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Brand promotion antecedents, customer attitudes, and brand preference in Egyptian hyper-markets

Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the potential relationship between brand promotion (built on its antecedents) and brand preference. The results indicated that brand loyalty, value consciousness, store loyalty, and smart shopper self-perception increased the attitude toward brand promotion. In addition, the study demonstrated that brand promotion increased consumer brand preference. These findings suggested that the use of promotions on the basis of their antecedents (i.e. brand loyalty, value consciousness, store loyalty, and smart shopper self-perception) would enhance brand preference. Accordingly, the study provided evidence against the idea that brand promotion had a negative effect on brand preference.

Keywords: shoppers' characteristics, brand promotion, brand preference, customer attitude.

Introduction

According to Steenkamp and Dekimpe (1997) it is more important to own markets than to own factories. This can be achieved by holding a competitive advantage which helps an organization to continue in the business environment. Manzur et al. (2011) stated that one of the most influential factors, to holding a competitive advantage, was a brand which could be defined either as a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of these. In doing so, these identified the products or services of one seller or group of sellers and differentiated them from those of their competitors (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008).

In fact, in the marketing domain, many researchers investigated the importance of brand and addressed different issues related to brand concept such as brand loyalty (e.g. Allender, Richards, 2012; Sanjay et al., 2012; Jones, Kim, 2011); brand equity (e.g. Huang and Sarigollu, 2012; Dwivedi et al., 2012; Kim and Ko, 2012), and brand promotion (e.g. Manzur et al., 2011; Garretson et al., 2002; Ailawadi et al., 2001).

In fact, many researchers examined the effect of the antecedents of brand promotion (e.g. value consciousness; smart shopper self-perception) on customer attitudes toward brand promotion (Manzur et al., 2011; Garretson et al., 2002). In the same vein, others were interested in conducting the relationship between promotions and brand preference, long-term marketing decision, brand evaluation, brand switching (e.g. Del Vecchio et al., 2006; Keller, 1993; Davis et al., 1992; Dodson et al., 1978). In the best of the author's knowledge, there was limited research which investigated the combined effect of both the antecedents and consequences of promotion. This paper attempts to fill the previous gap. It proposes a model which includes shoppers' characteristics; customer attitudes toward brand promotions; and

brand preference. Firstly, this study seeks to provide empirical evidence of the relationships between the different variables of the proposed model: namely, brand promotion antecedents; value consciousness (VC); smart shopper self-perception (SP); brand loyalty (BL); store loyalty (SL); and customers' brand promotion attitudes (BA). Secondly, it examines the role of brand promotion attitudes (BA) in reinforcing brand preference (BP).

The following section reviews different theories and studies on VC, SP, BL, SL, BA, BP in order to develop the research hypotheses. Then, the research method is presented, followed by the data analysis and the findings. Finally, there is a discussion of the implications of the results; the research limitations; a presentation of the recommendations for further research.

1. Literature review

The consumers' responses, relating to promotions, were an attractive issue for marketing researchers. The previous work by Ailawadi et al. (2001), Garretson et al. (2002), and Manzur et al. (2011) categorized the antecedents of consumer promotion attitudes into: price-related variables (e.g. value consciousness) and non-price-related variables (e.g. loyalty).

The following section deals with the different antecedents and the consequences included in the model presented in this study.

1.1. Value consciousness. According to Thaler (1985) the customer's consciousness of the product's value represents a stronger psychological drive than utility. Recently, the term, value consciousness was defined as "a concern for paying low prices, subject to some quality constraint" (Pillai & Kumar, 2012). Lichtenstein et al. (1990, p. 56) interpreted quality constraint when they stated "the quality of the product may exceed the consumer's specific quality requirements, therefore the highest value for the particular consumer is viewed as the lowest priced product that meets his or her specific quality

requirements". The value consciousness would be seen as a comparison between the quality of the product and its price (Manzur et al., 2011; Lichtenstein et al., 1993). Sethuraman and Cole's (1999) study applied to the grocery products (the same interest of this study). It revealed that such a comparison might lead the consumer to afford price premiums. In order to ensure the importance of value consciousness nowadays, Nielsen (2011) stated that, since the recent economic slowdown in developed markets, shopper value consciousness was observed more than ever.

1.2. Smart shopper self-perception. This term was defined as "an ego-based construct that relates to the shopper's need to achieve internal compensation by obtaining price savings through the purchase" (Manzur et al., 2011, p. 287). Smart shoppers are concerned usually with saving money (Garretson et al., 2002), and they would be entertained when they purchase products offered them lower than normal prices (Chandon et al., 2000).

1.3. Brand loyalty. According to Jacoby and Kyner (1973, p. 2) brand loyalty would be defined as "the biased (i.e., nonrandom), behavioral response (i.e., purchase), expressed over time, by some decision-making unit, with respect to one or more alternative brands out of a set of such brands, and is a function of psychological (decision-making, evaluative) processes". Olive (1999, p. 33) argued that "It will not suffice to have customers that are merely satisfied". The consumers, who show loyalty to specific companies, are less willing to change the brand which they purchase and, unlike non-loyal consumers, more likely to pay full price for their favourite brands (Garretson, et al., 2002).

1.4. Store loyalty. In this context, store loyalty can be seen as the most important variable for the retailer, (Rabbanee et al., 2012). Bloemer and Schroder (2002, p. 71) defined store loyalty as the "biased (i.e. non-random) behavioral response, expressed over time, by some decision making unit, with respect to one store out of a set of stores, which is a function of psychological (decision-making and evaluative) processes resulting from commitment". It was defined, also, as "the intention and readiness to repurchase at a particular store or recommend a store" (Swoboda et al., 2013, p. 252). It was demonstrated that store loyalty would lead the shopper to use the product whether being promoted either nationally or locally (Manzur et al., 2011). In addition, as the shopper becomes more frugal, there is an increasing attractiveness of stores which offer Everyday Low Prices (EDLP) (Nielsen, 2011).

1.5. Brand promotion. Promotion is a marketing tool which induces choice. Although the issue of sales promotions has been addressed for a long time

(DelVecchio et al., 2006), its effectiveness raises considerable debate (Kwok & Uncles, 2005). In this respect, a fundamental consideration is how to get the consumer to respond to promotions (Chandon et al., 2000). It is worth mentioning that there is limited agreement on the benefits of promotions. Previous research referred that the main result of promotions was consumer stockpiling of products which could be defined as purchasing additional quantities and accelerating the timing of purchases (Ailawadi et al., 2005). Based on the economic-versus-hedonic perspective, promotions provide not only economic but, also, hedonic benefits such as exploration and self-expression (Ailawadi et al., 2001). Based on the customer-promotion-experience, promotion benefits may be seen as the value which the consumer perceives, whether by exposure, namely, by realizing the brand promotion or by usage, i.e., buying the brand which is being promoted (Chandon et al., 2000).

1.6. Brand preference. In order to distinguish between attitudes and preferences, Kardes et al. (2006, p. 137) stated that "attitudes are overall evaluations of a single target product, whereas preferences are relative evaluations that require the comparison of a target product to competing brands". This would lead us to infer that the input of brand preference is the difference(s) which a brand holds relative to other competing ones. The differentiation between brands is a very important issue in the marketing domain. Levy (1959) supported this idea by stating that, if there was no real difference between brand (x) and other competing brands, such a brand would be out of business. In other words, if a certain brand does not have a reason to be preferred, it does not last. At this point, the question is: how to differentiate? As explained in the next section, this research aimed to answer this question by investigating the potential relationship between brand promotion and brand preference.

2. Hypotheses

2.1. Value consciousness and customer attitudes towards brand promotion. In two instances, customers may respond positively towards brand promotion: if either the quality is not reduced; or if there is a compensation for reduced quality (Manzur et al., 2011). Many competing brands based brand promotion on the discounted price instead of the product's quality (Richardson et al., 1994). However, other researchers argued that quality considerations could be an effective tool in increasing value (Manzur et al., 2011).

Attitude is regarded as "the pleasantness or unpleasantness of an act" (Bagozzi et al., 1992, p. 507). Based on the acquisition-transition utility theory, consumers, with favourable attitudes towards

promotions, tend to be value conscious and do not regard necessarily a lower price as an indication of poor quality and, therefore, regard promotions as a way of saving on price (Garretson et al., 2002). In addition, Manzur et al. (2011) and Garretson et al. (2002) found that value consciousness had a positive influence on attitudes toward brand promotion. Accordingly, this study's first hypothesis was formulated as follows:

H1: Value consciousness enhances the customer attitude toward brand promotion.

2.2. Smart shopper self-perception and customer attitudes towards brand promotion. There is no consensus that monetary benefit is the only reason which justifies consumers' responses to promotions (Chandon et al., 2000). There is a psychological aspect which customers consider. Consumers may respond to promotions so that they consider themselves to be smart shoppers (Bagozzi et al., 1992) and lucky (Chandon et al., 2000). According to the self-perception theory the incentive of the deal can be a more likely motive for the purchase than a favourable personal attitude towards the brand (Neslin & Shoemaker, 1989). Accordingly, we hypothesized that there was a relationship between smart shopper self-perception and promotions and formulated the following:

H2: Smart shopper self-perception enhances a positive attitude toward brand promotion.

2.3. Brand loyalty and customer attitudes towards brand promotion. The notion that the primary influence of promotions is on switching to another brand (Gupta, 1988) is questionable. Gupta (1988) found that during the promotion period, approximately 84% of the increase in sales was due to switching to another brand. On the other hand, Van Heerde et al. (2003) found that only about 33% of the increase in brand sales was due to switching to another brand. Manzur et al. (2011) hypothesized that brand loyalty increased the positive attitude towards brand promotions. However, their study's results showed that loyal consumers had weak attitudes towards brand promotion. Ailawadi et al.'s (2001) evidence showed that there was a positive association between brand loyalty and promotion and, in particular, out-of-store promotions such as coupons because of the customers' desires to use promotions as a way of purchasing more units of the product than they used regularly. Therefore, we formulated the following hypothesis:

H3: Brand loyalty enhances a positive attitude toward brand promotion.

2.4. Store loyalty and customer attitudes towards brand promotion. Consumers who show their loyalty to a particular store, develop greater familia-

rities with the products this store offers, and they may be willing to use promotions available in store, independently of whether the store or the brand itself offers these promotions (Manzur et al., 2011). Recently, Manzur et al. (2012) reported that store loyalty increased attitudes toward promotions. In this respect, we formulated the following fourth hypothesis:

H4: Store loyalty enhances a positive attitude toward brand promotion.

2.5. Brand promotion and brand preference. There is a necessity to figure out the impact of brand promotion on post-promotion brand preference (DelVecchio et al., 2006). The opposition- promotion perspective arises from the fact that, in the long term, exposure to sales promotions would result in a loss of market share (Kwok & Uncles, 2005). This is because consumers, exposed to promotions, might relate the frequent discounts to the brand (Keller, 1993), and therefore, would be more susceptible to adopting promotions (Kwok & Uncles, 2005). This might affect, also, the future non-price marketing efforts (Keller, 1993). Similarly, many marketers and academics addressed the issue of promotion adoption and, especially, monetary ones as a result of myopic management (Chandon et al., 2000). In contrast, it was found that brand promotions (monetary and non-monetary) might hold two types of benefits: either hedonic (Chandon et al., 2000; Ailawadi et al., 2001) and utilitarian (Chandon et al., 2000); or economic benefits (Ailawadi et al., 2001). In order to differentiate between utilitarian and hedonic benefits, Chandon et al. (2000, p. 66) stated that "utilitarian benefits are primarily instrumental, functional, and cognitive; they provide customer value by being a means to an end, whilst hedonic benefits are non-instrumental, experiential, and affective: they are appreciated for their own sake, without further regard to their practical purposes". Machines and music respectively can exemplify these two kinds of benefits (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982).

Based on the promotion's characteristics and the promoted product, promotions can have either positive or negative effects on the post-promotion brand preference (DelVecchio et al., 2006). Neslin & Shoemaker (1989) stated that using promotions repeatedly would have a negative effect on purchasing. However, Davis et al. (1992, p. 147) stated that "there is no negative effect of promotion on the brand evaluation and hence no negative effect on repurchase probabilities". The support, which sales promotions could manipulate for a brand, could be seen from two perspectives: reminding current consumers to purchase the brand (purchasing reinforcement); and inducing non-users to try using the brand and, thereby, enhancing their attitudes and the probability of buying the brand (DelVecchio et

al., 2006). In addition, the congruency between promotion and brand benefits would have a greater effect on the brand value than promotions which reflected incongruent benefits (Chandon et al., 2000). Although Davis, et al. (1992) hypothesized that, at the aggregate level, the probability of repeated purchasing would be reduced due to promotions, their study's results did not prove this hypothesis. Consequently, we rejected the hypothesis that there would be a decline in the overall evaluation of a promoted brand and formulated the following:

H5: Brand promotions increase the brand preference.

3. Method and sampling size

The current author selected the subjects of the study from the shoppers in Awadalla hyper-market; this is one of the prominent hyper-markets in Mansoura city (Egypt), and offers products which can be considered as utilitarian rather than hedonic. The current author posted a request for study participants beside the market entrance doors where it could be viewed by shoppers. The current author adopted this procedure in order to obtain more realistic responses from respondents in the real environment. Each subject had two sections of questions. The first section included items which measured brand promotion antecedents (value consciousness, smart shopper self-perception, brand loyalty, store loyalty); attitudes towards brand promotion; and brand preference. In this section, the current author adopted the brand promotion antecedents and brand promotion attitudes from Manzur et al.'s (2011) scale. The current author adopted Olson and Thjømøe's (2003) brand preference scale which matched almost that of Chen and Chang (2008). The second section was pertinent to personal information (gender, marital status, etc). The original questionnaire was in English and, then, it was translated into Arabic and, before application, the current author tested it to ensure accuracy. The current author intended to obtain 1000 surveys but received only 490 completed questionnaires (a 49% response rate). In order to test the non-response bias, the the current author compared the completed questionnaires from the early respondents with the later ones (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). The T-test results showed no significant differences between the previous two groups.

4. Characteristics of sample

Table 1 shows the characteristics of the sample's respondents. These include gender; marital status; number of children; number of times of shopping per week; education level; and job. The table demonstrates that female and male respondents are approximately equal (51.6% and 48.4%, respectively). More than 67% of the sample respondents were married and the majority of them had children (67.3%). In terms of

education level, 60% respondents had bachelor degrees. Most of the subjects worked in the private or public sectors (60%). Finally, most of them (62.4%) went shopping more than once a week (62.4%).

Table1. The characteristics of sample (N = 490)

	Percentage (%)	Frequency
Gender		
Male	48.4	237
Female	51.6	253
Marital		
Single	27.3	134
Married	67.6	331
Divorced	2.2	11
Widow	2.9	14
Children		
No child	32.7	160
Child	67.3	330
Times of shopping in a week		
One time	37.6	184
More than one	62.4	316
Education		
High School	18.2	89
Bachelor	58.2	285
Diploma/Master/Ph.D.	15.6	77
Others	8.0	39
Job		
Student	14.0	64
Work at private sector	28.3	129
Work at public sector	35.7	163
No job	22.0	100

5. Data analysis

Using PLS version 3, the current author applied the structural equation modeling to examine the proposed theoretical model. The current author divided the output into a measurement and a structural model. Before testing the structural model, the current author evaluated the measurement model to determine the reliability and validity of the constructs (Al-Somali, Gholami & Clegg, 2009).

5.1. The measurement model. The measurement model aimed to determine the reliability of the internal consistency and to assess the discriminant and convergent validity of the measures. These tests showed the strength of the measures for investigating the research model. Table 2 presents both the factor loadings of the items and all reliable measures: the composite reliability: and Cronbach's alpha coefficients. In terms of composite reliability, the value of each construct was above 0.70 whilst, with the exception of SL which was 0.40 (questionable), Cronbach's alpha of all factors was 0.60 or more. Therefore, the results agreed with the recommendations of Hair, Black, Babain, and Anderson (2010). These loadings were significant at ($p < 0.001$). Therefore, the measures included enough internal consistency.

Table 2. Combined loadings, reliability and validity of the constructs

Average variance extracted (AVE)	Composite reliability (CR)	Cronbach's alpha (α)	Loadings	Constructs and items
0.53	0.77	0.60	VA	
			0.78***	VA1
			0.76***	VA2
0.76	0.86	0.70	SP	
			0.63***	VA3
			0.87***	SP1
0.61	0.76	0.40	SL	
			0.87***	SP2
			0.78***	SL1
0.72	0.84	0.62	BL	
			0.78***	SL2
			0.85***	BL1
0.62	0.83	0.70	BA	
			0.85***	BL2
			0.70***	BA1
0.61	0.82	0.70	BP	
			0.84***	BA2
			0.83***	BA3
0.61	0.82	0.70	BP	
			0.83***	BP1
			0.83***	BP2
0.68***			BP	
			0.68***	BP3

Note: *** $p < .001$.

In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE), which was used to investigate convergent validity, was above the tolerance threshold of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010). Meanwhile, the square roots of AVE were employed to examine the discriminative validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As shown in Table 2, they had to be higher than the correlations between the dimension in question and the others in the measurement model. This confirmed that the instrument (questionnaire) has discriminant and convergent validity. Consequently, since the measures had solid constructs, the current author were ready, following these tests, to analysis the research hypotheses.

Table 3. Factor correlation matrix and discriminant validity

BP	SL	BL	SP	VA	BA	Construct
0.450***	0.260***	0.236***	0.192***	0.187***	0.790	BA
0.222***	0.175***	0.120***	0.296***	0.726	0.187***	VC
0.224***	0.240***	0.118***	0.870	0.296***	0.192***	SP
0.323***	0.408***	0.850	0.118***	0.120***	0.236***	BL
0.403***	0.780	0.408***	0.240***	0.175***	0.260***	SL
0.782	0.403***	0.323***	0.224***	0.222***	0.450***	BP

Note: *** $p < 0.001$.

5.2. The structural model/testing the research hypotheses. The current author used SEM to test the research hypotheses. Figure 1 displays the path

and determination coefficients of the research model. VC had a significantly positive effect on BA ($\beta = 0.12, p < 0.02$). SP was associated positively with BA ($\beta = 0.10, p < 0.04$). Also, there was significant support for the path from SL to BA ($\beta = 0.15, p < 0.01$), and there was a significant path coefficient between BL and BA ($\beta = 0.15, p < 0.01$).

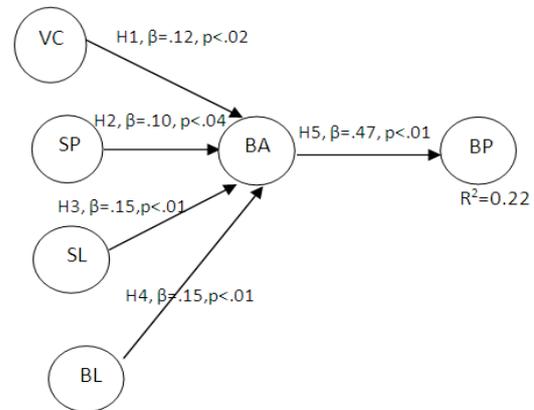


Fig. 1. Path coefficients

This meant that the higher levels of VA, SP, SL and BL supported the higher rates of BA. Moreover, there was a significant path between BA and BP ($\beta = 0.47, p < 0.01$). Finally, the model variables explained 22% of the variety in BP ($R^2 = 0.22$). Consequently, the current author accepted hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H4 and H5.

6. Discussion

Our findings confirmed all the study's hypotheses. This study's first key empirical finding was that brand loyalty increased attitudes toward brand promotion. These were consistent with the findings of Manzur et al. (2011) and Van Heerde et al. (2003).

The second finding was that value consciousness increased the consumer's attitude towards brand promotion. It was consistent with the finding of Manzur et al. (2011) and Garretson et al. (2002). The third finding was that store loyalty increased the consumer's attitude towards brand promotion. This finding matched those stated by Manzur et al. (2011), Garretson et al. (2002) and Krishnamurthi and Raj (1991).

The fourth finding was that smart shopper self-perception increased the consumer's attitude towards brand promotion. This agreed with the results of previous research (Manzur et al., 2011; Garretson et al., 2002). The fifth finding was that brand promotion increased the consumer's brand preference. Such results supported other research which did not deal with brand promotion since it hurt brand preference. Since this study emphasized the monetary promotion (utilitarian value), and addressed the brands which

seemed to be utilitarian products (which held extrinsic benefits), this result might be explained by the nature of the brand and the nature of the promotion. That was consistent with the referred to argument that promotions, which were compatible with the promoted product, were evaluated because they offered similar benefits. Also they would have a greater impact on this product's final value than promotions which offered incongruent benefits (Chandon et al., 2000). In addition, and consistent with the previous explanation, the schema congruity theory would support the latter finding. The schema congruity theory asserts that congruity has a positive influence on consumers' brand preferences (Liu et al., 2012). Accordingly, the consumers might expect a range of utilitarian values for their interesting utilitarian products; these were achieved. Consequently, their brand preference was revealed.

Contributions

This study contributed to the literature since it built a new research model focusing on: (1) testing the interaction between brand promotion antecedents (VC, SP, SL and BL) and customers' attitudes toward brand promotion in different environment (i.e., Egypt); and (2) examining the role of brand promotion attitudes in reinforcing brand preference. Moreover, the study enhanced our understanding of the integration between the acquisition-transition theory and schema congruity theory and, thereby, explaining the research relationships. Furthermore, it developed and validated the research constructs in a new geographical context (in a developing country, namely Egypt).

Implications

This study's findings suggest that marketers can choose one of the following three alternatives to maximize the quality/price ratio. They can reduce either the price since the level of quality is constant; or they can increase the level of quality since the price is constant; or they can reduce the price whilst, at the same time, increasing the quality. The last of these may be the most difficult alternative. Choosing between the first and the second alternatives is considered to be a dilemma (Sethuraman & Cole, 1999). Many manufacturers may respond to competition by increasing the brand's level of quality

(non-price promotion) (Manzur et al., 2011). The current author would recommend that the first alternative be adopted in order to obtain a quick response. In this case, the price change would be accentuated and perceived immediately and obviously. On the other hand, changes in product quality would require more time to be verified, especially in Egypt which, at present, is experiencing various economic problems. This implication would be supported by the notion that "the highest value for the consumer is viewed as the lowest priced product that meets his specific quality requirements" (Lichtenstein et al., 1990, p. 56).

This study highlighted the fact that, although loyal consumers were more likely to pay full price for their favourite brands (Garretson et al., 2002, p. 92), they would be price sensitive regarding decisions on quantity (Krishnamurthi & Raj, 1991; Garretson et al., 2002; Ailawadi et al., 2001). Based on the distinction between decisions on brand choice and quantity of purchase (Krishnamurthi & Raj, 1991), marketing planners should justify why they need to use promotions. In addition, when they address loyal consumers, they should consider making two sacrifices. The first one is related to the funding of the promotional campaign. The second sacrifice would be the reduction in profitability which would occur when, during promotions, loyal consumers seek to stock up on the brand instead of purchasing it at its regular price (Krishnamurthi & Raj, 1991). In addition, the marketer should consider whether to use in-store or out-of-store promotions since Ailawadi et al. (2001) suggested that, whilst out-of-store promotions were matched to loyal customers, in-store promotions might motivate the consumers (who were not loyal) to switch and try another brand.

Limitations and further research

This study focused on monetary promotions. The current author recommends that, using the same construct, research should be conducted to study monetary and non-monetary promotions. In addition, the current author applied this study to Mansoura city; it might have unique consumption habits which are different from other Egyptian cities. Consequently, this might be considered to be an additional limitation to our study.

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Appendix. Questionnaire

Part (A). Please use the following scale to describe your opinion towards brand name product: 5 = Strongly Agree (SA), 4 = Agree (A), 3 = Neutral (N), 2 = Disagree (D) and 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD).

	Items	SD	D	N	A	SA
1	Beyond the money I save, buying brands on deal makes me happy.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Compared to other people, I am very likely to purchase brands that come with promotional offers.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I enjoy buying a brand that is on deal.	1	2	3	4	5
4	When grocery shopping, I compare the prices of different brands to be sure I get the best value for the money.	1	2	3	4	5
5	When I shop, I usually compare the price per ounce information for brands I normally buy.	1	2	3	4	5
6	When purchasing a product, I always try to maximize the quality I get for the money I spend.	1	2	3	4	5
7	When I go shopping, I take a lot of pride in making smart purchases.	1	2	3	4	5
8	When I shop smartly, I feel like a winner.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I generally buy the same brands I have always bought.	1	2	3	4	5
10	If I like a brand, I rarely switch just to try something different.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I am willing to make an effort to shop at my favorite grocery store.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I prefer to always shop at one grocery store.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I feel that brand name is appealing to me.	1	2	3	4	5
14	In total I prefer brand name.	1	2	3	4	5
15	If I was to buy a product, I would prefer brand name if everything else was equal.	1	2	3	4	5

Part (B). Personal information (optional).

Please tick where appropriate.

1. Gender

- Male
- Female

2. What is your marital status

- Single
- Divorced
- Widow/widower
- Married
- Other

3. I have children:

- No children
- One
- Two
- More than two

4. How many times do you make shopping per week?

- One time
- Twice
- Three times or more

5. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?

- Bachelor degree
- Diploma
- Master degree
- Doctorate degree.
- Other (please specify)
- Student
- Job at private sector
- Job at government institution
- Other (please specify)
- No job