R^2
	λi	t	E_i	t	
Factor 1. Brand Referents					
RPI 09. Because the clothes that I liked came from a strong brand retailer I was 100% sure that they would be good quality	0.74	17.98	0.43	10.70	0.56
RPI 10. Strong brands minimized the risk of making an unworthy purchase	0.74	18.60	0.37	9.85	0.60
RPI 8. I evaluated product attributes based on the brand	0.67	16.21	0.52	12.70	0.50
Factor 2. Personal Referents					
RPI 39. I selected clothes that fitted well on me, and lifted my image up	0.58	10.99	0.20	3.66	0.63

RPI 38. The clothes outfits fitted my personal tastes	0.57	11.19	0.14	2.72	0.70
Factor 3. Price Referents					
RPI 14. I compared prices of all other brands by having as a reference point the brand I liked on the current purchase	0.76	15.17	0.44	7.45	0.57
RPI 15. I formed my price judgements based on the current price of my reference brand	0.80	15.37	0.44	6.93	0.59
Factor 4. Financial Referents					
RPI 42. I had as a reference point my own available budget	0.66	12.42	0.38	6.41	0.53
RPI 41. I selected an outfit according to the price I would like to pay	0.60	12.04	0.40	7.75	0.51
Factor 5. Social Referents					
RPI 48. I bought clothes that impressed the people around me	0.82	9.40	0.62	4.67	0.52
RPI 47. I bought clothes that satisfied the people around me	0.97	9.99	0.17	0.98	0.84
Factor 6. Store Referents					
RPI 27. I preferred to visit stores that had a friendly environment	0.71	11.19	0.28	3.43	0.65
RPI 28. I preferred to visit stores that had friendly personnel, who were willing to help me	0.73	11.20	0.29	3.40	0.65
Factor 7. Cultural Referents					
RPI 49. I avoided making extreme clothing preferences	0.95	9.96	0.29	1.72	0.76
RPI 50. I avoided buying challenging clothes	0.79	9.48	0.56	4.47	0.53

In the final model the relationship between the measured variables (i.e. 15-items) and the latent variables (7-factors) was calculated. All the standardized factor loadings in the purified version of the reference points inventory are statistically significant (i.e. above 0.50). The coefficient of determination R^2 of each structural equation has a value higher than the recommended level of 0.50 (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2007; Sparks et al., 2008). As shown in Table 7:9 the index of t-values indicates the level of significance of the correlation coefficients (Roman, 2006). According to Hair et al. (2006) and Hatcher (2003) t-values which are greater than:

- 0.960 are significant at probability 0.05
- 2.576 are significant at probability of 0.01
- 3.291 are significant at probability 0.001

The obtained t-values in the table indicate the strength of the relationship between the factors. The results of the second round of confirmatory factor analysis provided evidence that the model fitted the examined data better.

The next table (Table 7:10) compares the results of the initial scale and the final scale, on which the convergent validity of the re-specified model was improved.

Table 7:10 Comparison of the goodness of Fit Measures between Initial and Final Scale of Referents

Purification process	Initial scale RPI 8-factor model 23-variables	Final scale RPI 7-factor model 15-variables
	N=556	
Absolute fit measures		
Value of the X^2 and significance level	224 (P=0.00)	98.68 (p=0.011)
Non-centrality parameter (NCP)	512.40	29.68
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.90	0.98
Root mean square residual (RMSR)	0.052	0.0022
Root mean square of approximation (RMSEA)	0.064	0.0028
Expected cross-validation index (ECVI)	1.60	0.36
Incremental fit measures		
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	0.87	0.96
Normed fit index (NFI)	0.87	0.96
Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	0.88	0.98
Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.90	0.99
Incremental fit index (IFI)	0.90	0.99
Relative fit index (RFI)	0.83	0.94
Parsimony fit measures		
Normed X^2 (X^2/df)	3.285	1.430
Parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI)	0.67	0.56
Parsimony normed fit index (PNFI)	0.70	0.63
Akaike information criterion (AIC)	888.40	240.00
Critical N (CN)	219.17	555.19

Table 7:10 shows all the various goodness of fit measures (Hair et al., 1998). The analysis revealed that the different fit measures were improved in the final scale format (i.e. 7-factor model), as opposed to the initial scale (i.e. 8-factor model).

The value of chi-square test was used in order to test if the model fit the data. Hatcher (2003) suggests that the high-square should be quite small, whereas the p value should be relatively large (i.e. between 0.05 and 1.00)

The value of the X^2 was reduced from 224 to 98.68, and in both examinations the value of p was below the recommended level of 0.05 (i.e. p=0.00 and p=0.011). That occurred because the examination test was taken from a large sample size (Byrne , 2001).

Next follows an examination of all the other fit measures that are shown in Table 7.10:

- The NCP measures the adequacy of alternative models (Millan and Esteban, 2004). According to the authors, acceptable values are those that are near zero. The NCP was substantially improved from 512.40 to 29.68

- According to Hair et al. (2006), for a model to become perfectly adjusted the GFI should be greater than 0.90. This value in both scales was above 0.90. Analytically the initial scale had a value of 0.90, whereas the final scale had 0.98. This improvement on the value of GFI indicates an almost perfect model adequacy.

- The RMSR value should preferably be close to zero and smaller than the value of 0.05 (Aaker et al., 2004). As can be seen from the analysis, both models have values near to zero (i.e. 0.052, 0.0022). Similarly the RMSEA value was improved between the two models, by reaching a value smaller than the cut-off level of 0.08 (Millan and Esteban, 2004) considerably improving between the two models from 0.064 to 0.0028.

- Millan and Esteban (2004) suggest that the ECVI value should be close to zero. This was achieved in both models (i.e. 1.60, and 0.36)

- All the incremental fit measures of the final model are above the recommended level of 0.90.

Moreover the parsimony fit measures were improved in the final model. For example the Normed X^2 value is calculated by dividing the X^2 by its degrees of freedom. According to Hair et al. (1998) a value less than 2.0 demonstrates an excellent model fit. This was achieved in the final model (1.430). Additionally the PGFI is greater in the final model (0.56). The PNFI is an important indicator in examining the adequacy of the model fit when the differences between the models are inside the range of 0.06 to 0.09 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). In the case of the two models the difference is 0.07 (i.e. 0.70-0.63), which suggests the applicability of the measure. The AIC value showed a great decrease in the final model, which indicates a significant improvement. The CN value according to Millan and Esteban (2004) should be above 200, which happened in both models, but it was considerably improved in the final model (555.19).

Overall it can be concluded that the data analysis results showed clear levels of convergent validity. Additionally the alpha coefficients and construct reliability of every indicator on each construct exhibited the same properties. This is presented on Table 7:11.

Table 7:11 Reliability Analysis of the Reference Points Inventory (RPI)

Reliability analysis	Means	Indicators Correlation	Alpha coefficient if this indicator is deleted	Standardized Factor loadings
Factor 1. Brand Referents (a-0.778)				
RPI 09. Because the clothes that I liked came from a strong brand retailer I was 100% sure that they would be good quality	2.65	0.634	0.679	0.857
RPI 10. Strong brands minimized the risk of making an unworthy purchase	2.63	0.633	0.677	0.828
RPI 08. I evaluated product attributes based on the brand	2.69	0.575	0.741	0.766
Factor 2. Personal Referents (a=0.794)				
RPI 39. I selected clothes that fitted well on me, and lifted my image up	4.29	0.540	-	0.904
RPI 38. The clothes outfits fitted my personal tastes	4.22	0.574	-	0.902
Factor 3. Price Referents (a=0.733)				
RPI 14. I compared prices of all other brands by having as a reference point the brand I liked on the current purchase	3.23	0.580	-	0.865

RPI 15. I formed my price judgements based on the current price of my reference brand	3.20	0.580	-	0.855
Factor 4. Financial Referents (a=0.769)				
RPI 42. I had as a reference point my own available budget	3.87	0.52	-	0.849
RPI 41. I selected an outfit according to the price I would like to pay	3.90	0.52	-	0.850
Factor 5. Social Referents (a=0.800)				
RPI 48. I bought clothes that impressed the people around me	2.58	0.665	-	0.909
RPI 47. I bought clothes that satisfied the people around me	3.00	0.665	-	0.903
Factor 6. Store Referents (a=0.786)				
RPI 27. I preferred to visit stores that had a friendly environment	3.66	0.647	-	0.899
RPI 28. I preferred to visit stores that had friendly personnel, who were willing to help me	3.80	0.647	-	0.898
Factor 7. Cultural Referents (a=0.774)				
RPI 49. I avoided making extreme clothing preferences	3.82	0.631	-	0.899
RPI 50. I avoided buying challenging clothes	3.62	0.631	-	0.896

The final scale of referents shows the Cronbach alpha's coefficients for each subscale of the referents. All the values were higher than the recommended cut-off level of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2003). This indicates the level of constringency and stability of the underlying measurement variables (Millan and Esteban, 2004). In addition the correlation between indicators also shows acceptable values, as the majority of the indicators were above 0.60 (Bagozzi, 1994; DeVon et al., 2007). The mean scores of each variable show the magnitude of the differences between the measurements of each indicator. For example Greek college students scored high on the factors of both 'Personal Referents' and 'Financial Referents, which suggests that they purchase clothes according to their personal views and beliefs. The results also suggest that they form their final consumption preferences based on their own available income. In addition they tend to examine previous or past information which helps them in finding an ideal price that they would like to pay (Yin and Paswan, 2007).

7.2.4 Data and results of hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis was concerned with identifying Greek college students' decision-making characteristics. The specific categorization profiles the shopping orientations of Greek college students in selecting apparel clothes for important shopping events or happenings. Table 7:12 shows the initial results of the confirmatory factor analysis.

Table 7:12 Confirmatory factor Analysis (CFA), Initial Scale of Decision-Making Styles

Factors and Items	Factor loading		Measurement error		R^2
	λ_i	t	E_i	t	
Factor 1. Perfectionist High Quality Conscious Consumer					
CSI 04. I make special effort to choose the very best quality	0.68	18.99	0.27	8.55	0.63
CSI 03. In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality	0.57	17.93	0.25	10.18	0.57
CSI 01. Getting very good quality is very important to me	0.46	14.56	0.32	13.80	0.39
Factor 2. Recreational Conscious Consumer					
CSI 07. I shop quickly, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough	0.69	14.98	0.50	11.76	0.51
CSI 05. I really do not give my clothing purchases much thought or care	0.73	14.77	0.59	12.02	0.53
CSI 24. I make my shopping trips fast	0.82	16.08	0.64	10.28	0.52
Factor 3. Brand Conscious Consumer					
CSI 10. The most expensive brands are usually my choices	0.81	22.60	0.31	11.49	0.68
CSI 13. I prefer buying the best-selling brands	0.80	22.73	0.29	11.36	0.69
CSI 09. I prefer buying well-known national brands	0.79	21.21	0.38	12.67	0.62
CSI 11. The higher the price of a product, the better its quality	0.51	11.22	0.90	15.98	0.23
CSI 14. The most advertised brands are usually my choices	0.45	12.02	0.58	15.86	0.26
CSI 12. Nice department and speciality stores offer me the best products	0.48	11.95	0.67	15.87	0.25
Factor 4. Novelty Conscious Consumer					
CSI 16. I keep my wardrobe up-to-date with the changing fashions	0.91	22.43	0.18	4.10	0.82
CSI 15. I usually have one or more outfits of the very latest style	0.62	14.86	0.41	12.29	0.53
CSI 17. Fashionable, attractive styling is very important to me	0.75	16.74	0.42	11.73	0.54
Factor 5. Impulsive Conscious Consumer					

Factors and Items	Factor loading		Measurement error		R^2
	λ_i	t	E_i	t	
CSI 30. I often make careless purchases I later wish I had not made	0.67	13.16	0.51	10.06	0.54
CSI 29. I am impulsive when purchasing clothing	0.62	11.73	0.56	10.31	0.52
CSI 28. I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do	0.60	11.36	0.49	11.74	0.51
Factor 6. Confused by Over-choice Consumer					
CSI 36. All the information I get on different products confuses me	0.67	17.00	0.40	11.07	0.53
CSI 35. The more I learn about clothing products, the harder it seems to choose the best	0.70	17.42	0.40	10.55	0.55
CSI 34. Sometimes it is hard to choose which stores to shop at	0.54	12.55	0.66	14.48	0.31
CSI 33. There are so many brands to choose from that I often feel confused	0.62	14.23	0.50	12.58	0.51

Table 7:12 presents the results for the 22 variables that measure the decision-making styles inventory. All manifest variables are statistically significant and have acceptable factor loadings, i.e. >0.40 (Cheng, 2001).

The coefficient of determination (R^2) was calculated as it provides an additional measure of fit of between each measured variable. Variables that have values of R^2 greater than 0.5, should be retained in the model (Hair et al., 1998). Following Hair et al.'s (1998) recommendations only 5 of the 22 variables exhibited poor acceptable levels of R^2. Hence, it was decided to delete the following variables:

1. CSI 01. Getting very good quality is very important to me (R^2=0.39)
2. CSI 11. The higher the price of a product, the better its quality (R^2=0.23)
3. CSI 14. The most advertised brands are usually my choices (R^2=0.26)
4. CSI 12. Nice department and speciality stores offer me the best products (R^2=0.25)
5. CSI 34. Sometimes it is hard to choose which stores to shop at (R^2=0.31)

The model fit of the initial decision-making styles inventory produced a high degree of convergent validity (CFI=0.95, IFI=0.95, NNFI=0.93, GFI=0.92, AGFI=0.90, NFI=0.91, RMSR=0.051, and RMSEA=0.053). Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2007) indicate that the values of the absolute fit measures should be 0.90 and above, in order for the model to have acceptable measurement fits. On the other hand the authors stress that the standardized values of Root Mean Square Residuals (RMSR) should be around

the cut-off value of 0.05. However despite the fact that the model showed high convergent validity the deletion of the 5 items that had low values of R^2 should improve the fit indices of the model. Therefore a second round of confirmatory factor analysis was carried out but this time the above five variables were omitted from the analysis, in order to check further improvement on the model fit measures. The results are shown in Table 7:13.

Table 7:13 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Final Scale of Decision-Making Styles

Factors and Items	Factor loading		Measurement error		R^2
	λi	t	E_i	t	
Factor 1. Perfectionist High Quality Conscious Consumer					
CSI 04. I make special effort to choose the very best quality	0.66	14.95	0.29	6.32	0.60
CSI 03. In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality	0.59	15.02	0.22	6.15	0.61
Factor 2. Recreational Conscious Consumer					
CSI 07. I shop quickly, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough	0.69	15.00	0.57	11.77	0.53
CSI 05. I really do not give my clothing purchases much thought or care	0.73	14.71	0.58	12.11	0.51
CSI 24. I make my shopping trips fast	0.83	16.15	0.63	10.21	0.52
Factor 3. Brand Conscious Consumer					
CSI 10. The most expensive brands are usually my choices	0.84	23.21	0.26	9.37	0.73
CSI 13. I prefer buying the best-selling brands	0.78	21.55	0.33	11.49	0.65
CSI 09. I prefer buying well-known national brands	0.81	21.41	0.36	11.64	0.64
Factor 4. Novelty Conscious Consumer					
CSI 16. I keep my wardrobe up-to-date with the changing fashions	0.91	22.42	0.18	3.99	0.82
CSI 15. I usually have one or more outfits of the very latest style	0.62	14.84	0.44	11.29	0.51
CSI 17. Fashionable, attractive styling is very important to me	0.75	16.69	0.41	11.74	0.52
Factor 5. Impulsive Conscious Consumer					
DI30. I often make careless purchases I later wish I had not made	0.65	12.82	0.50	10.03	0.53
DI29.I am impulsive when purchasing clothing	0.64	12.02	0.48	10.79	0.52
DI28. I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do	0.58	11.27	0.51	11.84	0.50
Factor 6. Confused by Over-choice Consumer					
CSI 36. All the information I get on different products confuses me	0.70	16.65	0.36	8.63	0.57
CSI 35. The more I learn about clothing	0.71	16.55	0.39	8.82	0.57

Factors and Items	Factor loading		Measurement error		R^2
	λi	t	E_i	t	
products, the harder it seems to choose the best					
CSI 33. There are so many brands to choose from that I often feel confused	0.57	12.80	0.51	12.99	0.50

The final stage for scale development was to reassess the factorial solution of the CSI scale using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with Maximum likelihood estimation in LISREL 8.80 (Joreskog and Sorbom, 2006). Maximum likelihood estimation was used as it is a technique that provides unbiased and more interpretable results (Hair et al., 1998). In addition this procedure provides generalizable results for the whole population (Field, 2005). Moreover different scholars when purifying the CSI to other populations have used the same methodology (Siu, 2001; Bauer et al., 2006). However that technique is very sensitive to issues regarding multivariate normality which is indicated by skewness and kurtosis in the measures (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2007). A preliminary examination of the univariate distributions showed that all the variables were normal. Therefore the CSI scale was revaluated using that method.

Table 7:13 presents the factor loadings, measurement error, t-values and R^2. An analysis of Table 7:13 shows that all factor loadings exhibit values higher than the recommended level of 0.40 (Hair et al., 1998). The confirmatory factor analysis justifies the significance of the results and that the content of each subscale is valid. The results of the coefficient of determination R^2 of each structural equation are greater than 0.50, hence meeting the recommended criteria for maintaining all the variables in the purified model (Hair et al., 2006). The adequacy of the model was tested through a number of fit measurements

The next table (Table 7:14) compares the results of the initial scale and the final scale, on which the convergent validity of the re-specified model was improved. Again the researcher followed the recommendations of Hair et al. (2006), using a number of fit indices in order to check the factorial stability of the model, i.e. absolute, incremental and parsimony fit measures.

Table 7:14 Comparison of the Goodness of Fit Measures between Initial and Final Scale of Decision-Making Styles

Purification process	Initial scale CSI 6-factor model 22-variables	Final scale CSI 6-factor model 17-variables

	N=556	
Absolute fit measures		
Value of the X^2 and significance level	502.10 (P=0.00)	270.41 (p=0.00)
Non-centrality parameter (NCP)	308.04	159.40
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.92	0.95
Root mean square residual (RMSR)	0.052	0.051
Root mean square of approximation (RMSEA)	0.053	0.052
Expected cross-validation index (ECVI)	1.12	0.65
Incremental fit measures		
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	0.90	0.92
Normed fit index (NFI)	0.91	0.93
Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	0.93	0.94
Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.95	0.96
Incremental fit index (IFI)	0.95	0.96
Relative fit index (RFI)	0.90	0.91
Parsimony fit measures		
Normed X^2 (X^2/df)	2.588	2.60
Parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI)	0.71	0.64
Parsimony normed fit index (PNFI)	0.77	0.71
Akaike information criterion (AIC)	620	361.40
Critical N (CN)	269.33	289.29

The analysis revealed that the different fit measures were improved in the final scale format (i.e. 6-factor model and 17-variables), as opposed to the initial scale (i.e. 6-factor model and 22-variables).

The value of Shatorra-Bentler chi-square test was used in order to test if the model fit the data. Hatcher (2003) suggests that the high-square should be quite small, whereas the p value should be relatively large (i.e. between 0.05 and 1.00). As shown in Table 7:14 the value of the X^2 was reduced from 502 to 270, and in both examinations the value of p was below the recommended level of 0.05 (i.e. p=0.00). That occurred because the examination test was taken from a large sample size (Byrne, 2001).

According to Spark et al. (2008) the value of the X^2 strongly depends upon the sample size. The authors suggest that a value of the X^2/df ratio between 2 and 5 indicates satisfactory model fit. In both scales that value was achieved. However the value of the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was improved in the final model and the non-normed fit index (NNFI) was above the threshold value of 0.90 (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore it can be concluded that the model fit indices were improved from the initial model to the final one. The data results exhibited clear levels of improvement. Table 7:15 shows the alpha coefficients and construct reliability of each construct. The same properties of improvement were observed.

Table 7:15 Reliability Analysis of the Decision-Making Styles Inventory (CSI)

Reliability analysis	Means	Indicators Correlation	Alpha coefficient if this indicator is deleted	Standardized Factor loadings
Factor 1. Perfectionist High Quality Conscious Consumer (a=0.753)	**3.77**			
CSI 04. I make special effort to choose the very best quality	3.61	0.465	-	0.857
CSI 03. In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality	3.93	0.465	-	0.862
Factor 2. Recreational Conscious Consumer (a=0.723)	**3.54**			
CSI 07. I shop quickly, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough	3.79	0.555	0.626	0.799
CSI 05. I really do not give my clothing purchases much thought or care	3.61	0.524	0.660	0.752
CSI 24. I make my shopping trips fast	3.20	0.558	0.620	0.780
Factor 3. Brand Conscious Consumer (a=0.860)	**2.73**			
CSI 10. The most expensive brands are usually my choices	3.04	0.726	0.814	0.883
CSI 13. I prefer buying the best-selling brands	2.54	0.760	0.781	0.845
CSI 09. I prefer buying well-known national brands	2.61	0.722	0.817	0.858
Factor 4. Novelty Conscious Consumer (a=0.773)	**2.83**			
CSI 16. I keep my wardrobe up-to-date with the changing fashions	2.53	0.518	0.570	0.870
CSI 15. I usually have one or more outfits of the very latest style	3.04	0.428	0.772	0.770
CSI 17. Fashionable, attractive styling is	2.91	0.400	0.726	0.779

very important to me				
Factor 5. Impulsive Conscious Consumer (a=0.730)	**2.84**			
CSI 30. I often make careless purchases I later wish I had not made	2.46	0.467	0.588	0.755
CSI 29. I am impulsive when purchasing clothing	3.04	0.422	0.555	0.773
CSI 28. I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do	3.03	0.426	0.547	0.667
Factor 6. Confused by Over-choice Consumer (a=0.727)	**2.64**			
CSI 36. All the information I get on different products confuses me	2.48	0.600	0.580	0.851
CSI 35. The more I learn about clothing products, the harder it seems to choose the best	2.72	0.583	0.598	0.822
CSI 33. There are so many brands to choose from that I often feel confused	2.73	0.471	0.737	0.693

In order to examine the reliability of the CSI scale the researcher examined the Cronbach coefficient alphas for the six subscales (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2007). In addition, composite variables were created based on the summation of the exact number of the item scores by dividing them by the number of items (Roman, 2006). As shown in Table 7:15 all dimensions of the consumer styles inventory show values greater than the expected cut-off levels (i.e. > 0.7). The indicators correlation on every factor is greater than 0.4.

In conclusion, the measurement model shows sound properties of model fit adequacy. For example the convergent validity and reliability among the latent constructs is assessed. Furthermore the mean scores of each individual factor are shown which identify the pattern of the responses from college students on each factor. For example the results show that Greek college students scored high in the factor of Perfectionist (mean= 3.77), which suggests that they seek to purchase high quality apparel. In addition as apparel consumers they do not have ambivalent feelings and they do not get so easily confused when they are shopping (mean=2.64).

7.2.5 Data and results of hypothesis 3

The third research hypothesis was concerned with identifying the potential relationships between the decision-making characteristics and reference points inventory, because it was found from the literature that each consumer selects and uses different reference points according to their unique decision-making profile. Therefore in order to examine

the relationship between the selected categorization of consumer reference points and the decision-making characteristics identified among the selected group of Greek college students as apparel shoppers, the researcher utilized the methodology of Pearson's correlation. Table 7:16 analyses the relationships between the two models. The seven factors of referents are treated as endogenous variables (i.e. they result from the six decision-making characteristics). The correlation coefficients were calculated at the levels of significance of $p<0.001$ and $p<0.05$ (Hatcher, 2003; Field, 2005).

Table 7:16 Pearson's Correlation of the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) and the Reference Points Inventory (RPI)

Consumer Styles Inventory	Referents						
	Explicit			Implicit			
	Brand	Store	Price	Financial	Social	Personal	Cultural
Perfectionist	0.20^{**}	0.16^{*}	0.17^{*}	-0.03^{ns}	0.04^{ns}	0.24^{**}	0.02^{ns}
Recreational	-0.06^{ns}	0.05^{ns}	$-.06^{ns}$	-0.02^{ns}	0.03^{ns}	0.11^{*}	-0.14^{ns}
Brand	0.57^{**}	0.08^{ns}	0.31^{**}	-0.15^{*}	0.07^{ns}	-0.10^{*}	-0.04^{ns}
Novelty	0.25^{**}	0.05^{ns}	0.22^{**}	-0.05^{ns}	0.26^{**}	0.04^{ns}	-0.02^{ns}
Impulsive	0.11^{*}	0.04^{ns}	0.11^{*}	0.03^{ns}	0.06^{ns}	-0.07^{ns}	0.03^{ns}
Confused	0.21^{**}	0.06^{ns}	0.21^{**}	-0.05^{ns}	0.15^{*}	-0.03^{ns}	0.06^{ns}

Notes: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
     * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
     ns = Non significant correlation

The characteristics of perfectionist conscious consumers have a positive impact on the selection of brand referents (r=0.20, p=0.05), personal referents (r=0.24, p= 0.01), price referents (r=0.17, p=0.01), and store referents (r=0.16, p=0.01). This indicates that perfectionist consumers use referents that arise from the perspective of the sellers. In contrast when they select implicit referents they select those that arise from their personal distinct perspective. Moreover there is a negative impact, but not significant on financial (or economic) referents (r=-0.03). This means that those types of consumers, when they select their apparel clothes, are not strongly influenced by that type of reference point.

The type of recreational conscious consumer has a significant positive impact on personal referents only (r=0.11). On the other hand that type of consumer shows weak and non significant correlation with the other type of referents. The next type of the CSI inventory is the brand conscious consumer. That type of consumer has a positive impact on two different categories of reference points. These are:

- Brand referents (r=0.57, p= 0.01)
- Price referents (r=0.31, p=0.001

On the other hand it has a negative correlation with financial and personal referents.

The novelty conscious consumer indicated positive relationships with three different types of referents. These are:

- Brand referents (r=0.25, p=0.01)
- Price referents (r=0.22, p=0.01)
- Social referents (r=0.26, p=0.01)

The relationship between the characteristic of novelty conscious consumers and the selection of store referents appears to be non-significant. On the other hand there is a negative non-significant relationship with financial and cultural referents. That opposite relationship is more obvious with the financial referents. This may mean that those types of consumers do not select referents that arise from the domain of financial and cultural referents.

The relationship between impulsive conscious consumers and reference points is positive with two types of referents. Analytically, the following relationships were observed:

- Brand referents (r=0.11, p=0.05)
- Price referents (r=0.11, p=0.05)

In contrast there is weak relationship but in the opposite direction with the selection of reference points which arise from the consumer's personal domain (r=-0.07, p=0.01). The last type of the CSI is the confused by over-choice consumer. That construct has a positive impact on five types of referents. Analytically the following positive relationships were observed:

- Brand referents (r=0.21, p=0.01)
- Price referents (r=0.21, , p=0.01
- Social referents (r=0.15, p=0.05)
- Store referents (r=0.06)
- Cultural referents (r=0.06)

On the other hand there is a relationship in the opposite direction with the remaining constructs of referents:

- Personal referents (r=-0.03)
- Financial referents (r=-0.05)

The negative relationship with personal and financial referents indicates that confused by over-choice consumers do not tend to use the categories of those two types of referents.

7.3   Summary

The first stage purification process (i.e. pilot survey) served to define apparel clothing referents into 8 factors (24 items) by using exploratory factor analysis with principal component extraction and orthogonal rotation. The same exploratory factor analysis was used for the existing 40-item inventory of Sproles and Kendall's (1986) decision-making styles. After removing 18 poor items, the remaining 22 items resulted in a 6-factor model, with significant factor loadings and satisfactory Cronbach alpha reliabilities.

The results of the first study contributed to profiling consumers' decision-making characteristics to the context of Greece, by making comparisons with the initial 40-item Sproles and Kendall (1986) model. It was found that only 6 factors out of the 8 had acceptable reliabilities, since many items didn't have acceptable scores and loaded on different factors. Thus the first study helped in refining the existing decision-making styles inventory of Sproles and Kendall (1986).

In order to further refine the dimensionality of the two initial scales, a second stage purification process (i.e. final survey) of the reference points inventory and the consumer styles inventory was carried out with a new data set (N=556) that aimed to further assess the factor structure and reliability of the two scales. It also aimed to capture convergent and discriminant validity, with the use of confirmatory factor analysis by means of LISREL 8.8 (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1993). Moreover the three hypotheses that guided that research were examined with the results of the final survey. The the exact results of the hypothesis testing are presented in Table 7:15. All the hypotheses were verified, by having as an outcome the building of two sustainable inventories (i.e. reference points inventory, and decision-making styles inventory). And as a final point the subsequent relationships between those two inventories were thoroughly measured. Next follows the discussion, recommendations and conclusion chapter.

Table 7:17 Hypothesis Testing

Research Hypothesis	Verified	Rejected
Primary Hypothesis (PH$_1$): The categorization of Reference Points from Greek college students as apparel clothing shoppers for important shopping occasions is influenced by a number of factors.	√	
Primary Hypothesis (PH$_2$): Greek college students as apparel clothing shoppers for important shopping occasions will have distinct decision-making characteristics.	√	
Primary Hypothesis (PH$_3$):		

There will be a relationship between decision-making characteristics, and reference points.	√	

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8.   CHAPTER EIGHT: Conclusion

8.0   Introduction

The main purpose of this current research was to investigate the concept of reference points from the consumers' own perspective by developing a valid measurement scale and examining how the different types of referents are associated with the types of consumer decision-making styles. It attempted to conceptualize the categories of consumer reference points used by Greek college students for their clothing consumption decisions on important shopping events or occasions, with the ultimate goal of filling the gap in the relevant literature. The research problem and the research hypotheses were identified by critically examining the latest current literature. Accordingly hypotheses were developed to guide the analysis of the empirical study.

This chapter presents a discussion of findings by offering concluding guidelines for each of the research hypotheses based on the data captured initially from the qualitative part and then from the two-stage quantitative part (i.e. pilot survey and primary survey). In addition this chapter presents managerial and research implications. Suggestions for future research, limitations of the current study and the overall concluding remarks of this dissertation are provided

8.1   Discussion of findings

This section provides a summary of the findings for the study's research objectives which emanated from analysing the results for each of the research hypotheses. The research hypotheses that were investigated in the study were:

1. Which factors influence the categorization of reference points of Greek college students as apparel clothing shoppers for important shopping occasions?

2. Are there distinct consumer decision-making styles of Greek college students?

3. Is there a significant relationship between the consumer decision-making styles (CSI) and the consumer reference points inventory (RPI)? If so, to what extent?

The following sub-sections present a detailed discussion on the findings addressing each research hypothesis

8.1.1 Findings addressing hypothesis 1

- Which factors influence the categorization of reference points of Greek college students as apparel clothing shoppers for important shopping occasions?

8.1.1.1 Summary of findings

The use of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) revealed that the categorization of referents is based upon seven factors, which were rigorously analysed in the previous chapters. As a result of that analysis it can be argued that the conceptualization of consumer reference points supports its multifaceted nature.

As noted above, it can be concluded that the categorization of apparel clothing reference points for important shopping occasions is based upon seven mutually exclusive factors. These were operationalized under the higher order constructs of implicit and explicit referents. Regarding the category of implicit referents Greek college students reported that they tended to use the following factors underpinned in the domains of: 'personal referents', 'social referents', 'financial referents' and 'cultural referents'. As far as the category of explicit referents is concerned, Greek college students reported using the factors arising from the domains of: 'brand referents', 'store referents', and 'financial referents'.

8.1.1.2 Discussion of the null hypothesis 1

As has already been described, the following factors pertain in the evolving categorization of consumer reference points: explicit referents (brand, price, and store) and implicit referents (personal, financial, social, and cultural). These factors resulted from combining the findings from the literature review and those from the qualitative data analysis. First of all it was found from the literature that the decomposition of reference points is dependent upon a number of indicants that interact together during the consumer's decision-making process (Dholakia and Simonson, 2005). However, those findings were limited to particular attributes of referents, such as the price, the variety, and the reward referent. Therefore, in order to fill the gap in the research it was necessary to operationalize the construct of reference points direct from consumer's own perspective.

The scale items captured from the qualitative research process (i.e. focus groups) were content-analysed and resulted in a total of 58 items that underpinned 11 factors. Then a review was followed through with a panel of experts, who suggested the deletion of four items. Thus the initial categorization of reference points included 50 items that was then quantified and transformed into a survey questionnaire (N=330). On the pilot study exploratory factor analysis was used. The results yielded an 8-factor model of 23 items. Then a final survey followed, with a different student sample (N=556). The results were analysed in detail, as shown in the previous chapter, using confirmatory factor analysis, by means of LISREL.

After the data analysis process a 7-factor model with 15 variables was produced. The following categorization of reference points was identified by consumers when evaluating apparel clothes for important occasions: Explicit referents (brand, price, and store), implicit referents (personal, financial, social and cultural). Hence the construct of reference points was built on those specific sub-scales. Figure 8:1 depicts the exact number of variables Y (i.e. 1 to 15) of the model of referents.

Figure 8:1 Reflective Factor Model of Referents
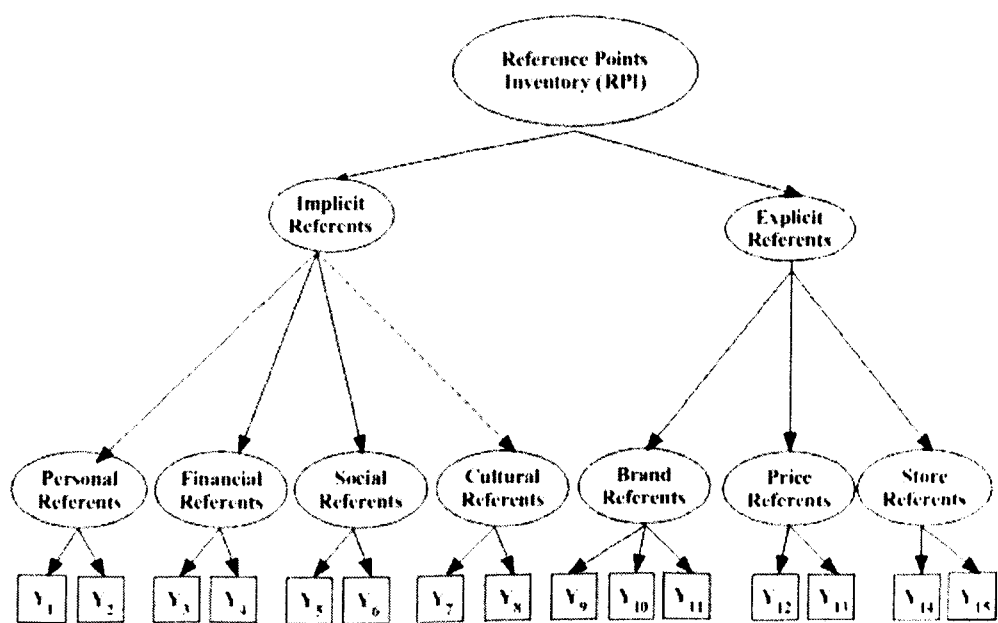
The reference points inventory showed clear levels of model adequacy. Validity and reliability issues were confirmed for its sub-scale. From the data analysis and the results it was found that when consumers select their apparel they usually seek a combination of different sources of referents. The most important explicit referents are those that arise from the brand of the clothes, the price of the product itself, and of course the store

location and the store environment. On the other hand the most important implicit referents are those that arise from the following constructs: personal, financial, social and cultural. These results offer an extension of the previous findings (Briesch et al., 1997; Dholakia and Simonson, 2005; Irmak et al., 2010) with the difference being that they were combined and conceptualized under the unique construct of consumer reference points, as previously no such scale had been found in the current literature.

Another key finding of this study is that the evolving categorization of reference points supports the multi-dimensionality of the proposed construct. This indicates that referents are very important for consumer evaluations. Furthermore, that knowledge can guide retailers to display, store, and advertise their products more efficiently. Finally with the results of the reference points inventory that was tested using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), hypothesis 1 was successfully verified, as the model provided a good fit of the data within the hypothesized 7-factor model of referents.

8.1.2   Findings addressing hypothesis 2

- Are there distinct consumer decision-making styles of Greek college students?

8.1.2.1   Summary of findings

This hypothesis was tested using the method of confirmatory factor analysis. The use of confirmatory factor analysis revealed that Greek college students' shopping orientations are characterized under the use of six factors. These are: 1. Perfectionist, high quality conscious, 2. Recreational conscious, 3. Brand conscious, 4. Novelty conscious, 5. Impulsive conscious, and 6. Confused by over-choice. Based on the findings of this study it can be concluded that Greek college students tend to self-report that they are High quality conscious, Recreational conscious, Brand conscious, Novelty conscious, Impulsive conscious, and Confused by over-choice.

8.1.2.2   Discussion of the null hypothesis 2

The 40-item 8-factor inventory of the CSI was initially tested on a pilot sample (N=330). The researcher utilized the same method as previously applied by Sproles and Kendall (1986). Principal component analysis with both orthogonal and oblique rotation was used.

The pilot study results confirmed that the 8-factor model cannot be applied in the Greek context without making additional modifications. The exploratory factor analysis results identified 6 interpretable factors that are explained in 22 variables. These are: Brand Conscious Consumer (6 items), Confused by Over-choice Consumer (4 items), Quality Conscious Consumer (3 items), Novelty Conscious Consumer (3 items), Hedonistic Conscious Consumer (3), Impulsive Conscious Consumer (3 items).

In order to further to refine the dimensionality of the CSI a second stage purification process was followed with a new student sample (N=556). This helped in examining whether the pilot study results were stable among different data sets (Roman, 2006). In doing so the researcher utilized the method of confirmatory factor analysis with Maximum Likelihood Estimation (Joreskog and Sorbom, 2006). That method helped in identifying Greek college students' decision-making characteristics. The analysis revealed that the 6-factor model demonstrated better model fit indices with 17 variables, as opposed to the 22 variables found in the pilot study. These were: Brand Conscious Consumer (3 items), Confused by Over-choice Consumer (3 items), Perfectionist/Quality Conscious Consumer (2 items), Novelty Conscious Consumer (3 items), Hedonistic Conscious Consumer (3), Impulsive Conscious Consumer (3 items). Based on the findings of the final study it can be concluded that Greek college students show the six aforementioned distinct decision-making characteristics. Figure 8:2 depicts the exact number of variables Y (i.e. 1 to 17) of the model of decision-making styles.

Figure 8:2 Reflective Factor Model of Decision-Making Styles
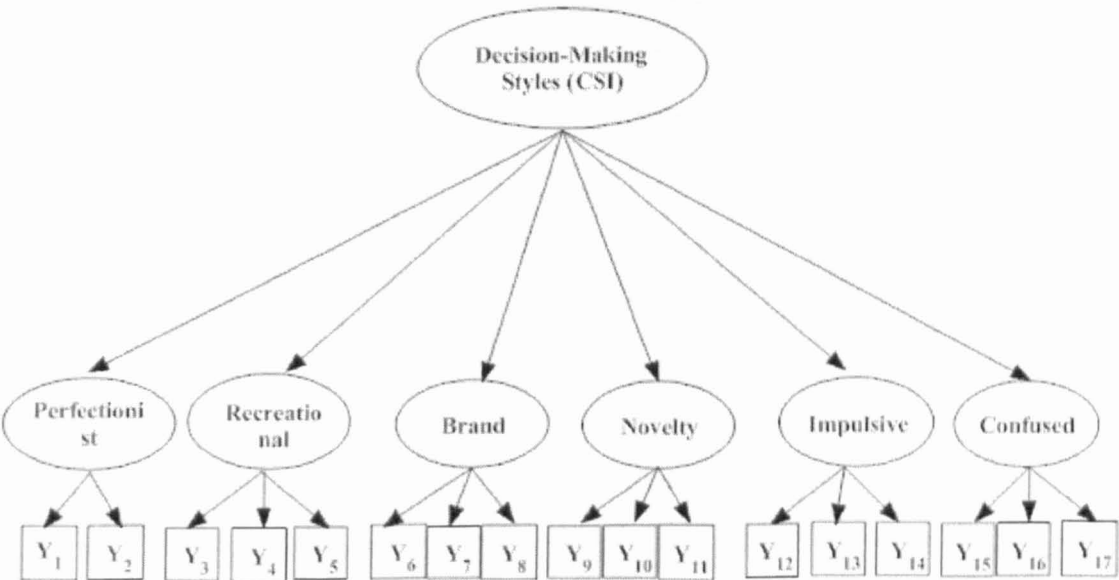
The final findings contrast with Sproles and Kendall's (1986) study that found eight consumer decision-making styles to be applicable to the US. The results also contrast with previous studies that confirmed the generalizability of the CSI instrument to other contexts. The eight dimensions of the CSI were found to be stable in South Korea (Hafstrom et al., 1992), in New Zealand (Durvasula et al., 1993), in the US (Shim and Gehrt, 1996; Shim, 1996) in the UK (Mitchell and Bates, 1998), in China (Siu et al., 2001), in Malaysia (Kamaruddin and Mokhlis, 2003), and in South Africa (Radder et al., 2006). Whereas seven dimensions of the CSI were found to be more stable in India (Lysonski et al., 1996) and in Germany (Walsh et al., 2001).

However previously in Greece there was only one study found that applied the CSI to college students (Lysonski et al., 1996). They found that seven characteristics of the CSI were applicable to Greeks. However as mentioned before, their findings resulted from a small student sample (i.e. n=70) and they purified the CSI based on findings of the exploratory factor analysis only. Therefore the results of this study differ from all the research made till now, in the sense that a stronger technical approach was implemented for the purification of the instrument.

In addition, the results of this study could be characterized as sufficiently reliable, (i.e. all of the Cronbach alphas of each sub-scale were above 0.60). Moreover most of the individual statements of Sproles and Kendall's CSI refer to clothing purchases. Those statements that didn't relate to clothing were rephrased and refined based on the work carried out by Radder et al. (2006). They modified the wording of the CSI to be more applicable to clothing purchase decisions. Some researchers in that field (Mitchell and Bates, 1998; Walsh et al., 2001; Fan and Xiao, 1998) have questioned whether the rewording of the items had an impact on the final results due to the fact that respondents could easily get confused. Thus the language of instruction used in this study was Greek and the questionnaire was developed and refined in English by a professional scholar.

8.1.3   Findings addressing hypothesis 3

- Is there a significant relationship between the consumer decision-making styles (CSI) and the consumer reference points inventory (RPI)? If so, to what degree?

8.1.3.1 Summary of findings

The use of the technique of Pearson's correlation revealed that there was a significant relationship in most of the constructs between the evolving categorization of referents and the purified inventory of the consumer decision-making styles.

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that the brand referent scores are more characteristic of the Perfectionist/High-quality conscious, Brand conscious, Novelty conscious and Confused by over-choice consumer decision-making styles. Personal referent scores are more characteristic of the Perfectionist/High-quality conscious consumer. Price referents characterize three types of consumers (i.e. Perfectionist/High-quality conscious, Brand conscious, and Confused by over-choice). Financial referents characterize Impulsive conscious consumers. Social referents characterize Novelty and Confused by over-choice consumers. Store referents characterize Perfectionist consumers. Cultural referents characterize Perfectionist, Impulsive and Confused by over-choice consumers.

8.1.3.2 Discussion of the null hypothesis 3

A closer examination of the relationship of the consumer decision-making styles scores with the different types of referent scores led to the formulation of the following conclusions. Firstly, the perfectionist conscious consumer has a positive relationship with all three categories of explicit referents (i.e. brand, price and store referents). In addition it has a positive relationship with three out of the four types of implicit referents (i.e. personal, social and cultural). This indicates that those types of consumers in their apparel clothing purchase decisions select a combination of both implicit and explicit referents. On the other hand the lack of a significant relationship with financial referents scores suggests that the students who have this dominant mindset aren't influenced by price and other economic issues.

Secondly the category of recreational conscious consumers has a positive relationship with three types of referents (i.e. personal, social, and store). On the other hand it has a negative relationship with the other three types (i.e. brand, price, financial and cultural). It can be concluded that they are influenced by only one of the three types of explicit referents. However this influence is non-significant.

Similarly they are influenced by only two out of the four types of implicit referents. The lack of a significant relationship with brand, financial and cultural referents indicates that the students who have this style of orientation enjoy buying less well-known brands which are expensive, and the effects of culture do not exert any impact on their final purchases.

Thirdly, brand conscious consumers tend to make their purchase decisions on only four out of the seven categories of referents (i.e. brand, price, social, and store). Additionally from those categories only the social referents belong to the category of implicit referents. However they had significant negative correlation with financial and personal referents. This signals that they are influenced more by reference points that arise from the perspective of the sellers, as opposed to other salient reference points (e.g. implicit referents).

Fourthly, the novelty conscious consumers have a positive relationship with five out of the seven types of referents (i.e. brand, store, price, social, and personal), whereas they have a negative relationship with the other two types (i.e. financial and cultural). People who possess that characteristic tend to use as reference points all the referents that arise from the seller's domain (explicit referents). And from the category of implicit referents they select only referents that arise from the construct of personal referents.

Fifthly, the impulsive conscious consumers have a positive relationship with six out of the seven types of referents (i.e. brand, price, financial, store, social, and cultural). Moreover they tend not to select reference points that arise from the construct of personal referents. This means that they combine different types of referents in their apparel shopping decisions.

Finally, the type of confused by over-choice consumers have a positive relationship with five out of the seven referents (brand, price, social, store and cultural). More explicitly they are strongly influenced by reference points that arise from the seller's domain. Furthermore this result indicates that they tend to avoid using implicit referents. Overall, the above analysis supports the hypothesis that there exists a relationship between consumers' decision-making styles and reference points. Moreover the analysis

of Pearson's correlation measured the strength of the relationships between the different constructs and subsequent indicators.

8.2 Recommendations for further research

The study developed a multi-attribute scale on reference points for apparel shopping in Greece (i.e. identified seven dimensions which underpin implicit and explicit referents). In future studies that scale could be replicated using a non-student sample in the context of Greece (i.e. postgraduate students and working adults who have graduated from university). Despite the fact that the reliability scores of all the factors were above the recommended threshold scores, the majority of them included only two items of each. A total of 15 items remained on the final scale. This suggests that further research would be needed in order to capture other justifiable items on each sub-scale of the referents.

This research investigated individual differences arising from the domain of cognition, by applying the Sproles and Kendall (1986) decision-making styles inventory. The results profiled Greek college students' decision-making traits onto six of the eight initial Sproles and Kendall (1986) factors. Future researchers in Greece might consider using that inventory for other product categories. Additionally they could use other established cognitive measures in order to better understand consumers (i.e. their thinking styles and personality traits).

The overall relationship between decision-making styles and the categorization of referents was analysed. The results showed that students choose to use referents according to their own personal decision-making profiles. However both inventories, i.e. consumer decision-making styles and the selected categorizations of the reference points inventory, may be changed according to the product category being examined. Therefore future scientists should be very careful when generalizing the results of this study to other product categories.

Finally, the specific methodology adopted in order to guide this research could be used as an exemplar by different scientists and researchers in their own academic contexts. Therefore various academics and scientists (e.g. behavioural economists and social

psychologists) could also use specific literature on reference points as a theoretical framework to guide and develop similar streams of research.

It can be concluded that the influence of reference points is dependent upon the usage of the product itself (Tarnanidis, Owusu-Frimpong and Marciniak, 2010). Thus further analysis would be necessary in order to build a sustainable inventory of reference points that would encapsulate in a justifiable way all the constructs that could be used. Analysing the construct of reference points from the consumer's own perspective can help achieve this aim. Future studies might, therefore, examine consumer reference points in relation to a multi-attribute level analysis (i.e. breaking down the calibration of reference points in relation to different sets of attributes) for specific products or shopping occasions.

8.3   Limitations

There are a number of limitations in this study. Firstly, only undergraduate students from three Greek universities were sampled for the study. In addition, data was collected using convenience student samples majoring in disciplines of general management (e.g. business administration, marketing, finance and economics). This leaves out all other students studying in other disciplines.

Secondly, the researcher purposely chose to collect data from public universities in Greece (i.e. in the city of Thessaloniki) because they attract students from all over the country. However there exist a significant number of students in private universities or colleges which attract students from higher social economic classes. It is likely that those students might have different shopping behaviours from those studying in public universities. Therefore additional care should be taken when generalizing the reference points inventory (RPI) and decision-making styles inventory (CSI) with students in these types of universities.

Thirdly, the participants were drawn only from one area in Greece, i.e. North Greece, the city of Thessaloniki. Since students who study in other big cities (e.g. Athens, Patra Heraklio etc.) weren't included in this study, it would probably be less effective to use the two evolving instruments within those areas without first validating the instruments with them.

The current study attempted to develop a new multi-item measurement scale for analysing the construct of reference points. Similarly it aimed to purify the existing consumer decision-making styles inventory (Sproles and Kendall, 1986) by following specific guidelines recommended by other researchers in that domain (Churchill, 1995; DeVellis, 2003; Parasuraman et al., 1988). For example the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), as the initial analysis, helped in identifying the measures of each scale, by calculating the estimates and the Cronbach alphas on each sub-scale. The use of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) served in purifying the hypothesized measures, by measuring subsequent model fit indices. Overall, the data fit well into both models. However, some initial items of the Sproles and Kendall inventory were modified (i.e. rephrased) so as to be directly targeted to clothing consumption, as it was the main area of investigation. The language of instruction was Greek and the questionnaire was developed and refined in English. Hence, all these factors might have impacted the performance of the statistical analysis results. For example many items from both instruments were removed from the statistical analysis due to poor model estimates. A possible explanation could be that some participants may have interpreted some items to be referring to other aspects than intended.

The naming of the factors of the CSI inventory was kept the same as initially proposed by Sproles and Kendall (1986). However the naming of the factors of the reference points instrument was done according to the conceptual meaning that the researcher perceived to be satisfactory in explaining the items that were grouped together (i.e. the names of each sub-scale). For example some factor names such as 'Social referents', 'Cultural referents', and 'Store referents', may be applicable to a more general context. While great care was taken by the researcher to successfully address the conceptual meaning of the names on each factor, different researchers and readers might use other terms. Hence, extra care should be taken in using those operational definitions.

8.4 Implications for marketing managers and practitioners

The investigation of the concept of reference points directly derived from the consumer's perspective has not previously been properly explored, to the knowledge of the researcher. The main contribution of this research is therefore the development of

two justifiable inventories. The one is the consumer reference points inventory, and the other is the consumer decision-making styles inventory. The assessment of the causal relation between those two models with the method of structural equation modelling (SEM) measures the influence of decision-making styles on the elaboration of consumer referents.

Based on the findings of this study the following research recommendations for marketing managers are proposed:

- The understanding of consumer-decision making styles and the elaboration of consumer reference points in the apparel clothing sector offers new insights to marketing managers and practitioners. Both inventories represent in a constructive way the apparel consumption behaviour of Greek college students.

- The characteristics of the reference points inventory can guide marketing managers to promote and advertise their products more effectively. Greek college students, in their apparel consumption behaviour for important shopping events, strongly use reference points emanating from the following domains: brand, personal, price, financial, social, store and cultural. This suggests that managers should use those types of referents in their marketing programmes.

- The purified inventory of decision-making styles revealed that six out of the eight characteristics identified by Sproles and Kendall (1986) were applicable to the studied Greek consumer group. These are: high quality conscious, recreational consciousness, brand conscious, novelty conscious, impulsive conscious, and confused by over-choice. These findings are slightly different from those reported from previous research on Greek consumer decision-making styles conducted by Lysonski et al. (1996). Lysonski et al. (1996) found that seven consumer decision-making characteristics were applicable to the context of Greece (i.e. they included the factor of habitual, brand loyal). However in their results they included that factor despite the fact that the reliability coefficient of the Cronbach alpha was below 0.50. So for Greek college students only the six decision-making traits in apparel consumption can really be confirmed. These results can provide directions for apparel retailers. For example retailers who target college students should offer them branded and high quality clothes. Retailers should also take advantage of the recreational

characteristics of Greek college students by bringing them a friendly and enjoyable shopping atmosphere. Additionally the advertisement campaigns should be simple and elegant, and concentrate on emphasizing the clothing attributes, with the main purpose of not confusing the target audience.

- The results showed that Greek students are impulsive when purchasing clothing items. This indicates that clothing price tags should be easily identifiable by the consumers, with the main purpose of motivating instant purchases. Any additional offers or discounts should explicitly apply to them, for example, using small rewards that offer instant benefits to the customer.

- Retailers should concentrate on using strong clothing brands as referents. They should portray their products inside the store in a way which helps consumers more easily make their final selections (e.g. they should avoid using huge varieties in each selling brand) as it was found that Greek students scored high on the confused by over-choice dimension.

The correlation analysis between those two models offers additional implications for marketing practitioners and can be summarized as follows:

- Perfectionist consumers in Greece choose to use more reference points that arise from the sellers' referents as opposed to other salient referents. The results revealed that these types of consumers have a significant positive correlation with brand referents, price referents, and store referents. And from the implicit category of referents, they correlated significantly with personal referents. This suggests that sellers who target their clothing products at those consumers should pay attention to promoting these types of referents.

- Recreational and brand conscious consumers, when selecting reference points for the purchase of apparel clothes, are especially influenced by price, store, brand and social referents. They shop quickly and do not give their clothing purchases much thought or care. This may possibly mean that they use instant referents from the above categories during their shopping trips. This suggests that apparel retailers should concentrate on offering different pricing strategies based on the brands of the garments they offer.

- The construct of novelty conscious consumers in Greece has a significant positive relationship with brand, price, and social referents. Therefore retailers,

who sell unique and fashionable outfits, should emphasize promotion of those types of referents.

- In contrast the construct of impulsive consumers shows a positive relation with all the types of referents. This indicates that those consumers do not have particular preferences when purchasing clothes and they seek further guidance from the sales personnel. Hence retailers should concentrate on providing these consumers with all the necessary information to help guide them in their purchases. The same referents apply to the type of confused by over-choice consumers.

On the whole, marketing managers and fashion designers may benefit from promoting in their marketing programmes these different types of referents.

8.5   Contributions of the research

A critical review of the literature on reference points for apparel clothing consumption and the literature on decision-making styles forms the basis of the first contribution of the research. The literature on reference points has been guided by the principles of prospect theory. It was found that prospect theory explains in general inequalities of human judgements about decisions (Laibson and Zeckhauser, 1998; Dholakia and Simonson, 2005). In other words the mainstream research on reference points, up to now, was made on pre-specified decision-making problems, without giving any relevance to understanding how consumers craft and use them in more realistic shopping situations (e.g. consumption purchases). So the area of apparel clothing consumption decisions for important shopping events was selected to fill that gap in the research by developing a valid measurement scale that emanated directly from the consumer.

It was found that consumers use multiple sources of referents and that each type of consumer evaluates products differently. Thus in order to capture the discrepancies that arise from individual differences, decision-making styles were selected to guide that research, as they categorize consumer behaviour during their consumption decision-making process.

The second contribution of the research is methodological. As was discussed earlier, so far research on reference points has been made under the strict principles of prospect theory. However this research differs significantly from the origins of prospect theory, in that the examination of reference points emanates directly from the consumers' minds on more realistic decision-making tasks.

This research adopted an integrated methodological approach which helped in conceptualizing the construct of consumers' reference points, by building a scale that was tested with empirical data in the apparel clothing context. Thus it can be argued that the calibration of consumer referents was made by engaging a multi-attribute level analysis.

Thirdly, the research methodology developed was a mixture of qualitative and quantitative techniques. The qualitative technique used in this study served to identify the important factors that incorporated the evolving categorization of reference points. The use of quantitative techniques helped in quantifying the results of the previous analysis, by developing a justifiable model that was successfully tested on a sample of male and female consumers in the context of Greece.

One additional contribution of the methodology employed was the identification of decision-making styles of Greek college students, by making specific inferences through measuring the relationships between those two models. The results formulated two models: a 7-factor model of the consumer reference points inventory and a 6-factor model of consumers' decision-making styles. To conclude, the findings from this research offer new insights to marketing managers and practitioners in analysing consumers' apparel consumption decision-making patterns.

8.6   Conclusion

This research aimed to conceptualize the construct of reference points derived directly from the consumer's own perspective by developing a valid measurement scale which could measure the use of apparel clothing reference points for important shopping events. The results produced a model made up of seven dimensions that underlined the

highest first order constructs of implicit and explicit referents. The seven dimensions are: Explicit referents (Brand, Price and Store), Implicit referents (Personal, Financial, Social and Cultural).

The conceptualization of the decision-making styles inventory (CSI) helped in further analysing the utilization of consumers' reference points from their salient cognitive perspective. The results contributed to the identification of Greek college students' decision-making styles. The final model of the CSI produced six highly correlated dimensions: 1. Perfectionist, high quality conscious, 2. Recreational conscious, 3. Brand conscious, 4. Novelty conscious, 5. Impulsive conscious, and 6. Confused by over-choice.

Overall, the correlation analysis that was done between those two evolving models (i.e. the reference points inventory and the decision-making styles inventory) contributed to analysing the relationships between the dimensions of each sub-scale. The Pearson's correlation (Field, 2005) technique helped in analysing the effects of the six decision-making traits on the selected categorization of reference points (i.e. the seven categories of referents) and the findings of that analysis were made by measuring the significance level between the subscales.

8.7   References

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PUBLICATIONS

As a result of this thesis the following papers have been published:

1. Tarnanidis, T., Owusu-Frimpong, N., and Ruth Marciniak (2010) *Consumer Choice: Between Explicit and Implicit Reference Points,* Journal of the Marketing Review, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 269-286: Westburn Publishers Ltd: Scotland.

2. Tarnanidis, T., Owusu-Frimpong, N., and Marciniak R. (2010) *Consumer Choice of Reference Points: A Hierarchical Categorization,* European Academy of Marketing Conference, Copenhagen University Business School, 1-4 June 2010, Copenhagen.

3. Tarnanidis, T., and Owusu-Frimpong, N., and Marciniak R. (2010) *An exploratory study on the selection of apparel clothing reference points for important shopping occasions,* Academy of Marketing Conference, Coventry University Business School, 6-8 July 2010, Coventry.

4. Tarnanidis, T., and Owusu-Frimpong, N., and Marciniak R. (2010) *Consumer Choice: Apparel Clothing Reference Points,* Annual International Conference on Small and Medium Sized Enterprises: Management-Marketing-Economic and Social Aspects, Athens Institute for Education and Research (ATINER), 2-5 August 2010, Athens.

5. Tarnanidis, T., and Owusu-Frimpong, N. (2009) *The World of Reference Points: Consumer Buying Decision Process,* Academy of Marketing Conference, Leeds Metropolitan University, 6-9 July 2009, Leeds.

6. Tarnanidis, T. (2009) *An Exploratory Study on the Selection of Apparel Clothing Reference Points for Important Shopping Occasions and an Investigation of Decision-Making Styles of Greek College Students,* Annual Research Conference, 1-2 July 2009, London Metropolitan University, London.

7. Tarnanidis, T. (2008) *Consumer Choice of Reference Points: Personality styles, Thinking styles, Decision Making styles,* University of Manchester, Manchester Business School, Annual Doctoral Conference, Manchester.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Data Collection Approval of TEI

Data collection approval from Technological Educational Institution of Thessaloniki

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HELLENIK REPUBLIK

GREEK MINISTRY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION AND RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS

ALEXANDREIO
TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION (A.T.E.I.)
of T H E S S A L O N I K I

MANAGEMENT AND ECONOMICS SCHOOL

Thessaloniki 09/06/2009
Reference Number: MF/15/1287

DEPART. OF TRADE & ADVERT. (MARKETING)

Address   : C.P. 57400, Sindos, Thessaloniki
              P.O.Box 141

Information   :   Mrs Katerina Kosmidou
Telephone Center: 2310.791.111
Telephone: 2310.791.563
Fax: 2310.791.563

CERTIFICATION

We certify that after the application of Mr. TARNANIDIS THEODOROS with reference number MF15/1085/28-4-09, the Board of our department with the decision number 6/6-5-09 approved the collection of data from the students of our department for his PhD thesis at the University of London Metropolitan, Department Marketing and Communications, with the title «An Exploratory Study on the Selection of Reference Points for Apparel Consumption. An Investigation of Decision Making Styles of Greek Apparel Shoppers»

The Head of the School
Signature
Professor Dimitrios Karapistolis

Appendix B: English Version Focus Group Discussions

B1. Consent Form

I am a research student at the London Metropolitan Business School. My thesis is on the selection of apparel clothing reference points for important shopping occasions and an investigation of decision-making styles of Greek college students. This study will collect data from college students, whose major is in Business Administration and Marketing and study at the Technological Education Institution in Thessaloniki.

The focus group session will last a maximum of one-and-a-half hours. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. The answers that you give will remain confidential and you will not be individually identified in any analysis of the results of this questionnaire. All information you provide will be anonymous and will be used for research purposes only. If you have no objections, tape recording will be used during the discussions, only for the purposes of analysing the data.

Despite the fact that there may be no direct benefit to you, your participation in focus group discussions will expand our knowledge by categorizing consumer reference points for apparel clothing shopping occasions. If you have any questions concerning the purpose of this research study or any other questions about the subject's validity and ethical issues you can discuss them directly with me.

Sincerely,

Theodoros Tamanidis

B2. Qualitative Questionnaire

Guidelines:

The main purpose of this research is to categorize consumers' apparel clothing reference points for important shopping occasions (i.e. weddings, social parties, anniversaries, celebrations and work). A reference point is an indicator or neutral point of comparison that orients consumers to form their choices. This indicator originates from two sources. The first one comes from the marketing programme of a seller, and can be named as an "explicit reference point". The second one comes from your perspective as consumers, and can be named as an "implicit reference point". Therefore this session aims to identify the possible indicants that act as reference points, by trying to categorize them in a meaningful and constructive way.

Opening:

Q1: So in order for everybody to become familiar with each other, I would like you to tell me your name, which year of study you are in, where you come from, and where you currently live while you are studying.

Introductions:
Q2: Think back to the last time you purchased a clothing item for an important shopping event or occasion. What was the occasion and what clothing item did you buy?

Key Discussions:

Q3: For that important shopping occasion that you answered on question two please consider answering the following sub-questions:

$Q_{3,1}$: What criteria or attachments did you consider as important when evaluating the clothing item that you bought?

$Q_{3,2}$: What benefits did you expect to satisfy through the purchase of an apparel clothing item for that important shopping occasion that you had?

$Q_{3,3}$: What kind of rewards did you anticipate when purchasing clothing items for that specified event?

$Q_{3,4}$: How did you evaluate the rewards or the different offers of the product?

$Q_{3,5}$. What kind of comparisons did you make in order to structure your final preferences?

$Q_{3,8}$: Did the level of assortment (i.e. large versus small variety) have an impact on distinguishing your ideal choice among alternatives?

$Q_{3,9}$. What sources of information did you use in order to make your final selections, in that respect?

$Q_{3,10}$. What personal goals did you have in your apparel purchases?

$Q_{3,11}$. How did your emotional conditions (i.e. moods) affect your selections?

$Q_{3,12}$. What aesthetics were you trying to satisfy?

$Q_{3,13}$: Did you sacrifice enough of your time to structure your preferences?

$Q_{3,14}$. How did social referents (i.e. family, friends, colleagues, etc) influence you?

$Q_{3,15}$. How did cultural referents (i.e. norms, values) influence you?

$Q_{3,16}$. What economic referents do you usually have?

Closing:

Q_4. Finally, is there anything else that acts as an important source of potential reference points or referents that we haven't discussed?

....

....

....

<u>Thank you for your participation</u>

Appendix C: Greek Version Focus Group Discussions

C1. Consent form

Συναίνεση Κατόπιν Ενημέρωσης
(Informed Consent Form)

Είμαι διδακτορικός φοιτητής στο πανεπιστήμιο του London Metropolitan, που εδρεύει στο Λονδίνο της Αγγλίας. Το θέμα της έρευνας μου είναι ο καθορισμός των ενδυματολογικών σημείων αναφοράς των Ελλήνων φοιτητών ως καταναλωτές όταν πρόκειται για ιδιαίτερες περιστάσεις, καθώς και ανάλυση του τρόπου με τον οποίο λαμβάνουν αποφάσεις. Η ερευνόμενη μονάδα πληθυσμού είναι οι Έλληνες φοιτητές, οι οποίοι σπουδάζουν στο τμήμα μάρκετινγκ του Αλεξάνδρειου Τεχνολογικού Εκπαιδευτικού Ιδρύματος της Θεσσαλονίκης, ηλικίας 18-25 ετών.

Η συζήτηση των ομάδων εστίασης θα έχει μέγιστη διάρκεια μία ώρα. Η συμμετοχή σας στην παρούσα έρευνα είναι εθελοντική, και μπορείτε να αποχωρήσετε οποιαδήποτε στιγμή κατά την διάρκεια των συζητήσεων. Οι απαντήσεις οι οποίες θα δώσετε, θα παραμείνουν εμπιστευτικές, και θα τηρηθεί απόλυτη εχεμύθεια. Όλες οι πληροφορίες που θα δώσετε θα είναι ανώνυμες, και θα χρησιμοποιηθούν μόνο για την έρευνα αύτη. Αν δεν έχετε αντίρρηση, η συζήτηση θα καταγραφεί μαγνητικά, μόνο για λόγους ανάλυσης των δεδομένων.

Παρόλο που άμεσα δεν θα αποκομίσετε κάποιο πλεονέκτημα, η συμμετοχή σας, στις ομαδικές συζητήσεις, θα συνεισφέρει στο να προαχθεί η επιστήμη του Μάρκετινγκ, και ποιο συγκεκριμένα στην ανάλυση της συμπεριφοράς των Ελλήνων καταναλωτών. Τελειώνοντας, μπορείτε να απευθυνθείτε σε εμένα για περαιτέρω διευκρινήσεις για τους στόχους της παρούσας έρευνας καθώς και για την τήρηση του κώδικα ηθικής δεοντολογίας.

Με εκτίμηση,

Ταρνανίδης Θεόδωρος

C2. Qualitative questionnaire

ΠΟΙΟΤΙΚΗ ΕΡΕΥΝΑ: ΟΜΑΔΕΣ ΣΥΖΗΤΗΣΕΩΝ (Focus Groups)

ΟΔΗΓΙΕΣ: Σημείο αναφοράς είναι ένας ουδέτερος συγκριτικός δείκτης, ο οποίος κατευθύνει τις αγοραστικές συνήθειες των καταναλωτών. Αυτός ο καταναλωτικός συγκριτικός δείκτης πηγάζει από δύο πηγές. Η πρωτή πηγή προέρχεται από την πλευρά των πωλητών και αφορά το σύνολο του προγράμματος του μίγματος μάρκετινγκ και ονομάζεται δείκτης 'εμφανούς σημείου αναφοράς'. Η δεύτερη πηγή προέχεται από την πλευρά των καταναλωτών και ονομάζεται δείκτης 'μη εμφανούς σημείου αναφοράς'.

Ο κύριος στόχος της παρούσας έρευνας είναι ο καθορισμός των ενδυματολογικών σημείων αναφοράς των καταναλωτών όταν πρόκειται για ιδιαίτερες περιστάσεις, όπως αρραβώνες, κοινωνικές εκδηλώσεις, επετείους, γιορτές και εργασία.

Ενότητα Πρώτη: Έναρξη

Προσωπικές συστάσεις (π.χ. Όνομα, έτος σπουδών, τόπος καταγωγής, και τόπος διαμονής)

Ενότητα Δεύτερη: Εισαγωγή

Θυμηθείτε την τελευταία φορά που αγοράσατε ένα προϊόν ένδυσης για μία ιδιαίτερη περίσταση (π.χ.σημαντικό γεγονός).

- Τί είδους περίσταση ήταν;..

Και

- Τι ένδυμα αγοράσατε;..

Ενότητα Τρίτη: Συζήτηση

Με ποια κριτήρια αξιολογήσατε το προϊον το οποίο αγοράσατε;
Πώς τα αξιολογήσατε τα κριτήρια αυτά;
Τί πλεονεκτήματα θέλατε να αποκομίζατε από την αγορά σας αυτή;

Από τί είδους κατάστημα προτιμήσατε να κάνετε την αγορά σας αυτή και γιατί; (π.χ. συνοικιακό, κεντρικό, πολύκάταστημα, κτλ) και γιατί;

Τί είδους προσφορές σας ενδιέφεραν και πώς τις αξιολογήσατε; (π.χ. εκπτώσεις, μέλος, κουπόνια, δώρα, άλλα κίνητρα κτλ)

Σε τί είδους συγκρίσεις προβήκατε προκειμένου να σχηματίσετε την τελική σας προτίμηση;

Ποιες ήταν οι πηγές πληροφόρησης για την προτίμηση σας αυτή;

Ποιους προσωπικούς στόχους θέλατε να εκπληρώνατε από την αγορά σας αυτή;

Πόσο χρόνο αφιερώσατε προκειμένου να κάνετε την αγορά σας αυτή;

Με ποιον τρόπο σας επηρεάσαν τα σημεία αναφοράς τα οποία πηγάζουν από το κοινωνικό σας περιβάλλον (όπως οικογενεία, φίλοι, συνάδελφοι);

Με ποιον τρόπο σας επηρεάσαν τα σημεία αναφοράς τα οποία πηγάζουν από την νοοτροπία του καθενός (κουλτούρα, αξίες, κανόνες συμπεριφοράς, θρησκεία, προλήψεις και προκαταλήψεις);

Τί οικονομικά σημεία αναφοράς είχατε;

Ενότητα Τέταρτη: Κλείσιμο

Τελειώνοντας, πιστεύετε ότι υπάρχει κάποια άλλη πηγή, εμφανούς ή μη εμφανούς σημείου αναφοράς και το οποίο δεν το έχουμε συζητήσει;

....
....
....
....

Σας ευχαριστώ για την συμμετοχή σας

Appendix D: English Version Quantitative Questionnaire

D1. Consent Form

I am a research student at the London Metropolitan Business School. My thesis is on the selection of apparel clothing reference points for important shopping occasions and an investigation of decision-making styles of Greek college students. This study will collect data from college students, who are all majoring in Business Administration and Marketing and who study at the Technological Education Institution in Thessaloniki.

Your participation involves filling out the paper questionnaire that is divided into three parts. It will take you approximately 10-15 minutes to complete the survey. Part one includes, questions about different shopping orientations consumers exhibit during their purchases. Part two includes questions about the use of selected reference points for apparel clothing purchases in important shopping occasions. Lastly, Part three includes questions about demographic variables.

Your participation is this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. The answers that you give will remain confidential and you will not be individually identified in any analysis of the results of this questionnaire. All information you provide will be anonymous and will be used for research purposes only.

Despite the fact that there may be no direct benefit to you, your participation in this survey will expand our knowledge by profiling Greek college students' shopping orientations and by categorizing consumer reference points for apparel for important clothing shopping occasions. If you have any questions concerning the purposes of this research study or any other questions about the subject's validity and ethical issues you can discuss them directly with me.

Sincerely,

Theodoros Tarnanidis

D2. Questionnaire

Part one: Decision-Making Styles

Instructions: This Consumer Decision-Making Styles Inventory contains statements on different shopping orientations some consumers have. Please read each statement and circle the box next to the response indicating how much you agree or disagree with the statement as a description of you. Agreement response choices follow the format of the five-point Likert scale. You should only check one box per statement. There are a total of 40 statements.

	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	In Between	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Getting very good quality is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5
2	When it comes to purchasing clothing, I try to get the very best or perfect choice	1	2	3	4	5
3	In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality	1	2	3	4	5
4	I make special effort to choose the very best quality clothes	1	2	3	4	5
5	I really do not give my clothing purchases much thought or care	1	2	3	4	5
6	My standards and expectations for products I buy are very high	1	2	3	4	5
7	I shop quickly, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough	1	2	3	4	5
8	A product does not have to be perfect, or the best, to satisfy me	1	2	3	4	5
9	I prefer buying well-known national brands	1	2	3	4	5
10	The most expensive brands are usually my choice	1	2	3	4	5
11	The higher the price of the product, the better its quality	1	2	3	4	5
12	Nice department and speciality stores offer me the best products	1	2	3	4	5
13	I prefer buying the best-selling brands	1	2	3	4	5
14	The most advertised brands are usually very good choices	1	2	3	4	5
15	I usually have one or more outfits of the very latest style	1	2	3	4	5
16	I keep my wardrobe up to date with the changing fashions	1	2	3	4	5
17	Fashionable, attractive styling is	1	2	3	4	5

	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	In Between	Agree	Strongly Agree
	very important to me					
18	To get a variety I shop at different stores	1	2	3	4	5
19	It is fun to buy something new and exciting	1	2	3	4	5
20	Shopping is not a pleasant activity for me	1	2	3	4	5
21	Going shopping is one of the enjoyable activities of my life	1	2	3	4	5
22	Shopping at different stores wastes my time	1	2	3	4	5
23	I enjoy shopping just for the fun of it	1	2	3	4	5
24	I make my shopping trips fast	1	2	3	4	5
25	I buy as much of my clothing as possible at sales prices	1	2	3	4	5
26	I usually choose lower priced products	1	2	3	4	5
27	I look carefully to find the best value-for-money	1	2	3	4	5
28	I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do	1	2	3	4	5
29	I am impulsive when purchasing clothing	1	2	3	4	5
30	Often I make careless purchases I later wish I had not	1	2	3	4	5
31	I take time to shop carefully for the best buys	1	2	3	4	5
32	I carefully watch how much I spend on clothing	1	2	3	4	5
33	There are so many brands to choose from that often I feel confused	1	2	3	4	5
34	Sometimes it is hard to choose which stores to shop in	1	2	3	4	5
35	The more I learn about clothing products, the harder it seems to choose the best	1	2	3	4	5
36	All the information I get on different products confuses me	1	2	3	4	5
37	I have favourite brands I buy over and over	1	2	3	4	5
38	Once I find a brand I like, I stick with it	1	2	3	4	5
39	I go to the same store each time I shop for clothing	1	2	3	4	5
40	I regularly change clothing brands	1	2	3	4	5

Part Two: Selected categorization of reference points

Instructions: This Reference Points Inventory contains statements about the use of selected reference points for apparel clothing purchase decisions. Please read each statement and circle the box next to the response indicating how much you agree or disagree with the statement as a description of your purchase decisions for important shopping occasions. Agreement response choices follow the format of the five-point Likert scale. The range is from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. You should only check one box per statement. There are a total of 54 statements.

	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	In Between	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I selected an outfit which was simple and elegant	1	2	3	4	5
	I selected an outfit which offered to me high durability and easy of care					
2	The fabric of the cloth that I liked felt soft against my skin	1	2	3	4	5
3	I bought high-fashion designer apparel	1	2	3	4	5
4	I selected clothes that were always in fashion	1	2	3	4	5
5	I selected clothes that are made from good or higher quality textiles	1	2	3	4	5
6	I evaluated product attributes according to the information that I have acquired from my previous experiences	1	2	3	4	5
7	I evaluated product attributes based on the brand	1	2	3	4	5
8	If the clothe that I liked comes from a strong brand retailer then I am 100% that it will have a good quality	1	2	3	4	5
9	Strong brands will minimize the risk of making an unworthy purchase	1	2	3	4	5
10	I extensively made comparisons with alternative brands	1	2	3	4	5
11	I evaluated clothes according to the price sold	1	2	3	4	5
12	Fair-priced clothes were driven my final choices	1	2	3	4	5
13	I compared prices of all other brands by randomly selecting a brand available on	1	2	3	4	5

	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	In Between	Agree	Strongly Agree
	the current purchase					
14	I formed my price judgements based on the current price of my reference brand	1	2	3	4	5
15	I compared the price of the clothe that I bought based on the price that I have paid on my previous purchases	1	2	3	4	5
16	I compared prices according to the frequency of purchasing each brand	1	2	3	4	5
17	I preferred certain rewards	1	2	3	4	5
18	I preferred small rewards	1	2	3	4	5
19	I evaluated rewards according to the level of contingent efforts on acquiring the clothe that I bought	1	2	3	4	5
20	Because I had articulated preferences discounted clothes didn't exert any impact on my final choices	1	2	3	4	5
21	I didn't select to buy apparel clothes that were common and everybody can wear it	1	2	3	4	5
22	Because I had articulated preferences I distinguished my ideal choice among alternatives more easily	1	2	3	4	5
23	I was compromised with less strong preferences when I got exposed to small assortments	1	2	3	4	5
24	I preferred to do my shopping's from familiar well branded apparel stores	1	2	3	4	5
25	I went to stores that I have used in the past	1	2	3	4	5
26	I evaluated product attributes according to the information presented on the store	1	2	3	4	5
27	I preferred to visit stores that had friendly environment	1	2	3	4	5
28	I preferred to visit stores that had friendly personnel, who were willing to help me structure my preferences	1	2	3	4	5
29	I borrowed reference points from the sales personnel	1	2	3	4	5
30	Positive information on product tags made me focus on positive characteristics	1	2	3	4	5
31	I bought an outfit which was vigorously advertised by image makers	1	2	3	4	5
32	I borrowed reference points from fashion magazines regarding the clothes that I liked	1	2	3	4	5
33	I bought clothes that fitted well on me	1	2	3	4	5
34	I bought clothes that had more aesthetics	1	2	3	4	5
35	The outfit of the clothe that I liked,	1	2	3	4	5

	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	In Between	Agree	Strongly Agree
	fitted well on me and provided me comfort					
36	I evaluated the clothe I bought based on my previous purchases	1	2	3	4	5
37	My previous purchases drove my shopping motives and likes	1	2	3	4	5
38	The season on which we were running affected the selection of my final purchases	1	2	3	4	5
39	The outfit of the clothe fitted my personal tastes	1	2	3	4	5
40	I selected clothes that fit well on my personal appearance and lift my image up	1	2	3	4	5
41	I compared the clothe that I bought will less favorable brands	1	2	3	4	5
42	I selected an outfit according to the price that I would like to pay	1	2	3	4	5
43	I had as reference point my own available budget	1	2	3	4	5
44	I selected buying clothes that had better credit terms	1	2	3	4	5
45	I evaluated products with the help of my friends	1	2	3	4	5
46	I borrowed reference points from my close friends	1	2	3	4	5
47	I borrowed reference points from celebrities	1	2	3	4	5
48	I bought clothes that satisfied the people around me	1	2	3	4	5
49	With the clothe that I bought I was easily accepted by others	1	2	3	4	5
50	I preferred to go shopping with my friends	1	2	3	4	5

Part Three: Socio-Economic characteristics

Please mark with an X the answer that best describes your situation.

SEX	
Male	Female

AGE			
17-20	21-24	25-28	Over 28

MARITAL STATUS		
Single	Married	Divorced

EDUCATION			
Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior

MODE OF ATTENDANCE	
Full-time	Part-time

OCCUPATION		
Full-time employee	Part-time employee	Unemployed

Have you left any question unanswered?

Thank you very much for your participation!

Appendix E: Greek Version of Quantitative Questionnaire

E1. Consent Form and Quantitative Questionnaire

Το θέμα της παρούσας έρευνας είναι ο προσδιορισμός των ενδυματολογικών σημείων αναφοράς των Ελλήνων φοιτητών ως καταναλωτές όταν πρόκειται για ιδιαίτερες περιστάσεις καθώς και η ανάλυση του τρόπου με τον οποίο λαμβάνουν αποφάσεις.

Ο μέγιστος χρόνος που απαιτείται για την συμπλήρωση του ερωτηματολογίου είναι 10-15 λεπτά. Όλες οι πληροφορίες που θα δώσετε θα είναι ανώνυμες, και θα χρησιμοποιηθούν μόνο για την έρευνα αυτή.Οι απαντήσεις οι οποίες θα δώσετε, θα παραμείνουν εμπιστευτικές, και θα τηρηθεί απόλυτη εχεμύθεια.

Η συμμετοχή σας θα συνεισφέρει στο να προαχθεί η επιστήμη του Μάρκετινγκ, και στην ανάλυση της συμπεριφοράς των Ελλήνων καταναλωτών. Μπορείτε να απευθυνθείτε σε εμένα για περαιτέρω διευκρινήσεις όσον αφορα τους στόχους της παρούσας έρευνας καθώς και για την τήρηση του κώδικα ηθικής δεοντολογίας.

Με εκτίμηση,

Η ερευνητική ομάδα

ΑΡΙΘΜΟΣ ΕΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΟΛΟΓΙΟΥ | | | | | |

SPSS CODE (Πανεπιστημιακή χρήση μόνο

ΕΝΟΤΗΤΑ ΠΡΩΤΗ: ΚΑΤΑΛΟΓΟΣ ΚΑΤΑΝΑΛΩΤΙΚΟΥ ΠΡΟΦΙΛ

Οδηγίες: Ο κατάλογος καταναλωτικού προφίλ περιλαμβάνει ερωτήσεις-προτάσεις που εξετάζουν τον τρόπο με τον οποίο λαμβάνουν αποφάσεις οι καταναλωτές όσον αφορά τα προϊόντα ρουχισμού. Παρακαλούμε να διαβάσετε προσεκτικά την κάθε ερώτηση-πρόταση και να εκφράσετε τον βαθμό συμφωνίας ή διαφωνίας σας, κυκλώνοντας το νούμερο που αντιστοιχεί στην απάντηση σας

	Προτάσεις	Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	Διαφωνώ	Ούτε διαφωνώ/ Ούτε συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα	SPSS CODE
1	Η απόκτηση καλής ποιότητας είναι πολύ σημαντικό για εμένα	1	2	3	4	5	DP1
2	Όταν πρόκειται να αγοράσω ρούχα προσπαθώ να αγοράσω τα καλύτερα ή να κάνω την τέλεια αγορά	1	2	3	4	5	DP2
3	Συνήθως προσπαθώ να αγοράσω ρούχα με την καλύτερη δυνατή ποιότητα	1	2	3	4	5	DP3
4	Προσπαθώ, ειδικά να επιλέξω τα καλύτερα ποιοτικά ρούχα	1	2	3	4	5	DP4
5	Στην πραγματικότητα δεν δίνω στις αγορές ρουχισμού πολύ σκέψη και προσοχή	1	2	3	4	5	DP5
6	Τα στάνταρντς και οι προσδοκίες μου για προϊόντα ρούχων είναι υψηλά	1	2	3	4	5	DP6
7	Ψωνίζω γρήγορα, αγοράζοντας το πρώτο προϊόν ή την πρώτη μάρκα που φαίνεται καλή	1	2	3	4	5	DP7
8	Δεν πρέπει απαραίτητως να επιλέξω το τέλειο ή το καλύτερο προϊόν για να ικανοποιηθώ	1	2	3	4	5	DP8
9	Προτιμώ να αγόραζω μάρκες επωνύμων προϊόντων	1	2	3	4	5	DB9
10	Οι πιο ακριβές μάρκες είναι συνήθως οι επιλογές μου	1	2	3	4	5	DB10
11	Όσο πιο ακριβό είναι το προϊόν τόσο πιο καλή ποιότητα έχει	1	2	3	4	5	DB11
12	Τα καλύτερα προϊόντα τα βρίσκω σε εξειδικευμένα καταστήματα ενδυμασίας	1	2	3	4	5	DB12
13	Προτιμώ να αγοράζω τις καλύτερες μάρκες της αγοράς	1	2	3	4	5	DB13
14	Οι περισσότερο διαφημιζόμενες μάρκες είναι συνήθως οι καλύτερες επιλογές	1	2	3	4	5	DB14
15	Συνήθως έχω ένα ή δύο ρούχα τα οποία αποτελούν την τελευταία λέξη της μόδας	1	2	3	4	5	DN15
16	Ανανεώνω την γκαρνταρόμπα με την τελευταία λέξη της μόδας	1	2	3	4	5	DN16
17	Είναι πολύ σημαντικό για εμένα να ακολουθώ τη μόδα και να επιλέγω ωραία ρούχα	1	2	3	4	5	DN17
18	Ψωνίζω από διάφορα καταστήματα για να έχω ποικιλία στις αγορές μου	1	2	3	4	5	DN18
19	Είναι διασκεδαστικό να αγοράσεις κάτι καινούριο και ενδιαφέρον	1	2	3	4	5	DN19
20	Το να ψωνίζω δεν είναι μια ευχάριστη δραστηριότητα για εμένα	1	2	3	4	5	DR20
21	Το να ψωνίζω είναι η πιο ευχάριστη δραστηριότητα της ζωής μου	1	2	3	4	5	DR21
22	Όταν κάνω τις αγορές μου από διαφορετικά καταστήματα χάνω τον χρόνο μου	1	2	3	4	5	DR22
23	Ευχαριστιέμαι να ψωνίζω, επειδή έχει πλάκα	1	2	3	4	5	DR23

Προτάσεις	Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	Διαφωνώ	Ούτε διαφωνώ/ Ούτε συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα	SPSS CODE
24	Η διαδικασία των αγορών μου είναι γρήγορη	1	2	3	4	5	DR24
25	Αγοράζω όσα πιο πολλά ρούχα μπορώ σε περίοδο εκπτώσεων	1	2	3	4	5	DV25
26	Συνήθως επιλέγω χαμηλής τιμής προϊόντα	1	2	3	4	5	DV26
27	Κοιτάζω προσεκτικά να βρώ προϊόντα, των οποίων η αξία ισοδυναμεί με την αξία των χρημάτων που δίνω	1	2	3	4	5	DV27
28	Θα έπρεπε να σχεδιάζω τις αγορές μου πιο προσεκτικά από ότι κάνω συνήθως	1	2	3	4	5	DI28
29	Είμαι αυθόρμητος όταν ψωνίζω ρούχα	1	2	3	4	5	DI29
30	Συνήθως κάνω απρόσεκτες αγορές, τις οποίες μετά εύχομαι να μην είχα κάνει	1	2	3	4	5	DI30
31	Αφιερώνω χρόνο, έτσι ώστε να ψωνίσω προσεκτικά με στόχο τις καλύτερες δυνατές αγορές	1	2	3	4	5	DI31
32	Παραλουθώ προσεκτικά πόσα χρήματα ξόδεψα για τις αγορές των ρούχων μου	1	2	3	4	5	DI32
33	Υπάρχουν τόσες πολλές μάρκες που μπορώ να επιλέξω στην αγορά με αποτέλεσμα να μπερδεύομαι	1	2	3	4	5	DC33
34	Μερικές φορές είναι πολύ δύσκολο να επιλέξω τα καταστήματα από όπου θα κάνω τις αγορές μου	1	2	3	4	5	DC34
35	Όσο πιο πολλά μαθαίνω για τα προϊόντα ρουχισμού, τόσο πιο δύσκολο είναι να διαλέξω το καλύτερο	1	2	3	4	5	DC35
36	Με μπερδεύουν όλες οι πληροφορίες, οι οποίες αποκτώ για διάφορα προϊόντα	1	2	3	4	5	DC36
37	Έχω αγαπημένες μάρκες, τις οποίες αγοράζω συνέχεια	1	2	3	4	5	DH37
38	Μόλις βρώ μία μάρκα, η οποία μου αρέσει, μετά την αγοράζω συνέχεια	1	2	3	4	5	DH38
39	Πηγαίνω στα ίδια καταστήματα κάθε φορά που αγοράζω ρούχα	1	2	3	4	5	DH39
40	Συνήθως αλλάζω τις μάρκες των ρούχων μου	1	2	3	4	5	DH40

ΕΝΟΤΗΤΑ ΔΕΥΤΕΡΗ: Ενδυματολογικές αγορές για ιδιαίτερες περιστάσεις

Οδηγίες: Θυμηθείτε την τελευταία φορά που αγοράσατε ένα προϊόν ένδυσης για μία ιδιαίτερη περίσταση (π.χ.σημαντικό γεγονός).

Ερώτηση Α: Τί είδους περίσταση ήταν; (Χ μόνο ένα)

Ιδιαίτερες Περιστάσεις/ Σημαντικα Γεγονότα	Απάντηση	SPSS CODE
1	Γάμος		IE
2	Αρραβώνας		
3	Βαπτίσια		
4	Κοινωνική εκδήλωση		
5	Συνέδριο		
6	Τελετή ορκωμοσίας		
7	Εργασία		
8	Κάποιο άλλο και ποιό;		

Ερώτηση Β: Τι ένδυμα αγοράσατε; (Χ μέχρι 3)

Προϊόντα Ένδυσης	Απάντηση	SPSS CODE
1	Κοστούμι		CI
2	Φόρεμα		CI
3	Παλτό		CI
4	Σακάκι		
5	Παντελόνι		
6	Πουκάμισο		
7	Μπλούζα		
8	Γιλέκο		
9	Κασκόλ		
10	Κάποιο άλλο και ποιό;		

ΕΝΟΤΗΤΑ ΔΕΥΤΕΡΗ: ΚΑΤΑΛΟΓΟΣ ΣΗΜΕΙΩΝ ΑΝΑΦΟΡΑΣ

Οδηγίες: Ο κατάλογος σημείων αναφοράς είναι ανεξάρτητος από τον κατάλογο καταναλωτικού προφίλ που απαντήσατε στην πρώτη ενότητα και περιλαμβάνει ερωτήσεις-προτάσεις που εξετάζουν τα ενδυματολογικά σημεία αναφοράς για την ιδιαίτερη περίσταση, στην οποία συμμετείχατε όπως απαντήσατε παραπάνω. Παρακαλούμε να διαβάσετε προσεκτικά την κάθε ερώτηση-πρόταση και να εκφράσετε τον βαθμό συμφωνίας ή διαφωνίας σας, κυκλώνοντας το νούμερο που αντιστοιχεί στην απάντηση σας.

Προτάσεις	Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	Διαφωνώ	Ούτε διαφωνώ/ Ούτε συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα	SPSS CODE
1 Επέλεξα κομψά και απλά ρούχα	1	2	3	4	5	RA1

Προτάσεις	Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	Διαφωνώ	Ούτε διαφωνώ/ Ούτε συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα	SPSS CODE
2 Επέλεξα ρούχα ανθεκτικά που δεν απαιτούν ιδιαίτερη φροντίδα	1	2	3	4	5	RA2
3 Το ύφασμα των ρούχων ήταν φιλικό προς το δέρμα μου	1	2	3	4	5	RA3
4 Αγόρασα ρούχα γνωστών σχεδιαστών μόδας	1	2	3	4	5	RA4
5 Επέλεξα ρούχα, τα οποία ήταν στη μόδα	1	2	3	4	5	RA5
6 Επέλεξα ρούχα πολύ καλής ποιότητας	1	2	3	4	5	RA6
7 Αξιολόγησα τα χαρακτηριστικά ρούχων με βάση τις γνώσεις από τις προηγούμενες αγορές μου	1	2	3	4	5	RA7
8 Αξιολόγησα τα χαρακτηριστικά των ρούχων με βάση τη μάρκα	1	2	3	4	5	RB8
9 Επειδή τα ρούχα που μου άρεσαν ήταν επώνυμα, ήμουν 100% σίγουρος/η ότι θα είναι και καλής ποιότητας	1	2	3	4	5	RB9
10 Αγόρασα επώνυμα ρούχα γιατί μείωναν τον κίνδυνο να κάνω μία λανθασμένη αγορά	1	2	3	4	5	RB10
11 Σύγκρινα τα ρούχα που μου άρεσαν με ανταγωνιστικές μάρκες	1	2	3	4	5	RB11
12 Αξιολόγησα τα ρούχα με βάση την τιμή πώλησης	1	2	3	4	5	RP12
13 Δίκαιες τιμές ρούχων με οδήγησαν στις τελικές μου προτιμήσεις	1	2	3	4	5	RP13
14 Σύγκρινα τις τιμές από τις μάρκες άλλων ρούχων έχοντας ως σημείο αναφοράς τη μάρκα που μου άρεσε	1	2	3	4	5	RP14
15 Η τιμή της μάρκας, της οποίας είχα ως σημείο αναφοράς επηρέασε τις τελικές επιλογές μου	1	2	3	4	5	RP15
16 Σύγκρινα τις τιμές των προϊόντων που αγόρασα, λαμβάνοντας υπόψη από τις προηγούμενες αγορές μου	1	2	3	4	5	RP16
17 Στην αξιολόγηση των τιμών έλαβα υπόψη ότι δεν αγόραζα συχνά τέτοιου είδους ρούχα	1	2	3	4	5	RP17
18 Προτίμησα προσφορές που πραγματοποιήθηκαν την συγκεκριμένη στιγμή της αγοράς και όχι στο μέλλον	1	2	3	4	5	RR18
19 Αξιολόγησα τις προσφορές βάση της προσπάθειας απόκτησης αυτών	1	2	3	4	5	RR19
20 Οι προσφορές των ρούχων δεν με ενδιέφεραν	1	2	3	4	5	RR20
21 Δεν αγόρασα ρούχα, τα οποία θα μπορούσε να φορέσει ο καθένας	1	2	3	4	5	RV21
22 Διέκρινα πιο εύκολα το ιδανικό ρούχο,καθώς γνώριζα τι ήθελα να πάρω	1	2	3	4	5	RV22
23 Περιόρισα τις επιλογές μου, όταν πήγαινα σε καταστήματα που είχαν μικρή ποικιλία ρούχων	1	2	3	4	5	RV23
24 Πρότιμησα να κάνω τις αγορές μου από γνωστά, επώνυμα καταστήματα	1	2	3	4	5	RS24
25 Πήγα στα καταστήματα, τα οποία είχα επισκεφθεί στις προηγούμενες αγορές μου	1	2	3	4	5	RS25
26 Αξιολόγησα τα χαρακτηριστικά των προϊόντων βάση των πληροφοριών που αντλούσα μέσα από το κατάστημα	1	2	3	4	5	RS26
27 Προτίμησα για τις αγορές μου καταστήματα, τα οποία είχαν φιλικό περιβάλλον	1	2	3	4	5	RS27
28 Προτίμησα για τις αγορές μου καταστήματα, τα οποία είχαν φιλικό προσωπικό που ήταν διατεθειμένο να με βοηθήσει	1	2	3	4	5	RS28
29 Στις επιλογές μου, στηρίχθηκα στις κατευθύνσεις που μου πρσέφεραν	1	2	3	4	5	RS29

Προτάσεις	Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	Διαφωνώ	Ούτε διαφωνώ/ Ούτε συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα	SPSS CODE
οι πωλητές των καταστημάτων						
30 Θετικές πληροφορίες στις ταμπέλες προϊόντων συγκέντρωναν το ενδιάφερον μου μόνο στα θετικά χαρακτηριστικά του προϊόντος	1	2	3	4	5	RM30
31 Αγόρασα ρούχα, τα οποία είχαν διαφημιστεί έντονα	1	2	3	4	5	RM31
32 Δανείστηκα σημεία αναφοράς από τα περιοδικά μόδας	1	2	3	4	5	RM32
33 Αγόρασα ρούχα, τα οποία ταίριαζαν απόλυτα στο σωματότυπο μου	1	2	3	4	5	RI33
34 Αγόρασα ρούχα, τα οποία είχαν καλή αισθητική	1	2	3	4	5	RI34
35 Τα ρούχα, τα οποία μου άρεσαν μου παρείχαν άνεση	1	2	3	4	5	RI35
36 Οι προηγούμενες αγορές καθόριζαν τα κίνητρα αγοράς μου και τις επιλογές	1	2	3	4	5	RI36
36 Η εποχή, η οποία διανύαμε επηρέασε τις επιλογές μου	1	2	3	4	5	RI37
38 Τα ρούχα που αγόρασα ήταν αρμονικά με τις προσωπικές μου προτιμήσεις	1	2	3	4	5	RI38
39 Προτίμησα ρούχα, τα οποία ταίριαζαν στην προσωπική μου εμφάνιση και ενίσχυαν την εικόνα μου	1	2	3	4	5	RI39
40 Σύγκρινα τα ρούχα, τα οποία αγόρασα με λιγότερο ευνοϊκές ή χαμηλότερης αξίας μάρκες	1	2	3	4	5	RI40
41 Προτίμησα να αγοράσω ρούχα με βάση την τιμή που ήθελα να πληρώσω	1	2	3	4	5	RF41
42 Είχα ως σημείο αναφοράς το διαθέσιμο προσωπικό εισόδημα μου	1	2	3	4	5	RF42
43 Προτίμησα να αγοράσω ρούχα που είχαν καλύτερες δυνατότητες πληρωμής	1	2	3	4	5	RF43
44 Αξιολόγησα τα ρούχα με τη βοήθεια των φίλων μου	1	2	3	4	5	RG44
45 Δανείστηκα σημεία αναφοράς από τους στενούς μου φίλους	1	2	3	4	5	RG45
46 Δανείστηκα σημεία αναφοράς από διασημότητες	1	2	3	4	5	RG46
47 Αγόρασα ρούχα, τα οποία ικανοποίησαν τους ανθρωπους γύρω μου	1	2	3	4	5	RG47
48 Αγόρασα ρούχα, τα οποία εντυπωσίασαν τους ανθρώπους γύρω μου	1	2	3	4	5	RG48
49 Απέφυγα να αγοράσω ακραία ρούχα	1	2	3	4	5	RC50
50 Απέφυγα να αγοράσω προκλητικά ρούχα	1	2	3	4	5	RC54

ΕΝΟΤΗΤΑ ΤΕΤΑΡΤΗ: ΠΡΟΣΩΠΙΚΕΣ ΠΛΗΡΟΦΟΡΙΕΣ

Κυκλώστε/Σημειώστε την απάντηση σας:

						SPSS CODE
Φύλο	Άνδρας	Γυναίκα				PC1
Οικ. κατάσταση	Άγαμος	Έγγαμος				PC2
Ηλικία	17-19	20-22	23-25	Πάνω από 26		PC3
Εισόδημα (Ευρώ)	<500	501-700	701-900	901>	Δεν απαντώ	PC4
Πανεπιστήμιο						PC5
Σχολή						PC6
Τμήμα						PC7
Έτος φοίτησης						PC8

Έχεις αφήσει καμία ερώτηση αναπάντητη;

Σε ευχαριστώ πολύ για τη συμμετοχή σου!

Appendix F: Reference Point Inventory Correlation Matrix

Reference Point Inventory Correlation Matrix		RPI 01	RPI 02	RPI 03	RPI 04	RPI 05	RPI 06
Correlation	RPI 01	1.000	.192	.134	.085	.096	.106
	RPI 02	.192	1.000	.224	-.084	.210	-.111
	RPI 03	.134	.224	1.000	.134	.242	.284
	RPI 04	.085	-.084	.134	1.000	.285	.440
	RPI 05	.096	.110	.242	.285	1.000	.448
	RPI 06	.106	-.111	.284	.440	.448	1.000
	RPI 07	.046	.066	.173	.055	.132	.205
	RPI 08	-.126	-.103	.053	.504	.133	.243
	RPI 09	-.077	-.060	.095	.487	.160	.266
	RPI 10	-.080	.212	.121	.480	.208	.213
	RPI 11	.147	.116	.205	.131	.217	.280
	RPI 12	.329	.077	.437	-.137	.243	.095
	RPI 13	.166	.219	.154	-.086	.105	.083
	RPI 14	-.128	.119	.172	.120	.114	.209
	RPI 15	.088	.165	.135	.194	.227	.224
	RPI 16	.072	.093	.283	.230	.188	.185
	RPI 17	.130	-.068	.203	-.056	.135	.230
	RPI 18	.140	.208	.224	-.128	-.235	.101
	RPI 19	.148	.190	.139	-.039	.130	.107
	RPI 20	.079	.066	-.077	.188	-.045	.045
	RPI 21	.060	-.130	.083	.252	.210	.232
	RPI 22	.096	.095	.089	-.131	.218	.141
	RPI 23	.136	.122	.178	.087	.164	.146
	RPI 24	-.064	-.135	.167	.549	.242	.383
	RPI 25	.162	.068	.147	.173	.247	.289
	RPI 26	-.203	.076	.151	.169	.129	.230
	RPI 27	.344	.142	.158	.203	.117	.255
	RPI 28	.041	.100	.223	.062	.178	.241
	RPI 29	-.088	.083	-.321	.226	-.051	.105
	RPI 30	.049	.114	.089	.143	.118	.152
	RPI 31	-.129	.133	.072	.339	.174	.294
	RPI 32	.085	.124	.184	.382	.350	.282
	RPI 33	.167	-.104	.262	.083	.258	.219
	RPI 34	.222	-.338	.234	.113	.293	.269
	RPI 35	.326	.121	.222	.111	.142	.262
	RPI 36	.132	.202	.267	.418	.167	.164
	RPI 37	.082	-.060	.065	-.109	.284	.139
	RPI 38	.129	-.155	.104	.049	.190	.197
	RPI 39	.130	-.099	.194	-.203	.323	.278
	RPI 40	.086	.154	.199	.055	.186	.083
	RPI 41	.102	.160	.137	-.084	.236	.090
	RPI 42	.157	.116	.307	-.050	.223	-.119
	RPI 43	-.206	.245	.160	-.095	.316	.073
	RPI 44	-.137	.072	.101	-.220	.174	.412
	RPI 45	.203	.160	.176	-.069	.073	.114
	RPI 46	-.084	.087	.222	.250	.218	.223
	RPI 47	-.113	-.137	.116	.138	.294	.247
	RPI 48	.433	-.127	.168	.129	.347	.255
	RPI49	.142	-.125	.434	-.116	-.073	.051
	RPI 50	.266	.154	-.091	-.238	.082	.068

Reference Point Inventory Correlation Matrix		RPI 07	RPI 08	RPI 09	RPI 10	RPI 11	RPI 12
Correlation	RPI 01	.246	-.126	-.077	-.080	.147	.429
	RPI 02	.066	-.103	-.060	.212	.116	.077
	RPI 03	.173	.053	.095	.121	.205	.037
	RPI 04	.055	.504	.487	.480	.131	-.237
	RPI 05	.132	.133	.160	.208	.217	.043
	RPI 06	.205	.243	.266	.213	.280	.075
	RPI 07	1.000	.214	.097	.089	.206	-.057
	RPI 08	.214	1.000	.643	.602	.181	.096
	RPI 09	.097	.643	1.000	.718	.090	.055
	RPI 10	.089	.602	.718	1.000	.200	.055
	RPI 11	.206	.181	.090	.200	1.000	.232
	RPI 12	-.057	.096	.055	.055	.232	1.000
	RPI 13	.086	-.219	.115	.301	.332	.558
	RPI 14	.131	.264	.220	.235	.377	.343
	RPI 15	.129	.187	.299	.274	.319	.316
	RPI 16	.218	.072	.058	.140	.253	.171
	RPI 17	.097	.064	.058	.055	.132	.061
	RPI 18	.049	.137	-.064	.073	.211	.214
	RPI 19	.122	.231	-.123	.216	.195	.087
	RPI 20	-.054	.150	.130	.147	-.086	.306
	RPI 21	.084	.243	.346	.317	.049	-.227
	RPI 22	.093	.078	.068	-.127	.355	.434
	RPI 23	.292	-.093	.058	.075	.062	.078
	RPI 24	.071	.444	.366	.464	.164	.093
	RPI 25	.096	.264	-.431	.326	.156	.109
	RPI 26	.095	.187	.184	.228	.144	.086
	RPI 27	.094	.101	.073	.420	.111	.081
	RPI 28	.242	.050	-.035	-.102	.424	.413
	RPI 29	.110	.233	.192	.270	-.078	-.066
	RPI 30	.129	.220	.254	.257	.175	.157
	RPI 31	.118	.399	.366	.375	.141	-.410
	RPI 32	.231	.238	.218	.196	.109	-.107
	RPI 33	-.088	-.083	-.060	-.248	.069	.138
	RPI 34	.115	.232	-.424	-.223	.070	.122
	RPI 35	.063	-.058	-.078	-.074	.110	.143
	RPI 36	.189	-.056	.325	.054	.181	.057
	RPI 37	.115	-.083	-.067	-.448	.282	.169
	RPI 38	.054	.348	-.053	-.097	.187	.138
	RPI 39	.114	-.067	-.117	-.082	.120	.218
	RPI 40	.320	.130	.129	.192	.221	.061
	RPI 41	.325	-.092	-.087	-.105	.091	.215
	RPI 42	-.080	-.114	.234	-.054	.182	.256
	RPI 43	-.051	-.364	.050	.077	.130	.231
	RPI 44	-.253	.112	.143	.091	.246	.310
	RPI 45	.092	.143	.332	.108	.143	.434
	RPI 46	.163	.278	.208	.261	.148	.091
	RPI 47	.335	.130	.116	.151	.110	-.209
	RPI 48	.425	.241	.076	.097	.109	.118
	RPI49	.111	.086	.428	-.312	-.056	.098
	RPI 50	-.089	.325	-.339	-.054	.104	.059

Reference Point Inventory Correlation Matrix		RPI 13	RPI 14	RPI 15	RPI 16	RPI 17	RPI 18
Correlation	RPI 01	.166	-.328	.248	.072	.130	.140
	RPI 02	.219	.119	.165	.093	-.068	.208
	RPI 03	.154	.172	.135	.283	.203	.224
	RPI 04	-.086	.120	.194	.330	-.106	-.128
	RPI 05	.105	.114	.227	.188	.135	-.035
	RPI 06	.083	.209	.224	.185	.230	.201
	RPI 07	.086	.131	.129	.218	.217	.247
	RPI 08	-.119	.264	.187	.212	.094	.137
	RPI 09	.115	.220	.299	.058	.358	-.244
	RPI 10	.301	.235	.274	.140	.325	.073
	RPI 11	.332	.377	.319	.253	.132	.211
	RPI 12	.558	.343	.316	.171	.061	.214
	RPI 13	1.000	.458	.373	.149	.329	.252
	RPI 14	.458	1.000	.603	.149	.118	.176
	RPI 15	.373	.603	1.000	.244	.076	.094
	RPI 16	.149	.149	.244	1.000	.181	.252
	RPI 17	.329	.118	.076	.181	1.000	.181
	RPI 18	.252	.176	.094	.252	.181	1.000
	RPI 19	.170	.191	.136	.177	.241	.458
	RPI 20	-.072	.057	.054	-.114	-.081	-.138
	RPI 21	-.130	.098	.107	-.333	.163	-.114
	RPI 22	.121	.217	.067	.228	.041	.326
	RPI 23	.107	.191	.288	.124	.154	.132
	RPI 24	-.086	.172	.179	.080	.307	-.123
	RPI 25	.199	.112	.171	.239	-.136	.194
	RPI 26	-.148	.105	.052	.096	.150	.174
	RPI 27	.151	.175	.167	.094	.093	.199
	RPI 28	.091	.127	.077	.093	.143	.142
	RPI 29	-.117	.083	.124	.062	.069	-.209
	RPI 30	.096	.079	.190	.138	-.241	.371
	RPI 31	-.156	.494	.088	.134	.166	-.218
	RPI 32	.246	.086	.142	.345	-.101	-.107
	RPI 33	.181	.079	.110	.070	.157	.133
	RPI 34	.091	.073	.341	.068	.199	.112
	RPI 35	.225	.114	.109	.223	.110	.157
	RPI 36	.192	.187	.158	.223	.329	.137
	RPI 37	.187	.256	.204	.150	.187	.091
	RPI 38	.142	.070	.069	-.088	.227	-.101
	RPI 39	.135	.085	.087	-.127	.124	.058
	RPI 40	.132	.263	.200	.214	.220	-.108
	RPI 41	.194	.089	.105	.258	.134	.167
	RPI 42	.242	.104	.205	.255	.111	.164
	RPI 43	.197	.147	.187	.236	.091	.151
	RPI 44	-.072	.099	.120	.191	.151	.085
	RPI 45	-.153	.117	.143	.305	.141	.139
	RPI 46	.075	.087	.217	.119	.246	.088
	RPI 47	-.238	.325	.089	.160	.232	.070
	RPI 48	-.064	-.164	.086	.164	.122	.406
	RPI49	-.054	-.074	-.242	.095	.101	.325
	RPI 50	.433	-.086	-.253	.342	.134	.413

Reference Point Inventory Correlation Matrix		RPI 25	RPI 26	RPI 27	RPI 28	RPI 29	RPI 30
Correlation	RPI 01	.162	-.203	.444	.241	-.088	.349
	RPI 02	.268	.076	.142	.100	.083	.114
	RPI 03	.147	.151	.158	.223	-.321	.219
	RPI 04	.473	.169	.203	.362	.226	.243
	RPI 05	.247	.429	.117	.178	-.351	.218
	RPI 06	.289	.230	.255	.241	.105	.152
	RPI 07	.496	.095	.094	.242	.110	.129
	RPI 08	.214	.187	.101	.350	.233	.220
	RPI 09	-.201	.184	.073	-.335	.192	.254
	RPI 10	.326	.228	.320	-.202	.270	.257
	RPI 11	.156	.144	.111	.304	-.413	.175
	RPI 12	.109	.326	.081	.313	-.066	.157
	RPI 13	.199	-.348	.151	.091	-.117	.096
	RPI 14	.112	.105	.175	.127	.083	.079
	RPI 15	.171	.352	.167	.077	.424	.190
	RPI 16	.339	.096	.094	.093	.062	.138
	RPI 17	-.236	.150	.093	.143	.369	-.341
	RPI 18	.194	.174	.199	.142	-.209	.371
	RPI 19	.335	.215	.082	.084	.078	.198
	RPI 20	-.120	-.313	.414	-.101	.160	.405
	RPI 21	-.104	.253	-.321	.043	.204	.159
	RPI 22	.170	.387	.128	.151	-.138	.157
	RPI 23	.152	.113	.159	.263	.242	.345
	RPI 24	.151	.219	.154	.348	.149	.187
	RPI 25	1.000	.162	.212	.139	-.161	.204
	RPI 26	.162	1.000	.247	.277	.261	.278
	RPI 27	.212	.247	1.000	.553	.182	.115
	RPI 28	.139	.277	.553	1.000	.244	.099
	RPI 29	-.161	.261	.182	.244	1.000	.318
	RPI 30	.204	.278	.115	.099	.318	1.000
	RPI 31	-.313	.186	.064	.057	.317	.277
	RPI 32	.163	.307	.139	.183	.183	.197
	RPI 33	.249	.277	.194	.272	-.200	-.137
	RPI 34	.276	.297	.189	.286	-.310	-.358
	RPI 35	.209	.353	.247	.246	-.289	-.250
	RPI 36	.311	.139	.150	.097	-.250	.312
	RPI 37	.363	.114	.127	.082	-.345	.415
	RPI 38	.270	.291	.093	.204	-.096	-.314
	RPI 39	.313	.346	.192	.316	-.134	-.219
	RPI 40	.375	.188	-.271	-.102	.257	.113
	RPI 41	.114	.132	.143	.105	.078	.136
	RPI 42	.320	.329	.182	.304	.024	.103
	RPI 43	.332	.287	.308	.109	-.312	.293
	RPI 44	-.298	.318	432	.226	.150	.173
	RPI 45	.213	.200	-.317	-.243	.473	.278
	RPI 46	.119	.196	.355	.113	.202	.157
	RPI 47	.347	.266	.152	.151	.145	.321
	RPI 48	.379	.164	.367	.226	.302	.096
	RPI49	-.275	.449	-.069	.316	.400	.305
	RPI 50	.365	.261	-.321	.337	-.320	-.255

Reference Point Inventory Correlation Matrix		RPI 31	RPI 32	RPI 33	RPI 34	RPI 35	RPI 36
Correlation	RPI 01	-.129	.085	.167	.222	.326	.132
	RPI 02	.133	.124	-.104	-.238	.121	.202
	RPI 03	.072	.184	.262	.234	.222	.267
	RPI 04	.339	.382	.283	.113	.111	.338
	RPI 05	.174	.350	.258	.293	.142	.167
	RPI 06	.294	.282	.219	.269	.262	.164
	RPI 07	.118	.231	-.058	.315	.243	.189
	RPI 08	.399	.238	-.143	.062	-.068	-.256
	RPI 09	.366	.218	-.230	-.204	-.078	.305
	RPI 10	.375	.196	-.248	-.223	-.344	.244
	RPI 11	.141	.109	.269	.270	.110	.181
	RPI 12	-.010	-.107	.138	.122	.143	.357
	RPI 13	-.056	.346	.181	.091	.225	.192
	RPI 14	.094	.086	.079	.073	.114	.187
	RPI 15	.088	.142	.110	.341	.109	.158
	RPI 16	.134	.145	.070	.368	.223	.223
	RPI 17	.066	-.301	.157	.199	.110	.439
	RPI 18	-.218	-.307	.133	.312	.157	.137
	RPI 19	.118	.138	.332	.126	.215	.185
	RPI 20	.193	.388	-.240	-.135	-.143	.208
	RPI 21	.238	.244	-.057	-.217	-.162	.331
	RPI 22	-.159	.452	.201	.179	.197	.330
	RPI 23	.338	.290	.233	.446	.110	.252
	RPI 24	.349	.246	-.132	.463	.451	.055
	RPI 25	-.113	.163	.249	.276	.209	.311
	RPI 26	.186	.307	.077	.197	.253	.139
	RPI 27	.064	.139	.194	.189	.247	.150
	RPI 28	.057	.183	.272	.286	.246	.097
	RPI 29	.317	.183	-.200	-.110	-.089	-.150
	RPI 30	.277	.197	-.237	-.158	-.050	.112
	RPI 31	1.000	.386	-.202	-.116	-.207	-.134
	RPI 32	.386	1.000	.227	.113	.054	.089
	RPI 33	-.202	.227	1.000	.712	.499	.163
	RPI 34	-.116	.113	.712	1.000	.525	.153
	RPI 35	-.107	.054	.499	.525	1.000	.330
	RPI 36	-.134	.089	.163	.153	.330	1.000
	RPI 37	-.112	.317	.169	.242	.142	.211
	RPI 38	-.140	-.220	.354	.405	.293	.202
	RPI 39	-.115	.380	.437	.422	.314	.222
	RPI 40	.229	.276	.441	.361	.082	.199
	RPI 41	-.104	.327	.151	.141	.277	.207
	RPI 42	-.160	-.347	.402	.172	.354	.199
	RPI 43	.301	.110	.240	.331	.058	.115
	RPI 44	.230	.233	-.155	-.143	-.139	-.109
	RPI 45	.209	.326	-.174	-.229	-.063	.164
	RPI 46	.259	.480	-.051	.054	-.071	.436
	RPI 47	.262	.183	.305	.085	.238	.335
	RPI 48	.116	.226	.118	.132	-.318	.313
	RPI49	-.135	-.126	.463	.119	.450	.333
	RPI 50	-.368	-.107	.238	.327	.227	.211

Reference Point Inventory Correlation Matrix		RPI 37	RPI 38	RPI 39	RPI 40	RPI 41	RPI 42
Correlation	RPI 01	.282	.129	.130	.386	.402	.357
	RPI 02	-.060	-.155	-.099	.254	.360	.416
	RPI 03	.225	.404	.194	.299	.237	.307
	RPI 04	-.309	.341	-.303	.455	-.084	-.250
	RPI 05	.284	.190	.323	.186	.336	.523
	RPI 06	.139	.197	.278	.083	.420	-.219
	RPI 07	.115	.154	.114	.350	.305	-.080
	RPI 08	-.083	.318	-.243	.330	-.092	-.114
	RPI 09	-.067	-.053	-.117	.129	-.087	.504
	RPI 10	-.308	-.097	-.082	.392	-.105	-.044
	RPI 11	.282	.187	.420	.221	.391	.182
	RPI 12	.169	.138	.218	.061	.215	.256
	RPI 13	.387	.142	.335	.132	.494	.242
	RPI 14	.256	.070	.085	.263	.089	.404
	RPI 15	.204	.269	.487	.200	.105	.205
	RPI 16	.150	-.348	-.127	.214	.258	.355
	RPI 17	.187	.327	.324	.420	.134	.311
	RPI 18	.191	-.201	.458	-.108	.447	.164
	RPI 19	.142	-.062	-.029	.057	.154	.203
	RPI 20	-.130	-.080	-.150	.316	-.097	-.108
	RPI 21	-.039	.314	-.232	.480	-.130	-.205
	RPI 22	.361	.284	.304	.361	.241	.234
	RPI 23	.314	-.074	.354	.186	.360	.198
	RPI 24	.238	.371	.348	.098	-.136	-.126
	RPI 25	.163	.270	.313	.075	.114	.120
	RPI 26	.114	.291	.046	.188	.332	.329
	RPI 27	.127	.093	.192	-.071	.143	.182
	RPI 28	.282	.204	.316	-.102	.105	.204
	RPI 29	-.145	-.096	-.134	.157	.078	.324
	RPI 30	.415	-.114	-.219	.113	.136	.103
	RPI 31	-.112	-.140	-.115	.229	-.104	-.160
	RPI 32	.517	-.220	.080	.276	.327	-.247
	RPI 33	.169	.354	.437	.341	.331	.202
	RPI 34	.242	.405	.422	.261	.141	.172
	RPI 35	.142	.293	.314	.082	.277	.154
	RPI 36	.211	.302	.222	.199	.207	.199
	RPI 37	1.000	.387	.248	.149	.163	.188
	RPI 38	.387	1.000	.629	.338	.126	.061
	RPI 39	.248	.629	1.000	.211	.174	.160
	RPI 40	.349	.238	.411	1.000	.235	.135
	RPI 41	.163	.126	.174	.235	1.000	.445
	RPI 42	.188	.061	.160	.135	.445	1.000
	RPI 43	.116	-.076	-.332	.216	.362	.351
	RPI 44	-.240	-.136	-.075	.139	.354	.254
	RPI 45	.149	-.120	-.136	.218	.196	.132
	RPI 46	-.054	.401	.053	.170	-.206	-.067
	RPI 47	.259	.343	.095	.422	-.117	-.101
	RPI 48	.230	.075	.264	.426	-.090	-.092
	RPI49	-.321	.117	-.318	-.372	.419	.174
	RPI 50	.347	.142	.171	.402	.128	.354

Reference Point Inventory Correlation Matrix		RPI 43	RPI 44	RPI 45	RPI 46	RPI 47	RPI 48
Correlation	RPI 01	-.206	-.137	.303	-.084	-.113	.403
	RPI 02	.245	.072	.160	.217	-.167	-.327
	RPI 03	.160	.401	.376	.422	.216	.368
	RPI 04	-.095	-.320	-.469	.250	.138	.129
	RPI 05	.216	.174	.273	.318	.294	.347
	RPI 06	.233	.312	.314	.223	.247	.255
	RPI 07	-.341	-.053	.092	.163	.425	.245
	RPI 08	-.044	.112	.243	.278	.130	.001
	RPI 09	.350	.143	.232	.308	.116	.376
	RPI 10	.277	.091	.108	.261	.351	.297
	RPI 11	.130	.336	.143	.148	.110	.109
	RPI 12	.231	.310	.434	.321	-.209	.218
	RPI 13	.197	-.072	-.253	.475	-.238	-.064
	RPI 14	.147	.099	.117	.087	.025	-.064
	RPI 15	.187	.120	.143	.217	.089	.086
	RPI 16	.236	.191	.305	.119	.160	.164
	RPI 17	.341	.551	.341	.246	.232	.122
	RPI 18	.151	.085	.139	.088	.270	.306
	RPI 19	.146	251	.290	.165	.228	.237
	RPI 20	-.150	-.216	.347	.103	.174	.489
	RPI 21	.315	.106	.302	.165	.108	.246
	RPI 22	.252	.351	.307	-.245	.319	.087
	RPI 23	.172	.153	.285	.323	.123	.264
	RPI 24	-.170	.221	.309	.248	.229	.195
	RPI 25	.232	-.198	.313	.119	.247	.479
	RPI 26	.087	.118	.200	.196	.166	.164
	RPI 27	.428	.232	-.117	.055	.152	.067
	RPI 28	.109	.126	-.083	.313	.251	.326
	RPI 29	-.092	.150	.173	.202	.145	.302
	RPI 30	.393	.173	.078	.157	.321	.296
	RPI 31	.101	.230	.209	.259	.362	.116
	RPI 32	.410	.333	.126	.480	.283	.226
	RPI 33	.440	-.055	-.074	-.051	.525	.318
	RPI 34	.431	-.143	-.059	.054	.085	.332
	RPI 35	.358	-.139	-.063	-.071	.538	-.218
	RPI 36	.315	-.109	.164	.436	.225	.313
	RPI 37	.216	-.240	.249	-.054	.259	.301
	RPI 38	-.076	-.136	-.120	.201	.423	.275
	RPI 39	-.132	-.175	-.236	.453	.295	.364
	RPI 40	.216	.339	.218	.370	.322	.236
	RPI 41	.362	.254	.196	-.106	-.117	-.090
	RPI 42	.351	.254	.132	-.067	-.101	-.092
	RPI 43	1.000	.170	.364	.211	-.080	-.148
	RPI 44	.170	1.000	.503	.178	.244	.447
	RPI 45	.264	.503	1.000	.306	.367	.498
	RPI 46	.311	.378	.206	1.000	.424	.325
	RPI 47	-.080	.244	.367	.424	1.000	.599
	RPI 48	-.058	.247	.198	.325	.599	1.000
	RPI49	-.230	-.084	.310	-.142	.478	.249
	RPI 50	-.185	-.134	.432	-.082	.452	.302

Reference Point Inventory Correlation Matrix		RPI 49	RPI 50
Correlation	RPI 01	.142	.266
	RPI 02	-.125	.310
	RPI 03	.234	-.121
	RPI 04	-.116	-.338
	RPI 05	-.173	.382
	RPI 06	.351	.468
	RPI 07	.301	-.329
	RPI 08	.286	.435
	RPI 09	.438	-.229
	RPI 10	-.212	-.354
	RPI 11	-.356	.424
	RPI 12	.308	.259
	RPI 13	-.154	.433
	RPI 14	-.074	-.386
	RPI 15	-.242	-.353
	RPI 16	.295	.321
	RPI 17	.301	.134
	RPI 18	.325	.213
	RPI 19	.121	.279
	RPI 20	.326	.311
	RPI 21	-.083	-.063
	RPI 22	.257	.241
	RPI 23	.329	-.223
	RPI 24	.201	-.218
	RPI 25	-.175	.365
	RPI 26	.079	.261
	RPI 27	-.169	-.211
	RPI 28	.316	.237
	RPI 29	.320	-.090
	RPI 30	.435	-.255
	RPI 31	-.135	-.068
	RPI 32	-.126	-.107
	RPI 33	.063	.238
	RPI 34	.219	.327
	RPI 35	.350	.227
	RPI 36	.313	.411
	RPI 37	-.121	.247
	RPI 38	.117	.142
	RPI 39	-.098	.171
	RPI 40	-.172	.602
	RPI 41	.219	.128
	RPI 42	.074	.154
	RPI 43	-.330	-.085
	RPI 44	-.084	-.234
	RPI 45	.310	.232
	RPI 46	-.242	-.082
	RPI 47	.378	.252
	RPI 48	.449	.302
	RPI49	1.000	.447
	RPI 50	.447	1.000

Appendix G: Consumer Styles Inventory Correlation Matrix

Consumer Styles Inventory Correlation Matrix		CSI 01	CSI 02	CSI 03	CSI 04	CSI 05	CSI 06
Correlation	CSI 01	1.000	.244	.353	.492	-.159	.334
	CSI 02	.244	1.000	.364	.347	-.336	.475
	CSI 03	.353	.364	1.000	.594	-.206	.353
	CSI 04	.492	.347	.594	1.000	-.216	.335
	CSI 05	-.159	-.336	-.206	-.216	1.000	-.301
	CSI 06	.334	.475	.353	.335	-.301	1.000
	CSI 07	-.219	-.139	-.098	-.167	.519	-.118
	CSI 08	-.148	-.370	-.211	-.189	.420	-.382
	CSI 09	.350	.353	.237	.221	-.266	.436
	CSI 10	.242	.270	.205	.186	-.162	.376
	CSI 11	.132	.094	.062	.235	-.107	.141
	CSI 12	.234	.270	.236	.259	-.032	.297
	CSI 13	.222	.337	.275	.231	-.166	.431
	CSI 14	.148	.167	.200	.125	-.089	.212
	CSI 15	.248	.257	.175	.201	-.104	.238
	CSI 16	.056	.243	.180	.135	-.215	.296
	CSI 17	.137	.294	.212	.187	-.260	.284
	CSI 18	.328	.184	.257	.226	-.197	.183
	CSI 19	.147	.166	.170	.144	-.352	.092
	CSI 20	-.059	.314	-.146	-.055	.260	-.105
	CSI 21	.076	.102	.155	.233	-.279	.153
	CSI 22	.028	.005	-.113	-.056	.271	.058
	CSI 23	.125	.120	.067	.108	-.182	.143
	CSI 24	-.100	-.300	-.139	-.161	.423	-.190
	CSI 25	-.204	.147	.259	.085	.210	.137
	CSI 26	-.229	-.177	-.234	-.151	.174	-.331
	CSI 27	.137	.150	.158	.159	-.148	.427
	CSI 28	.076	.064	.099	.177	-.063	.205
	CSI 29	.420	-.210	.077	.222	.319	.131
	CSI 30	-.115	-.237	-.011	.020	.127	.228
	CSI 31	.161	.250	.219	.225	-.317	.129
	CSI 32	.208	.056	.058	-.124	-.126	-.105
	CSI 33	.112	.098	.213	.254	.082	.349
	CSI 34	.207	-.130	.140	.149	.147	-.225
	CSI 35	-.137	.061	.246	.069	.125	-.139
	CSI 36	-.107	-.212	.219	.102	.160	.058
	CSI 37	.306	.231	.149	.184	-.150	.363
	CSI 38	.339	.222	.255	.286	-.083	.275
	CSI 39	.116	.234	-.133	.229	.409	.362

| | CSI 40 | .075 | -.088 | .063 | .132 | .034 | -.126 |

Consumer Styles Inventory Correlation Matrix		CSI 07	CSI 08	CSI 09	CSI 10	DCS 11	CSI 12
Correlation	CSI 01	-.219	-.148	.350	.242	.132	.234
	CSI 02	-.139	-.370	.353	.270	.094	.270
	CSI 03	-.098	-.211	.237	.205	.062	.236
	CSI 04	-.167	-.189	.221	.186	.035	.259
	CSI 05	.519	.420	-.266	-.162	-.107	-.232
	CSI 06	-.118	-.382	.436	.376	.141	.297
	CSI 07	1.000	.218	-.028	.061	.402	-.117
	CSI 08	.218	1.000	-.319	-.253	-.095	-.111
	CSI 09	-.028	-.319	1.000	.678	.398	.467
	CSI 10	.061	-.253	.678	1.000	.418	.467
	CSI 11	.202	-.095	.398	.418	1.000	.422
	CSI 12	-.217	-.111	.467	.467	.422	1.000
	CSI 13	-.318	-.278	.649	.711	.455	.502
	CSI 14	.433	-.070	.382	.405	.458	.398
	CSI 15	-.135	-.077	.247	.174	.105	.229
	CSI 16	-.111	-.124	.219	.238	.150	.218
	CSI 17	-.127	-.188	.266	.165	.198	.236
	CSI 18	-.137	-.148	.222	.123	-.103	.050
	CSI 19	-.247	-.089	.079	-.048	.059	.123
	CSI 20	.231	.149	-.420	.056	-.127	.323
	CSI 21	-.260	-.210	.078	.117	.162	.190
	CSI 22	.308	.115	.178	.196	.114	.138
	CSI 23	-.152	-.052	.340	.051	.092	.068
	CSI 24	.447	.310	-.164	-.167	-.212	-.129
	CSI 25	-.224	-.312	-.109	-.093	-.222	-.117
	CSI 26	-.074	.253	-.435	-.403	-.205	-.203
	CSI 27	-.158	-.242	.321	-.063	-.090	.120
	CSI 28	.093	-.136	.110	.062	-.336	.057
	CSI 29	.168	.214	.104	.157	.330	.101
	CSI 30	.142	.056	-.118	.231	-.305	.059
	CSI 31	-.373	-.149	.329	.101	.064	.082
	CSI 32	-.209	.066	-.077	-.159	-.213	-.128
	CSI 33	.049	.314	.056	.144	.049	.166
	CSI 34	.242	.120	.102	-.056	-.051	.235
	CSI 35	.137	.077	-.344	.343	.213	.089
	CSI 36	.092	.128	-.057	-.211	.054	.248
	CSI 37	.064	-.265	.500	.431	.331	.444
	CSI 38	.114	-.121	.354	.366	.324	.459
	CSI 39	.056	.141	.114	.122	.082	.218
	CSI 40	-.200	.145	-.169	-.106	-.077	-.242

Consumer Styles Inventory Correlation Matrix		CSI 13	CSI 14	CSI 15	CSI 16	CSI 17	CSI 18
Correlation	CSI 01	.222	.148	.048	.056	.137	.328
	CSI 02	.337	.167	.257	.243	.294	.184
	CSI 03	.275	.200	.175	.180	.212	.257
	CSI 04	.231	.125	.201	.135	.187	.226
	CSI 05	-.166	-.089	-.104	-.215	-.260	-.197
	CSI 06	.431	.212	.238	.296	.284	.183
	CSI 07	-.118	.233	-.135	-.111	-.127	-.137
	CSI 08	-.278	-.070	-.077	-.124	-.188	-.148
	CSI 09	.649	.382	.247	.219	.266	.022
	CSI 10	.711	.405	.174	.238	.165	.123
	CSI 11	.455	.458	.105	.150	.198	-.103
	CSI 12	.502	.398	.229	.218	.236	.050
	CSI 13	1.000	.470	.256	.277	.279	.083
	CSI 14	.470	1.000	.124	.230	.230	-.341
	CSI 15	.256	.124	1.000	.566	.343	.109
	CSI 16	.277	.230	.566	1.000	.615	.250
	CSI 17	.279	.230	.343	.615	1.000	.243
	CSI 18	.083	-.041	.109	.250	.243	1.000
	CSI 19	.083	-.053	.142	.262	.288	.172
	CSI 20	.086	.080	-.211	-.155	-.136	-.082
	CSI 21	.147	.109	.239	.360	.385	.223
	CSI 22	.183	.238	-.058	-.096	-.103	-.187
	CSI 23	.067	-.087	.107	.154	.239	.121
	CSI 24	-.198	-.063	-.237	-.283	-.245	-.143
	CSI 25	-.424	-.535	.072	-.052	.116	.188
	CSI 26	-.329	-.153	-.103	-.215	-.120	-.075
	CSI 27	-.076	-.127	-.051	.315	.417	.207
	CSI 28	.059	.066	-.085	-.097	.301	.112
	CSI 29	.097	-.301	.136	.155	.096	.133
	CSI 30	-.232	.089	-.093	.054	-.053	.139
	CSI 31	.216	-.107	.119	.150	.176	.144
	CSI 32	-.163	-.073	.056	-.063	.007	.070
	CSI 33	.105	.043	-.078	.076	.210	.147
	CSI 34	.090	.097	-.219	.048	.093	.084
	CSI 35	.047	.243	-.132	.221	.046	.122
	CSI 36	.208	.133	.305	.300	.061	.213
	CSI 37	.506	.257	.197	.197	.272	.006
	CSI 38	.373	.268	.193	.116	.258	.018
	CSI 39	.149	.197	-.301	.335	.104	-.312
	CSI 40	-.115	-.111	.160	.065	-.051	.135

Consumer Styles Inventory Correlation Matrix		CSI 19	CSI 20	CSI 21	CSI 22	CSI 23	CSI 24
Correlation	CSI 01	.147	-.449	.076	.328	.125	-.100
	CSI 02	.166	.514	.102	.305	.120	-.300
	CSI 03	.170	-.146	.155	-.113	.067	-.139
	CSI 04	.144	-.055	.233	-.056	.108	-.161
	CSI 05	-.352	.260	-.279	.271	-.182	.423
	CSI 06	.092	-.105	.153	.058	.143	-.190
	CSI 07	-.247	.231	-.260	.308	-.152	.447
	CSI 08	-.089	.149	-.210	.115	-.052	.310
	CSI 09	.079	-.520	.078	.178	.340	-.164
	CSI 10	-.148	.056	.117	.196	.351	-.167
	CSI 11	.059	-.127	.162	.114	.092	-.212
	CSI 12	.123	.223	.190	.138	.068	-.129
	CSI 13	.413	.416	.147	.183	.067	-.198
	CSI 14	-.053	.340	.109	.238	-.017	-.063
	CSI 15	.142	-.211	.239	-.058	.107	-.237
	CSI 16	.262	-.155	.360	-.096	.154	-.283
	CSI 17	.288	-.136	.385	-.003	.239	-.245
	CSI 18	.172	-.082	.223	-.187	.121	-.143
	CSI 19	1.000	-.291	.374	-.312	.330	-.313
	CSI 20	-.291	1.000	-.284	.281	-.339	.355
	CSI 21	.374	-.284	1.000	-.139	.380	-.329
	CSI 22	-.312	.281	-.139	1.000	-.133	.333
	CSI 23	.330	-.339	.380	-.133	1.000	-.253
	CSI 24	-.313	.355	-.329	.333	-.253	1.000
	CSI 25	.093	-.119	.056	-.083	.187	-.319
	CSI 26	-.081	.045	-.121	-.076	-.446	.076
	CSI 27	.062	.301	-.347	-.176	.076	-.218
	CSI 28	.102	.124	.135	.118	.081	.066
	CSI 29	-.102	.240	.109	.226	-.078	.118
	CSI 30	.072	.050	.083	.099	.117	.072
	CSI 31	.219	-.176	.221	-.287	.146	-.358
	CSI 32	.240	-.131	.120	-.148	.053	-.054
	CSI 33	.047	.119	.068	.055	.107	.052
	CSI 34	.012	.222	.035	.101	-.054	.057
	CSI 35	.064	.057	.086	.420	.163	.047
	CSI 36	-.041	.055	.058	.137	.117	.348
	CSI 37	.077	-.135	.180	.103	.149	-.096
	CSI 38	.090	-.066	.124	.060	.104	.403
	CSI 39	.019	.203	.094	.097	-.001	-.213
	CSI 40	.087	.050	.064	-.067	-.134	-.308

Consumer Styles Inventory Correlation Matrix		CSI 25	CSI 26	CSI 27	CSI 28	CSI 29	CSI 30
Correlation	CSI 01	-.204	-.229	.137	.076	.020	-.115
	CSI 02	.147	-.177	.150	.064	-.010	-.137
	CSI 03	.259	-.234	.158	.099	.077	-.111
	CSI 04	.085	-.151	.159	.177	.222	.090
	CSI 05	.060	.174	-.148	-.063	.119	.227
	CSI 06	.137	-.331	.077	.205	.131	.128
	CSI 07	-.084	-.074	-.158	.093	.168	.142
	CSI 08	-.112	.253	-.142	-.236	.114	.056
	CSI 09	-.109	-.435	.321	.110	.104	-.218
	CSI 10	-.093	-.403	-.063	.062	.157	.231
	CSI 11	-.122	-.205	-.090	-.236	.130	-.305
	CSI 12	-.117	-.203	.120	.057	.101	.059
	CSI 13	-.224	-.329	-.076	.059	.097	-.092
	CSI 14	-.135	-.153	-.127	.066	-.201	.089
	CSI 15	.072	-.103	-.051	-.085	.136	-.093
	CSI 16	-.052	-.215	.115	-.097	.155	.054
	CSI 17	.116	-.120	.087	.401	.096	-.053
	CSI 18	.188	-.075	.407	.112	.133	.139
	CSI 19	.093	-.081	.062	.102	-.302	.072
	CSI 20	-.119	.145	.221	.124	.080	.050
	CSI 21	.056	-.121	-.147	.055	.109	.083
	CSI 22	-.083	-.076	-.176	.118	.066	.099
	CSI 23	.187	-.046	.076	.081	-.078	.117
	CSI 24	-.119	.076	-.218	.066	.118	.072
	CSI 25	1.000	.135	.122	.076	.095	.044
	CSI 26	.135	1.000	.011	-.018	-.129	.094
	CSI 27	.122	.111	1.000	-.141	-.083	-.074
	CSI 28	.076	-.018	-.041	1.000	.289	.449
	CSI 29	.095	-.099	-.083	.289	1.000	.382
	CSI 30	.144	.204	-.074	.449	.382	1.000
	CSI 31	.301	-.088	.153	-.130	-.115	-.249
	CSI 32	.172	.097	.171	-.057	-.241	-.204
	CSI 33	.139	.035	.194	.281	.100	.295
	CSI 34	.201	-.122	.088	.224	.110	.226
	CSI 35	.005	-.233	.220	.271	.138	.241
	CSI 36	-.217	.066	-.103	.169	.118	.274
	CSI 37	-.053	-.369	.037	.074	.126	-.024
	CSI 38	.055	-.167	.249	.090	.227	.090
	CSI 39	.020	-.084	.024	.197	.157	.220
	CSI 40	-.019	.179	-.005	.008	.122	.106

Consumer Styles Inventory Correlation Matrix		CSI 31	CSI 32	CSI 33	CSI 34	CSI 35	CSI 36
Correlation	CSI 01	.161	.208	.112	.207	-.057	-.087
	CSI 02	.250	.056	.098	-.130	.061	-.092
	CSI 03	.219	.058	.213	.140	.096	.219
	CSI 04	.225	-.024	.254	.149	.069	.102
	CSI 05	-.317	-.076	.082	.147	.125	.160
	CSI 06	.129	-.075	.149	-.075	-.039	.058
	CSI 07	-.373	-.209	.249	.062	.137	.092
	CSI 08	-.149	.066	.094	.120	.077	.028
	CSI 09	.029	-.077	.056	.102	-.244	-.057
	CSI 10	.101	-.159	.144	-.056	.043	-.091
	CSI 11	.064	-.013	.029	-.051	.083	.054
	CSI 12	.082	-.028	.166	.035	.089	.088
	CSI 13	.016	-.163	.105	.090	.047	.108
	CSI 14	-.107	-.073	.043	.097	.083	.233
	CSI 15	.119	.056	-.068	-.119	-.092	.105
	CSI 16	.150	-.063	.076	.148	.071	.066
	CSI 17	.176	.087	.210	.093	.246	.061
	CSI 18	.144	.070	.147	.084	.122	.083
	CSI 19	.219	.049	.057	.112	.064	-.091
	CSI 20	-.176	-.131	.119	.222	.057	.055
	CSI 21	.221	.120	.068	.035	.086	.058
	CSI 22	-.287	-.148	.055	.101	.060	.137
	CSI 23	.146	.053	.107	-.054	.163	.117
	CSI 24	-.358	-.054	.052	.057	.047	.098
	CSI 25	.101	.172	.139	.101	.205	-.097
	CSI 26	-.088	.097	.055	-.052	-.233	.166
	CSI 27	.153	.171	.194	.088	.120	-.103
	CSI 28	-.130	-.057	.281	.224	.271	.169
	CSI 29	-.115	-.241	.100	.010	.138	.118
	CSI 30	-.249	-.204	.295	.226	.241	.274
	CSI 31	1.000	.359	.037	-.005	-.075	-.081
	CSI 32	.359	1.000	.051	.144	.097	.217
	CSI 33	.237	.051	1.000	.401	.406	.369
	CSI 34	-.105	.144	.401	1.000	.396	.391
	CSI 35	-.075	.047	.406	.396	1.000	.553
	CSI 36	-.081	.017	.369	.391	.553	1.000
	CSI 37	.089	-.095	.081	-.093	.079	.088
	CSI 38	.071	-.075	.142	-.099	.130	.127
	CSI 39	-.066	-.097	.041	.065	.073	.137
	CSI 40	.228	.158	.115	.235	-.133	.221

Consumer Styles Inventory Correlation Matrix		CSI 37	CSI 38	CSI 30	CSI 40
Correlation	CSI 01	.306	.339	.016	.075
	CSI 02	.231	.222	.134	-.088
	CSI 03	.149	.255	-.063	.063
	CSI 04	.184	.286	.089	.132
	CSI 05	-.150	-.083	.079	.124
	CSI 06	.363	.275	.062	-.126
	CSI 07	.064	.114	.056	-.200
	CSI 08	-.265	-.121	.041	.145
	CSI 09	.500	.354	.114	-.169
	CSI 10	.431	.366	.122	-.106
	CSI 11	.331	.324	.082	-.077
	CSI 12	.444	.459	.218	-.042
	CSI 13	.506	.373	.149	-.115
	CSI 14	.257	.268	.197	-.111
	CSI 15	.197	.193	-.001	.160
	CSI 16	.197	.116	.035	.065
	CSI 17	.272	.258	.104	-.051
	CSI 18	.062	.098	-.012	.135
	CSI 19	.077	.090	.019	.087
	CSI 20	-.135	-.066	.003	.050
	CSI 21	.180	.124	.094	.064
	CSI 22	.103	.060	.097	-.067
	CSI 23	.149	.104	-.021	-.134
	CSI 24	-.096	.003	-.083	-.008
	CSI 25	-.053	.055	.050	-.219
	CSI 26	-.369	-.167	-.084	.179
	CSI 27	.037	.049	.024	-.005
	CSI 28	.074	.090	.197	.008
	CSI 29	.126	.227	.157	.122
	CSI 30	-.024	.090	.220	.060
	CSI 31	.089	.071	-.066	.228
	CSI 32	-.095	-.075	-.037	.158
	CSI 33	.081	.142	.041	.115
	CSI 34	-.023	-.099	.065	.235
	CSI 35	.079	.030	.073	-.023
	CSI 36	.088	.127	.137	.021
	CSI 37	1.000	.614	.324	-.297
	CSI 38	.614	1.000	.308	-.178
	CSI 39	.324	.308	1.000	-.138
	CSI 40	-.297	-.178	-.138	1.000