Consumer Food Shopping Behaviour in Libya

By

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Declaration

No portion of this work referred to in this thesis has been submitted in support of an application for any other degree or qualification from this or any other University or Institute of learning

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Abstract

This thesis explores consumer food shopping behaviour in an emerging economy, taking the Libyan case as an example. As in many other emerging economies, Libya's retail environment has been dominated for generations by traditional markets and small independent stores but has recently witnessed the spread of 'modern' formats such as supermarkets.

The study draws on both qualitative and quantitative research. The qualitative research provided evidence of a complex picture, highlighting significant variations, from family to family and geographically, in the social acceptability of females shopping at traditional markets and other retail formats. In Libya, food shopping has traditionally been a task for male household members, with traditional markets regarded as inappropriate spaces for females. However the safer, cleaner, and less crowded environment offered by large supermarkets contributed to some women feeling more comfortable shopping for food and henceforth being able to shop as independent consumers. Traditional culture, rather than constraining the spread of supermarkets, may act as a facilitator of the growing popularity of supermarkets in Libya.

The main quantitative research instrument was a self-administered questionnaire of Libyan food shoppers in Benghazi city. 371 completed questionnaires were obtained. Factor analysis revealed 12 factors that underlie the reasons consumers go shopping for food. The application of cluster analysis to the dimensions factor scores revealed six segments of food shoppers. The characteristics of each cluster were described by average factor scores on the dimensions of shopping motivations, demographic characteristics, and behavioural variables.

The most important retail outlet attributes in the choice of where to buy food were, in descending order, food safety, quality of products, quality of service, speed of service, and variety of products. The findings also indicated that on all items supermarkets performed the best; except for freshness of products and in-store credit (traditional markets were perceived as superior on freshness of products and independent stores for in-store credit)**.** Only for one attribute (car parking) were differences in the mean scores between supermarkets, traditional markets and independent stores not statistically significant.

Econometric modelling considered the possible relationships between shopping behaviour and the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents. This confirmed a major finding of the qualitative research - that females were significantly less likely than males to visit traditional markets and spent proportionally more in supermarkets. Supermarket visitors were more concerned with social acceptability whereas, patrons of traditional markets placed greater emphasis on freshness. Heavy users of independent stores placed greater emphasis on in-store credit.

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“Who does not thank people does not thank Allah” (Prophet Mohammed peace be upon him)

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Chapter 1 Study Background

1.1. Introduction

This introductory chapter is divided into ten sub-sections. The second section discusses the background of the research, outlining the scope of the study. The Libyan context is then introduced in the third section, followed by a statement of the research problem. The purpose and objectives of the study are outlined in sections five and six respectively. Section seven provides an overview of the study questions. Section eight outlines the significance of the study while section nine presents an overview of the structure of the thesis. The final section summarises the main themes of the chapter.

1.2. Research Background

Recently, much attention has been focused on consumer food shopping behaviour. In developing countries, consumer food shopping behaviour has undergone rapid changes, because of many social and economic factors. Understanding consumers and their shopping behaviour is vital for marketers to develop marketing strategies. Marketing is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon because of interlocking relationships with the various dimensions in society whether economic, political, and social (Moreira *et al.*, 2012). As a result, marketing outcomes are strongly correlated with consumers (who represent the demand side) and producers (who represent the supply side). Both consumers and producers, in turn, influence and are affected by economic, political and social circumstances and conditions. In addition, governments also play an important role in shaping marketing systems through their policies(Reardon *et al.*, 2009).

Food marketing systems have been changing rapidly in the last 30 years. But this change is not the same in all parts of the world. The food marketing system in the developed world altered earlier and faster than the developing world. Developing countries have witnessed the rapid spread of supermarkets, squeezing the market share of traditional small-scale grocery stores and food markets in the early to mid-1990s (Reardon *et al.*, 2007). This process is often labelled retail modernization (Goldman *et al.*, 2002). Modernization has, however, been geographically uneven, with the penetration of supermarkets also varying by product category. In order to understand these changes some questions must be asked about when, how and why these changes happen. Moreover, it is important to identify whether modernization has encountered success and acceptance in all countries or not. To this end, previous studies in the relevant field were reviewed.

1.2.1. Modern Formats versus Traditional Formats

Over the last decade, the developing world has witnessed a rapid expansion of supermarkets and modern distribution in the food-marketing sector, at the expense of traditional retail outlets. Much previous research on developing countries (Goldman *et al*. 1999; Reardon *et al*. 2003; Cadilhon *et al*. 2006; Reardon *et al*. 2007) and transitional economies (Dries *et al*., 2004) distinguished between 'traditional' and 'modern' food retail formats. Two theories are apparent. In the first theory, traditional formats are thought to have enduring advantages, and this direction has been reported in some Asian countries such as Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore (Goldman *et al*., 1999).

However, not all accept Goldman and his colleagues' analysis. Reardon *et al.* (2007) argued that modern retail formats in East Asia "took off" in the late 1990_s whereas Goldman *et al*.'s (1999) conclusions drew on data for the mid-$1990_{s.}$ Reardon *et al.* (2007 argued that they underestimated the ability of supermarkets to develop rapidly and successfully in emerging markets.

Modern retail formats include hypermarkets, superstores, supermarkets and convenience chains (Reardon *et al*., 2007). Cash and carry stores are also often included into modern retail, as while formally belonging to the wholesale sector, "in most developing countries they *de facto* mix retail and wholesale" (Reardon *et al*., 2007, p.400). Supermarkets are typically the most popular modern retail format when measured by share of sales and have been the main focus of studies of retail modernization (Goldman *et al.* 2002; Reardon *et al.* 2003). Traditional formats include markets, often labelled wet or fresh markets, street stalls, and independent small-scale outlets which may be specialists (e.g. butchers, bakers) or general stores (D'Haese *et al*. 2008; Goldman *et al*. 2002; Ho, 2005; Reardon *et al*. 2007).

1.2.2. Modern Retail Formats

There is no doubt that the retail food sector has been undergoing substantial change in developing countries, with the rapid spread of modern retail formats. A plethora of studies document the spread of supermarkets in developing countries, for instance in Costa Rica (Irene and Kiupssy, 2002); Argentina (Gutman, 2002); Croatia (Reardon *et al*. 2003); Africa (Weatherspoon and Reardon, 2003); Kenya (Neven and Reardon, 2004; Humphrey, 2007); Madagascar (Minten *et al*., 2005); Vietnam (Cadilhon *et al.*, 2006); Nicaragua (D'Haese *et al.* 2008); China (Uncles and Kwok, 2009);

India (Minten *et al.*, 2010); and Thailand(Gorton *et al.*, 2011). Notwithstanding a few notable exceptions (Tessier *et al.*, 2010; Amine and Lazzaoui, 2011), to date there has been little research on the restructuring of food retail markets in North Africa. As Tessier *et al.* (2010, p.1417) note "studies providing evidence regarding consumers' motivations...with respect to the type of food outlet for food shopping are rare in south Mediterranean countries".

In his pioneering work, Goldman (1974) identified three sets of factors that influence the adoption of supermarkets in developing countries: spatial, informational and social – cultural. Spatial factors refer to transport costs and the ease with which goods can be carried back to the purchaser's home. Informational factors relate to the awareness of shopping alternatives and price differences. Social and cultural factors, for Goldman (1974), refer to the emphasis on personal relationships, empathy and social interaction. He argued that the adoption of supermarkets would be limited as "low income consumers in developing countries tend to place a great deal of emphasis on personal relationships with their retailers and shy from unfamiliar environments" (Goldman, 1974, p.11). Adoption of supermarkets would also be limited where traditional markets and independent stores are regarded as social centres where friends and neighbours meet. Samiee (1993) makes similar points relating to the role of personal relationships.

In later empirical work, Goldman *et al.* (2002), distinguished between the diffusion of supermarkets across consumer segments and product categories. Drawing on data for Hong Kong, they identified positive relationships between supermarket adoption and the density of population and car ownership. Negative relationships with the number of non-working adults in the household and the purchase of perishable foods were also identified. Relationships with cultural factors were not explicitly modelled. Their work on Hong Kong led Goldman *et al*. (1999, p. 126) to argue that the penetration of supermarkets in East Asia would remain substantially below that in North America and Western Europe, because of the "persistent competitive advantage of traditional food retailers". They asserted that traditional retailers possess cost advantages and are more suited to the values of consumers in developing countries which they label "indifference to variety, quality, service, shopping environment, emphasis on price" (Goldman *et al*., 1999, p. 128).

Reardon and Berdegué (2002) reported that modern retail formats can be divided into three types: (1) hypermarkets that refer to stores with more than 50,000 square feet of floor space, and a wide variety of food and non-food products, with extensive car parks; (2) supermarkets that refer to self-service grocery stores with between 3,000 to 50,000 square feet, which sell food, beverages, and other goods with car parking provision and (3) convenience stores that can be considered to be small self-service retail outlets with between 500 and 3,000 square feet in total selling area. The most important characteristics of these formats are self-service sales of food and other goods that are packaged and branded, with trolleys and /or baskets and a payment point. These can be compared with traditional markets which are a group of individual stalls situated in an open space within a street or a multi-story building. Traditional market retailers sell a wide variety of food products, such as fruit, live seafood, poultry, vegetables. Sellers of related products are usually grouped together in the same location, so that customers can easily compare the cost and quality of goods being offered (Ho, 2005).

Regarding research on North Africa, Tessier *et al.* (2010) and Amine and Lazzaoui (2011) studied food shopping behaviour in Tunisia and Morocco respectively. Evidence from Greater Tunis (Tunisia) indicated that the use of supermarkets remains biased to wealthier and better educated consumers. Consumers overwhelmingly shopped at both ‘modern’ and ‘traditional’ retail outlets: only 4.2% of those sampled used supermarkets to the exclusion of all other formats. Amine and Lazzaoui’s (2011) qualitative study of the use of hypermarkets in Rabat (Morocco) also linked the use of “modern” retail formats to socio-economic status, with the authors interpreting the format as offering the middle classes with a means ‘to differentiate themselves from the lower classes and to express a sense of belonging and a unique social identity” (p. 570).

Recent research on the food shopping behaviour of citizens of Middle East explicitly considered religious factors (Hino, 2010). Regarding religion, Hino (2010, p. 64) argued that “high levels of religiosity can be indicative of a stronger sense of community, belonging, and commitment to collective standards”. He hypothesizes that in Islamic societies, the requirement for Halal food leads consumers to prefer traditional stores rather than supermarkets, as the Halal accreditation of the goods stocked in the latter is questionable. Regarding ethnic-cultural factors, Hino (2010) asserts that the importance placed on freshness, cooking and meal preparation in Arab culture leads to a higher use of traditional formats. Econometric evidence supported the notion of positive linkages between the use of traditional outlets and religiosity and ethnic-cultural variables. However it is important to note that the unit of analysis in Hino’s (2010) study was the household and the role of gender was not explicitly considered.

1.2.3. Diffusion of Modern Retail

The spread of modern retail formats in developing countries may be classified into four waves (Reardon and Berdegué, 2008): the first wave, "take off", occurred in some states of East Asia beyond China and Japan, South America, Northern-Central Europe and the Baltic States, and South Africa in the early to mid of 1990s. The share of supermarkets in these countries has increased on average from 10% to 60%. The second wave, which started with the end of the first wave, focused on Mexico and much of Southeast Asia, Central America, and Southern-Central Europe. The rate of increase in the contribution of supermarkets to food retail sales was about 55%. At the turn of the millennium, the third wave took place in parts of Africa, some countries in Central and South America, Southeast Asia and China and India and Russia. Currently the fourth wave is taking place in West Africa where supermarkets are novel.

1.2.4. Why Modern Formats Spread Rapidly

Most of the studies conducted on this subject indicate that the factors that have led to the rapid rise in modern formats in developing countries mirror the factors that underpinned their growth in developed countries. According to several commentators (Neven and Reardon, 2004; D'Haese *et al*., 2008; Reardon and Berdegué, 2008) the main drivers of this trend can be summarized as following: demand-side factors which are considered the cornerstone of change in the marketing system such as, urbanization; the rapid increase in real incomes per capita and its distribution and the opportunity cost of women's time. Supply-side factors, such trade liberalisation and foreign direct investment, have also facilitated the spread of modern retail formats. In addition, the modernization of supermarket procurement systems has also played an important role (centralisation through distribution centres [DCs]; shift from traditional brokers to specialised wholesalers; shift from sourcing via spot markets to using preferred suppliers; shift from local procurement to regional sourcing; and development of private standards for quality and safety). Moreover, governments may directly invest in modern retail; encouraging the spread of supermarkets by offering some incentives and facilities. Examples of the latter include tax incentive policies (tax exoneration for supermarkets) and the enactment of legislation in order to restrict the development and growth of wet markets in South Korea (Reardon *et al.*, 2012).

1.2.5. Implications of the Spread of Supermarket Sector

Proviso research highlighted (Irene and Kiupssy, 2002; Reardon and Swinnen, 2004) that modern retail chains and the new procurement systems have a significant effect on other segments of the agri-food system such as consumers, traditional retailers, and suppliers. The benefits of modern retailing may accrue to both consumers and to producers. Advocates argued that the shift to supermarkets is consumer driven as they provide several advantages: good quality, the convenience of self-service, which is considered an opportunity to hold and inspect the products, as well as low price, which is very attractive to low-income consumers as retail modernization achieves cost savings through economies of scale (Hagen, 2002).

This growth of supermarkets presents a big challenge to traditional retailers. However, a challenge occasionally is necessary to achieve some positive results. For instance, the traditional retail (wet market) in Hong Kong, which constitutes a major challenger to modern formats, has survived by focusing on the weaknesses of modern markets, particularly in the marketing of fresh food. This trend led to a counter theory, which posits that traditional formats have enduring advantages.

1.2.6. Traditional Retail Formats

Several studies focus on traditional retail formats in developing countries (Goldman *et al*., 1999; Goldman *et al*., 2002; Ho, 2005; Gorton *et al*., 2011). In many developing countries, traditional retailers (markets and independent stores) are considered the major outlet delivering services that are valued by many customers. This is not only because of some structural factors but also as a result of a deep relationship with traditional customs and habits, which are integral to the culture and history of each country. Usually, a wet market consists of many small vendors, each specializing in one fresh food line (meat, fish, fruit, or vegetables) or in a sub-line (e.g., leaf vegetables, exotic fruits) (Goldman *et al.*, 1999). Retailers complement each other offering a full variety of fresh food. As a result, a comparison between the prices and qualities of different goods is possible and easy to make.

Even though, modernization researchers have shown the significance of the rise of modern formats in both developing countries and South Asia, supermarkets' share of fresh food sales is notably lower than for non-perishables (Othman, 1987;Goldman *et al*., 1999). Many studies in developing economies (Othman, 1987; Goldman *et al*., 1999; Goldman *et al*., 2002; Ho, 2005; Gorton *et al*., 2011) have reported cases of supermarket failure as consumers continue to buy their food in traditional formats. For example, in Hong Kong (Ho, 2005) wet markets remain dominant. Rather than supermarkets setting the pace, they are adopting some of the characteristics of traditional formats in an effort to improve their presence in fresh food markets (Goldman *et al.*, 1999).

1.2.7. Arguments for the Superiority of Traditional Formats

A number of studies seek to explain wet markets' continued strength compared against supermarkets in fresh foods (Goldman *et al*., 1999; Goldman *et al*., 2002; Ho, 2005). In Hong Kong, the supermarkets started to sell fresh food during the 1980s, and today all supermarkets carry fresh food lines. In these supermarkets, the marketing of fresh food is characterised by a focus on Western products, rather than Chinese products, and variety is relatively low.

Several factors were identified as the reasons for superiority of traditional formats in developing countries (Samiee, 1993; Goldman *et al*., 1999): one reason is that their supply and distribution system is more suited to the local market, enabling them to meet consumers' needs by providing higher levels of service, better quality products, and cheaper prices. Another reason is consumers' abilities and preferences (e.g., income, storage facilities, emphasis on price, frequent store visits). A final reason is government attitudes and actions. The government may actively support one of the formats while constraining the operation of another. Foreign owned retail chains have found access to some developing countries difficult.

Goldman, *et al*. (1999) claimed that the superiority of wet markets in Hong Kong is based on functional advantages in variety and service (ability to respond more effectively than supermarkets to the particular fresh food needs of Hong Kong's consumers). As well as providing consumers with greater freshness in fish and meat items, Goldman *et al.* (1999) claimed they also offer cheaper prices. This is because weak production and distribution systems raise the cost of supermarkets, limiting their ability to compete on price. In contrast, according to Goldman and his colleagues (2002), the strengths of supermarkets on convenience, variety, and cleanliness attributes are regarded as relatively less important to Asian shoppers.

1.2.8. How Traditional Formats are Changing

In Hong Kong, in order to modernize, wet markets improve their shopping environments, following two broad strategies. One method is a partial transfer modernization strategy. Modifications of elements in the traditional formats, not their replacement, are at the centre of this strategy. These elements are transferred from abroad either by foreign retailers purchasing local companies or traditional retailers importing selected elements from modern retail formats. Another strategy is the endogenous modification modernization strategy where no transfer from abroad is involved. Local retailers respond to changes in local conditions by modifying and adapting their existing traditional formats (Goldman *et al.* 1999; Ho, 2005).

1.2.9. How Supermarkets Deal with this Challenge

The challenge is not easy for supermarket executives. In order to overcome this problem they are forced to reformulate their strategies and develop new ones. Consequently, a repertoire of strategies is followed: one strategy is to concentrate its commercial operations on products which the supermarkets believe that they have a competitive advantage (e.g., fruit, chicken, Western vegetables, pork) and conceding the most difficult products to the wet markets to deal with it (e.g., fish, seafood and Chinese vegetables...*etc*). Another strategy is that of imitation by mimicking the feel of wet markets in supermarkets such as incorporating wet floors, live fish in aquariums, and butchers cutting meat to consumer specifications. If modern formats need to be more successful they must remove consumers' perceptions that their fresh food is inferior. In actual fact, both strategies represent an acknowledgment by the supermarket companies of the success and reliability of wet markets, as argued by supporters of the theory that traditional formats having enduring advantages (Goldman *et al.*, 1999).

Supermarkets have already emerged in Libya especially, in the capital and other large cities. Up to the present time, no such research on the spread of supermarkets has been undertaken in Libya, and only a few studies specifically address the issue of food retail modernization in Arab societies explicitly or implicitly (e.g., El-Adly, 2007; Alhemoud, 2008; Sohail, 2008; Hino, 2010; Tessier *et al.*, 2010; Amine and Lazzaoui, 2011) . Basic information about Libya is presented in the next section. However, analysis is limited as there are no official publications concerning the retail sector in Libya, for example documenting the number of food retail outlets, the number of supermarkets and markets, food sales, retail sales, and foreign direct investment in retailing.

1.3. Background of Libya

In general, the marketing systems of developing countries have undergone massive change as a consequence of, globalisation and the liberalisation of international trade. Furthermore, the evolution of food retailing systems has been uneven due to variations in domestic economic reforms. A number of questions must be raised about the developments in the marketing system in Libya. Given the limited previous research, data sources and information on this domain, the focus of the study and analysis of the situation without a doubt was challenging. On the other hand, studying this emerging development was very interesting and stimulating.

1.3.1. Location

Libya is the fourth largest country in Africa, covering 1.5 million km^2 (Al-Hengari *et al.*, 2007). It lies on the north coast of Africa, adjoining the Mediterranean Sea. Libya is bordered by Tunisia and Algeria to the west, Egypt to the east; and to the south are the Sudan, Chad, and Niger. Much of the country lies within the desert.

1.3.2. Population

At present there is no reliable and up to date statistics regarding Libya's population. A World Bank (2011) report estimated that Libya's population was approximately 6.4 million, with a growth rate about 1.1%. About a half of the population is female (49.6%). According to the 2010 census, the number of households was estimated to be 981,190 with an average size of 5.77 members (General Authority for Information, 2010).

1.3.3. Culture

Libyan culture is structured around an Arab/Berber tribal system of society (Attir and Al-Azzabi, 2004). Tribes (*qabila*) are often broken into sections (*bayt*). Each *bayt* is, in turn, subdivided into families, then branches into a number of smaller family groups (Najem, 2004). Libya has an estimated 140 tribes, only about 30 of which are viewed as having any real significance.

1.3.4. Religion

The vast majority of the Libyan population are Sunni Muslims (Attir and Al-Azzabi, 2004). The people are fundamentally attached to their Islamic faith. Therefore religion permeates all facets of life. Thus Libyans differ from many Arab countries where there are more than one religion and more than one rite. However, there were more than one million foreigners in Libya before the revolution of 17th of February 2011, many of whom belong to different Christian sects and to many Indo-China religions (Attir and Al-Azzabi, 2004).

1.3.5. The Role of Women

In the first half of the 20th Century, women in urban Libya were largely confined to their homes and would not venture out without wearing the veil. While Libya's constitution is one of the minority of Arab nations that grants females equal rights to employment and education (World Bank, 2006), there are still deeply-embedded socio-cultural norms that mean that women's participation in the labour force remains low (World Bank, 2006). For instance, in 2008 women accounted for only 22% of the workforce (World Bank, 2011), a figure unchanged from 1996 (Attir and Al-Azzabi, 2004). In part this reflects the primary importance of the oil industry in Libya, which is male dominated (Ross, 2008). The vast majority of working women in Libya (87%) are employed in the public sector, particularly health and education (World Food Programme and FAO, 2011). In some Libyan families it remains unacceptable for women to work away from the home. In these cases, while food preparation remains a female activity, the male head of household typically undertakes food shopping.

1.3.6. Social and Economic Restructuring

In the past decade, however, Libya has undergone rapid social and economic restructuring, which has been apparent in the recent uprisings and revolutions in the wider Arab world (Gelvin, 2012). From the late 1990s onwards Libyan government policy shifted to encourage private sector investment and attract foreign capital. Between 2000 and 2010, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) grew on average by 4.6 per cent per annum (International Monetary Fund, 2010). Changes in GDP during the period 2000-2010 were documented in Table 1-1.

Supermarkets and fast food outlets are common in the capital and other large cities. Tripoli and Benghazi, the two largest cities, possess several shopping malls. Social changes are also significant. Over fifty per cent of the population is below 25 years of age, with young people often enjoying lifestyles far removed from those of their parents. The role of women in household and employment activities is also changing, with traditional boundaries being, albeit unevenly, contested and transgressed (Elbendak, 2008).

Table 1-1: Gross Domestic Product (GDP), Current Prices during (2000- 2010)

Years	GDP[1]
2000	38.228
2001	34.074
2002	21.916
2003	26.431
2004	34.647
2005	44.031
2006	56.479
2007	71.603
2008	88.887
2009	60.238
2010	77.912

Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF) (2010).

[1] Billions U.S. Dollars

Given Libya's level of GDP per capita, one would expect significant foreign direct investment in the "modern" grocery retailing sector (Dries *et al.*, 2004). Western grocery retailers such as Walmart, Tesco and Carrefour, have invested substantially in emerging markets, motivated by the "push" of saturated domestic markets and the "pull" of higher growth in currently underserved foreign markets (Alexander, 1990; McGoldrick, 2002). However, the supermarket sector in Libya to date remains entirely in domestic ownership. This reflects the restrictions on foreign direct investment in the country and its uncertain political outlook both during the era of the Gaddafi regime and its immediate aftermath (Emporiki Bank, 2012).

The Libyan economy depends primarily upon revenues from the oil and gas industry (Al-Hengari *et al.*, 2007). The non-oil manufacturing and construction sectors, which accounts for more than 20% of GDP, has expanded from processing mostly agricultural products to include the production of petrochemicals, iron, steel, and aluminium. By African standards, Libya has a high level of GDP – equivalent to approximately $10,000 per person in the mid-2000s (United Nations Development Programme, 2009). Incomes were boosted by high oil revenues. However, Libya's economy is underdeveloped compared to the oil exporting states of the Middle East (World Bank, 2006). The sentiment that Libyans failed to benefit sufficiently from the country's energy resources under the Gaddafi regime contributed significantly to the popular uprising. The effect of the uprising on the economy varied geographically but, by and large, shops remained open with supermarkets and traditional markets well stocked (Audley et al. 2011;World Food Programme and FAO, 2011).

Many Libyan citizens joined the uprisings of 2011 and the country witnessed a popular revolution in order to change the political and economic conditions that were in place for 42 years under the Gaddafi regime. In the civil war period, the National Transitional Council that was formed on 27th of February 2011 to act as "the political face of the revolution" played the primary role in the leadership of the state, with support from the tribal-based system (Gelvin, 2012). A majority of countries recognized the National Transitional Council as the sole governmental authority. This interim body governed Libya for a period of ten months after the end of the war.

Currently, the National Transitional Council has been replaced by General National Congress which was elected on 7th of July 2012. This body appointed a prime minister and cabinet, with Dr

Ali Zeidan succeeding Dr Abdel Rahim Al- Keeb as an interim prime minister in October 2012. However, Libya's political future remains uncertain; the government and the General National Congress are an interim body, in place only until elections are held in accordance with the country's new constitution (The United Nations, 2013).

1.4. Statement of the Problem

Libya is an emerging market that is currently attracting considerable international interest. A number of global retailers are planning to enter this market or increase their investments, after the opening of the door to foreign investment according to Foreign Investment Law No. (5) for the year 1997 on the promotion of investment of foreign capital, which was amended in 2006 and Law No. (9) (2001) covering the organization of transit trade and free zones (Shamia, 2007). In addition, Libya has been facing important economic and social changes since the end of the 1990s, the influence of which is reflected at all levels, including patterns of food shopping behaviour. Government policy also changed. Measures were introduced to promote restructuring programs, encourage the private sector to participate seriously in economic life, attract foreign capital and achieve economic growth and stability. To date the achievements have been modest, and participation is less than the desired level, and the continued dominance of public economic institutions is clear. Moreover, the changes in the marketing system are still unclear as well up to now no evidence could be relied upon to analyse the situation.

Even though, some of the large European retail chains (e.g. Marks & Spencer) have a presence in Libya, especially in the capital city of Tripoli, and a large number of modern retail stores have emerged in recent years competing with traditional markets, there is a dearth of research on this topic and it is yet to receive the attention it deserves. Consequently, there is a need to examine consumer food shopping behaviour, addressing this gap in the literature by investigating the specific situation in Libya. This study makes an important contribution to the existing literature by extending our knowledge of food shopping behaviour to an Arab and North African background.

However, taking into account recent events, although the door is still open for foreign investment in Libya, it would be a mistake not to recognise that the political and security outlook for the country remains uncertain and that a number of factors will impact on the Libyan business environment, in the aftermath of the revolution that took place in Libya in February 2011.

1.5. Research Aim

The main aim of this study is to explore consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya. Although there is an expectation that the Libyan shopper has several characteristics in common with non-Libyans, they may have many distinguishing features and merit consideration as an independent case. To this end, the main attention was paid to review the literature on Arab and developing countries to better understand and develop the research's empirical framework, as well as to focus the study in the correct manner.

1.6. Research Objectives

The key issue of this thesis is to understand Libyan food shopping behaviour. Based on a review of the literature, some specific objectives were identified as follows:

1. To explore the key determinants of consumer's patronage of the three main retail formats in Libya, namely traditional markets, modern supermarkets, and independent stores.
2. To identify the underlying factors that influence consumer food shopping motivations in Libya.
3. To classify the consumers to segments, identifying the membership of each group on the basis of food shopping motives, values and decision-making styles and, profiling them in terms of food shopping behaviour, and demographic characteristics.
4. To identify whether there are differences between respondents in terms of patronage of supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores in terms of demographic characteristics and the identified image dimensions.
5. To identify the determinants of variations in expenditure across particular product categories (fresh fruit and vegetables, fresh meat, fresh fish, packaged food, and beverages).

1.7. Research Questions

The research project sets out to answer a number of questions. The key questions are as follows:

1. What are the main factors that influence retail outlet formats choice in Libya?
2. What are the shopping motivations, values and decision making styles that drive consumers' patterns of food shopping?
3. What are the consumer segments that could be developed on the basis of food shopping motives, values and decision-making styles?

4. Do consumers differ in terms of patronage of supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores across their demographic characteristics and the identified image dimension?
5. How do consumers differ in their expenditure across selected product categories?

1.8. An overview of the Research Design

The research design links the theory and arguments that informed the research and the empirical data collected (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2007). Research designs can be explained as the organisation of research activities, including the collection of data, in ways that are most likely to achieve the research aims (Bryman and Bell, 2007). This section describes an overview of the research design which was applied in this thesis in order to address the research's objectives as shown in Figure 1-1.

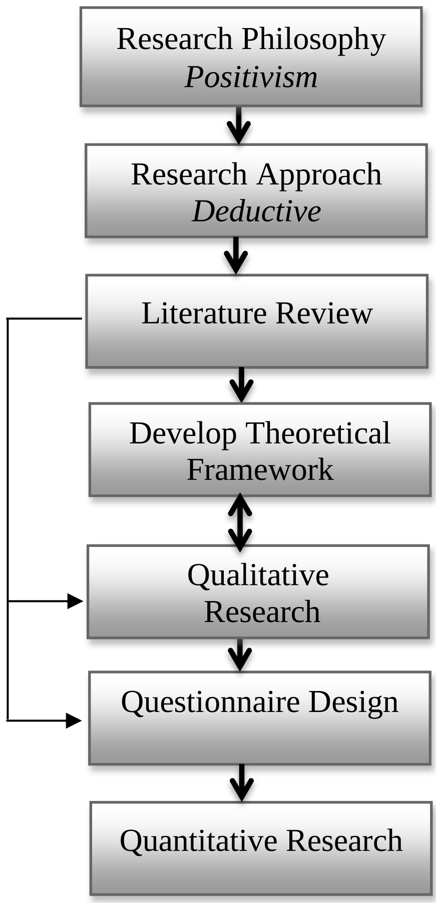

Figure 1-1: Research Design

The research design assists researchers to draw a general outline for the collection and analysis of the data of a study (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2007). In any attempt at explanation, prediction and understanding of a phenomenon, the researcher should clearly declare the assumptions and delimitations of the study. In order to conduct any research, it is therefore important to consider some underlying philosophical assumptions about what constitutes valid research and which, as a first step, research methods were appropriate for the development of knowledge in a given study. Various factors were considered in formulating the research design. Each stage of the research and its methodology was described extensively, including the procedures for collecting the required data, in Chapter 4.

This study was within the positivistic paradigm of research philosophy with a deductive approach to the collection and analysis of data. Positivism can be defined as “an organised method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity” (Neuman, 2010, p. 58). Hussey and Hussey (1997) noted that under a positivistic paradigm the process is to study the literature to establish an appropriate theory and construct a hypothesis. The theory, hypothesis and model in a study are derived from the literature, with hypotheses tested using statistical analysis. The deductive approach was chosen for this study because there is an existing, strong theoretically driven literature on consumer behaviour, on which this research could be based.

The purpose of the research was to investigate which factors influence Libyan consumer food shopping behaviour. In order to answer the research questions, a theoretical framework was formulated from the existing literature. On one hand, having reviewed the literature in the field of consumer behaviour, it was found that extensive work has been conducted, suggesting that this is a mature area. On the other hand, however, little of this work focuses on non-Western markets and an Arab context in particular. Therefore, this study will build on existing research by developing a theoretical framework and empirically validating this framework in a particular context, namely Libya.

The research took place in two stages, during which both exploratory and analytical research approaches were undertaken employing mixed methods research. The first stage, which adopted an exploratory research design, collected qualitative data to: clarify problems, elicit information about consumer views regarding the topic at hand, refine questionnaire design and, construct research hypotheses for the following stage. The second stage adopted an analytical focus involving statistical analysis, to quantify the relationships between variables.

The empirical part of the study, the research strategy chosen for this study was a mixed method approach including qualitative and quantitative stages. A mixed method design can be described as where the researcher combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts, or language into a single study. The goal of mixed methods research is to draw on the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both types of research (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2009).

Qualitative research was conducted as a preparatory step for the quantitative study in order to get an initial understanding of Libyan consumer food shopping behaviour and to check that concepts and survey questions taken from other countries fitted with the Libyan case. However, collecting only qualitative data can be problematic, limiting the generalisation of findings (Saunders *et al*., 2009). To overcome this, qualitative research was linked to a subsequent quantitative study.

A quantitative method was adopted in this thesis to test the validity of hypotheses derived from theory. The main data collection technique was a self-administered questionnaire that was developed for some constructs based on the exploratory interviews along with previous scales found in the literature. Data were collected using a drop-off / pick-up survey method. In order to clarify the questions and the appropriateness of the proposed scales both pretesting and a pilot study were conducted. The sample technique and sample size used in the research were influenced by the unrest in the place of study (Libya) as well as by the availability of the resources (Saunders *et al*. 2009), consequently, a non-probability sampling method was employed.

- **The Unit of Analysis**

One important idea in a research project is the unit of analysis, since this is linked with the strategy for data collection. The unit of analysis is the major entity to be analysed in a particular study. It is the “what” or “who” that is being studied (Babbie, 2011). In social science research, there are several units of analysis that are commonly used, including: individuals, groups, and organizations (*ibid*). Regarding “who” that is being studied, this study investigates the factors that affect consumer food shopping behaviour at the household level. Following previous studies, therefore, persons who regularly purchased food and grocery items for themselves and/or their families were identified as the unit of analysis.

Concerning what is being studied, attention was paid to shopping motivations and decision making styles, determinants of store patronage and choice between the three main formats including traditional markets, supermarkets, and independent stores, and the average percentage of respondents' total spending on fresh fruit and vegetables (FFV), fresh meat, fresh fish, packaged goods, and beverages accounted for by different retail formats. These five categories were chosen in the light of the qualitative research findings. According to the interviews, the supermarkets accounted for the majority of purchases of packaged foods while traditional markets were frequented more for fruit and vegetables and fresh fish. Butchers as one type of independent store accounted for most purchases of fresh meat. Not surprisingly, some other staple goods such as bread, flour, and rice despite their importance in the food consumption pattern of the Libyan people, were not mentioned specifically. This is mainly because they are supplied at subsidized prices in consumer co-operatives and in bakeries for bread, and thus comprise a smaller percentage of family income.

➢ **Choosing the Correct Statistical Test**

The analysis of the data firstly dealt with the description of the data. Then, various statistical tests were applied to analyse the data thoroughly taking into account differences in the nature of data and the research objectives. The major techniques were factor analysis (including confirmatory and exploratory analysis), cluster analysis, and econometric analysis including Probit and Tobit models.

1.9. Significance of the Study

The current study is one of the first empirical studies done on consumers in an Arabic culture (i.e. Libya) dealing with consumer behaviour in an emerging market taking into account different types of store formats. The vast majority of previous food consumer shopping studies were conducted within a Western context. Answering the research questions documented in this chapter will help retail managers and consumer researchers interested not only in Libya but also in other markets with similar consumer lifestyles, cultural values, and retail market structures. Jamal *et al.,* (2006) argued that an understanding of the reasons consumers go shopping is important for retailer's strategic marketing activities, segmenting and understanding different consumer groups. Similarly, effective communication with different consumer groups can be improved by developing a proper understanding of shopping motives, perceived values, and decision-making styles.

1.10. Outline of the Thesis

For the purposes of the study this thesis was divided into seven chapters as follows: the current chapter introduced the background of the study and the major themes to be investigated within the context under examination, providing some understanding of factors that shape shopping behaviour in developing countries, the Libyan context and the aims of the study. In chapter two a review of the literature on consumer shopping behaviour is presented, including a detailed assessment of the factors influencing store choice. Chapter three describes the methodology (mixed qualitative and quantitative approach). The latter involved survey based research undertaken in Benghazi during summer 2011. The findings of the research are presented in the next two chapters. Chapter four documents the findings of the qualitative study whereas chapter five presents the quantitative research results. This is followed by a discussion of the results in chapter six. The major findings and the main themes of the study, the policy implications and recommendations, and suggested directions for future research, are documented in the concluding chapter of the thesis.

1.11. Conclusion to the Chapter

To sum up, modern retail formats have rapidly multiplied worldwide. Much research has been conducted relating to this phenomenon from different angles. Two theories in the literature are relevant. One is that consumers will switch to modern formats in developing countries while the other argues that wet markets will retain an advantage. Both have evidence supporting their view. Each format has its own methods to develop and adapt itself to competitors. Attracting the consumer is the final goal for both of them. Several authors (Goldman *et al*., 2002; Uncles and Kwok, 2009; Minten *et al*., 2010; Tessier *et al*., 2010; Amine and Lazzaoui, 2011; Gorton *et al*., 2011) therefore attempt to identify the factors that explain variations in consumers' supermarket adoption, with most concentrating on economic variables especially incomes, population density and private car ownership while some identify religious and ethnic-cultural as factors affecting the structure of food retailing in developing countries (Hino, 2010). In general, the literature identifies urbanization, increases in real incomes, and foreign direct investment as the main driving forces for the spread of supermarkets whereas the ability to respond more effectively to consumer needs, particular for fresh foods, is the main reason behind the survival of wet markets.

In Libya, the three most important formats are supermarkets, independent stores and traditional markets. Even though there have been several initiatives to reform the Libyan economy, the phenomenon of change in the food marketing system has not yet been addressed. Despite of the severe lack of information sources, an attempt to shed light on the food retail sector in Libya is presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 2 Food retailing Sector in Libya

2.1. Introduction

Retailing, specifically food retailing, has been one of the most dynamic and rapidly changing sectors in most developing economies, including in Libya. Business Monitor International (2012), expect grocery retail sales in Libya to increase by 21.4 per cent in 2013, with up to 2017, compound annual growth of 12.0 per cent.

To understand the current situation of the Libyan food retail market, it is necessary to understand the economic reforms undertaken and their impact on the food retailing sector. Particular attention is focused on the policy of privatization and the subsidy system. Both of these have stimulated important changes in both the retailing system and Libyan consumer behaviour.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the structure of food retailing in Libya, highlighting the most important developments and issues. It provides information on the history and marketing strategies of food retailing in Libya through an overview of the Libyan economy and the most important policies that have directly or indirectly impacted on the sector, in particular privatization and subsidy policies. At the end, an overview of the structure of the retail industry in Saudi Arabia as one of the most developed, Arab, oil exporting countries is provided to consider how Libya's food retailing sector may evolve. According to the United Nations Development Program's 2013 Human Development Index (HDI), Libya was ranked 64th of 186 countries (behind Saudi Arabia (57^{th}) (Human Development Report, 2013).

2.2. An Overview of the Libyan Economy

After 1969, under the umbrella of socialist policies, the major economic policy objective of the Libyan government was to reduce the country's dependence on oil and foreign companies' control of its production and exports (Abdussalam, 2006). Through its General People's Congresses (GPC), the state established legislation to assume control of all educational and social activities, and the organisation of economic sectors, investments, production, commercialization, and foreign trade. For the last, the GPC announced that the government would take control of all import, export and distribution functions, replacing privately owned businesses. As a result, by the early of 1970s the public sector expanded and became the main source of investment in Libya. As a result of this policy, by 1990 private sector investments decreased from about 30 to 10 per cent of total investment, and state investments increased from about 70 to 90 per cent (Antipolis, 2002). The role of the government in economic activities gradually increased and the state became directly responsible for all sectors of the economy and all aspects of social life. Regarding food retailing, during this era, all privately owned shops were closed and a new system was established based on state registered supermarkets (Malcolm and Losleben, 2004).

After two decades of reliance on the public sector, the government became dissatisfied with the performance of the public sector and concluded that the inefficiency associated with the public sector was higher than expected (Aboujdiryha, 2011). Thus, the Libyan government began to change its policies, seeking greater private sector activity in the economy. A package of laws was introduced such as Resolution No. 461 of 1987 to allow the private sector to practise some commercial activities. Subsequently, the role of the private sector was confirmed in the field of retail distribution of goods, under Law No. 8 of 1988. Later, the role of the private sector was expanded by Act Number. 9 of 1992, which opened the door for the private sector to engage in various business activities (General Planning Council, 2002). Foreign private investment in Libya become possible after modifications to Investment Act Number 5/1997 (Shamia, 2007).

The effectiveness of these laws, however, remained limited, as they did not greatly stimulate the private sector. This reflected the public sector's continued monopoly in several areas which had a negative impact on the willingness and capacity of the private sector to participate in economic life. Administrative constraints and complex bureaucratic procedures also deterred the entry of the private sector (Shernanna, 2012).

However, Libyan authorities encouraged the emergence of private operators by issuing law Number 21/2001 which covered economic activities and the abolition of import licenses. They also believed that many legal and administrative measures should be taken to stimulate the role of the private sector in economic activity, especially in light of changes and new economic policies adopted after 2002. Accordingly, in 2004, Act Number 21/2001 has been modified correspondingly and Act Number 1 was issued concerning and redefining the practice of economic activities. This, in 2004, was followed by the Resolution of the General People's Committee No. 53 on the executive regulation of Laws 21 and 1 (Shernanna, 2012). Under this legislation the private sector was permitted to engage in commercial activity through individuals, families, cooperatives, and joint-stock companies. Moreover, in 2005, the General People's Committee issued Resolution No. 34 permitting limited liability companies to conduct business, whether in exports, imports or marketing (Shernanna, 2012). The process of privatization has, however, been slowed down by the maintenance of subsidies on certain products, to the extent that today, they remain 90 per cent subsidized and are distributed at extremely low prices (Audsley *et al.*, 2011). To interpret recent developments in Libyan food retailing, it is necessary to understand the process of privatisation in the country.

2.2.1. Privatisation Policy

In Libya, three waves of privatisation have taken place since the mid-1980s (Aboujdiryha, 2011). However, even though there were three attempts at privatization in Libya, efforts taken to improve the performance of firms failed each time, reflecting the constraints that existed in each phase of privatization. Moreover, the privatization law which was issued by the General People Congress to regulate private sector businesses was only passed in September 1992 (Abokaresh *et al.*, 2013).

The first wave of privatization in Libya began in 1987 as a response to a drop in international oil prices in the mid-1980s. It introduced the concept of *Tashrukiyya,* collective ownership, that allowed for the creation of co-operatives to which some partners contribute labour and capital (Vandewalle, 1998). The *Tashrukiyya* system allowed limited private investments in Libya for the first time since 1970$_{S}$. The aim was to encourage the private sector to participate in the service and light industry sectors as a means of overcoming the inefficiency of the public sector. Therefore, only small scale private sector activity was allowed in retailing, service and light industries as means of overcoming inefficiency in the sectors.

Following this first wave of privatisation, in the early 1990s, the government announced a second wave which began in 1992. Again this was in response to the drop in oil prices in the early 1990s and the poor financial performance of many public sector firms in terms of low productivity. It introduced the concept of *Sharika Musahima* (joint-stock company) (Aboujdiryha, 2011) and was an effort to surpass the previous privatisation experience and stimulate the private sector (Vandewalle, 1998). The programme aimed to liberalise wholesale trade and attract foreign investments in response to international sanctions (Vanderwalle, 1998).

The third wave of privatization (*Al Tamleek)* began in 2003 and this was a large scale privatization program. It was described as a programme of broadening the ownership base through encouraging residents to own public firms and avoiding concentrated ownership. The programme also sought to make the country eligible for World Trade Organization (WTO) membership (Abokaresh *et al.*, 2013). In other words, the program aimed to restructure the Libyan economy towards building popular capitalism through spreading share ownership more widely. It also aimed to transfer the role of the state from the owner to encourager of economic activities.

2.2.2. Subsidy Program

For many years, Libya strongly subsidized consumers. The programme of subsidies covers basic food commodities such as flour, rice, and sugar, which are imported by the National Supply Corporation (NASCo) as well as non-food commodities such as petrol. Government subsidies on foodstuffs fell considerably in 2000 and 2001, after the suspension sanctions, and increased significantly after, particularly for flour and rice. The cost of subsidy system, by 2003, amounted to 3.5% of GDP (Abidar and Laytimi, 2005). Around 2003-2004, responsibility for the subsidy system transferred to a newly formed Price Stabilization Fund (PSF). This was followed by a period of gradual economic liberalization beginning in 2007 that saw an increasing role for the private sector in Libya's food supply chain (Audsley *et al.*, 2011).

However, the clearest disadvantage of the commodity subsidy program is that the products subsidized are sold in neighbouring countries, initially in Tunisia where the population of the South largely benefits from the products. In each big Tunisian city there exists a big market called "'Souk Libya or Libya's Market", in which is gathered a variety of smuggled Libyan products. Algeria also profits through Tunisian borders. Another disadvantage is that bread is used for animal feed because its price is very low (Afahama and AboShah, 2007). As a result currently, in Libya, there is a plan to improve the food distribution system by changing the food subsidy system from commodities to a cash subsidy. After this brief overview of the Libyan economy, the structure of food retailing in Libya is presented in the next section. It is worth mentioning that there are no publications dedicated to food retailing or supermarkets in Libya. As such, reliable food retailers' sales data and floor space figures are not readily available. Consequently, the next section relies heavily on personal communications and the knowledge of the researcher.

2.3. Structure of Food Retailing in Libya

The food distribution sector in Libya is composed of a chain of distribution cooperatives, retail networks, and commercial centres. Retail outlets are generally operated by small private businesses of licensed individuals based on specific laws. Most products sold through retailers are imported by private importers. Since Libya re-joined the international community, more import businesses have been established, and new stores opened in all cities.

The share of the food retail market controlled by modern retail is still relatively small. In 2009, total licenced food retail outlets in Libya amounted to 30,667 enterprises representing about 38.86 per cent of total licenced retail outlets, employing 61,731 people. The retail outlets accounted for 78.87 per cent of the total licensed activities in internal trade. By using the number of full time employees as a measure of size, those with less than 9 full time employees accounted for 98.4 per cent of all retail establishments and there were only 480 enterprises with 9 or more full time employees (General Authority for Information, 2013).

Tripoli in particular has witnessed shopping centre development. In 1999, there were roughly 1,838 licenced food retail outlets: 6 supermarkets and 1,832 independent stores (Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 1999). By 2013, the total number of licenced food retail outlet had increased to 7,244 representing about 13.82 per cent of the total licensed retail activities (Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 2013). In the medium term, more foreign retailers are expected to enter the market, enticed by a sector poised to expand more aggressively over the next decade displacing traditional grocery shops. Political and economic changes that the country witnessed since the 17th February revolution as well as increased per capita income and a growing urban middle class with more sophisticated consumption patterns and shopping habits are all factors underpinning this on-going transformation of the Libyan food retail landscape. The main types of food retail outlets are detailed below.

2.3.1. The State Registered Supermarket (Popular Market)

Throughout the 1970s to the mid-1980s Libya only had a one type of food retailer - government owned supermarkets. The establishment of state supermarkets resulted from the government's control of foreign trade and the retail sector. Very little is documented in the literature about state registered supermarkets. All private retail stores were to be closed down and replaced by state supermarkets. About 1,279 centralised supermarkets were opened in various parts of Libya with the aim to meet the daily needs of Libyans consumers (Alafi and Bruijn, 2010). Figure 2-1 pictures one of the state supermarkets in 1981 (Pargeter, 2012).

Figure 2-1: Libyan State Supermarket in 1981

However, the state supermarket system, although, once seen as vital for eliminating private traders and shop keepers, and as a source of subsidized goods for the population, suffered from corruption and disorganization. Vandewalle (1998, p. 145) stated that “whatever sporadically appeared in the popular market seldom matched Libya’s daily needs and became the source of much anger and innumerable jokes”. This reflected the government’s monopoly and lack of competition. As noted by Abdussalam (2006, p. 102) “the lack of competitiveness of these public projects added insult to injury producing further deterioration in the balance of trade and a continuing need for subsidies producing further deficits” . Black markets emerged to fill gaps in inadequate state provision (Abdussalam, 2006).

In supporting Vandewalle, (1998), Malcolm and Losleben (2004) conclude that the state supermarket system failed badly, it was poorly organized and political interference led to bottlenecks in supply with basic goods being unobtainable. Moreover, given its heavy dependence on oil exports, the Libyan economy was very vulnerable to external factors, especially fluctuations in world oil prices (Aboujdiryha, 2011). Hence, during the mid-1980s, the Libyan economy was severely affected by a fall in oil revenues which led to the cancellation of various economic projects including the state supermarkets. In other words, because of declining oil revenues, the government was unable to finance much of its ambitious drive to replace the private sector (Abdussalam, 2006). In order to overcome to some of these financial difficulties the expansion of the state-run supermarket system was abandoned. Most of these supermarkets have been taken over and transformed by private sector retailers.

2.3.2. Consumer Cooperatives (Jemiah store)

Consumer cooperative outlets were established according to a Resolution of the General People's Congress in its second ordinary session in 1976 (Shernanna, 2012). A wide distribution network of cooperatives buys food and processed commodities at subsidized prices. The Government pays the difference between the market and subsidized prices. The consumer cooperatives serve only Libyan nationals. Migrants are not entitled to subsidized food and have to pay full prices. Consumer co-operatives are used by all Libyan families. They are considered an entitlement for all, not just a way for the poor to access cheap food. This is because consumer cooperatives were the only source of flour, rice, sugar, vegetable oil, and canned tomatoes which were not on sale elsewhere.

Each cooperative should have at least fifty members in order to be licensed and permitted. Each Libyan family has a family booklet that enables it to purchase commodity rations at subsidized prices in the cooperative where they are registered (FAO, 2011) . In other words, the consumer cooperatives (*Jemiah*), or associations, operate as discount food retailers. Households would present a “family book” that note the family size and would buy the corresponding subsidized ration.

Distribution cooperatives are present in virtually all neighbourhoods. A quota system was established to provide a specific quantity of products to each household in the area, usually once a month. At the beginning, they provided not only essential food items, such as commodities primarily based upon wheat flour and wheat products, but also other food items such as sugar, canned milk and vegetable oil. Latterly, however, these cooperatives are still subsidised by the state but with just essential food items such as wheat flour and rice.

Nowadays, some cooperatives extended themselves to become independent stores. They are responsible for organising the supply of imported and non-imported products to consumers residing in the neighbourhood along with the main task of providing subsidized merchandise to their members and some of them just open when they receive subsidized goods, commonly once a month.

2.3.3. Independent Stores

As previously mentioned, the private sector is now permitted to engage in retail activities. Independent stores are small stores located in both shopping and residential areas. They are individually owned with typically no more than two employees. Independent stores can be classified into two groups: grocery shops and specialized stores. Grocery shops, locally called *Dokan* or *Mahal*, are found in every Libyan neighbourhood selling grocery items, dairy products and staple products as well as sometimes fruits and vegetables as showed in Figure 2-2.

A typical outlet has a selling area of between 20 and 50 square meters. These outlets still dominate the retail sector despite the growth of supermarkets. Both Libyan and non-Libyan citizens can buy from such retailers.

Figure 2-2: Grocery Shop

Specialized stores as the name indicates, concentrate on one line of products such as fresh meat and poultry (butcher) as can be seen in Figure 2-3. The latter are usually found in shopping areas. The main attribute of this format is in-store credit - where the buyer can pay at the end of the month, which is particularly attractive to low income consumers. The availability of in-store credit depends on longstanding knowledge of customers.

 

Figure 2-3: Specialized Store (butcher

2.3.4. Traditional Markets (Souk Shaabi)

A traditional market is a type of market where rural and urban households alike can buy fresh fruits and vegetables, fish and seafood products as well as spices. Souks and street venders are the main feature of traditional markets in Libya. Each souk consists of many small vendors, open air or closed, however, all of them specialise in one fresh food line (fish, fruit and vegetables or spices and herbs). Vendors complement each other by offering a full variety of fresh food. As a result, a comparison between the prices and qualities of different goods is possible and easy to make. Markets traditionally have attracted the largest number of shoppers in most towns of Libya. In Libya traditional markets can be classified into three types: fruits and vegetables souk, fish market (Souk *El- Hout*), and spices and herbs souk.

A fruits and vegetables souk may be an open air or closed market, locally called (*A*l- *fondok market*), especially in Eastern part of Libya. An example of this retail outlet is presented in Figure 2-4. In Libya like many other countries, all cities have their weekly traditional markets (souk) such as souk *Al-Ahad* (Sunday market), souk *Al- Jumaa* (Friday market), and souk *Al-Thalat* (Tuesday market) that used to open on a particular day.

Figure 2-4: Traditional Market (Fruits and Vegetables Souk)

A spices souk is a particular market for buying traditional herbs and spices as well as dry groceries such as legumes. Usually, they are kept in large containers which are open for customers to see and taste, and in the case of spices to smell as can be seen in Figure 2-5. This kind of market is popular with Libyan shoppers, especially during Ramadan and for some special occasions, such as weddings.

Figure 2-5: Traditional Market (Spices Souk)

Souk *El- Hout* is one of the most active types of souk in Libyan coastal towns. It is usually a big square dedicated largely to fish and seafood with ice keeping the products cool and fresh. Figure 2-6 shows souk *El- Hout* (fish market) in Tripoli and *BanKina souk* in Benghazi.

Tripoli **Benghazi**

Figure 2-6: Traditional Market (Souk *El- Hout*)

2.3.5. **Modern Formats**

In Libya, supermarkets are the main ‘modern retail’ format and can be divided into two classes (A and B) depending on their size. Class A supermarkets are retail stores with more than 1,000 square meters, five or more checkout counters with complete self - service, modern IT systems and carry a wide range of grocery and other products. Class B supermarkets are smaller, using grocery carts with up to 500 square meters of store space and two or more checkout counters. A considerable number of Class B stores are found in all major urban areas and medium-sized cities in Libya. The most popular local class A supermarkets in Libya are located in *Souk Al-Thalat* mall in Tripoli, Benghazi shopping centre, and the *Venesia* supermarket in Benghazi.

Souk Al-Thalat mall (Tuesday Market) is Tripoli's newest shopping mall opened in 2008, with five floors covering an area of 27000 square meters, of which 9000 square meters is a shopping area and about 18000 square meters car parking. On the ground floor a large supermarket along with a bakery and fruit and vegetable market hall can be found. The supermarket, covering an area of 4500 square meters, is shown in Figure 2-7.The supermarket stocks a wide range of foods with modern IT systems and 24 checkout counters, twelve on each side.

Figure 2-7: *Souk Al-Thalat* Mall

Venesia market is one of Benghazi's supermarkets. It opened in 2010 and was redeveloped in 2012. It is one of the best stores in Libya with a strong reputation for the quality of food, vegetables, meat and sweets. The store covers an area of 1000 square meters with five counters, along with a bakery, fruit and vegetable department, butcher, cafe, and restaurant, using modern IT systems. It employs 35 people. Some pictures are shown in Figure 2-8.

Figure 2-8: ***Venesia*** **Market**

The Benghazi mall is one of the old state supermarket buildings that were bought by private investors in 2002. It consists of five floors, employing 170 people (see Figure 2-9). The food department is located on the first floor, covering an area of 2000 square meters, with 8 checkout counters with modern IT systems. The supermarket stocks a wide range of foods.

Figure 2-9: Benghazi Shopping Centre

To date, supermarkets in Libya are overwhelmingly domestically owned. However, some foreign investors have started to enter the Libyan market. One notable new foreign entrant to the Libyan market is Tunisia's largest food retailer, *Monoprix*. They entered the Libyan market in 2013 beside *Momento* Italian coffee and restaurant chain and *Cinnabon*, an American bakery. Monoprix is an affiliate of a French supermarket group and has planned to open many stores throughout Libya (Libya Business News, 2013). Monoprix is a Tunis-based chain, which is separate from but linked to the French company of the same name, has been brought to Libya in a joint venture with Husni Bey Group, one of Libya's largest private-sector firms.

The first Monoprix store in Libya opened in Tripoli in March 2013. The store, employing 70 people, covers an area of 5.000 square meters, of which 3,000 square meters is a shopping area called *Almadrar* mall, with six checkout counters and payment by cash only (see Figure 2 -10). A second store will open in Tripoli in May 2013. The plan is to open one store every month. They intend to eventually have 52 stores located in all big cities across the country, employing 4,000 people directly and another 4,000 indirectly (Libya Herald, 2013).

Figure 2-10: Monoprix Supermarket

Finally, it is important to note that e-commerce is not well developed in Libya yet, especially for groceries.

2.4. Expenditure on Food

In Libya, as in most developing countries, food expenditure represents a high percentage of total household expenditure. Based on research carried out in 2011 by the FAO, on average, about 25 per cent of household expenditure is devoted to food; about 17 per cent to transportation, telephone (13 per cent), utilities (20 per cent) and less than 1 per cent for health and education(see Table 2-1). While 2011 was a year of crisis and upheaval, the share of expenditure accounted for by food was little changed compared to pre-crisis levels. Rental expenses for the overall population are low, because most Libyan people own their own houses (FAO, 2011) . The salience of research into Libyan food shopping behaviour is high given that food is the single most important component of family budgets.

The importance of food in household budgets has been relatively stable since 2002, based on The Economic and Social Survey, part three (the Libyan household income, and expenditure data), which was conducted by the official statistical agency of Libya, the General Authority for Information. This possibly reflects the fact that the population has already reached an income level after which the quality of food consumed improves as income continues to rise, but the amounts or type of food consumed do not vary significantly.

Table 2-1: Shares of Household Expenditure for Pre-Crisis and Crisis Periods

Largest Expenditure	Percentage of Monthly Expense	
	Pre-crisis	2011 (Crisis)
Food	25	25
Transportation, diesel for car or truck	15	17
Telephone communications	11	13
Gas, electricity, other cooking fuel	9	13
Soap, hygiene products	9	7
Water	9	9
Ceremonies (including funerals)	7	3
Health care, drugs	6	1
Clothing	3	2
Rental of housing	1	0.2
Debt or credit repayment	0.5	0.3
Removal of rubble	0.3	0.1
Schooling	0.1	0.1

Source: Food and Agriculture Organisation, Emergency Food Security Assessment (2011)

2.5. Food Expenditure Patterns

In 2002, the most recent year for which there is information, total monthly household expenditure on food was about 263.11 Libyan Dinar (Table 2-2). Meats, including red and white meat and fish, and packaged foods were the most important categories by share of total food expenditure, accounting for 29.49 and 27.37 per cent respectively. Fresh vegetables and fruits were also important and accounted 17.49 per cent followed by subsidized goods with 8.71 per cent then beverages (10.9 per cent). Finally, other foods accounted for 3.16 per cent and tobacco and cigarettes for 2.84 per cent (General Authority for Information, 2002).

Table 2-2: The Relative Importance of Household Expenditure on Food Groups

Items	Annual Expenditure	Monthly Expenditure	Per cent
Meats	931.06	77.59	29.49
Packaged Food	864.13	72.01	27.37
Fresh Vegetables and Fruits	552.18	46.01	17.49
Beverages	345.49	28.79	10.94
Subsidized Goods	275.07	22.92	8.71
Others	99.71	8.31	3.16
Tobacco and Cigarettes	89.74	7.48	2.84
Total	3157.38	263.11	100

Source: General Authority for Information, 2002.

2.6. Food Consumption Patterns

Based on FAO Food Balance Sheet calculations (FAO, 2013) , the average dietary energy supply was 3157 kilocalories per person per day according to the latest data available (for 2009). The share of vegetal products in total calorie consumption is relatively high by international standards (87.58 per cent) while the share accounted for by animal sources is relatively low (12.42 per cent).

In keeping with other Arab countries (El-Droubi, 2004; Dawoud, 2005), traditionally, eating habits among all Libyan families are similar, with three regular daily meals. Lunch is the main meal of the day. It usually consists of main dish as such rice or pasta, meat or poultry or fish, vegetables, and fruits. Lunch is generally prepared and consumed in the home.

It is worth mentioning, that consumption patterns are slightly different from one area to another depending mainly on geographical location, consumer's preferences, and the level of food production within the same region. For example, in the western region, that has high levels of home production of olive oil, its consumption is relatively high and expenditure on this food item is low. Also, in the western part *couscous* is most popular whereas rice is more common in eastern Libya. In addition, fish is an important food commodity for consumers in areas near the sea such as Tripoli and Benghazi but is much rarer in non-coastal cities.

Notably, in all societies, urban food consumption patterns have witnessed rapid change recently because of many social and economic reasons including urbanization and economic openness that has led in turn to an increased consumption of fast food and ready meals, especially among young people. Families can also eat at fast food restaurants, some of which provide special services labelled “for families only”. Also, takeaways are playing an increasing role in food consumption; however there is a lack of reliable data to quantify this trend.

2.7. Food Retailing in Saudi Arabia

While Libya has witnessed important changes in its food retailing sector, its structure remains far more traditional than the Arabic speaking, oil exporting states of the Middle East. To consider how Libya’s food retailing sector may evolve, it is useful to consider the case of Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia is the largest retail market in the Arabian peninsula (Sohail, 2013). It combines both traditional souks, small shops with rapidly expanding supermarket and hypermarket chains (Al-Sudairy and Tang, 2000). Several major retailers are engaged in aggressive expansion plans in response to changing consumers’ preferences and increased competition (Ahmed, 2012).

There are thousands of small traditional shops, such as grocery and convenience stores (locally called *bakalas*) and bazaars (locally called *souks*) and markets that sell a narrow range of products, particularly to low-income consumers ((Al-Sudairy and Tang (2000); Ahmed (2012)). Recently, supermarkets and hypermarkets subsectors have become very important distributing high value food products in Saudi Arabia compared to wholesalers and convenience stores which used to dominate the sale of packaged food products (Ahmed, 2012).

2.7.1. Convenience Stores (Bakalahs)

Convenience stores (corner grocery stores), commonly referred to as *bakalahs* are found in every Saudi Arabian neighbourhood. Al-Sudairy and Tang (2000) described *Bakalas* as a single man operation with a floor area of about 20–50 square feet. Over 150,000 such stores were estimated to operate all over Saudi Arabia (Al-Sudairy and Tang, 2000). They deal on a cash basis and purchase most of their stock from wholesalers except for a few fast moving brands that are delivered by importers. Ahmed (2012) asserted that despite the growing number of modern supermarkets in Saudi Arabia, the food retailing role of *bakalahs* continues to be important. The neighbourhood grocery stores are the main retail outlet for soft drinks, bread, bottled water and eggs (Zairi and Al-Rasheed, 2010).

Although, prices tend to be relatively higher in *bakalahs*, they have an advantage over supermarkets by providing services to shoppers looking to quickly buy a few items. A number of *bakalahs* have developed a credit system that allows customers to pay at the end of the month. Ahmed (2012, p. 13) claimed that “women in Saudi Arabia are not permitted to drive and depend on *bakalahs* within walking distance of their homes”. Also *bakalahs* are very important to third country nationals working in Saudi Arabia who do not own automobiles. Most compounds housing expatriates contain one or more corner grocery stores. *Bakalahs* are filled with many products originating from the United States and most have refrigeration and the capacity to store frozen foods. In addition to corner grocery stores, there are hundreds of ethnic stores in Saudi Arabia, catering to Indians, Pakistanis, Filipinos, and other Asians (*ibid*).

2.7.2. Traditional Markets

There are both bazaars (*souks*) and wholesale markets. Bazaars traditionally have attracted the largest number of shoppers in most towns of Saudi Arabia. These are places located in the centre of each town or city, consisting of numerous small shops, often clustered on the basis of the type of merchandise handled. The merchandise is basically commodities, cheap products, or counterfeit brands catering mainly to the needs of buyers from lower socioeconomic groups (Sohail, 2008). However, with increasing urbanization in the kingdom, traditional bazaars could no longer cope with shoppers’ demands leading to the establishment of shopping malls, particularly in cities and suburbs (*ibid*).

Traditional wholesale markets cover a large area and are divided by product category: a fresh fruit and vegetable market; cold storage shops selling meats, cheeses, and poultry; and stores selling a wide range of dry goods. The largest wholesale markets in Riyadh are the Utega Centre and Rabwa (Ahmed, 2012). Wholesalers have store space ranging from 100 to 500 square meters. They sell in bulk to institutional customers, caterers, *bakalahs* and large families. They offer some credit facilities to selected institutional customers and retailers.

2.7.3. Supermarkets

In 2012, there were more than 300 Class A and 150 Class B supermarkets operating in Saudi Arabia (Ahmed, 2012). Numbers are growing rapidly. The main factors that have contributed to the growth of supermarkets include more exposure to the West via satellite television and travel, changing lifestyles, and a craving by Saudi consumers for variety (Ahmed, 2012).

2.7.4. Hypermarkets

Since 2004, a number of hypermarkets including international chains such as Géant and Carrefour and local chains such as Panda have appeared in Saudi Arabia, mainly in large cities (Al-Saffy, 2009). The emergence of local and international chains in the same year has launched a new era of retailing in the Kingdom. Hypermarkets have up to 100,000 square feet of selling space and stock more than 55,000 items including foodstuffs, clothing, tools, toys, and electronics (Ahmed, 2012).

More than 60 hypermarkets were opened in the three major cites of Saudi Arabia (Riyadh, Jeddah and Dammam) in 2012. These major hypermarkets have succeeded in attracting a significant number of shoppers due to a wide range of product offerings, convenient location mainly in shopping malls. Having made a presence in the Saudi market, Carrefour plans to open more than 20 stores by 2015 (Sohail, 2008).

Major Saudi owned supermarkets such as Panda, Tamimi, Al Sadhan and Danube, as well as the French hypermarket Carrefour; import a significant percentage of dry goods directly from the United States, employing consolidators whereas corner grocery stores and convenience stores source their products locally from wholesalers. If Libya follows the pattern of Saudi Arabia it is likely to witness increased competition between local and foreign chains based on larger stores and diversified product offerings.

2.8. Conclusion

From 1969 to the mid-1980s, Libya pursued a socialist model of retail development. In the 1970s state registered supermarkets (*Popular Markets*) sold non-subsidized food whereas the consumer cooperatives (*Jemiah*) distributed subsidized goods. However, because of declining oil revenues, the government was unable to finance much of its ambitious drive to replace the private sector. The socialist experiment was also beset by inefficiency. Since the mid-1980s, there has been a significant movement towards liberalisation, especially the privatisation of the state-owned enterprises. Recently, after more than two decades of excessive reliance on the public sector, Libya has pursued a strategy of privatisation. Thus, the Libyan food retail sector has witnessed momentous change in the last several years, with the emergence of privately owned supermarkets.

Since Libya re-joined the international community, more import businesses were created, and new stores opened, especially in large cities. Nowadays, the retail market in Libya is strongly dominated by local shops and an informal sector of souks. Some small supermarkets and shopping centres are developing in the country; however, hypermarkets and online grocery retailing remain absent. Most products sold through retailers are also imported by private importers except subsidized goods that are still imported by the state.

In larger towns and cities, a considerable number of supermarkets are appearing: these are small trading companies, offering food products (dry and fresh products), and household goods. Large foreign retail chains have also shown an interest in the Libyan market. Monoprix is the first internationally-branded food retailer to enter the Libyan market. In general, Libyan food consumption patterns are similar to those witnessed in other Arab states. Food is a major component of family expenditure.

However despite important changes in the Libyan retail sector, there is a clear lack of data. In particular it was not possible to access food retailers' sales data and floor space figures. Thus, to overcome this problem, the chapter relies heavily on personal communications and the knowledge of the researcher.

Chapter 3 Literature Review

3.1. Introduction

In recent years, there has been increasing interest in consumer food shopping behaviour which refers to "the process that underlies an individual's decision of what, when, where, how, and from whom to purchase goods and services" (Omar, 1999, p. 51). However, researchers still encounter problems when trying to answer the question 'How do customers make their shopping decisions?' These difficulties may be due to rapid changes in consumer behaviour, which in many cases are unexpected. Although economic theory typically assumes that the only significant variable to be considered is price, in fact, consumer behaviour is complex with multiple phases and dimensions (Omar, 1999). Shoppers are usually subject to many external and the internal (psychological) influences which affect their shopping decisions.

A considerable amount of literature has been published on food shopping behaviour (e.g. Darden and Reynolds, 1971; Darden 1980; Westbrook and Black, 1985; Boedeker, 1995; Geuens *et al*., 2001; Ness *et al*., 2002; Arnold and Reynolds 2003; Ganesh *et al*., 2007;Webber *et al*., 2010), which principally focuses on Western countries. Very little research has looked at non-Western cases. A review of previous studies was a necessary initial step to identify influencing factors. Particular attention was paid to the determinants of food shopping behaviour in developing countries as well as in some key studies from Western countries. This may give a better understanding about consumer food shopping behaviour as a consequence of similarities and differences in cultural values, retail market structures, the economic and social environment and other conditions related to the study's subject matter. To be effective, the literature in the relevant fields was reviewed by addressing consumer behaviour from different angles including: shopping decision (shopping motivations and shopper typologies) and store patronage (store selection criteria and store choice models).

This chapter is organized into three sections. The first begins by considering how consumers make shopping decisions, by identifying some of the specific motives associated with shopping activity and shopper typologies. Second, the criteria employed in choosing between stores are then considered. Finally, models of store choice are presented.

3.2. Shopping Decision

3.2.1. Motives for Shopping

People's motives for shopping are a function of numerous variables, which may be unrelated to the actual buying of products. As background for examining the motivational underpinnings of shopping, it is instructive to consider human motivation more generally. According to motivational theorists, human behaviour typically can be regarded as the product of both internal need states as well an external need (Westbrook and Black, 1985). Numerous attempts have been made to classify the diversity of human motives (Maslow, 1970; McGuire, 1974).

One of the most influential theories of human needs has been presented by Maslow (1970), which was initially developed in the 1940s. As indicated in Figure 3-1, the needs according to this theory have been ranked in hierarchical order from the most basic or primitive through to the most civilised or mature (McGoldrick, 2002).

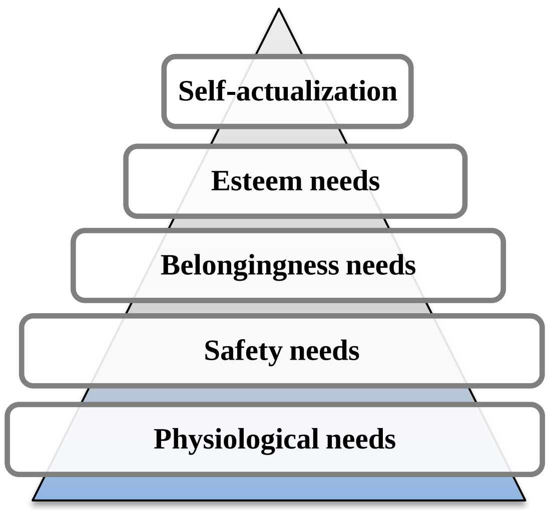

Figure 3-1: **Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**

Another a major study in the psychological literature was presented by McGuire (1974) who identified a total of 16 fundamental human motivations, depending on whether the motives are viewed as principally cognitive or affective in representation, self-growth or self-preservation in purpose, active or passive in character, and external or internal in goal orientation.

The fundamental motivations underlying shopping behaviour have been discussed by (Tauber, 1972). The latter argued that people go shopping not only to buy products, but also for other, non-product-related, reasons. As a result, the way has been opened for researchers to pay attention to the primary motivations that determine shopping activity, rather than simply assume that need to purchase products is the only, or even the main, reason for shopping (McGoldrick, 2002). Tauber (1972, p.46) reported that:

> "*People's motives for shopping are a function of many variables, some of which are unrelated to the actual buying of products. It is maintained that an understanding of shopping motives require the consideration of satisfactions which shopping activities provide, as well as the utility obtained from the merchandise that may be purchased. If needs other than those associated with particular products motivate people to go to a store, the retailer should incorporate this information into his marketing strategy*".

According to Tauber's study, shopping motivations can be divided into two types of hidden motives: personal and social motives.

➢ **Personal motives**

- Role-playing motive: reflects activities that are learned and are expected as part of a certain role or position in society such as mother, housewife, husband or student.
- Diversion: shopping can offer opportunities to the shopper to escape from the routines of daily life and therefore, represents a type of recreation and leisure activity.
- Self-gratification: the shopping trip may be to alleviate depression, loneliness and boredom as shopping can improve consumers' mood by spending money and buy something good.
- Learning about new trends: people may go shopping to see new fashions, styling and product innovations as well to obtain new ideas.
- Physical activity: shopping can provide people with a considerable amount of walking in spacious and appealing retail centres, particularly those who live in urban and crowded environments.

- Sensory stimulation: highlights the ability of retail institutions to provide many sensory benefits to consumers such as a pleasant background (light, colour, music the scents) and handling of products.

➢ **Social motives**

- Social experiences outside the home: shopping represents an opportunity for meeting people and social interaction especially in traditional markets.
- Communication with others having similar interests: when people shop for hobby-related goods it may provide the opportunity to meet and communicate with other shoppers who have the same interest.
- Peer group attraction stresses consumers' desires to be with their reference group.
- Status and authority: reflect shopping's ability to provide opportunities for consumers to command attention and respect from others.
- Pleasure of bargaining: for many shoppers, bargaining is a degrading activity whereby haggling implies that one is "cheap". Others, however, appear to enjoy the process believing that, with bargaining, goods can be reduced to a more reasonable price.

Various researchers have extended Tauber's (1972) work on consumer's shopping behaviour. For example, Westbrook and Black (1985) tried to link Tauber's (1972) framework to the typology of 16 basic human motivations that was noted by McGuire (1974), suggesting that shopping behaviour arises for three fundamental reasons: to acquire a product, to acquire both a desired product and provide satisfaction with non-product-related needs, or to primarily attain goals not related to product acquisition.

These fundamental shopping motives can be divided into seven categories (Westbrook and Black, 1985): anticipated utility of prospective purchases; enactment of an economic shopping role; negotiation to obtain price concessions from the seller; choice optimization; affiliation with reference groups; exercise of power and authority in marketplace exchanges; and sensory stimulation from the marketplace itself. While all motivations can be described as containing both hedonic and utilitarian elements, Westbrook and Black (1985) noted that some were more utilitarian in nature while others were more hedonic in nature.

Furthermore, according to Arnold and Reynolds (2003), by focusing on motivations that are primarily hedonic and non-product in nature, six hedonic shopping motives can be identified: (1) Adventure shopping which refers to shopping for stimulation, and adventure. (2) Social shopping which refers to the enjoyment of shopping with friends and family, socializing, and connecting with others. (3) Gratification shopping which refers to shopping for stress release, to alleviate a negative mood, and shopping as a special treat to oneself. (4) Idea shopping refers to shopping to keep up with trends and new fashions, and to see new products and innovations. (5) Role shopping refers to shopping for others. (6) Value shopping relates to, looking for discounts, and hunting for bargains.

Jamal *et al.* (2006) investigated the reasons why consumers shop in Doha, Qatar. Four hundred supermarket shoppers completed self-administered surveys regarding their attitudes toward 57 individual shopping motivation items. By applying factor analysis the findings revealed that gratification seeking, social shopping, high quality seeking, confused by over choice, value seeking, brand loyal, brand consciousness, utilitarian shopping, hedonic shopping and role playing were found to be the significant factors in explaining shopping motivations within an Arab state. However, the study did find support for some other potential motivations (adventure shopping, impulsiveness and novelty seeking).

Kaur and Singh (2007) applied factor analysis to identify the underlying purchase decisions motives for young people in India. The analysis yielded an eight-factor solution with the factors labelled as follows: (1) Hedonic shopping motive: this factor suggests that the main driver for shopping is personal and social reasons unrelated to the actual consumption criteria including rational/convenience motives. (2) Market maven: the factor suggests that respondents prefer to visit the shopping place to escape from daily routines, and may be to reduce fatigue. (3) Peer group association: reflects the instinct in these consumers to stay associated with friends while going on a shopping trip or to meet at a particular shop. (4) Utilitarian shopping motive: the factor structure suggests that people who tend to go out shopping only with an exact intention of buying specific product(s), at the same time generate plans for future purchases and their shopping activity is affected by noisy surroundings. (5) Status conscious personal shoppers: look for discounts available, but dislike bargaining directly. They do not like to shop with family members or play the role of a shopper for the whole family. (6) Recreational shopping motive: they tend to act as leisure shoppers. (7) Impulse shopping motive: shopping is based on sensory stimulation such as a pleasant odour, making quick / impulse purchases or buying for the reason that one has been to the market. (8)

Economic shoppers: make a purchase only after comparing prices and state that they are unaffected by environmental cues or sensory stimulants such as background music or the feel of products.

Ahmed *et al.* (2007) assessed consumer behaviour in regard to shopping malls in a non-Western context (Malaysia). The results revealed that Malaysian students were motivated to visit malls primarily by the interior design of the mall; products that interested them; opportunities for socializing with friends; and convenient one stop shopping. Further analysis indicated that younger respondents had more favourable dispositions or shopping orientations towards malls than older respondents (Ahmed *et al.*, 2007). The authors concluded that in general, Malaysian shopping motivations were similar to that observed of Western shoppers in prior shopping studies.

Nguyen *et al.* (2007) sought to examine the roles of hedonic shopping motivations (HSM) and supermarket attributes (SMA) in the loyalty of shoppers (SLO) in Vietnam. A two-step approach in structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed to analyse the data. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to validate the measures and SEM was used to test the theoretical model. Both hedonic shopping motivations and supermarket attributes were found to have positive effects on shopper loyalty. However, supermarket attributes were found to be a key factor that underlies the loyalty of shoppers compared to that of hedonic shopping motivations. The results provided evidence of the important role hedonic motivations play in relation to the loyalty of shoppers. Shoppers driven by hedonic motivations paid more attention to the quality of supermarket attributes, and therefore, are more likely to be loyal customers. In addition, the findings revealed that the role of HSM motivations in supermarket loyalty were different between younger and older shoppers as well as between lower and higher income groups of shoppers. However, no difference was found between female and male shoppers. The study, however, was limited in that the sample comprised only students.

A recent qualitative study of the use of hypermarkets in Rabat (Morocco) by Amine and Lazzaoui (2011) also linked the use of modern retail formats to socio-economic status, with the authors interpreting the format as offering the middle classes with a means “to differentiate themselves from the lower classes and to express a sense of belonging and a unique social identity” (p.570). The findings indicated that for the upper and middle class shopping in hypermarkets was principally a utilitarian task with a small allocation of time dedicated for this activity. Moreover, for these customers, the hypermarket would be an ideal store in order to minimise time spent on a shopping trip. However, for lower classes hypermarkets were considered as relaxing and strolling environments. In other words, they usually went there with family, not necessarily shopping, but for entertainment and to roam around to discover what is in these large stores. They usually went to all the shelves to find cheap items and dropped prices. However, although, there are many conceptual bases that might inform shopper typologies, repeated studies now identify a fairly consistent set of underlying shopping motivations.

3.2.2. Shopper Typologies

Taxonomies of retail shoppers provide a basis for understanding the varying motivations behind shopping decision (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003). The development of shopper typologies is well-established and an extensive number of studies have been published (Stone, 1954; Darden and Reynolds, 1971; Darden and Ashton,1974; Williams *et al*.,1978; Westbrook and Black, 1985; Lesser and Hughes, 1986; Boedeker, 1995; Geuens *et al*., 2001; Anić and Vouk, 2005; Jamal *et al*., 2006; El-Adly, 2007; Ganesh *et al*., 2007; Anic *et al*., 2012).

Grouping shoppers in particular segments may help marketing managers identify and promote a shopping experience that will drive shopping value and create potential for patronage. Different psychographic statements and analytic techniques have been used. The structures of such typologies were largely determined by empirical observation of shopping motivations including recreation, experience and convenience and shoppers' attitudes focusing on time orientation, incomes, lifestyles, psychographics characteristics and demographics. A considerable number of taxonomies of shoppers are also based upon actual patronage behaviour, and retail attribute preferences as well (Boedeker, 1995). Accordingly, a brief review of the various studies is useful in appraising current knowledge of shopper types. This review is summarized in Table 3-1.

One of the first typologies was developed by Stone (1954), who was interested in understanding the social relationships binding urban residents to the community. Four fairly distinct groups of shoppers were discerned based on consumers' attitudes towards shopping using depth interviews with a sample of 124 female department store shoppers. The first was *economic shop*pers who looked for value for money and quality predominately. The second segment was labelled *personalizing shoppers* because they gave significant attention to interaction and personal relationships with retail personnel. *Ethical shoppers* appeared to seek types of products compatible with personal ethical standards. In other words, this group in contrast to economic shoppers tended to sacrifice lower prices and wide selections of goods in order to behave consistently with moral beliefs. Finally, *apathetic shoppers* considered shopping as an onerous chore because they were not interested in the whole process.

Since Stone's seminal work, numerous empirical studies have been conducted and many of these studies have attempted to develop typologies (Darden and Reynolds, 1971). The latter investigated general consumer shopping orientations in relation to health and personal care products and largely the results mirrored those of Stone (1954).

Regarding shopping typologies linked to grocery shopping, several studies have been reported in the literature. Darden and Ashton (1974) presented psychographic profiles of patronage preference groups. In particular, this study considered suburban housewives who were personally interviewed and asked to respond to a self-administered questionnaire. Both factor analysis and cluster analysis were applied to the resulting dataset. Seven segments of shoppers were reported in this article that was hypothesized to relate to select supermarket attribute preferences. The specific shoppers types identified were (1) Apathetic shopper, who did not express preference for any supermarket attributes;(2) the Demanding shopper, who insisted almost on all considering attributes; (3) Quality shoppers, who gave the greatest importance to freshness and the quality of products; (4) The Fastidious shoppers, who preferred tidy, hygienic stores; (5) Stamp preferring shopper, who preferred supermarkets offering trading stamps; (6) convenient location shoppers, whose essential characteristic was that supermarkets required merely to be conveniently located; (7) Stamp hater shopper, who was in the contrast to the stamp preferer shopper. However the attributes considered in this study were not exhaustive and focused only on supermarkets.

Williams *et al.* (1978) also, developed a typology of grocery shoppers based on consumers' involvement with either the price policies or customer service policies of retail food stores. Analysing the data by applying cluster analysis on the store image evaluations of 298 grocery shoppers in Salt Lake City (USA), four types of shoppers were identified. The names applied to the four groups were *the Involved*, *Apathetic*, *Convenience*, and *Price shoppers*. *The involved shoppers* were highly concerned with both price policies of the stores and consumer service; *Apathetic shoppers* in contrast were unconcerned with both dimensions. The other two groups (*convenience* and *price shoppers*) also tended to show opposing store images, whereby convenience shoppers were more concerned with consumer service but unconcerned by the pricing policies of the stores whereas price shoppers were highly concerned with the price policies of the stores but unconcerned by consumer service.

Table 3-1: Summary of Shopper Typology Studies

Author and Date	Shopper Population	Sample Size/ Technique	Measurement Basis	Shopper Type
Stone (1954)	Female department store shopper (Chicago)	124 In person, depth interview	Depth interview	**1.** Economic **2.** Personalizing **3.** Ethical **4.** Apathetic
Darden and Reynolds (1971)	Female heads of households (Athens, Georgia).	167 A self-administered questionnaire	AIO statements	**1.** Economic **2.** Personalizing **3.** Moralistic **4.** Apathetic
Darden and Ashton (1974)	Female supermarket shoppers	116 A self-administered questionnaire	Store attribute preferences	**1.** Quality oriented **2.** Fastidious **3.** The stamp preferer **4.** The stamp hater **5.** Demanding **6.** Convenience **7.** Apathetic
Williams *et al.*, (1978)	Adult grocery shopper (Salt Lake, USA)	298 Personal interviews	Store semantic differentials	**1.** Low price **2.** Convenience **3.** Involved **4.** 4. Apathetic
Westbrook and Black(1985)	Adult female (USA)	203 Personal interviews	Shopping motivation	**1.** Shopping process involved **2.** Choice optimizing **3.** Apathetic **4.** Economic **5.** Average shopper
Lesser and Hughes (1986)	(Heads of households, female or male) (USA)	5813 Telephone interviews	Psychographic statements	**1.** Inactive **2.** Active **3.** Service **4.** Traditional **5.** Dedicated fringe **6.** Price shoppers **7.** Transitional
Boedeker (1995)	Households (Turku, Finland)	1475 A self-administered survey	Psychographic characteristics	**1.** New type **2.** Traditional
Geuens *et al.* (2001)	Consumers (Belgium)	(8) focus groups consisting of (9)	Shopping motivation	**1.** Convenience **2.** Low-price **3.** Social **4.** Experiential **5.** Recreational

Author and Date	Shopper Population	Sample Size/ Technique	Measurement Basis	Shopper Type
Arnold and Reynolds (2003)	Consumers (female or male) USA	266 In person, depth interviews	Shopping motivation	**1.** Minimalists **2.** Gatherers **3.** Providers **4.** Enthusiasts **5.** Traditionalists
Anić and Vouk (2005)	Grocery consumers (Croatia)	243 A self-administered questionnaire	Store patronage motives	**1.** Location-driven **2.** Involved **3.** Price-driven **4.** Convenience-driven
Bourlakis. *et al*. (2006)	Grocery shoppers (Tessaloniki, Greece)	535 Face to face interviews	Store attribute	**1.** Price sensitive variety seeking **2.** Apathetic **3.** Enthusiastic loyal, quality and variety seeking **4.** Indifferent loyal habitual
Jamal *et al*., (2006)	Supermarket food and grocery shoppers (Doha, Qatar)	400 A self-administered survey	Shopping motivations, shopping value and decision-making styles	**1.** Socializing **2.** Disloyal **3.** Independent perfectionist **4.** Escapist **5.** Apathetic **6.** Budget conscious
El-Adly (2007)	University staff (United Arab Emirates)	404 A self-administered Questionnaires	Mall attractiveness image	**1.** Relaxed **2.** Demanding **3.** Pragmatic
Ganesh *et al*., (2007)	Shoppers Traditional mall (USA)	832 Mall intercept survey	Store attribute and Shopping motivation	**1.** Apathetic **2.** Destination **3.** Bargain seekers **4.** Basic
Anic *et al.* (2012)	Young consumers (Bosnia and Herzegovina)	600 A self-administered survey	Decision-making styles	**1.** Impartial, middle ground **2.** Fashion-oriented, hedonistic **3.** Traditional, pragmatic **4.** Hedonistic **5.** Confused by over choice, perfectionistic

Lesser and Hughes (1986) identified seven different shopping segments in the U.S. using factor analysis. The segments were (1) *Inactive shoppers*: the most important characteristics of this category were that they were disinterested in shopping, not concerned about price, employee service or product selection and they preferred retailers who can make their shopping less complicated. (2) *Active shoppers*: price, enjoyment of shopping, dealing with retailers with an upper middle class appeal, and an interest in exclusive products are the most important features of this group. (3) *Service shoppers*: demanded a high level of service when they shopped regardless of the price. They seek convenient stores with friendly personnel and helpful employees. (4) *Traditional shoppers* were uninterested in shopping, were not particularly price sensitive and did not have other strong shopper requirements (5*) Dedicated fringe shoppers*: in general, seemed to like change and risk trying new products and new ways of shopping, but do not pay attention to brands and are not loyal to one store. (6) *Price shoppers*: constantly seek to obtain the lowest price by tracking advertisements to find bargains. (7) *Transitional shoppers*: quick decision-making was the main feature of this group if the product is available without regard to the price.

Boedeker (1995) segmented consumers into ‘‘*new type shoppers*’’ and ‘‘*traditional shoppers*”. These types were derived by cluster analysis using the factor scores obtained from factor analysis. *New type shoppers* refer to those consumers who simultaneously value both the recreational and economic / convenience characteristics of a retail outlet. Compared to traditional shoppers they were more active shoppers, and did not pre-plan their purchases. In contrast, desire for the recreational aspects of shopping was much lower for *traditional shoppers*. They buy pre-planned products and avoid impulse purchases, not daring to buy new products before others, and tend to compare prices and look for bargains.

Geuens *et al.* (2001) by employing a qualitative research method, focus groups, indicated that shoppers could be classified into six different segments based on three factors including time poverty, social needs, and experiential needs. Time poverty refers not only to the amount of time consumers are able to spend on grocery shopping, but also to the amount of time they are willing to devote to it. Some respondents who were objectively not time pressured (e.g. part-time employment and no kids), had an active lifestyle and preferred doing other things rather than grocery shopping. Some people were looking for social interactions with peer groups and/or preferred to engage in social relationships with store personnel, while other consumers were not looking for social contacts during grocery shopping. Experiential needs reflect the extent to which the consumer looks for sensory gratification and/or his or her desire for new experiences such as new retail forms, new stores, and/or new products. From these factors the six identified clusters were: (1) *convenience shoppers* (time-poor, no social nor experiential interest), (2) l*ow-price shoppers* (time-rich, neither social nor experiential interest), (3) *social shoppers* (time-poor, social but no experiential interest),

(4) *intense social shopp*ers (time-rich, social but no experiential interest), (5) *experiential shoppers* (time-poor, experiential interest), and (6) *recreational shoppers* (time-rich, experiential interest).

Anić and Vouk (2005) identified four different types of shoppers based on store patronage motives, using cluster analysis. The characteristics of each cluster can be discussed in turn. *Location-driven shoppers* considered convenient store location to be the most important factor, followed by shopping convenience and in-store stimuli, while prices were not the primary concern for this shopper segment. *Involved shoppers* expressed both a desire for the lowest prices and very high level of convenience. *Price-driven shoppers* perceived prices to be the most important factor driving store patronage. *Convenience-driven shoppers* required convenience the most, but also lower than average prices.

Bourlakis *et al.* (2006) investigated food shopping behaviour in Greece. Using face to face interviews, 535 adults were sampled. Regarding their shopping behaviour and attitudes to store features four segments of shoppers were identified. *Price sensitive variety seeking shoppers*: the main reason for shopping at favourable store was “low prices” whilst variety of merchandise was a secondary reason. *Apathetic shoppers* revealed a negative evaluation on all three dimensions (“Store design and variety”, “Personnel and service”, and “Convenient location”). The most negative attitude was to “personnel and service”. Low price and convenient location were the main reasons for their choice of store. The third group revealed positive evaluations on all three dimensions so it was named as *Enthusiastic loyal, quality and variety seeking shopper*. Indifferent loyal habitual shoppers showed the most negative view on store design and variety and the most positive view on “personnel” and “location”.

El-Adly (2007) in his study of the United Arab Emirates, also using cluster analysis, identified three mall shopper segments. *Relaxed shoppers*: look for comfort, mall essence, convenience, store variety, product quality, and after-sales service as well as prices appropriate to their income. *Demanding shoppers*: this group give greater importance to all attractiveness factors than the other two segments, especially, to entertainment, diversity, and luxury. *Pragmatic shoppers*: this segment was concerned only with mall essence. In other words, a products’ quality, appropriateness of prices to their income, popularity and variety of stores were considered very important in choosing the shopping mall for this segment.

In addition, Ganesh *et al*. (2007) distinguished four types of shoppers. *Apathetic sho*ppers: this category did not care about all mall/store attribute dimensions, particularly the mall/store quality dimension. *Destination shoppers* looked for the brand name, image and fashion oriented items. *Bargain seekers*: the main motivation for this category was to seek discounted goods. Finally, *basic shoppers*, who went shopping knowing exactly what they wanted to buy and sought to accomplish this in the least amount of time. They considered shopping as a necessary chore.

Regarding shopper typologies based upon underlying consumer shopping motivations, several studies have been presented (Westbrook and Black, 1985; Arnold and Reynolds 2003; Jamal *et al*., 2006). Westbrook and Black (1985) identified six types of department store shoppers using a personal interview method with 203 adult females in Tucson, Arizona. *Shopping process- involved consumers* were distinguished by high values on almost all considered dimensions (except choice optimization and power and authority) including anticipated utility, economic role enactment, negotiation, affiliation, and stimulation. *Choice optimizing consumers,* in contrast to shopping process-involved consumers, scored the highest level on choice optimization and the lowest on negotiation motivations. *Shopping-process apathetic*: this segment scored low on all motivation dimensions except choice optimization. *Economic shoppers:* this segment consisted of two subgroups: shoppers for whom economic motivations were primary, scoring high on economic role enactment and choice optimization motivation dimensions. The main difference between them was that one subgroup scored high on choice optimization while the other subgroup scored high on economic role enactment and choice optimization. The motivational dimension of negotiation was absent from both groups. The final segment "*average shopper*" scored in the average range on all shopping motivations dimensions.

Arnold and Reynolds (2003) proposed a conceptual taxonomy of shoppers based on a six-factor, hedonic shopping motivations, using cluster analysis. The study revealed five shopper segments, termed Minimalists, Gatherers, Providers, Enthusiasts, and Traditionalists shoppers. *The minimalists* scored lower on all hedonic motivations with the exception of value shopping. *The gatherers* scored higher on idea and role shopping, and the lowest level for value shopping. *The gatherers* appeared to be motivated by the hedonic aspects of gathering information on new products and trends, perhaps in anticipation of future purchases. *The providers* scored highly on role and value shopping, and scored the lowest for non-generosity (unwillingness to give or share possessions with others, a reluctance to lend or donate possessions to others, and negative attitudes toward charity). *The enthusiasts* scored highly on all hedonic motivations. *Traditionalists* scored moderately high on most hedonic dimensions.

Jamal *et al*. (2006) using cluster analysis, identified six groups of shoppers in Qatar. *Socializing shoppers*: for whom the main motivations for shopping, in descending order, were: social reason, utilitarian, brand loyalty, quality, and value and brand consciousness. *Disloyal shoppers*: this group was primarily concerned with value, quality and hedonic enjoyment. Confusion, gratification, social and utility were ranked as of below average importance while, brand loyalty was the lowest in this group. *Independent perfectionist shoppers*: members of this cluster scored the lowest for social orientation, gratification and role-playing, whereas they scored above average on quality, brand loyalty, confusion and utilitarian shopping. *Escapist shoppers*: this group scored the highest on gratification and hedonic shopping, and above average on confusion and slightly above average for brand loyalty, role playing, brand consciousness and quality. *Apathetic shoppers*: scored the lowest on quality, utilitarian and gratification motives, and below average on brand consciousness and role playing while, slightly above average on hedonic motives and confusion. *Finally, budget conscious shoppers*: this group scored the least on hedonic preferences, second lowest on confusion but highest on value, gratification, and brand loyalty, and above average on brand consciousness and slightly below average on quality.

A recent study by Anic *et al.* (2012) investigated decision-making styles of young consumers in Bosnia and Herzegovina, using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis and cluster analysis. They identified five groups of consumers. These segments according to their decision-making styles were labelled as: (1) *impartial, middle ground consumers* scored average, non-extreme opinions on all consumer decision-making style dimensions. However, they appeared to be a little bit perfectionistic and brand conscious. (2) *Fashion-oriented, hedonistic consumers* were the most novelty and fashion conscious. For them it was important to be up-to-date with styles. At the same time, they were the most recreational and hedonistic consumers and found shopping a pleasant activity. (3) *Traditional, pragmatic consumers* who saw shopping as an unpleasant activity. They were the least brand and fashion conscious. (4) *Hedonistic consumer*s appeared to be the most recreational and hedonistic consumers, who found shopping a pleasant activity and (5) *Confused by excessive choice*, *perfectionistic consumers* were the most confused. At the same time, the latter segment was shown to be also high-quality conscious, with consumers who searched for the best quality products, and were not satisfied with ‘‘good enough’’ products. In other words, these consumers had difficulty in making choices, and experienced information overload. However, even though this study examined consumer styles it was limited to only students.

Briefly, while there is much research which classified types of shoppers, only a few groups appear consistently across different studies, notably economic and apathetic shoppers. Shopper taxonomies have been based on a variety of different bases although most share the common goal of categorizing consumers into a limited number of groups.

3.3. Store Patronage

A clear understanding of why consumers patronize a particular store has long been an objective of retail strategists and researchers because it allows them to identify and target those consumers most likely to purchase (McGoldrick, 2002). Many significant advances have been made in the construction and refinement of comprehensive models that offer helpful insights into the patronage decision process. Patronage motives are those which encourage consumers to shop at one store rather than another (Omar, 1999). Jantan and Kamaruddin (1999) reported that store image and patronage have been found to be closely related in many instances.

Store choice has been a subject of wide research and has been studied from various perspectives. Store image management is concerned with the congruity between the image desired by the store and that perceived by its targeted customers or wider publics (Ness *et al.*, 2002). The latter stated that "store-managed image may be viewed as a consequence of its retail strategy, how the store is positioned relative to customers and competitors, location, merchandise, atmosphere and the marketing mix elements"(Ness *et al.*, 2002, p. 510).

The distinction between the image desired by retailers and that perceived by consumers is well established. However, because the consumer is the unit of analysis in this study, the discussion in this section, therefore, concentrates on consumer perceptions of store image. It reviews the literature on store image attributes in the context of consumer shopping behaviour with a particular emphasis on the conceptual models related to store patronage.

3.4. Store Image Attributes

Store image, as one of the determinants of store choice, is largely based on store attributes. Store attributes can be defined as the "summation of all attributes of a store as perceived by the shoppers through their experience of that store" (Omar, 1999.p.103). The study of retail store image can provide a wealth of information concerning how consumers choose a specific store. Although the concept of store image has existed for a long time, there is no precise or universal definition of it. The concept was first introduced by Martineau (1958) who suggested that a retail store has a personality and described store images as “the way in which the store defined in the shopper’s mind partly by the functional qualities and partly by an aura of psychological attributes” (Martineau, 1958, p. 49). The author also, stated that “regardless of the ability to pay, all shoppers seek stores whose total image is acceptable and appealing to them individually” (Martineau, 1958, p. 49).

Since Martineau’s seminal paper, many researchers have defined store image based on consumer perception. In one of the prominent and widely cited studies on the subject of store choice and image, image is defined as consumer perceptions of both functional (objective) and psychological (subjective) attributes of a store (Lindiquist, 1974). Doyle and Fenwick (1974, p. 40) described store image “. . . as the consumer’s evaluation of all salient aspects of the store as individually perceived and weighted”. In other words, store image is assumed to be based upon the individual’s experiences concerning a number of salient store attributes (Hildebrandt, 1988).

Engel *et al.* (1995) suggested that the consumer determines acceptable and unacceptable stores by comparing the importance of store attributes with the store image (i.e. overall perception). Positive consumers’ perceptions of the store attributes means that they may decide to purchase from the store. On the other hand, if consumers’ perceptions of the store attributes are negative, then consumers are unlikely to shop in the store. Solgaard and Hansen (2003, p. 170) stated that “The overall store assessment is termed as store image, which is a function of the service output offered, of advertising and promotion campaign as well as of the pricing strategy selected by the stores”.

As previously mentioned, store image has been used interchangeably with attitude towards the store to describe the overall impression a consumer has of it. Literature focusing on various retail formats found different sets of store attributes to constitute what is defined as “image” (e.g. Martineau, 1958; Lindquist, 1974; Arnold *et al*., 1983; Tuncalp and Yavas, 1990). Martineau (1958) categorized store attributes into two main categories: functional and psychological. The functional category includes attributes such as location, assortment of products and store layout. The psychological category represents the feelings generated by the functional elements of the store.

Lindquist (1974) expanded Martineau’s concept by focusing on the meaning of store image. By summarizing the key image dimensions of 26 scholars and 19 separate researches from the field of retail image, Lindquist (1974) determined nine key attributes: merchandise, service, clientele, physical facilities, comfort, promotion, store atmosphere, institutional factors and post-transaction satisfaction. Of these nine dimensions, three were apparently dominant (merchandise, service, and locational factors), and of the three dimensions, the merchandise factor including selection, quality, pricing, and styling/fashion appeared to be the key image factor. The following section considers some of the most important attributes which contribute to store image. Table 3-2 below presents the findings of individual studies assessing factors that determine store choice.

3.4.1. Location

Location suggests customers' accessibility to the store and includes factors such as distance, and time travelled to the store (Ting, 2009). Consumers prefer to shop at stores that they have easy access to and are convenient for them. Store location is one of the main attributes that has received attention. However, the findings regarding location are not entirely consistent. On one hand, much research found that store location plays an important part in determining the store choice (Arnold *et al.*, 1983; Burns and Warren, 1995; Jantan and Kamaruddin, 1999; Severin *et al.*, 2001; Baltas and Papastathopoulou, 2003; Bourlakis *et al.*, 2006; Virdi, 2011). A study by Arnold *et al*. (1983), based on extensive analyses of six North American and European markets over a seven-year period revealed that location, price, assortment, fast checkout, friendly and courteous service, and pleasant shopping environment were critical determinants of store patronage. The first two determinants, location and price appeared to dominate the choice process. Additionally, in this context, Burns and Warren (1995) found that since the store mix and product offerings of many regional shopping malls are very similar; often the primary discriminator between many of these centres is merely location.

Likewise, Jantan and Kamaruddin (1999) in their study in Malaysia, stated that "at its heart, the finding suggest that location and service have a strong impact on consumers' choice" (Jantan and Kamaruddin, 1999, p. 78). Similarly, Severin *et al.* (2001) in his study identified geographical location as a significant factor in the choice of a shopping centre. Also, the in the case of Greece, Baltas and Papastathopoulou (2003) and Bourlakis *et al.* (2006) showed that a considerable importance was attached to store location, despite the density and the relatively small distances that characterise the examined retail structure. More recently, Virdi (2011) revealed that on an overall basis, customers give prominence to proximity of the store, merchandise and the service. Food/ grocery stores were chosen more on the basis of their proximity.

Table 3-2: Summary of the Findings of Individual Studies Assessing Factors that Determine Store Choice

Author	Geographical coverage	Location	Merchandise quality	Price	Service quality	Variety	Assortment	Atmosphere	Layout	Cleanness	Personnel
Arnold *et al.* (1983)	North American and European	X		X							
(Seiders and Costley, 1994)	USA	X		X			X				
Burns and Warren (1995)	USA	X									
Spies *et al.* (1997)	Germany							X			
Jantan and Kamaruddin (1999)	Malaysia	X	X	X	X						
Severin *et al.* (2001)	Canada USA Norway	X	X		X	X		X			
Juhl *et al.* (2002)	European countries		X								
Babin *et al.* (2003)	USA			X				X			
Baltas and Papastathopoulou (2003)	Greece	X	X			X	X				

Author	Geographical coverage	Location	Merchandise quality	Price	Service quality	Variety	Assortment	Atmosphere	Layout	Cleanness	Personnel
Baltas and Papastathopoulou (2003)	Greece	X	X			X					
Solgaard and Hansen 2003	Denmark	X		X			X				
El-Droubi (2004)	Qatar			X					X		
Fox *et al.* (2004)	USA	X					X				X
Bourlakis *et al.* (2006)	Greece	X				X					
(Alhemoud, 2008)	Kuwait		X	X		X					
Sohail (2008)	Saudi Arabia				X						X
Swoboda *et al.* (2009)	Romanian	X					X		X		
Theodoridis and Chatzipanagiotou (2009)	Greece			X		X			X		X
Zairi and Al-Rasheed (2010)	Saudi Arabia		X	X		X					
Gorton *et al.* (2011)	Thailand		X		X	X				X	
Khraim *et al.* (2011)	Jordan			X		X					
Virdi (2011)	India	X		X	X						

On the other hand, a few researchers found that store location was relatively less important in determining the store choice and at odds with above conclusions (El-Droubi, 2004; Alhemoud, 2008; Sohail, 2008). Interestingly, all three studies were carried out in Arabian countries including Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and Kuwait.

From this extensive discussion, location appears to be the most important driver for the choice between stores in European countries and USA but of less importance in the Arab world. A reason for this could be the overall high transportation cost in the former countries. In Arab countries most modern format stores are located in city centres, whereas they are almost always located on the outskirts of cities or suburbs in Western countries. Thus for many shoppers without a car the perceived marginal costs of shopping at a store located far away may well exceed the perceived benefits. Moreover, there is relationship between the importance of location and store type. For example, it has scored high in the case of grocery/fruits and vegetables, and chemists. However, in the case of durables, books and music, apparels and accessories, merchandise was a more important reason (Sinha *et al.*, 2002; Fox *et al.*, 2004). In Arab countries, the fact that location is relatively less important may reflect high levels of car ownership and the poor system of public transportation, as El-Droubi (2004, p. 219) stated:

> *"Using cars for shopping, which is common in Qatar, means that more stores are equally convenient and accessible for consumers, therefore, it could be argued that such convenience is not an important factor in store choice".*

3.4.2. Price

Another determinant is price which plays an important role because marketers uses price as communication medium with customers where the message is being clearly perceived by customer as what it meant to the marketers (Jakpar *et al.*, 2012). Price is a very important attribute for consumers, as it is a common and salient product attribute for most consumers in any purchase decision (Ting, 2009). Thus, researchers have investigated how consumers form their perceptions in response to various types of retail pricing and price related promotion strategies (Seiders and Costley, 1994; Solgaard and Hansen, 2003). As can be seen in Table 3-2, again, the importance of price in store patronage is clearer in developed countries. A main reason for this could be that there is a fairly large common set of standardized products and brands between store chains across store formats. As a result of this customers gave more concentration for the price in their choice. However, in developing countries such as India may be a reflection of the standard of living.

Seiders and Costley (1994) found that price to be a major determinant of store choice in the context of grocery shopping. However, Fox *et al.* (2004) examined the relationship of price to grocery shopping behaviour and found that it was less important than promotion, location, and store assortment for supermarket shoppers in the USA. Additionally, Sohail (2008) revealed that price, shop atmosphere, and store location were not important determinants of store selection for Saudi shoppers. However, a little importance was given to staff courtesy. Another study for Saudi Arabia, however, found that price of one of the top three factors that influence Saudi consumer choice with good quality and wide selection of goods (Zairi and Al-Rasheed, 2010) The effect of the quality and variety of goods and their influence on store patronage and store image has also been highlighted in several studies (Arnold *et al*., 1983; Baltas and Papastathopoulou, 2003; Gorton *et al*., 2011).

In an Arab context, Alhemoud (2008) explored the factors influencing patronage decisions for supermarkets in Kuwait. The results revealed that respondents highly rated the importance of quality of merchandise, fairness of merchandise prices, range of merchandise, friendliness of staff, and variety of merchandise brands. The lowest ratings of importance were attached to supermarket design and layout, external appearance and ease of mobility through aisles. Also, opening hours and accepted methods of payment appeared to be unimportant for the customers of supermarkets in Kuwait.

Theodoridis and Chatzipanagiotou (2009) assessed the relationship between store image attributes and customer satisfaction. Six major attributes were highlighted including: products, pricing, atmosphere, personnel, merchandising, and in store convenience. In particular, four of these six attributes emerged as significant determinants of satisfaction. However, atmosphere and merchandising did not have a significant impact on satisfaction formation. Pricing and products were found to be the key determinants.

In conclusion, from above discussion, the physical environment is less influential than the products themselves. Yet this is not to say that the physical environment is unimportant but rather in certain contexts consumers are willing to trade off environmental factors for lower prices and / or location convenience (Babin and Darden, 1996; Spies et al., 1997; Babin et al., 2003; El-Droubi, 2004; Theodoridis and Chatzipanagiotou, 2009).

3.4.3. In Store Convenience

In store convenience refers to a store's layout and design, which helps customers plan their trip in terms of orientation and direction (Theodoridis and Chatzipanagiotou, 2009). This represents an important attribute of store environmental stimuli allowing the merchandise to be exposed, which in turn will affect the customers' in-store expenditure and choice (Davies and Rands, 1992). In order to attract consumers to shop through the whole store, space design and allocation, placement of merchandise, grouping of merchandise and placement of equipment are some of the factors that retailers need to consider carefully (Ting, 2009). The successful layout of a store depends on whether it has a clear and legible concept; i.e. one can easily find products and find them the first time on different trips. The various labels, information posters and signs can contribute to creating a favourable and attractive store environment (Spies *et al.*, 1997). By doing so, consumers will save time and effort in their shopping trip while obtaining higher quality merchandise, feeling that shopping at a store is more convenient, which, in turn, positively influences their likelihood of repeat visits.

3.4.4. Atmosphere

Kotler (1973, p. 50) defines atmosphere as "the effort to design buying environments to produce specific emotional effects in the buyer that enhance his purchase probability". According to Theodoridis and Chatzipanagiotou (2009) store atmosphere refers to the environment that is created by combining a set of visual elements of the physical store environment (colours, displays, decorative features, ease of movement *etc*.) and stimulation of senses (smell, cleanliness, temperature, and lighting) enabling an aesthetic consumer response.

Much evidence exists supporting the effect of atmosphere on shopper patronage in the field of marketing and retailing (Spies *et al*., 1997; Babin *et al*., 2003). Stores with a favourable atmosphere are likely increase the time a consumer spends in the store, affects their behaviour, and ultimately increases the positive buying experience and store patronage. In other words, stores with a pleasant atmosphere are likely to be more favoured by shoppers than those with less pleasant atmospheres (Spies *et al*., 1997; Babin *et al*., 2003). Spies *et al.* (1997) indicated that for purchasing behaviour the effects of store atmosphere could be completely ascribed to mood-effects. Thus, depending on the type of reactions shown by customers, different intervening variables are responsible for the effects of store atmosphere. In all cases, however, the positive effect of a pleasant store atmosphere on customers' reactions could be clearly demonstrated. Babin *et al.* (2003) suggested that although colour, lighting, and price are linked to shopping intentions, the effect is indirect and other factors that also influence affect and price fairness must be considered as well.

From another angle, some research has found that the importance of various store attributes varies by store types. In the context of USA, Seiders and Tigert (2000) studied the effects of supercentres market entry on local traditional food retailers. By comparing supercentre shoppers with traditional supermarket shoppers, they found that supercentre shoppers identified low prices and assortment of products as the primary reasons for their format choice. In contrast, consumers choose traditional supermarkets primarily for convenience, quality, and service. Carpenter and Moore (2006) study's provided interesting insights into the US consumer's choice of grocery format. With regard to store attributes, cleanliness was the most important attribute regardless of format. The price competitiveness attribute appeared to be most important among shoppers in the traditional supermarket format and the supercentre format. Surprisingly, price competitiveness did not rank among the top five attributes for occasional shoppers in the supercentre format or the specialty grocery format and ranked only fifth among these shoppers for the warehouse format. Carpenter and Moore (2006, p. 448) stated that "while many assert that the grocery industry is strongly driven by price competitiveness, the results suggest that product selection and courtesy of personnel are also very important in determining format choice".

Ting (2009) found that the importance of attributes varies across retail formats. Shoppers who preferred hypermarkets indicated that product and price were the two most important attributes. For those respondents who preferred supermarkets, they mentioned that product quality and location are the top two store attributes that affect their choice. On the other hand, convenience store shoppers placed location and price as the two most important attributes in forming their preference towards the store. Shoppers who preferred traditional stores indicated that location, and product quality influenced their store choice preferences.

Despite the obvious importance of detecting store attributes that influence consumer decisions, other research (Lumpkin *et al.*, 1985; McCurley Hortman *et al.*, 1990; Tuncalp and Yavas, 1990; Sinha *et al.*, 2002; El-Droubi, 2004; Tessier *et al.*, 2010; Khraim *et al.*, 2011), however, suggested that variations in perceived importance of specific store attributes may be partially determined by the personal characteristics of the consumers such as age, income, gender, occupation, religion, culture, and education fulfilment. This may lead to heterogeneous preferences, with significant differences across groups.

Researchers found several differences between demographic segments with regard to the importance placed on varying store attributes. For example, regarding age, Lumpkin *et al*. (1985) conducted a study on the importance of attributes for elderly consumers. They found that strong emphasis was placed on the quality/price ratio. In addition, convenient parking was preferred, while entrance to the premises, fast check-out counters, close to other stores, close to home, phone order, and home delivery were not as important. Moreover, the findings highlighted that elderly consumers are more concerned with of the issues of the physical environment, transportation, and price than non-elderly consumers. Similarly, McCurley Hortman *et al.* (1990) suggested that the elderly placed importance mainly on low prices, atmosphere of the stores and the quality of merchandise and convenience.

Considering culture, Tuncalp and Yavas (1990) examined the transferability of supermarkets into developing countries by using Saudi Arabia as a case study, comparing the grocery shopping habits of Saudi and Western expatriates. Results of this empirical study revealed that although Saudis and expatriates attached similar levels of importance to most criteria in choosing where to shop for groceries, there were some areas of disagreement. For instance Saudis rated the importance of parking, social connections, and free samples much higher than the expatriates. On the other hand, the latter attached greater importance to the availability of leading brands and past experience. For Saudis the importance of parking may reflect the high level of car parking. In addition, Saudis have traditionally shopped at independent grocery stores where most food items are sold unpackaged, so they have a chance to see, to feel, and to taste them (*ibid*). The importance given to brand names by expatriates may reflect unfamiliarity or past unsatisfactory experience with local brands; as Tuncalp and Yavas (1990, p. 63) claimed “the supermarkets in Saudi Arabia tend to carry off- brand products manufactured or packaged in Far Eastern countries”.

Regarding the gender of shoppers, Sinha *et al.* (2002) found that men selected more on the basis of proximity whereas women gave greater importance to merchandise. El-Droubi (2004) investigated the underlying factors affecting consumer shopping behaviour in Qatar. The study revealed that women preferred to deal with outlets that have a nice physical environment whereas men were more concerned with car parking and low prices.

Evidence for Greater Tunis (Tunisia) was provided by Tessier et al. (2010). They found that supermarkets were preferred by wealthier and better educated consumers. Consumers overwhelmingly shopped at both ‘modern’ and ‘traditional’ retail outlets: only 4.2% of those sampled used supermarkets to the exclusion of all other formats. The choice of large supermarkets often reflected the leisure dimension of shopping whereas the nearby grocer was chosen mainly because of the availability of credit and proximity for emergency shopping.

Research also indicates that religion appears to influence some aspects of retail store evaluative criteria. For example, McDaniel and Burnett (1990) examined the effects of multiple measures of religiousness on selected retail store evaluative factors in the United States. They found a positive relationship between high self-perceived religiousness (the cognitive component of religious commitment) and the desire for shopping efficiency, sales personnel friendliness/assistance and product quality in a retail store. In addition, religious contribution (the behavioural component of religious commitment) was positively and significantly associated with sales personnel friendliness/assistance and credit availability.

Mokhlis (2006) explored the influence of religion on consumer behaviour in the context of Malaysian culture, covering four religious categories (Islam, Hinduism, Buddhism and Christianity). Overall, the results indicated that there was a significant relationship between religious affiliation and consumer religiosity and store patronage. However, consumer religiosity, as compared to religious affiliation, was more useful in predicting aspects of retail patronage behaviours. Thus, it was suggested that a religiosity variable should be given consideration in future patronage behaviour model building and research efforts.

In Jordan, Khraim *et al.* (2011) revealed that among the six factors considered (locational convenience, service, post purchase services, merchandise, kinship and local goods), the most important factor for Jordanian consumers was merchandise, which included product variety, cheaper prices, frequent sales offers, and controlled items are well stocked. Among these items, cheaper prices received the highest mean rating. Regarding religion, the study indicated that there was a difference between high, moderate and low levels of religiosity in evaluating the importance of all retail store factors except for the service factor, where there was no difference between high and moderate levels. The study also hypothesized that the emphasis on the availability of local food and non-alcoholic items and beverages was an important and unique feature for retail stores in Islamic societies. However it is important to note that the unit of analysis in Khraim *et al*.'s (2011) study was the shopping centre and the role of gender was not explicitly considered.

In conclusion, numerous studies have been conducted to explain store patronage behaviour. Research showed that store patronage is influenced by various factors including store attributes, and consumers' personal and demographics characteristics. A set of attributes was identified to play a critical role in consumers' decisions as to where to shop. The most important attributes identified in Table 3-2 are geographical location, prices, product assortment, speed of service, service quality, special offers, shopping environment, food safety, cleanliness of place, paying by card facilities, and car parking. Some of these attributes are more salient in a non-Western context. Although, these studies focus on multiple criteria they do not properly address the issues of social acceptability and personal safety. Moreover, the majority of these studies concern shopping malls and / or supermarkets and hypermarkets, with very little attention given to factors determining the choice of other retail outlets such traditional markets and independent stores.

3.5. Models of Store Choice

In order to better understand store choice, researchers have attempted to model the process of information evaluation. This has typically drawn on the work of social psychologists who developed models to predict attitudes from individuals' salient beliefs about objects, which have then been applied in business and marketing research (Ahtola, 1975).

The main model utilised in the marketing literature was developed by Fishbein (1967), which was designed to explain an individual's attitude formation. Besides Fishbein's model, there are lots of other models such as the Rosenberg Model (1956) which mainly focused on attitudes toward a product's benefits (Lindgren and Konopa, 1980); an attitude model for the study of brand preferences (Bass and Talarzyk, 1972); the vector model of preferences which distinguished between belief strength and the content of beliefs and which does not require the utilization of negative probabilities (Ahtola, 1975); and the ideal-point model which provided information concerning an "ideal brand" as well as how existing brands are viewed by consumers(Engel *et al.*, 1995). The aim of these models was to measure consumer attitudes toward objects in the marketplace and to determine the specific attributes associated with those objects. Given the importance and popularity of the application of the approach of Fishbein (1967), the main focus here will be on this model.

Fishbein's (1967) model was based upon principles of mediation and conditioning. This predicted that an individual's attitude toward any object is a function of (1) the strength of her / his beliefs about the object and (2) the evaluative aspect of those beliefs (Fishbein, 1967). Expressed algebraically in Equation 1:

$$A_0 = \sum_{i=1}^{N}(B_i a_i) \qquad [1]$$

Where:

A_0 = the attitude toward object 0

B_i = the strength of belief i about the attitude object o, that is, the "probability" or "improbability" that o is related to some other concept x_i

a_i = the evaluative aspect of B_i, that is, the evaluation of x_i

N = number of beliefs

The marketing applications of the Fishbein's model have in most cases changed its basic nature to such an extent that the resultant models are no longer based on the same theoretical foundations as the original model. For example Fishbein's model was adapted by Bass and Tallarzyk (1972) to more specifically model attitudes towards stores. They argued that attitudes could be expressed as presented in Equation 2:

$$A_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^{N}(W_{ik} B_{ijk}) \qquad [2]$$

Where:

A_{jk} = consumer k's attitude score for j

W_{ik} = the importance weight assigned by consumer k to attribute i

B_{ijk} = consumer k's belief as to the amount of attribute i offered by store j

N = the number of attributes important in the selection

However, Meyer and Eagle (1982) argued that the major weakness of the multi-attribute model was that consumer decisions are more likely to involve a hierarchical evaluation of alternatives. This means there will be a breach of an assumption of the multi-attribute models, that there are stable multi-attribute utility functions.

Monroe and Guiltinan (1975) developed a general patronage behaviour model by using time-path analysis in order to find out which elements and relationships are important in patronage behaviour. The results of this study confirmed that general beliefs about the benefits of store special offers, brand names, and other shopping variables would influence the specific shopping benefits sought. Moreover, the results indicated that general opinions and beliefs were more stable and did not readily change, whereas attribute importance was more susceptible to change (Monroe and Guiltinan, 1975).

Darden (1980) proposed a patronage model of consumer behaviour based on multi-attribute attitude theories. Three important elements were incorporated in this patronage model: shopping orientations, experience, and patronage behaviour. Darden strongly believed that "patronage choice behaviour might actually be more important than that of brand choice behaviour" (Darden 1980, p. 43) because "many consumers make shopping trips to a retail store either to "buy something" or to "see what is available", so that patronage choice is logically prior to brand choice (Darden 1980, p. 44). In other words, consumers choose stores that they want to shop at first without a consideration of brands. Then the comparisons will be made between the brands that are carried by the store that is visited on a particular shopping trip (Mokhlis, 2006).

Sheth (1983) developed a theory of patronage behaviour that included two sub- theories (shopping preference theory and an integrative theory of patronage behaviour). The first theory is limited to establishing a shopping preference for an outlet focused on four constructs, which were shopping predisposition, choice calculus, shopping motives, and shopping options whereas the second theory is focused on the determinants of actual purchase behaviour with respect to a specific product or service from an outlet involving planned purchase, unplanned purchase, foregone purchase and no purchase behaviour. Further, four types of unexpected events were included into Sheth's model that were socio-economic setting, in-store marketing, personal setting and product setting. Sheth (1983, p. 26-27) reported that "the Patronage Behaviour is a function of Preference – Behaviour Discrepancy caused by unexpected events that have either no effect or an inducement or inhibition effect on customer's shopping preference".

Malhotra (1986) recommended a stochastic model for predicting store choice based on censored preference. He argued that this proposed approach could be applied not only in the context of measuring store preferences, but also in a variety of other situations which arise in retailing. The characteristics identified as salient were variety, selection, personnel and service, acceptability of price, convenience of location, and physical facilities. The student sample was divided into four segments using cluster analysis. The results showed that variety, selection, personnel and service, price, convenience of location were significant for all the segments. Physical facilities were significant for only one segment.

Regarding religious influence, based upon a review of two existing models, namely Darden's (1980) patronage model of consumer behaviour and Sheth's (1983) shopping preference theory, a model of religious influences on retail patronage was developed and tested by Mokhlis (2006). Use of information sources, shopping orientation, importance of store attributes and store patronage were the specific retail patronage aspects hypothesized to be influenced by religious variables namely Islam, Buddhism, Hinduism and Christianity. The proposed model was empirically tested by applying Multiple Linear Regression Analysis. The results were generally supportive of the study's hypothesis that the religious background of the consumers played a significant role in affecting certain aspects of retail patronage behaviours. Compared to their Christian counterparts, the people of Islamic faith placed greater emphasis on traditional family values.

3.6. A Theoretical Framework Model of the Study

In order to answer the research question, a conceptual framework was formulated from the existing literature regarding consumer shopping behaviour. On one hand, having reviewed the literature in the consumer shopping behaviour field, it was found that extensive work has been conducted, suggesting that this is a mature area. On the other hand, however, what is not known is the extent to which the findings from previous studies can be generalised to other countries. Furthermore, no investigative framework exists for the research problem under study. Therefore, this study will build on existing research by developing a theoretical framework and empirically validating this framework for the particular context of Libya.

Past theoretical and empirical efforts assisted the researcher to propose a conceptual model of shopping behaviour, as detailed in Figure 3-2. The following sets of constructs were incorporated into the model due to their prevalence in the literature and their use in describing the basic process of shopping behaviour: demographic characteristics, store attribute importance, shopping value, decision-making style, shopping motivations and store patronage.

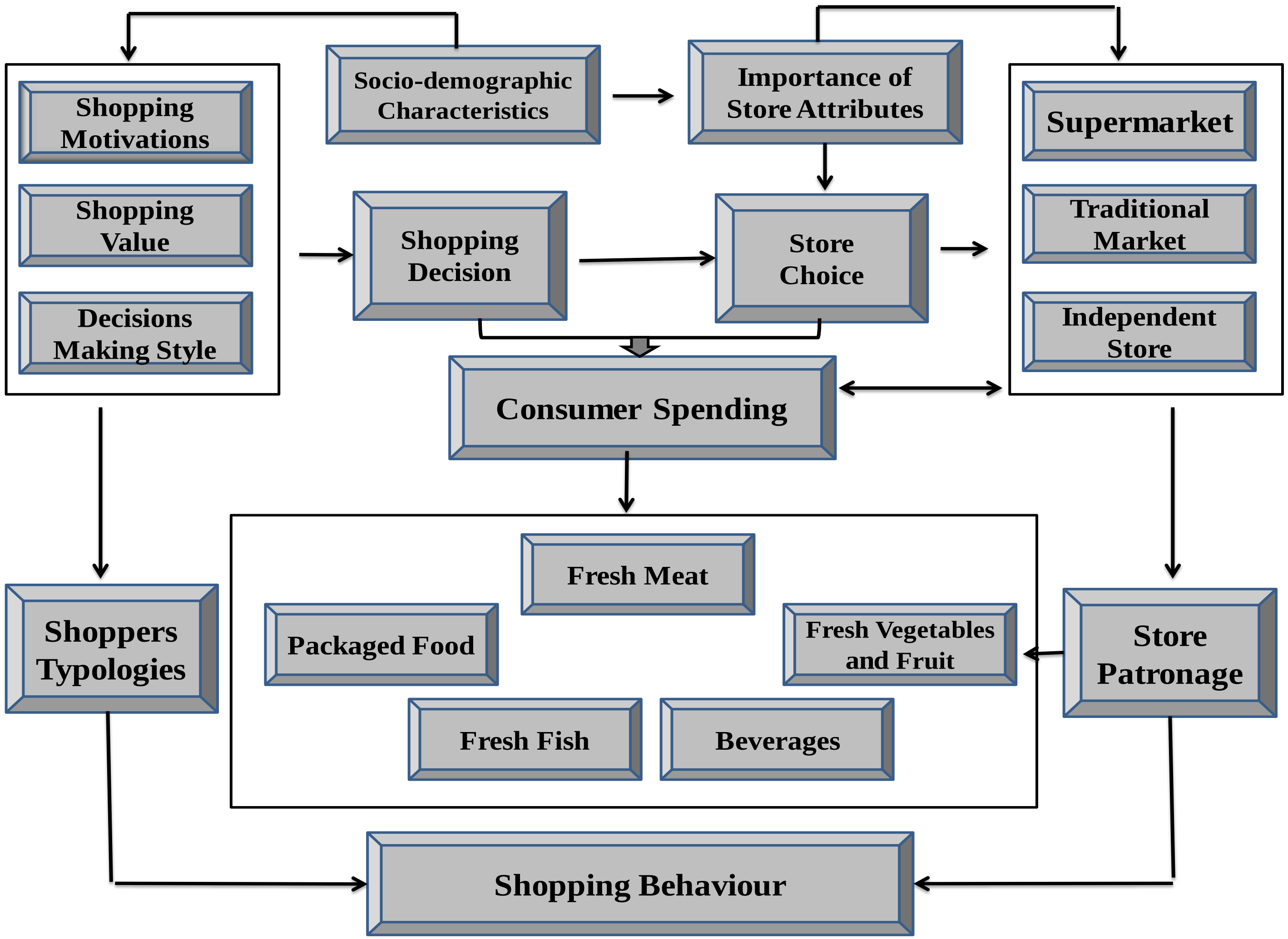

Figure 3-2: A Theoretical Framework of the Study

The theoretical foundation of this model draws on Jamal *et al*.'s (2006) study because of the convergence in the customs and traditions across Arab countries. Moreover, most of the existing literature has sought to develop typologies of shoppers based either on shopping motives, shopping values or on decision-making styles, however, Jamal *et al.*'s study profiled consumers on the basis of all three dimensions (decision-making styles, shopping value and shopping motivations).

A decision-making style can be defined as "a mental orientation characterising a consumer's approach to making shopping choices (Sprotles and Kendall, 1986, p. 268)". Sprotles and Kendall developed a model of eight categories decision making styles which are as follows:

1. Habitual, brand loyal orientation (the tendency to have favourite brands and stores and to have formed habits in choosing them).

2. Value consciousness (the tendency to be careful about product price and seek bargains and look for deals; they are likely to be concerned about getting best value for money and may engage in comparison shopping).

3. Confusion (the tendency to get confused by over-choice of brands and information; they are likely to experience information overload and have difficulty making choices).

4. Impulsiveness (the tendency to be impulsive and careless; they are likely not to plan their shopping and remain unconcerned about how much they spend).

5. Perfectionism/quality consciousness (the tendency to seek perfection or highest possible quality in products; they are expected to shop more carefully, more systematically and are not likely to be satisfied with good enough brands).

6. Brand consciousness (the tendency to buy the more expensive, well known famous brands; they are likely to perceive price–quality link, are likely to have positive attitudes towards departmental and speciality stores selling expensive and popular brands and may prefer best-selling, heavily advertised brands with strong believe in that a higher price means better quality).

7. Hedonic shopping (the tendency to seek pleasure, fun, recreation and entertainment out of shopping), and

8. Novelty consciousness refers to the tendency to buy novel and fashionable items; they are likely to seek pleasure and excitement out of seeking and discovering new things and are likely to keep up to date with style with variety seeking as part of their orientation.

These categories can be divided into utilitarian shopping styles because of the focus on price, quality, and value (value consciousness, confusion, impulsiveness, and quality consciousness) and hedonic shopping styles, including the four shopping styles that reflect some non-essential, non-product aspects of shopping behaviour (brand loyal orientation, brand consciousness, novelty consciousness, and hedonic shopping) (Zhou *et al.*, 2010). A number of studies investigated and assessed the applicability of Sprotles and Kendall's (1986) inventory to examine the major characteristics of consumer decision-making (Hafstrom *et al.* 1992; Lysonski *et al.* 1996; Walsh *et al.* 2001; Jamal *et al.* 2006; Zhou *et al.* 2010; Zhang and Kim, 2013). Overall, these studies have confirmed the eight decision-making styles. However, consumers from these different cultures appear to differ in the extent to which they behave based on these styles.

Value is one of the most powerful forces in the marketplace to understand consumer behaviour. Value is "responsible for the selection and maintenance of the goals (or ends) toward which individuals strive, while simultaneously regulating the manner in which this striving takes place" (Shim and Eastlick, 1998, p. 142). Value comes from the confrontation between what the customer receives (e.g., quality, benefits, worth, utilities) and what they give up to acquire the benefits (e.g., price, sacrifices) and thus in simple way the term of value can be defined as a consumer's overall judgment of benefits and sacrifices (Irani and Hanzaee, 2011). Jamal *et al.* (2006) noted that values are consumers' broad life goals and they often involve the emotional affect associated with such goals and needs. Since the establishment of the Personal Shopping Value scale (Babin *et al*., 1994), much research has focused on defining shopping value and identifying specific dimensions of shopping value and supported the notion that shopping can provide both hedonic and utilitarian value (e.g., Babin and Darden, 1995; Griffin *et al*., 2000; Jamal *et al*.,. 2006; Jones *et al*., 2006; Irani and Hanzaee, 2011; and Davis and Hodges, 2012).

Hedonic shopping value reflects the value received from the multisensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of the shopping experience (Babin *et al.*, 1994). Compared to utilitarian value, hedonic shopping value is more subjective and individualistic. Hedonic value is perceived through fun and pleasure as opposed to goal achievement. Utilitarian shopping value reflects the acquisition of products and/or information in an efficient manner and can be viewed as reflecting a more task-oriented, cognitive, and non-emotional outcome of shopping (Babin *et al.*, 1994). Perceived utilitarian shopping value is determined by how much of the consumption need that prompts the shopping experience, is met (Irani and Hanzaee, 2011). In other words, utilitarian shopping value reflects the task-related value of a shopping experience while hedonic shopping value reflects the value found in the shopping experience itself independent of task-related activities (Jones *et al.*, 2006).

Motivation is normally defined as "an inner drive that reflects goal-directed arousal" (Arnould *et al.*, 2002, p. 378). In a shopping context, motivation can be described as the driving force within consumers that makes them shop. Contrary to the traditional belief that consumers go shopping just to purchase products and/or services, Tauber (1972) argued that consumers shop because they experience a need and recognize that shopping activities may satisfy that need and hypothesized that shopping motivations can be either personal include role playing, diversion from daily routine, self-gratification, physical activity, learning about new trends, fashions, and innovations, and sensory stimulation or social include social experiences outside the home, communication with others having a similar interest, affiliation with peer groups, obtaining status and authority, and gaining pleasure from bargaining and negotiation (Tauber, 1972).

Since Tauber's seminal article (1972), a stream of research has sought to segment consumers using their motivations for shopping, as documented in Section 2.2.1 (e.g. Westbrook and Black, 1985; Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Jamal *et al.*, 2006; and Kaur and Singh, 2007). The various segments of shoppers were found to exhibit some differences in decision making styles, shopping values, shopping motivation and demographic characteristics. Therefore, this study aims to explore, compare and discuss similarities and differences between the Libyan case and previous studies for other geographical contexts.

To date the literature is generally restricted to comparisons of behaviour within the same store format, i.e. limited to only supermarkets or to only department stores. However, a small number of studies examine consumer choice across different retail formats (Gorton *et al.*, 2011). This present study contributes to the literature summarized above by providing an analysis of consumer choice between traditional and newly available shopping formats in Benghazi, Libya. It differs from other research discussed above by considering the choices between three different formats (supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores) and examines the effects of demographic characteristics on format choice.

Key factors that have been found in this literature to affect food-shopping behaviour include attributes of store and shopper characteristics. Store attributes include location, level of prices, product variety, quality of service, quality of produce, and store environment. Shopper characteristics including a wide variety of characteristics such as personal preferences, cultural characteristics, income, and various demographic variables also have been taken into account. However, since the vast majority of the Libyan population are Muslims, variation in religion is not an appropriate variable for the Libyan case. Other key sources used in designing the survey instrument are documented in the methodology chapter.

3.7. Conclusion

This chapter analyses previous research on determinants of food shopping behaviour. To be effective, the literatures in the relevant field were reviewed by addressing consumer behaviour from different angles including: shopping motivations and shopper typologies, store selection criteria and patronage behaviour, and consumer behaviour models.

Drawing on the literature, a considerable amount of research has been published on food shopping behaviour, which principally focuses on Western countries. Very little research has considered non-Western cases as well as in food categories. In answering the most basic question ‘why do people shop’ many reasons or motivations have been highlighted. The most important motivations suggested by Tauber (1972) include several types of personal motive (role-playing, diversion, self-gratification, learning about new trends, physical activity; sensory stimulation) and social motives (social experiences, communication, peer group attraction, status and authority, and pleasure of bargaining).

Shopper segmentation is an important tool for marketers to understand groups of consumers and plan their marketing strategy. A large number of studies have been published in order to recognize typologies of shoppers since Stone’s (1954) seminal study. Different psychographic statements and analytic techniques were used to this end for example; store attribute importance ratings, store image characteristics, and shopping motivations. A brief review of various studies was considered. The results of these studies highlighted some frequent segments common to most cases (e.g. apathetic shoppers).

In addition, much research has focused on studying the principal attributes that influence a customer's decisions regarding where to shop. This stream of research identified that a set of attributes collectively plays a critical role. Regardless of store type, the core attributes that were identified are: geographical location, price, product assortment, service quality, special offers, shopping environment, food safety, cleanliness of place, pay by card facilities, and car parking. Some of them are more salient in a non-Western context and others not.

Furthermore, attention was also paid to models that may help understand consumer food shopping behaviour. Several social psychologists have developed models to predict attitudes from individuals' salient beliefs about objects. Regarding store attribute research, most models originate from the work of Fishbein (1967).

Previously proposed models were reviewed to introduce a theoretical framework of this study. The most relevant existing model was presented by Jamal *et al* (2006). This served as the theoretical foundation for the development of the conceptual model because of the convergence in the customs and traditions across Arab countries. Lastly, the conceptual framework containing the key factors, the variables, and presumed relationships between them was developed.

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents and justifies the research methodology chosen for this study. Firstly, the chapter outlines data sources. Secondly, the research methods utilised are presented, justifying the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods. Next, the chapter discusses how the questionnaire was designed and data collected. Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the statistical methods that were used in this study. However, before discussing the research methodology, it is useful to consider some recurring issues in business research such as justifying the appropriateness of the adopted philosophical approach. This is necessary because the choice of a research position has implications for what, how and why research is carried out (Carson *et al.*, 2001).

4.2. Research Philosophy

A research philosophy is a belief about the way in which data about a phenomenon should be gathered, analysed and used (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Research is directly associated with the researcher's perception of reality (ontology) and what counts as knowledge (epistemology). An understanding of research philosophy can help researchers form a clearer picture about how and why research is implemented. According to Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2012) there are three reasons for why an understanding of "philosophical issues" of research is useful. Firstly, it can help the researcher to clarify the overall components and procedures of the research to be undertaken. Secondly, knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher to recognise which design will work and which will not in solving the research problems. Thirdly, it can help the researcher to identify and even create designs that may be beyond his or her past experience.

There are two major research philosophies, namely positivist and interpretivist approaches, with others lying on a continuum between the two extremes (Carson *et al.*, 2001; Bryman and Bell, 2007). Positivists emphasise an inductive or deductive procedure to establish and explain patterns of behaviour while interpretivists seek to establish the motivations and actions that lead to these patterns of behaviour (Baker, 2001). The positivistic paradigm is often applied to quantitative research, and the interpretivistic paradigm is often related to qualitative research. However, on one hand, even within these two broad stances there are a number of possible approaches. Silverman (2010) argued that there are no universal principles underlying all qualitative social research;

qualitative research draws on a plurality of research paradigms. On other hand, in terms of the use of sources, data collection and interpretation, a degree of overlap exists between most of these paradigms (Tien, 2009).

4.2.1. Positivism

Positivism can be defined as “an organised method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity” (Neuman, 2010, p. 58). Positivists seek to maintain a clear distinction between facts and value judgements. The positivist approach relates to the facts or causes of social phenomena and attempts to explain causal relationships by means of objective facts (Carson *et al.*, 2001). In this approach, research focuses on description, explanation and uncovering facts, accompanied by explicitly stated theories and hypotheses (Neuman, 2010). Collis and Hussey (2009) identified a number of the characteristics of the positivist approach. The most important concern is hypothesis testing, with a tendency toward quantitative data, which drives statistical analysis.

In consumer research, studies within the positivistic tradition focus on consumer decision-making, encompassing economic, behavioural, cognitive, motivational / trait / attitudinal, and situational perspectives. These perspectives are sometimes referred to as traditional perspectives as they pre-date the development of the non-positivist (Interpretative) paradigm (Pachauri, 2002).

4.2.2. Interpretative

Interpretative epistemology suggests that the researcher should seek to understand differences between humans in our role as social actors (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). This philosophical stance is concerned with the complexity of human sense making, and it focuses on understanding human behaviour from the participant's own frame of reference (Collis and Hussey, 2009). According to Lee (1991, p. 347) “the social scientist must collect facts and data describing not only the purely objective, publicly observable aspects of human behaviour, but also the subjective meaning this behaviour has for the human subjects themselves”. In actual fact, essential to the interpretivist philosophy is that the researcher has to adopt an empathetic stance (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). This implies that under this paradigm, the meaning, rather than the measurement, of social phenomena is emphasised.

In brief, the positivist approach has been applied in scientific research to explain causal relationships through objective facts. However, interpretivist epistemology is more concerned with understanding the social world. Carson *et al.* (2001) pointed out that the key criteria differentiating the two paradigms are:

- In positivism, the researcher is independent, but in interpretivist research the researcher is involved.

- In positivism, large samples may be used whereas interpretivist research uses small numbers.

- In positivism, testing theories predominates whereas interpretivist-type research focuses on generating theories or "theory building".

- In the interpretivist paradigm, it is not easy to control the pace, progress and end-point of the study.

Deciding about whether to use one or the other, or both of these paradigms, is a significant task, mainly because it depends on a number of issues, including the researcher's own beliefs about the appropriate way to study human behaviour, the research questions, the rigour of the research which includes both the universality and verifiability of results; the degree of understanding of the problem provided by the method; the extent to which the results will generalise to other settings and persons; and the usefulness of the findings (Patton, 1990). In marketing research, projects can be considered positivist if there is evidence of formal propositions, quantifiable measures of variables, hypothesis testing, and the deduction of inferences concerning the phenomena from the representative sample to a stated population

Accordingly, after considering the options, a positivist approach was adopted in this research. This is because consumer behaviour is well defined and considered to be one of most mature areas within social research. Moreover, because of its long tradition of research, a number of theories and models have been suggested and validated to study a variety of marketing phenomena. In addition, a number of constructs (dependent and independent variables) are available which can be adapted to study consumer shopping behaviour as an applied marketing science.

However, although this current research adopts a positivistic approach, it crosses the borders between the two philosophies by conducting some interpretative analysis of interview responses.

Thus, it is difficult to state that the current research is purely positivistic in nature as qualitative findings inform the quantitative study (Weber, 2004).

4.3. Research Approach

According to research theory (Bryman and Bell, 2007) the establishment of systematic relationships between the research and theory has been achieved with the aid of two general strategies including deductive and inductive approaches. Induction describes moving from specific observations to the general (to wider generalizations and theories), while deduction begins with the general (theory) and ends with specific (observations). Both processes have been put forward as suitable models for research in business. There is an on-going controversy as to which strategy most rapidly enhances scientific progress as the two schools of thought disagree. As Bryman and Bell (2007, p. p15) state "however, as the previous discussion has implied, the issues are not as clear- cut as they are sometimes presented". The difference between them is mainly concerned with the sequence of the research process (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

The present study followed the deductive strategy, as it first established a theoretical model, based mainly on qualitative research, and a literature review. It investigated consumer shopping behaviour, using empirical data with statistical testing designed to produce generalizable findings by focusing on specific factors and determine their statistical effect on shopping behaviour.

Employing the deductive approach enhances the generalizability of the research (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). In addition, the use of structured questions and quantitative data improved the reliability and validity of the findings. According to Bryman and Bell (2007) and Saunders *et al.* (2009), the main steps in the process of deductive research are: firstly, forming hypotheses from theory; secondly, expressing the hypotheses in operational terms which propose a relationship between two specific concepts or variables; thirdly, testing these hypotheses; fourthly, examining the outcome of the inquiry; in terms of confirming the theory or not; and finally, modifying the theory in the light of the findings if necessary (Saunders *et al*., 2009). Figure 4-1 presents the process of deduction. Having discussed the empirical approach of this study, the next section describes the research design and methods of data collection.

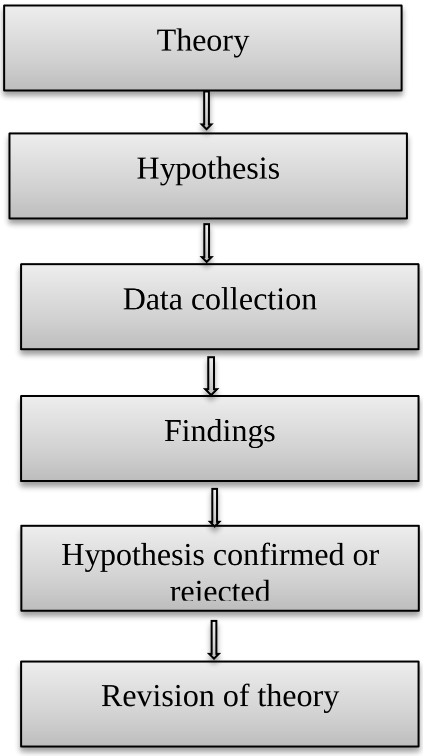

Figure 4-1: Process of Deduction[1]

4.4. Data Sources

Because of the lack of secondary data sources regarding the determinants of food shopping behaviour in Libya, the study mainly depended on primary data collection. This generated necessary data to analyse the phenomenon under consideration. In designing the collection of primary data, it was important to refer to former studies, especially in Arab and developing countries, to focus the study in the correct manner.

4.5. Research Methods

The researcher believed that the quantitative approach, where the effects of independent variables on dependent variables are statistically assessed, would be more appropriate and a reliable way to understand the nature of relationships among variables, as well as providing a rich contextual basis for interpreting and validating the results. This is because the interpretation and findings derived

[1]Source: Bryman and Bell, 2007, p11.

from quantitative research are solely based on measured quantities rather than impressions (Denscombe, 2010). Even though the qualitative methodology provides very detailed descriptions of the phenomenon under investigation (Patton, 1990), it is less useful for generalising and testing hypotheses about relationships between variables. Accordingly, the quantitative approach is more appropriate for the main part of study which rests on hypothesis testing and generalisation.

In this study both qualitative and quantitative research were used to obtain rich information about the topic of study and to an increase validity and obtain more robust results (Creswell, 2003). As noted by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009, p. 33) "The utility of using mixed methods research provides better inferences and the opportunity for a greater assortment of divergent views". Qualitative research was carried out as preparatory step for quantitative research to give an initial picture of the research topic as well as to provide more in-depth insights before conducting the main survey. Quantitative research was conducted to understand the phenomenon under study in-depth, drawing on statistical measurement and testing of hypotheses and theories.

4.5.1. Qualitative Research

Recently, qualitative techniques have become increasingly popular in marketing research (Kaynak *et al.*, 2005; Jackson *et al.*, 2006; Webber *et al.*, 2010). "Qualitative" is generally used as a synonym for any data collection technique (such as interview, observation and focus group) or data analysis procedure (e.g. categorising data) that generates or uses non-numerical data. Given the limited previous research, data sources and information on consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya, it was decided to conduct initial, qualitative research to overcome this deficiency and to identify the correct conceptual basis.

4.5.1.1. *Research Motivations*

The interviews encouraged respondents to provide an overview of their shopping habits, motivations, and attitudes. The main motivations for conducting this research were:

- To gain an initial understanding of consumer food shopping behaviour at the local level.
- To check that concepts / survey questions taken from research on other countries fitted with the Libyan case.

4.5.1.2. *Research Methods*

There are several qualitative methods such as participant observation, in-depth interviews, and focus groups (Bryman and Bell, 2007), with the last two being the most common. Focus groups and in-depth interviews both have advantages and disadvantages. However, this study relied on face to face interviews. The choice of in-depth interviews was due to a desire to respect certain customs and traditions, and cultural sensitivities which in many cases do not allow women to meet with unknown men and also sometimes even with unknown women. This is highlighted later in the findings of the study regarding social acceptability issues. It would also have been difficult to find a suitable place and time for conducting focus groups. Although there are some disadvantages related to in-depth interviews such as the costs in time and money, it is generally considered to be beneficial in terms of providing a deep understanding of a phenomenon from the consumer's perspective and yields high response rates because of the interaction between the researcher and interviewees (*ibid*).

4.5.1.3. *Sampling*

Sampling procedures in qualitative research are not so rigidly prescribed as in quantitative studies (Coyne, 1997). This flexibility in sampling, however, may be confusing for some researchers and mistakes may be made (*ibid*). However, in Patton's view (1990), all types of sampling in qualitative research may be encompassed under the broad term of purposeful sampling. Patton (1990) describes 15 different purposeful sampling strategies including snowball sampling, maximum variation sampling, and convenience sampling. According to Patton (1990) the main aim of purposeful sampling is to select participants according to the purpose of the research. In this study the objective was to investigate consumer food shopping behaviour, thus, the target participants were people who were responsible for food shopping with initially a mixture of ages and both genders selected.

4.5.1.4. *Data Collection*

Qualitative in-depth interviews were conducted and data collection proceeded in two rounds. All interviewees regularly purchased food and grocery items for themselves and/or their families.

- **The First Round**

In keeping with Patton's (1990) notion of purposeful sampling, the first round of interviewing adopted combination purposeful sampling including snowball and maximum variation sampling to meet multiple interests and needs. The maximum variation sampling method aims to select study units which encompass a wide range of variation in the dimensions of interest. In this case, the researcher was interested in the motives underpinning food shopping behaviour, and assumed that gender and socio-economic status were important background variables. Thus, to consider a wide range of respondents, taking into account a variety of different socio-economic groups, maximum variation sampling was used by targeting schools, the University, and some government departments in Tripoli to ensure that men and women as well as different standards of living were included in the sample. An attempt was made to draw interviews from a variety of different socio-economic groups as documents in Table 5-1 in Chapter 5.

A snowball sample is a non-probability sampling technique that is appropriate to use in research when the members of a population are difficult to locate. According to Bryman and Bell (2007) snowball sampling is regarded as a convenient form of sampling, in which the researcher collects data on the few members of the target population he or she can locate, then asks those individuals to provide information needed to locate other members of that population whom they know (Bryman and Bell, 2007). In other words, this meant in practice that an interviewee recommended the next interviewee so that "the snowball gets bigger and bigger as you accumulate new information-rich cases" (Patton, 1990, p. 176). Snowball sampling was used to locate respondents, who then were asked to suggest other potential participants so that more and more respondents were obtained.

In the first phase, in-depth interviews were conducted face to face in Tripoli in Summer 2010. The capital was chosen as it has the most developed network of supermarkets in the country, providing inhabitants with a clear choice between different types of retail format. Regarding sample size, in qualitative research, there is no set, initial number of interviews. The research continues expanding the sample size until a point of theoretical saturation is reached whereby the marginal interview yields no or minimal fresh insights (Douglas, 2003).

The face to face interviews were designed to encourage respondents to discuss their food shopping behaviour and underlying motivations in order to provide new insights into this topic from the point of view of particular Libyan shoppers. This phase of data collection included adult males and females (thirteen female and nine male) as well as a cross-section of different standards of living[1]. The researcher started by identifying some individuals who were relevant to the study, for example, the managers of schools, friends of university academic staff, and the heads of

[1] Interviewees were segmented into rich, middle and poor groups based on monthly income.

government departments, and then asking them to locate other useful informants, who were responsible for food shopping.

All interviews were conducted in Arabic. The interviews lasted approximately 35 minutes, and participation was completely voluntary. The majority of the interviews were conducted in the interviewees' workplace. In the first round of data collection, interviews continued until there were no new data obtained (theoretical saturation) to the questions asked (Bryman and Bell, 2007). In total twenty two interviews were conducted. Following analysis of the first wave of interviews a set of theoretical gaps were identified, principally relating to social acceptability and the role of food shopping as a leisure activity. These issues informed the second stage of interviewing.

- **The Second Round**

This phase of interviews, by focusing on theoretical gaps identified from initial data collection, again adopted purposeful sampling, drawing on a convenience sample (Coyne, 1997). In general, convenience sampling refers to use of what is available at the time of data collection not what is wanted. Interviewees were selected to explore in greater depth important themes that emerged from the first round of interviews. The main purpose of the second round of interviews was to focus on gender, social acceptability and shopping roles, and included only female interviewees. Each interview, conducted by a female Libyan national, began with a statement of the research purpose and assured respondents of anonymity. Interviewees were happy to discuss their food shopping behaviour and the interviewer did not encounter any refusals based on religious, cultural or tribal grounds.

In this phase, ten women were interviewed in December 2010. Interviews were conducted via Skype. Interviews ranged between 25 and 40 minutes in length. By the end of the second stage, the marginal interview yielded little new information and a point of theoretical saturation was reached (Glaser and Strauss, 2009).

4.5.1.5. *Ethical Concerns*

The ethical implications of the research were carefully considered when planning the research design and methodology. The research methodology was therefore adapted in line with suitable ethical principles. Burton (2000, p. 299) stated that "ethical concerns are present in all research designs and go beyond data collection to include analysis and publication". These issues should be at the forefront of the researcher's mind throughout the research process. Of course, first of all, formal letters were prepared by the researcher' supervisors in both English and Arabic language to grant permission to conduct interviews, confirming that the researcher is a PhD student at Newcastle University with the title of project and the aim of the study. Interviewees were not hostile to being asked to participate and positive responses were received from all those approached.

Before the interviews took place, a short briefing induction was given to each interviewee. This informed all interviewees as to the goals and the purpose of the study and asking them if they would be willing to take part in the research on food shopping behaviour, confirming that the data collected would only be used for academic purposes. Finally regarding ethical considerations, it was the task of the researcher to be careful about personal values, morality and ethics in the research process. Respondents were not asked for their names and addresses, hence their anonymity was preserved. Rather, the labels (interview1,2,........32) were used to refer to them. Interviewees were told that they are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, and without any repercussions. Interviews were recorded with the permission of the participants and transcribed immediately after the interview sessions. The overall process followed all University ethical guidelines and the code of conduct of the Market Research Society.

4.5.1.6. *Interview Questions*

In order to generate rich and detailed answers, open-ended questions were utilised. Open-ended questions are typically more flexible, they allow greater spontaneity and adaptation of the interaction between the researchers and the respondent and respondents can answer in their own words. An interview guide (see an Appendix 1) was used in order to keep the conversation focused upon the main themes. To capture top of the mind imaging the main part of the interview began with the question 'When confronted with the words supermarket and market, what comes to mind?' Subsequent questions considered patterns of food shopping, the use of traditional retail formats and supermarkets, the advantages and disadvantages of each and shopping styles such as: 'How often do you usually shop for food?'. 'How often do you usually visit the supermarket and the market?'. 'What are the main factors that influence your patronage of traditional markets and supermarkets?' In addition, some questions addressed proposed sections of the questionnaire for their applicability to the Libyan case.

Gorton *et al*. (2009: p 6) "argued that the scales and research instruments designed to understand consumer shopping behaviour in Western markets may not incorporate the critical attributes that underpin decisions elsewhere". For instance cleanliness and food safety have been suggested as important factors for declining use of wet markets in Asia (Ho, 2005; Gorton *et al*.,

2009) but are not included as attributes in research on Western markets (Lindquist, 1974; Ness *et al*., 2002). In addition, in Western contexts the main consideration was to understand consumers' choice between different types of 'modern retail' stores whereas in Libya the main retail choice is between supermarkets and traditional markets. As a result, several questions were raised to make sure that the questions to be included in a survey instrument were suitable to the Libyan case.

This first phase identified the importance of social acceptability and culture in explaining shopping patterns. The second phase of interviews explored these issues in greater depth. Questions included: is it socially acceptable in Libya for a woman to go shopping in a traditional food market, is it socially acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a supermarket, and for women are there any differences between traditional food traditional markets and supermarkets in terms of social acceptability? answers were explored in depth.

4.5.1.7. *Data Analysis*

All the interviews were audio-taped, translated semi-*verbatim* into English, checked for accuracy, and entered into NVivo8&10, a software program designed for the analysis of qualitative data. Interview data were analysed using textual analysis to identify key issues and concepts. All data that related to a particular topic or theme were categorized and given a code name under each research question and according to topic areas. Data were coded initially through the creation of free nodes. Coding helped the organization of data and facilitated interpretation. Tree nodes were created as well as free nodes to record the characteristics of interviewees. The three main types of retail outlets (supermarkets, independent stores and traditional markets) were used as free nodes for data analysis. Some themes (parent nodes) were found to have sub-themes (child nodes) such as motives for shopping; shopper typologies and social acceptability were therefore tree nodes.

Moreover, attribute case nodes recorded descriptive information pertaining to each interview (e.g. age, sex, income, occupation of interviewee). A cross-consideration of cases and attributes was useful for comparative analysis, for example, comparing male and female responses to the question *why do you shop*?. Sets were used to cluster nodes together into broader concepts based on potentially meaningful relationships (Hutchison *et al.*, 2009) where the participations were classified into sets according to for example; gender, cities, occupation as short cut to the item that was stored elsewhere. In addition, matrices were used to examine how the contents of different nodes related to each other and to make multiple comparisons between cases and concepts. The latter were created by querying the data using the matrix coding option (Richards, 1999) such as how do female of different occupations and cities group discuss the social acceptability and role of food shopping as shown in Appendix 4.

4.5.2. Quantitative Research

Drawing on insights from the qualitative research, quantitative research sought further to measure and understand consumer food shopping in Libya. So in order to obtain the necessary data in the light of the study purposes, a survey instrument was designed drawing on the literature and the results of the qualitative research. The initial questionnaire was split into four parts and written in English. The questionnaire was first translated into Arabic and then translated back into English by a professional service office (World Translations Limited Company) that is licensed by the United Kingdom government for official translation from English to Arabic and *vice-versa* to enhance translation equivalence.

4.5.2.1. Validity and Reliability

Assessing the validity and reliability of measures is a vital part of the research process (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Although to a large extent, the scales used in this research were adopted from validated preceding studies, careful attention was paid to ensuring an accurate fit within the context of this study. The evaluation of the measures used in this study involved an assessment of the validity and reliability of the instrument. To this end, it is appropriate to reflect on to what extent the data are valid and reliable before and after carrying out the main study.

In order to maintain and maximise the questions' validity and reliability, both pre-testing and a pilot study were conducted. Green et al. (1988) distinguished between a pre-test and a pilot survey. Pre-testing is concerned with whether or not the questionnaire asks good questions, flows smoothly and the questions sequences are logical. A pilot survey is concerned with the validity of the survey questions. The procedures employed to establish validity and reliability were as follows:

- **Validity**

One criterion for evaluating the soundness of a research instrument is validity. An assessment of validity indicates how well a particular measure captures what it is designed to measure. In other words, validity can be defined as the extent to which any instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Bryman and Bell, 2007). There is no one clear-cut indicator of a scale's validity. Validity can be divided into two sub-categories: content and construct validity (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

1. **Content Validity**

   Content validity, also, known as face validity, is the degree of correspondence between the items selected to constitute a summated scale and its conceptual definition. In this study, content validity was assessed by asking experts (research supervisors and Libyan academic staff) to examine survey items and constructs and provide feedback for both the English and Arabic versions of the questionnaire as part of the pretesting of the study.

2. **Construct validity**

   Construct validity is the approach to validating a measure by determining what construct, concept or trait the instrument is in fact measuring. There are two categories of content validity, both of which are of interest in this study: convergent validity and discriminant validity.

   - Convergent validity refers to the degree to which items correlate with other measures within the same construct. In other words, it means that the variables within a single factor are highly correlated.

   - Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which factors are distinct and uncorrelated. In other words, discriminant validity means that individual measured items should represent only one latent factor.

It is expected that an item is related with other items that measure the same construct (convergent validity), but differs from items which measure different constructs (discriminant validity). These two types of validity in this study were assessed using factor analysis. Such analysis provided an empirical assessment of the relationships between items forming the conceptual and empirical foundation of a summated scale. On the other hand, content validity was examined by conducting both pre-test and pilot studies as well as experts' feedback that is considered in more detail latter in this chapter.

➢ **Reliability**

Measures of variables should have reliability in order to draw valid inferences from the research. Reliability is an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Simply put, reliability refers to the extent to which a scale produces consistent results if repeated measurements are made on a particular characteristic. Thus, the scale is free from random error. Although there is more than one approach for assessing reliability such as test-retest, intra-observer and internal consistency, this study, however, focused on internal consistency reliability that can be practically measured by calculating a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, which is a ubiquitous approach within the literature (*ibid*). The value of Cronbach's alpha can range from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating greater reliability. There is much debate amongst researchers as to appropriate cut-off points for reliability. However, Hair *et al*., (2010, p. 125) have reported that "the generally agreed upon lower limit for Cronbach's alpha is 0.70, although it may decrease to 0.60 in exploratory research". Therefore, in this study, an alpha value of 0.6 was set as a cut-off point for the acceptance of the measure. In order to quantify scale reliabilities, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed using SPSS before and after running the main study.

4.5.2.2. Pre-testing

Pre-testing refers to a trial test of a specific aspect of the study such as the method of data collection or data collection instrument before finalising it (Dekeba, 2001). Pretesting has several purposes (*ibid*):

1. To test whether the instrument obtains responses required to achieve the research objectives.

2. To test whether the content of the instrument is relevant and adequate.

3. To test whether the questions are clear and understandable to respondents.

4. To test the other qualitative aspects of the instrument like question structure and question sequence.

Pre-testing was divided into two stages: in the first stage, the initial drafts of the questionnaire in English were revised and modified by the research supervisors who are specialised in the area of marketing and consumer behaviour at Newcastle University. Comments for improvement were received from them in respect to the structure of questions, wording and its formats. Also, the comments of Libyan research students that are particularly related to the translation of the questionnaire from English to Arabic language besides other comments were taken into account at this stage. In addition, pretesting was conducted in May 2011 with a total of ten Libyan students at Newcastle University who were seen as similar to the population for the study and regularly purchased food and grocery items for themselves and/or their families. Based on the feedback, minor adjustments in wording were necessary to the questionnaire.

After designing the questionnaire and prior to commencing the pilot study, some comments on the suitability of the structure and the design of the questionnaire from some of academic staff at Omar Al-mukhtar University were obtained. This helped improve the survey instrument (Arabic version). Obtaining advice from a group of experts should enhance validity and help to make necessary alterations prior to pilot testing (Saunders *et al.*, 2009; Hair *et al.,* 2010).

4.5.2.3. Pilot Study

A pilot study is a small test conducted prior to the full survey; in order to improve the latter's quality and efficiency (Thabane *et al.,* 2010). A pilot study is more formal than pretesting, typically involving responses from approximately 10% of the required full sample, drawing on respondents as similar as possible to the survey population (Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001). The main aim was to check if there were any problems that the respondents may experience, such as the time required by the participants to fully complete the questionnaire, the clarity of the instruction, if there were unclear or ambiguous questions, if there was any question which was not easy to answer, whether the layout was clear and attractive, and if they had any other comments. In other words, this aimed to ensure that there were no unanticipated difficulties and to further enhance content validity.

At this stage, draft of the questionnaire in Arabic version was tested using a convenience sample of 100 respondents in El Bayda city in the Eastern part of Libya in June 2011. In order to maximize feedback, data collection occurred via face to face interviews. The pilot test sample was excluded from the final sample. As a result a number of adjustments were made to the running order of the questions and their layout in the light of the findings from the pilot study. For example, "I have no experience" was added as a response category because some participants stated that they had never shopped at a particular retail format, so they could not evaluate it as good or bad. In addition, respondents found it difficult to understand a question relating to the average percentage of their total spending accounted for by different retail formats across food product categories. Accordingly, more details were provided as a footnote to improve comprehension.

As shown in Table 4-1, Cronbach's alpha values for all the scales used in the study exceeded the 0.6 threshold suggested by Hair *et al.* (2010). Thus, no items were selected for deletion based on this analysis. Since the pilot test indicated no cause for concern, consequently, the questionnaire was considered satisfactory for conducting the main research.

Table 4-1: Reliability Results of Questionnaire

Construct	N of Items	N of Cases	Cronbach's Alpha	
			pilot	final
Food shopping motivations	59	100	0.810	0.815
The importance of store attributes	17	100	0.752	0.719
Evaluation of supermarket	17	100	0.872	0.855
Evaluation of traditional market	17	100	0.871	0.956
Evaluation of independent store	17	100	0.898	0.885

As can be seen in Table 4-1 there is a difference in the reliability coefficients between the pilot study and the final research sample relating to all considering scales. Cronbach's Alphas scores were higher for the final sample compared to the pilot study in terms of food shopping motivations and the evaluation of traditional market scales. Conversely, Cronbach's Alpha values for the importance of store attributes and evaluation of supermarket and independent store scales were relatively lower than in the pilot study. However, overall, it can be concluded that the Cronbach alpha scores indicate the reliability of the measures used. The reliability of measures is further assessed in Chapter 6, Section 6.4.1.

In general, the pilot results demonstrated that the questionnaire covered important aspects identified within the literature review and qualitative research. In particular, the items of the questionnaire were relevant from both academic and participants' perspectives. Therefore, the questionnaire could be accepted as possessing content validity as Hair *et al*. (2010) indicate that an appropriate way of measuring content validity is to use the judgement of individuals with expertise in some aspect of the subject under study in order to comment on the wording of the items. The final questionnaire was easier to understand, had a better flow of questions and, more importantly, respondents did not have any difficulty in answering the questions. Subsequently, data collection was initiated using the final version of the questionnaire. The final versions (English and Arabic) of the questionnaire used in this study are presented in Appendices 2 and 3. A summary of the methods employed to establish validity and reliability of measures is presented in Figure 4-2.

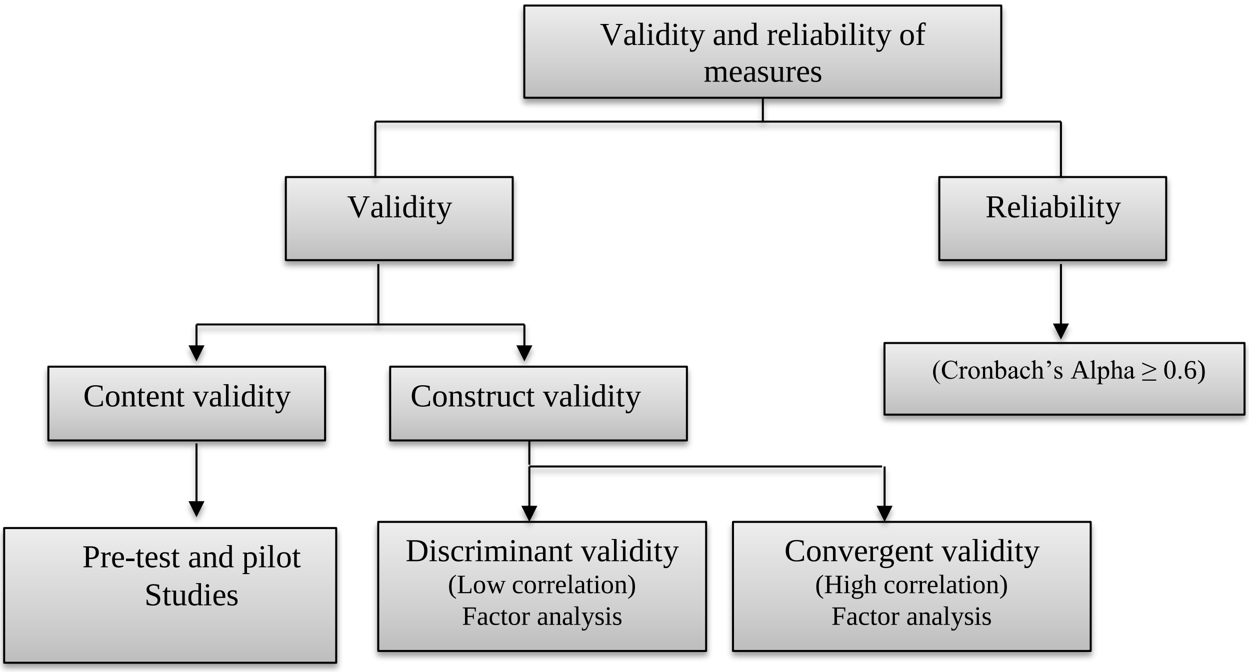

Figure 4-2: The Methods used to Establish Validity and Reliability of Measures

4.5.2.4. Questionnaire Structure

The main elements of the questionnaire that were developed for some constructs based on the exploratory interviews along with previous scales found in the literature were as follows:

a. Food Shopping Behaviour

This section addressed three main aspects of food shopping behaviour. Firstly, with respect to shopping activity, specific questions concerned frequency of shopping, and frequency of visits to traditional markets, supermarkets and independent stores (Ness *et al.*, 2002; Gorton *et al.*, 2009). In addition, in recognition that patterns of behaviour may vary across food product categories, questions about the average percentage of respondents' total spending on fresh fruit and vegetables (FFV), fresh meat, fresh fish, packaged goods and beverages accounted for by traditional markets, supermarkets, and independent stores in a typical month was included (Gorton *et al.*, 2009). Finally, financial aspects were investigated with nominal questions concerning monthly expenditure on food (Ness *et al.*, 2002; Gorton *et al.*, 2009).

b. Shopping Motivations and Decision Making Styles

To understand shopping motivations and decision making styles, a set of items adapted from Jamal *et al*. (2006) were included. In addition, based on the findings of the qualitative research, items relating to gender and shopping tasks and social acceptance were added as they were presumed to be important in understanding the Libyan case. The use of Jamal's study reflects the convergence in a lot of factors such as culture and religion between the two countries studied (Qatar and Libya). Questions were in the form of Likert-scale items, scoring from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). According to widely acknowledged studies of shopping motivations and decision making styles, these motivations were identified as role playing, utilitarian shopping, hedonic shopping, social shopping, gratification seeking, adventure shopping, brand loyal orientation, value seeking, confusion, impulsiveness, high quality consciousness, brand consciousness and novelty seeking (Tauber, 1972, Arnold *et al*., 1983, Jamal *et al*., 2006). This type of response scale offers the researcher a wider range of possible scores, and increases the options for statistical analysis (Pallant, 2010).

c. The Consumer's Patronization Decisions

Several attributes have been identified in the marketing literature as determinants of store patronage and choice. To identify salient retail outlet attributes and other determinants of food shopping behaviour, respondents were asked to rate the importance of various potential factors in influencing their choice of retail format. This drew on items identified as salient within the retailing literature (Lindquist, 1974; Arnold *et al*., 1983; Solgaard and Hansen, 2003; Sohail, 2008 Gorton *et al*., 2011).

Specifically, the items included were: convenient location, assortment, variety of products, quality of product, food safety, price, assortment, special offers, speed and quality of service, method of payment, cleanliness, atmosphere, and other facilities. Respondents rated the importance of each potential factor (e.g. cleanliness of place) in determining their choice of retail format for purchasing food on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging (1 = not important, 5 = most important). To understand how different retail formats performed on each of these potential factors, respondents rated the performance of supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores for each attribute again a five point scale (1 = very poor, 5 = very good) was used.

d. Demographic Characteristics

The aim of this section was to classify respondents in terms of their demographic and socio-economic characteristics. Specifically this included nominal questions relating to a respondent's age, gender, level of education, employment, marital status, number of the household members, nationality and monthly income (Ness *et al.*, 2002; Alhemoud, 2008).

4.5.2.5. Measurement and Scaling of the Research Concepts

The survey drew on a mixture of closed question formats including Likert, ordinal, and nominal scales. Measurement is important in accurately representing the concepts of interest and it is instrumental in the selection of the appropriate method of analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The Likert scale is assumed to be an interval scale that is used to ask respondents to indicate whether for example they agree or disagree with a series of mental beliefs or behavioural belief statements (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). In this regard, there is no single optimal number of categories because the number of scale categories is influenced by the data collection method, the respondents' knowledge about the subject, the nature of the objects, and the type of analysis (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In this context, the research employed a mixture of 5 and 7 points scales to be consistent with the scale measurements and procedures those were previously employed to validate the scales. This allowed for direct comparison with mean scores in previous studies. In the pilot study, considering the two different points of scale, none of the respondents felt uncomfortable or confused, so no changes were made in this regard.

4.5.2.6. The Study Area

Initially it was planned to conduct the survey in the capital city (Tripoli). However, due to the uprising that took place in Libya in February 2011 and NATO military action, the study area was changed to Benghazi. Benghazi was chosen as an alternative location for the study for several reasons; firstly, it is the second largest city in Libya. Secondly, Benghazi accounted for approximately 12 per cent of Libya's total population according to the 2010 census (General Authority for Information, 2010). Thirdly, although the concept of supermarket-anchored shopping centres has yet to fully appear in Libya, Benghazi is one of the most important urban centres and has witnessed a rise in foreign investment as well as an increase in the number of supermarkets. Finally, at the time of data collection it was located in the liberated part of Libya, where the researcher could work in a relatively safe atmosphere.

4.5.2.7. Sampling Methods

According to the General Authority for Information (2009), Benghazi can be divided into 32 neighbourhoods including the suburbs. Only the main districts inside Benghazi are shown in Figure 4-3. The neighbourhoods where data were collected are indicated in blue font. However, there is a lack of information about household characteristics. To overcome this limitation, households were classified based on the neighbourhoods to which they belong. In general there is clear classification of neighbourhoods based on standard of living (rich, middle, and poor classes).

To construct the sample, quota sampling was employed first. The aim of quota sampling is to produce a sample that reflects a population in terms of the relative proportions of people in different categories (Bryman and Bell, 2007). By using this sampling approach however, because of several challenges that were confronted by the researcher such as the lack of safety and cooperation of people, especially after the killing of General Abdul Fatah Younis Al- Obeidi, which occurred during the compilation of the questionnaire, the rate of response was very low.

Figure 4-3: Map of Benghazi city

To ensure a target of 300 responses was achieved (a minimum required for the statistical analysis employed); the sample was augmented using a team of data collectors consisting of the friends and relatives of the researcher. Thus, the sample consisted of Libyans known to the fieldworkers (relatives, friends and neighbours).

4.5.2.8. Data Collection

This study relied on self-administered questionnaires using a drop-off / pick-up method. Kaynak *et al* (2005, p. 39) claimed that "the drop-off /p ick-up is a data-gathering method incorporates the advantages of both personal interviews and self-administered questionnaires". Although there are some disadvantages related to this method such as no control over participant interpretation, it is generally considered to be beneficial in terms of everybody answering the same questions which assisted in minimising interviewer bias, the possibility of asking more complex questions and saving time and money (Bernard, 2006).

To increase the response rate, more than one visit was made to collect completed questionnaires. Of the 1,700 questionnaires that were delivered, a total of 600 questionnaires (35 per cent) were returned. Of this total, 371 completed questionnaires were used in the data analysis. The survey was conducted from July to September 2011. The reason why the survey took nearly three months to administer was the 17th February revolution and surrounding events which substantially hampered data collection.

4.5.2.9. Analytical Techniques

The data was statistically analysed by using appropriate software packages (Amos 19 (CFA), SPSS 19 (EFA& CA), and Stata 11(SEM) taking into account differences in the nature of data and the research objectives. To understand shopping behaviour, the major techniques were factor analysis (including confirmatory and exploratory analysis) and cluster analysis. In addition, econometric analysis was applied. These techniques have been considered in some previous research in this area (Ness *et al.*, 2002; Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; El-Droubi, 2004; Bai, 2006; Alhemoud, 2008; Sohail, 2008; Gorton *et al.*, 2009). Of course, descriptive analysis was applied initially to summarise sample characteristics.

4.5.2.10. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis is a means of testing how well measured variables represent a smaller number of constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The primary objective of CFA is to determine the ability of a predefined factor model to fit an observed set of data. CFA was used to test how well a number of factors that were determined by previous research (Jamal *et al.*, 2006) fit the Libyan case. The key was to identify significant factors that affect food shopping behaviour in the Libyan context. CFA relies on several statistical tests to determine the adequacy of model fit to the data:

1. The chi-square test indicates (χ^2) the amount of difference between expected and observed covariance matrices. A chi-square value close to zero indicates little difference between the expected and observed covariance matrices. In addition, the probability level must be greater than 0.05 when chi-square is close to zero. The hypotheses of perfect fit were:

   H_0: there is no statistically significant difference in the observed sample and estimated covariance matrices, meaning that the model fits perfectly.

   H_1: there is statistically significant difference in the observed sample and estimated covariance matrices.

   However, one disadvantage of using the x^2 test is its sensitivity to sample size, rendering it unclear in many situations whether the statistical significance of the chi square statistic is due to poor fit of the model or to the size of the sample. This uncertainty has led to the use of many other measures to assess overall model fit (Hair *et al.*, 2010). These statistics include: Absolute Fit Indices such as Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Normed chi-squared test (GOF). Absolute Fit Indices are a direct measure of how well the model that was specified reproduces the observed data (*ibid*). Incremental fit indices include the: Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). Parsimony Fit Indices provide information about which model among a set of competing is best, such as the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) and the Parsimony Normed Fit index (PNFI) (*ibid)*. However, Hair, *et al*. (2010, p. 672) argued that "at least one increment index and one absolute index, in addition to the chi square test (x^2) value and the associated degrees of freedom should be reported to provide adequate evidence of model fit". This analysis follows the recommendations of (Hu and Bentler, 1999) by focusing on:

2. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), which is one of the most widely used measures that attempts to correct for the tendency of the x^2 test statistic to reject models with a large sample or a large number of observed variables *(ibid)*. RMSEA values range from 0 to 1 with a smaller RMSEA value indicating better model fit.

3. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is an incremental fit measure, equal to the discrepancy function adjusted for sample size. CFI ranges from 0 to 1 with a higher value indicating better model.

The question of what constitutes a good fit is debatable. Even though several cut off values have been discussed in the literature, the rules of thumb that were suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999) were applied to evaluate the model's goodness of fit in this study. Following this, acceptable model fit is indicated by an RMSEA value close to 0.06 and a CFI value close to 0.95. Hu and Bentler (1999) claimed that using these cut off criteria contribute to lower Type II error rates with acceptable costs in terms of Type I error rates.

After undertaking CFA, it was necessary to assess construct validity. Construct validity is the extent to which a set of items actually reflects the theoretical latent construct those items are designed to measure. Construct validity can be assessed in several regards:

1. **Convergent Validity:** There are several possible ways to estimate it:

a. **Factor Loading**: sufficient or not loadings depend on the sample size. Generally, the smaller the sample size, the higher the required loading as shown in Table 4-2. Even though, Hair *et al.* (2010), suggested that factor loadings in the range of± 0.3 to ± 0.40 are considered acceptable for interpretation of the structure, values greater than ±0.5 are considered necessary for practical significance.

Table 4-2: Guidelines for identifying significant factor loading

Sample size	Sufficient factor loading
50	0.75
60	0.70
70	0.65
85	0.60
100	0.55
120	0.50
150	0.45
200	0.40
250	0.35
350	0.30

Source: Hair *et al.* (2010)

b. Average Variance Extracted (AVE): it is calculated as the mean variance extracted for the items loading on a construct and is a summary indicator of convergence. An AVE of 0.5 or higher is a good rule of thumb suggesting adequate convergence (Hair *et al.* 2010). An AVE of less than 0.5 implies that more error remains in the items than variance explained by the latent factor *(ibid)*. In other words, the latent factor is not well explained by its observed variables. The general computational form of AVE as presented in Equation 3

$$AVE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_i^2 / n \qquad [3]$$

Where:
L_i = the standardized factor loading and i= the number of items.

2. **Discriminant Validity**: one way to examine discriminant validity is to compare the AVE estimates for each factor with the Maximum Shared Squared Variance (MSV), and Average Shared Squared Variance (ASV). Both MSV and ASV should be less than AVE (Lim *et al.*, 2006; Gaskin and Oakley, 2010).

3. **Construct Reliability** (CR): is computed from the squared sum of factor loading (L_i) for each construct and the sum of the error variance terms for a construct(e_i) as shown in Equation 4:

$$CR = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} L_i\right)^2}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} L_i\right)^2 + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i\right)} \qquad [4]$$

The rule of thumb is that values of 0.7 or higher indicator good reliability. CR scores between 0.6 and 0.7, however, may be acceptable if accompanied with other good indicators of a model's construct validity.

4.5.2.11. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Given the poor degree of fit of Jamal *et al*.'s (2006) model (as discussed in Chapter 6, section 6.4) exploratory factor analysis was applied. The main purpose of the EFA was to identify the underlying dimensions in original variables. Factor analysis can be defined as "a statistical approach that can be used to analyse interrelationships among a large number of variables by defining sets of variables that are highly interrelated, known as factor with a minimal loss of information" (Hair *et al.*, 2010: p. 16). Factor analysis is used to determine the number of common factors influencing a set of measures and identify the strength of the relationship between each factor and each observed measure. The most important requirements to apply factor analysis are that the variables should be quantitative at the interval or ratio level (metric) and correlated. However, factor analysis can be used with ordinal data if the scale is five or more, and data can be treated as interval data.

c. Data Correlation

To confirm that the data are correlated there are two approaches:

1. **Bartlett's test for Sphericity:** this is a statistical test that used to examine whether the variables are uncorrelated (*ibid*). This method is implemented by comparing the significance statistic produced in the output with a chosen level of significance, for example 5 per cent or 0.05. The test is based on the following hypotheses:

   H_0: none of the variables are correlated.
   H_1: the variables are correlated.

   If the statistic is greater than the level of significance, the null hypothesis (H_0) will be accepted. This implies that the data are not related and therefore unsuitable for factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test (KMO test). The KMO test is a measure of sampling adequacy which "compares the observed correlation coefficients to the partial correlation coefficients" (Ahmad *el at*., 2008: p.7). This test is based upon an index, as classified by Kaiser (1974) and Hair *et al*. (2010) and shown in Table 4-3. Large values for the KMO measure indicate that the data are suitable for factor analysis.

Table 4-3: KMO Index

KMO Index	Description
0.9	Marvellous
0.8	Meritorious
0.7	Middling
0.6	Mediocre
0.5	Miserable
<0.5	Unacceptable

Source: Hair et al. (2010)

The extraction technique principal axis factoring with Varimax rotation method (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Jamal *et al*., 2006) was applied. Although both principal component and common factor analysis using principal axis factoring models yield similar results in common research settings, the common factor analysis is most appropriate if the primary objective is to identify the latent dimensions in the original variable whereas principal component is most appropriate when data reduction is the paramount objective (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Varimax rotation of factors, which is one of the orthogonal approaches, is performed to simplify the interpretation of result (*ibid*). By simplifying the rows and columns of the factor matrix, the interpretation may improve and some of the ambiguous factors in a non-rotated solution may reduce (Mai, 1997). In order to determine the number of factors to be included in the final statistics, all of the variance of each of the variables must be accounted for by all of the factors. The determination of the appropriate number of factors was based on the eigenvalue criterion and examination of the scree plot. The factors scores were saved and used as the basis for cluster analysis.

d. Evaluation of the Goodness of Fit of the Solution

Goodness of fit of the solution can be evaluated using two main methods:

1. **Communality**: is the proportion of the variance of a specific variable explained by all the derived factors, or total amount of variance of an original variable shared with all other variables included in the analysis. Communalities > 0.6 are respectable for social science data (Ness, 2009).

2. **Total Variance Explained:** the total Variance Explained is the combined contribution to total variance of the set of all derived factors. Total variance explained > 0.6 is respectable for social science data (*ibid*).

4.5.2.12. Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis is used to classify objects into meaningful groups. It is therefore "a group of multivariate techniques whose primary purpose is to group objects based on the characteristics they possess" (Hair *et al.*, 2010, p. 508). Clustering techniques have been applied to a wide variety of marketing research issues (Ness *et al*., 2002; Arnold and Reynolds 2003; Jamal *et al*., 2006; Milošević et al., 2012).

The main aim of cluster analysis is to group things (people, products…*etc*.) on the basis of similarity, so that the objects in the same cluster should be as similar (homogenous) as possible. In contrast, the objects belonging to a different group should be as dissimilar (heterogeneous) as possible. Cluster analysis was applied to produce a typology of Libyan shoppers. The cluster analysis followed two stages.

In the first stage, hierarchical cluster analysis was employed to group shoppers into homogeneous groups based upon their attitudes to shopping behaviour. The main purpose of using hierarchical clustering was to ascertain the number of clusters and establish seed points for the application of the non-hierarchical method (*k* means) that was applied as a second stage (Milošević *et al*., 2012; Jamal *et al*., 2006; Arnold and Reynolds 2003).

1. **Hierarchical Clustering**

   Following the agglomerative approach, hierarchical clustering begins with ungrouped objects and merges them into a successively smaller number of groups (Everitt *et al.*, 2011). At first, there are as many clusters as there are objects. At the end, there is a single cluster of all objects. The merger takes place between the objects that are most similar (nearest) so that at each stage the number of clusters is reduced by one (*ibid*). The researcher has to decide the appropriate number of clusters (solutions) by considering the agglomeration schedule and Gower diagram. The latter shows that the distances at which mergers took place.

2. **Non-Hierarchical Techniques**

   In the second stage, a *k*-means clustering procedure was conducted with the initial seeds that were provided by the hierarchical analysis solution. According to (Hair *et al.*, 2010), to select seed points there are different approaches: research specified and sample generated. One common approach within the research specified method is the use of a hierarchical clustering solution to generate seed points. Following this, the results can be refined because of the ability of the non-hierarchical methods that allow for the changing of cluster membership (Punj and Stewart, 1983).

4.5.2.13. Outlier Detection

Outliers are "observations with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as different from the other observations" (Hair *et al*., 2010, p. 64). In other words, outliers are the cases that have data values that are very different from the majority of cases in the data set. Outlier analysis was undertaken because they can affect the results of the data analysis. For outlier detection there are various approaches depending on the application and number of observations in the data set including: a univariate (an unusual value for a single variable), bivariate (an unusual value for two variables), and multivariate (an unusual combination of values for a number of variables) perspective (*ibid*). This study utilized box plots to identify outliers by plotting the distance of cases to their cluster centres (Norusis, 2011).

4.5.2.14. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to investigate the factors that affect consumers' choice of retail format, as well as to profile how supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores scored on each attribute (location, price of products special offers, assortment, quality of service, speed of service, quality of product, variety of product, freshness of produce, atmosphere, cleanliness of place, food safety, personal safety, in-store credit, car parking facilities, and social acceptability). The null hypothesis was that the mean scores between the three retail outlets were equal against the alternative hypothesis that they were not equal to indicating if there were significant differences between them in each attributes.

4.5.2.15. Chi- Squared Test

A Chi-square contingency test using cross tabulations was applied to profile consumer food shopping behaviour groups using nominal variables. This included demographic and socio-economic characteristics, frequency of retail outlets visits, time spent in store, and percentage of spending in retail outlets. The test was established by examining statistically significant differences between clusters based on the null hypothesis that target variables and consumer groups are independent.

4.5.2.16. Econometric Analysis

To better understand the determinants of consumer food shopping behaviour, the study incorporated the estimation of a bootstrapped ordered Probit model and a bootstrapped Tobit model using

Stata11 software. Bootstrap methods are powerful tools that can be defined as “a computer- based method for assigning measures of accuracy to statistical estimates” (Efron and Tibshirani, 1993, p. 10). The main purpose of using the bootstrap procedure was to check the reliability of a model, applying a simple stochastic resampling procedure (Efron, 1979; Jeong and Maddala, 1993). The bootstrap procedure (1000 replications) was used to estimate standard errors and to construct confidence intervals (Jeong and Maddala, 1993; MacKinnon and Smith, 1998).

1. *Ordered* Probit *Model*

The ordered Probit models sought to identify the determinants of frequency of visits to supermarkets, traditional markest, and independent stores. Demographic, socio-economic and retail outlet image dimensions were incorporated as independent variables. The ordered Probit approach is appropriate for ordered dependent outcomes (Okoye *et al.*, 2010).

The Ordered Probit model can be derived from a latent variable model. The key idea is that there is a latent continuous metric underlying the ordinal responses observed by the analyst. The latent continuous variable, y* is a linear combination of some predictors, x, plus a disturbance term that has a standard normal distribution (Jackman, 2000). The ordered Probit model takes the following form (Maddala, 1983):

$$y_i^* = x_i\beta + \varepsilon_i,\ \varepsilon \approx N(0,1),\ i = 1,\ldots\ldots N. \qquad [5]$$

Where y_i, is the observed ordinal variable, ß is vectors of unknown parameters, x, is a set of explanatory variables, ε is the error terms, which is assumed to be normally distributed, and subscript i denotes the individual observation. The observed data is assumed to be generated from y_i* in the following way:

$$y_i^* = 1 \text{ if } y^* \leq c_1$$
$$y_i^* = 2 \text{ if } c_1 \leq y^* \leq c_2$$
$$(\ldots\ldots)$$
$$y_i^* = J \text{ if } c_{J-1} \leq y_i^*$$

The unknown cut-offs points (c's) are defined as thresholds between the categorical responses that are estimated. According to Maddala (1983), the thresholds’ parameters should satisfy two conditions: the thresholds should meet the relationship $c_1 < c_2 < ... < c_{J-1}$, and all of them must be positive. Failure to meet these conditions means that there is some specification error in the model (*ibid*). The thresholds c's indicate the range of the normal distribution associated with specific values of the response variable (Abdel-Aty, 2001). To estimate the Probit models, the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method was employed.

The categorical dependent variables *y*, in this case was frequency of visits to supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores following categories “1” for “everyday”, “2” for “2-3 times a week”, “3” for “once a week”, “4” for 2-3 times a month”, “5” for “ once a month”, and “6” for “never shop in particular format”. The vectors of explanatory variables *x* contain the following independent variables related to retail outlet attributes: location, price of product, special offers, assortment, quality of service, speed of service, quality of product, variety of product, freshness of produce, atmosphere, cleanliness of place, food safety, personal safety, in-store credit, car parking facilities, and social acceptability. Respondents rated the importance of each of the retail outlet attributes on a five-point scale (1= not important, 2= minor importance, 3= moderate importance, 4= important, 5= very important). Socio-economic characteristics that were included in the models were: gender, marital status, age, number of family members, income, level of education, nationality, whether the respondent had lived abroad, migration, and occupation.

2. *Bootstrapped Tobit Model*

The second stage of the econometric analysis was the estimation of Tobit models (Tobit, 1958). The latter are defined by Maddala (1983) as follows:

$$y_i^* = \beta x_j + \varepsilon_j \qquad [6]$$

Once again the observed data is assumed to be generated from y_i^* in the following way:

$$y_j = y_i^* \text{ if } y_i^* > 0$$
$$y_j = 0 \text{ if } y_i^* \leq 0$$

Where y^* is latent variable, where it is observed only if it is larger than zero; β is the corresponding vector of unknown parameters; x_j is vector of known constants. The model error ε_j is assumed to be independent and normally distributed.

The Tobit model is used for a 'limited' metric dependent variable (Bierens, 2004). It was chosen to empirically investigate the determinants of the percentage of household expenditure accounted for by markets and supermarkets for selected product categories. Specifically, the censored dependent variables were the percentage of spending accounted for by supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores for the following product categories: fresh fruit and vegetables, fresh meat, fresh fish, and packaged goods. Retail outlet attributes and socioeconomic variables were used again as the independent variables. Values of the dependent variable, by design, had to be within the range 0 and 100. In order to evaluate model performance, several tests can be evaluated such as Likelihood Ratio test (LR), Wald test, and Pseudo R-Squared measure.

4.6. Conclusion

In brief, this chapter provided a discussion of the methodological approach to the study, which serves as a basis for fulfilling the research objectives. A summary of the research methodology is presented in Figure 4-4. The research design was based on the positivistic paradigm with a deductive approach to the process of collecting and analysing data. In this study multiple research methods, combining qualitative and quantitative research were employed. In order to obtain the necessary quantitative data to investigate the phenomenon under study, a structured questionnaire was designed. The initial development of the questionnaire was based on the research objectives, lessons from the literature and the findings of the qualitative research. In order to clarify the questions and the appropriateness of the proposed scales both pretesting and a pilot study were conducted. After some minor modifications in the light of the pilot study were made, the questionnaire was distributed relying typically on self-administered questionnaires using a drop-off/ pick-up method. Various statistical and econometric tests were applied to analyse the data thoroughly.

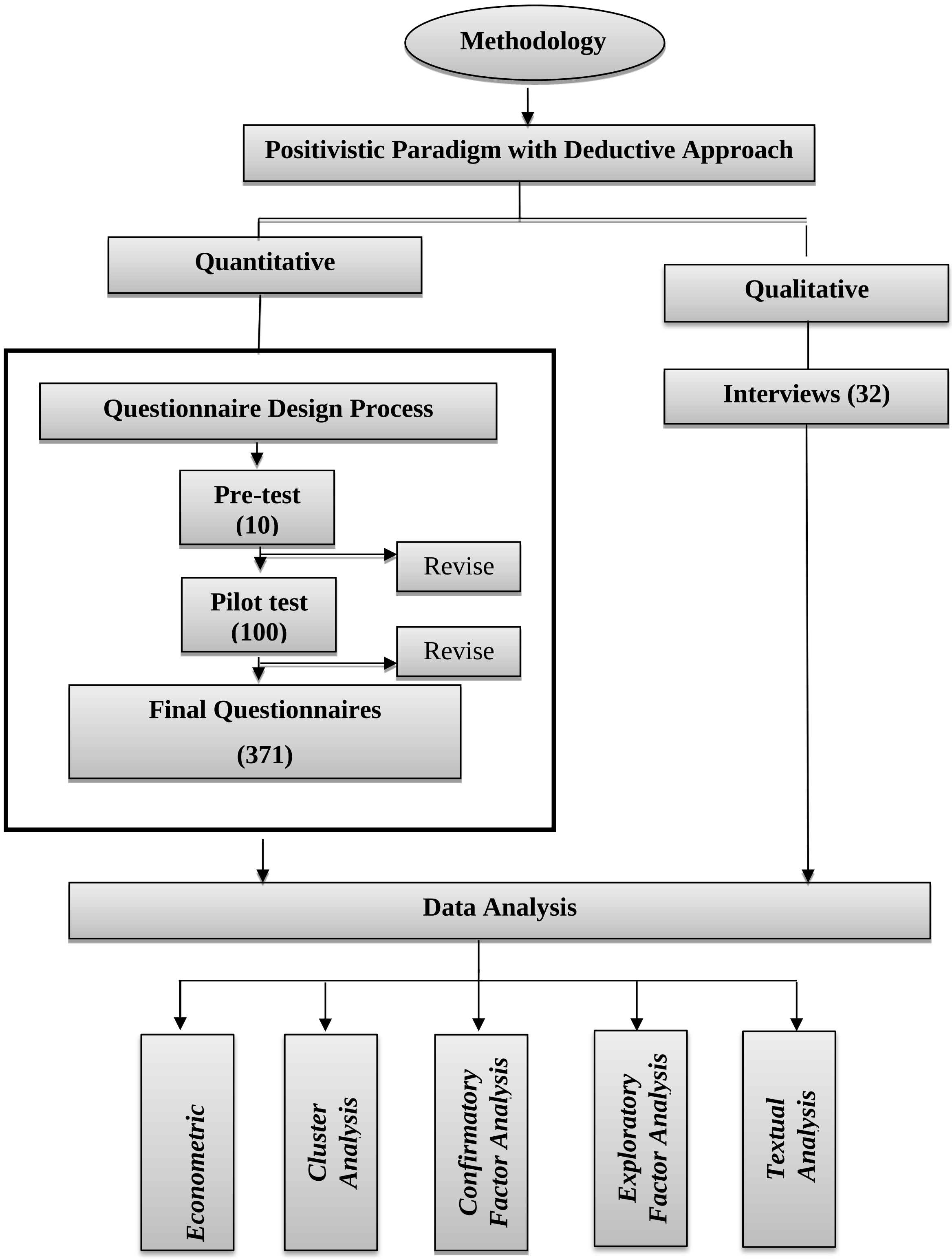

Figure 4-4: Summary of the Research Methodology

Chapter 5 Qualitative Research

5.1. Introduction

Given limited previous research, data sources, and information on consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya, qualitative in-depth interviews were conducted. Data collection proceeded in two rounds. In the first phase, interviews were conducted face to face in Tripoli in summer 2010. Following analysis of the first wave of interviews a set of theoretical gaps were identified, principally relating to social acceptability and the role of food shopping as a leisure activity. Given the limited literature on these issues, a second stage of interviewing was undertaken. The objective was to better understand patterns of food shopping and patronage in Libya as well as to formulate research propositions that would be examined and tested in the quantitative phase.

In the first round of data collection, interviews continued until a point of theoretical saturation, where no or little new information was gained (Bryman and Bell, 2007). In both stages, the sample was purposeful, looking for cases that gave maximum information. In total, twenty-two face to face interviews (thirteen female and nine male) and ten interviews via Skype (female) were conducted in the first and second rounds respectively (see Table 5-1).

Open-ended questions in order to generate rich and detailed answers were raised. An interview guide (see an Appendix 1) was used in order to keep the conversation focused upon the main themes. As a starting point, ‘Are you the person who undertakes food shopping for your household?’ was used as a filter question. To capture top of the mind imaging the main part of the interview began with the question ‘When confronted with the words supermarket and market, what comes to mind?’ Subsequent questions included ‘How often do you usually shop for food? ’. ‘How often do you usually visit the supermarket and the market?’. ‘What are the main factors that influence your patronage of markets and supermarkets?’. In addition, some questions addressed proposed sections of the questionnaire to check their applicability to the Libyan case.

Table 5-1: Details of Interview Participants

Interviewee	Gender	Young couple[1]	Socioeconomic[2] status[2]	Age	Interview location	Occupation[3]
1	Male	No	Rich	56	Tripoli	An engineer
2	Female	No	Rich	57	Tripoli	A teacher
3	Female	Yes	Poor	30	Tripoli	A teacher
4	Male	No	Rich	45	Tripoli	A lecturer
5	Female	No	Poor	25	Tripoli	An officer
6	Female	No	Poor	28	Tripoli	A teacher
7	Male	No	Rich	50	Tripoli	A businessman
8	Female	No	Poor	40	Tripoli	A teacher
9	Male	No	Rich	49	Tripoli	A lecturer
10	Male	No	Middle	42	Tripoli	A teacher
11	Female	No	Poor	46	Tripoli	A housewife
12	Female	No	Rich	33	Tripoli	An engineer
13	Male	No	Rich	54	Tripoli	A lecturer
14	Female	No	Poor	38	Tripoli	A teacher
15	Male	No	Poor	40	Tripoli	An officer
16	Female	Yes	Poor	29	Tripoli	An officer
17	Female	No	Rich	42	Tripoli	A lecturer
18	Female	Yes	Rich	35	Tripoli	A lecturer
19	Female	No	Rich	45	Tripoli	A lecturer
20	Female	Yes	Poor	34	Tripoli	A teacher
21	Male	No	Middle	68	Tripoli	A retired
22	Male	No	Poor	44	Tripoli	A teacher
23	Female	No	Rich	37	Tripoli	A lecturer
24	Female	Yes	Poor	32	El-Bayda	A demonstrator
25	Female	No	Rich	42	El-Bayda	a lecturer
26	Female	No	Rich	41	Benghazi	A lecturer
27	Female	No	Rich	35	Tripoli	A lecturer
28	Female	Yes	Poor	31	Misrata	A teacher
29	Female	No	Rich	58	Benghazi	A businesswoman
30	Female	Yes	Rich	31	Benghazi	A lawyer
31	Female	No	Poor	28	El-Bayda	A teacher
32	Female	No	Rich	35	Benghazi	A doctor

[1] The participants who are under 35 years old and married are considered a 'young couple'.

[2] Socioeconomic status: 'Rich' = monthly income is above 550 LYD per month, 'Middle' = monthly income is between 450 and 550 LYD per month, 'Poor' = monthly income is below 450 LYD per month (where 1 USD = 1.27 LYD on 1 August 2010).

[3] Part time including: teachers, a lawyer, and a demonstrator; full time such as lecturers, engineers, businesspeople, officers, and doctors.

5.2. Research Findings

Textual analysis of the interview data provided insight into perceptions of the competing retails formats in Libya, the social acceptability of traditional food markets, the social acceptability of supermarkets, how the social acceptability of supermarkets differs from that of traditional food markets for females, cultural change in Libyan society, retail attributes, evaluation of retails formats, and, finally, typologies of shoppers. In presenting the findings particular emphasis is placed on the themes of social acceptability and gender, given their salience in the Libyan case and their lack of prominence in the literature relating to the adoption of supermarkets in developing economies. Quotations illustrate, unless otherwise indicated, common perspectives.

In this section the findings of the in-depth interviews are presented and discussed. First of all the participants, when confronted with the words “supermarket” and “market” stated different views. Interview evidence indicated that supermarkets compared to traditional food outlets offer a safer shopping environment, which is cleaner, bigger, offers a wider range of products and less crowded.

> *The first thing that comes to mind is that the supermarket is bigger than the market. As a result, there will be a wide range of products. The second thing, in my opinion, the prices in supermarkets are lower so commodities will be in continuing movement (male, interviewee1, 56, an engineer).*

> *The supermarket is a very interesting place not only for buying food, but also for spending enjoyable time (female, interviewee6, 28, a teacher).*

> *The supermarket is a very large shop which sells all things. The market especially the traditional market usually, is an open market for buying fresh vegetables and fruits that was, in past open weekly on a particular day (souk Al thalatha) which means (Tuesday market), but now it has been opening every day (female, interviewee19,45, a lecturer).*

> *The supermarket is a big place. Also there are a lot of products where I can get all my requirements instead of shopping at more than one market (female, interviewee23, 37, a lecturer).*
> *In the supermarket there is a great chance to do comfortable shopping, because of expansiveness of the place, availability of baskets and trolleys, and variety of products (female, interviewee24, 32, a demonstrator).*

However, not all were positive about supermarkets. As one interviewee remarked:

The first thing which comes to mind is that there is a very boring and long queue waiting for me. In my opinion, the supermarket is just decor (female, interviewee8, 40, a teacher).

In brief, although, answering the previous question was taken up from multiple angles, in general, all participants had a basic understanding of the differences between supermarkets and traditional markets by identifying the most important attributes of supermarkets versus traditional markets such as variety of products and prices, large area and atmosphere.

5.2.1. Retail Formats

Interviewees identified three main types of food retail formats in Libya: supermarkets, independent stores and traditional markets. The identification of the principal types of food retail outlet led to a discussion concerning their features and relative merits. The vast majority of respondents revealed that they shopped in a combination of traditional markets, independent stores and supermarkets, although if respondents did use just one format it was a supermarket as:

In a supermarket, I can find anything I look for (female, interviewee5, 25, an officer).

In general supermarkets accounted for the majority of purchases of packaged foods and long life products, while traditional markets accounted for most purchases of fruit and vegetables, where such products were perecieved as cheaper and fresher, and butchers for fresh meat. The main reason for buying fresh meat from butchers is the ability to select the specific cuts of meat according to the consumer's requirements as well as to get fresh meat.

For buying vegetables and fruits I prefer open traditional markets for getting it fresh. Also, sometimes, I go to the nearest independent store for getting some daily needs (male, interviewee7, 50, a businessman).

I prefer to go to the supermarket. However, I prefer to go the butcher's for buying the meat and to traditional market for buying the vegetables and fruits (male, interviewee9, 49, a lecturer).

I prefer to go to the supermarket because in the supermarket I can find anything I look for. However, for buying fruits and vegetables, I prefer to go traditional markets for getting fresh one (male, interviewee10, 42, an officer).

I go to the supermarket for buying the long life products, and I go to market (Souk Al thalatha) for getting cheap and fresh vegetables and fruits (female, interviewee19, 45, a lecturer).

I prefer to go to the supermarket because in the supermarket I can find anything I look for. However, for buying fruits and vegetables, I prefer to go traditional markets in order to get it fresh and cheap (male, interviewee22, 44, a teacher).

I prefer to go to the supermarket because I can find anything I want, and it is cheaper than the traditional market. However, for buying fruits and vegetables there are some traditional markets that my husband prefers to shop in for getting them cheap and fresh (female, interviewee24, 32, a demonstrator).

I prefer to go to the supermarket. However, for buying vegetables, fruits I used to go to traditional market. Now I have some health problems so my son does not allow me to go alone when there is overcrowding, so I cannot look around at all on my feet. Sometimes, I go with him and stay in the car and give my advice (female, interviewee29, 58, a businesswoman).

I prefer to go to the supermarket. However, for buying vegetables, fruits my dad goes to a traditional market (female, interviewee31, 28, a teacher).

Interviewees highlighted the role of gender in shaping format choice; in particular females were less frequent visitors to traditional markets compared to males:

I never have been there (female, interviewee6, 28, a teacher).

I never have been. Just men can go to a place like this (traditional market) in our culture (female, interviewee14, 38, a teacher).

I go sometimes to traditional markets if my husband has free time for buying fresh vegetables and fruits, because I cannot go alone (female, interviewee20, 34, a teacher).

This led to a discussion of the social acceptability of shopping in different formats.

5.2.2. Social Acceptability of Traditional Food Markets

The interviews generated mixed views regarding the social acceptability of females shopping in traditional markets and supermarkets. Around half of interviewees deemed traditional markets unacceptable for women:

In my home city, El Bayda, I can say that it is not acceptable to visit traditional markets alone or with other women. The man is responsible to do this. Because of the overcrowding ... [it]*... is uncomfortable for women (female, interviewee24, 32, a demonstrator).*

It is not acceptable to visit traditional markets alone or with other women. I remember when I bought my car my brothers told me that I can shop at any place apart from a traditional market! In my opinion, this may be due to two reasons: the majority of shoppers, ninety per cent, are men so women will feel uncomfortable to go in. Another thing is that [in Tripoli] many of the customers in the traditional markets are foreign, which means women may not feel safe. In our culture it is considered shameful for women to go to a place like this where they may be exposed to unsuitable behaviour of some rude people and because of the overcrowding (female, interviewee25, 42, a lecturer).

It is unacceptable for a woman to go shopping in a market alone or with other women. I do not know why exactly, you can ask my husband (female, interviewee28, 31, a teacher).

At this point the latter interviewee's husband commented 'that the market is a large and open place; a lot of men will be there, some of them are good and some of them are rude. She may hear impolite words or bad behaviour. So I do not allow her entry into such traditional markets, just to protect her'.

For those for whom traditional markets are regarded unacceptable, the introduction of supermarkets has been especially welcomed. However, for other respondents it was acceptable for females to shop alone in traditional markets:

Yes, it is acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a market alone or with other women in Tripoli. Because there are a lot of nationalities, that means there are more than one culture in Tripoli as capital city. In these cultures it is normal for women to go to the market. As a result, the number of women in the supermarket is a lot. I think this is the main factor in the social acceptance of Libyan women going shopping in Tripoli (female, interviewee27, 35, a lecturer).

I can say that it is acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a market alone or with other women. However, in my case I cannot go there. My husband does not allow me. As my husband says, it is not suitable for a woman in terms of safety and cleanliness. There are a lot of foreign employees and teenagers who often behave unacceptably (female, interviewee30, 31, a lawyer).

Several respondents were able to identify clear divisions between Tripoli and Benghazi (Libya's two largest cities), and smaller towns. The interviews revealed that in the largest cities it is generally more socially acceptable for females to shop at traditional markets than in provincial towns.

At first, I will answer in a general way then I will answer in more detail. In general, the answer may be yes and no at the same time. It depends on the nature of the community itself and it is different from one city to another in the same community. There is no general rule. In conservative societies the idea of women shopping is unacceptable, in a market or a supermarket, alone or with another. Libyan society is a very close and realistic example... women can shop freely in Tripoli, in both the market and supermarket in contrast the women in Zliten [a city near to Tripoli] *cannot shop alone. In addition, in El Bayda it is not acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a market alone or with other women but it is acceptable in a supermarket. This is due to the nature of society….I think the reason is the nature of the place where there are a lot of men, who become angered when they see a woman shopping. However, there is no objection if a woman is forced to do so with extreme caution whether alone or with other women to avoid the harassment that they may encounter. In my opinion, in this case the woman has to go with other women, not alone (female, interviewee31, 28, a teacher).*

It is acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a market alone or with other women in Benghazi, because presently, women have become primarily responsible for shopping. Also, the men have more open minds than before. However, the situation is very different in other cities such as Derna, where I grew up, where it is still not so acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a market alone or with other women. So I can say that this matter is different from one city to another and from one family to another, depending on their culture and the openness of societies. So in the big cities ... it is acceptable, taking into account personal differences between families (female, interviewee32, 35, a doctor).

The contrasting views highlight significant differences in the social acceptability of females shopping for food across cities and between families.

5.2.3. Social Acceptability of Supermarkets

Regarding whether it is socially acceptable for women to shop in a supermarket either alone or with other women, more positive views were ascertained:

Yes, of course, the large number of female shoppers in the supermarket is the best evidence because, as I mentioned earlier, the task of shopping has become related to woman more than before (female, interviewee23, 37, a lecturer).

Yes, it is acceptable [for women to shop] *alone or with other women. Because most of the shoppers are women, and the supermarket is safe for shopping (female, interviewee25, 42, a lecturer).*

Yes…. Because most of the shoppers are women or family groups, the supermarket is a closed and clean place for shopping. Also, it is safe because there is some security staff (female, interviewee30, 31, a lawyer).

5.2.4. Comparison of the Social Acceptability

Several women expressed the view that it was acceptable for them to shop at supermarkets, but not traditional markets, for a variety of reasons.

Yes, it is clear that there is a difference between the supermarkets and the traditional markets in terms of socially acceptability. In the supermarkets usually most shoppers are families. The supermarket is a closed space with private employers who certainly will be serious about caring for the security and safety of customers, particularly females (female, interviewee31, 28, a teacher).

Of course, there is [a difference]. *I do not have the courage to go the market alone or with other women, because I do not feel safe or respectful of my family culture. By the way, it may be useful to mention a situation I was in after the death of my father. I went to buy meat from the butcher. There was a queue of men, and I stood in line, suddenly, one of the men mumbled some words to express his dissatisfaction (female, interviewee32, 35, a doctor).*

Of course, there is. Well, at least right now, I do not have the courage to go the market alone or with other women, because I cannot feel safe and respectful of my culture. I do not want to do anything that may make my husband feel ashamed of me (female, interviewee28, 31, a teacher).

However, the view of a difference in the social acceptability of females shopping in traditional markets and supermarkets was not shared by all:

There is no difference at all. Because I have full confidence that I do not do anything shameful when I go shopping wherever or whomever I am with (female, interviewee23, 37, a lecturer).

There is no difference for me at all. This may be due to the culture in my mother's home (Egypt) where it is acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a market. In addition, I got married to a Libyan man who was very busy in his trade between Libya and Egypt, I found myself the main person responsible for providing my family needs (female, interviewee29, 58, a businesswoman).

5.2.5. Cultural Change

In discussing social acceptability and retail formats, interviewees noted a degree of cultural change, appreciating that what counted as socially acceptable may shift over time:

In Tripoli, I can say that it is very acceptable. Before, up to about ten years ago, it was unacceptable because of the customs and traditions. The man was responsible to meet the family requirements. A woman going shopping in general was considered a big shame. Now, lifestyles have changed and developed, the woman has become responsible for shopping for her family (female, interviewee23, 37, a lecturer).

Well, it is not acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a market alone or with other women in our family; I think it is just customs and traditions. I cannot say it is unsafe. I think it is only a matter of time; in the future it may be acceptable. In the past it was not acceptable for a woman to go to the supermarket but now it is acceptable. However, it is acceptable for some women who live alone or do not have a suitable man to do this duty, and for foreign women (female, interviewee26, 41, a lecturer).

5.2.6. Shopping Frequency

Considering shopping frequency, with the exception of one participant who reported that she has no particular system for shopping, the interviewees indicated regular patterns. A high proportion of them said that they shopped for food once a week for buying fresh vegetables and fruits and monthly to buy packaged food:

Once a week for getting vegetables and fruits, monthly to buy dry goods (male, interviewee7, 50, a businessman).

I shop regularly, once a week with my husband for getting fresh vegetables and fruits, monthly for packaged food, daily for bread (female, interviewee12, 25, an engineer).
Almost, weekly for buying fruits and vegetables and monthly for other goods (female, interviewee16, 29, an officer).

I go to the supermarket for buying the long life products, and I go to market (Souk Al thalatha) for getting cheap and fresh vegetables and fruits (female, interviewee19, 45, a lecturer).

Some interviewees shopped every day, in order to obtain fresh produce, control budgets and because they had available time:

Actually, every day, because there are some goods should be bought fresh such as milk and bread (male, interviewee1, 56, an engineer).

Almost daily, I find this way more convenient to control the budget (female, interviewee8, 40, a teacher).

Actually, every day, I am a retired, so I have a lot of free time, and I prefer to buy fresh food especially vegetables and fruits (male, interviewee21, 68, a retired).

Regarding what is bought, interviewees tended to make the decision jointly with others:

Usually, the decision is made jointly with all my family members (male, interviewee1, 56, an engineer).

Of course, the decision is made jointly with my husband (female, interviewee3, 30, a teacher).

Jointly with my wife, because in some cases I have to ask her what kind of food she needs (male, interviewee15, 40, an officer).

It is worth mentioning, that in the interviews, only female participants tended to make shopping decisions alone. This was justified by their responsibility for their family, as some interviewees stated:

The choice is mine. As long as I am the person who is responsible for cooking (female, interviewee6, 28, a teacher).

Alone, because I know what I need exactly (female, interviewee14, 38, a teacher).

Alone, I am the person, who is responsible for preparing the meals for my family so I know what I have to buy (female, interviewee20, 34, a teacher).

5.2.7. Motives for Shopping

Tauber (1972) argued that people go shopping not only to buy a product, but also for other, non-product-related, reasons. The interviews in Libya identified both personal and social non-product related motivations. However, the majority of participants remarked that they tended to go grocery shopping only for a specific purpose**:**

I shop just for buying the food. If my wife or whoever forgets to write any items down on the shopping list, it will be impossible to do the shopping again in the same day (male, interviewee1, 56, an engineer).

I do not like shopping, but it is necessary for meeting my family's needs (male, interviewee7, 50, a businessman).

For fulfilling my family needs, to be honest, I am forced to do shopping, because my husband is always busy at work (female, interviewee17, 42, a lecturer).

However, for some grocery shopping was a means to learn about new trends as well to generate new ideas:

Sometimes, I go to check out the new supermarkets as well as to identify habits and culture of other peoples in shopping (female, interviewee8, 40, a teacher).

For a few, grocery shopping was a means to escape from the routines of daily life:

Sometimes, I go to shop when I get bored and to escaping from some of the difficult conditions (male, interviewee10, 42, a teacher).

Social shopping refers to the enjoyment of shopping with friends and family, socializing, and connecting with others (Tauber, 1972):

I like to go shopping. Sometimes, I go just to spend an enjoyable time with my niece, who usually insists on going to shopping for this purpose (female, interviewee6, 28, a teacher).

I go to shop to buy food and enjoy the time outside, instead of staying alone at home. I really get a lot of enjoyment with my friends (female, interviewee 18, 35, a lecturer).

In general, I like shopping with my family. Also, I really enjoy food shopping for my first family (my children) and my second family (my parents) sometimes. When they feel good, I feel good (female, interviewee 24, 32, a demonstrator).

In the second round of interviews, further questions were asked about the extent to which food shopping is considered a leisure activity, a way of getting out of the home and / or a form of entertainment. Regarding whether food shopping is a leisure activity or just a household duty; all the participants said that food shopping is only a household duty:

I am a lecturer and I spend a lot of time out of the house. Watching TV and chatting with my family are the top leisure activities for me. Food shopping is only a household duty (female, interviewee23, 37, a lecturer).

No, in my free time I like to watch TV or give myself more care such as body care... something like that (female, interviewee30, 31, a lawyer).

No, generally, in my free time I like browsing through the pages of my favourite websites (female, interviewee31, 28, a teacher).

Not at all, in my free time, if I get it, I spend it in sleeping in my room (female, interviewee32, 35, a doctor).

With respect to food shopping as a means to escape the family home; the majority did not view it in such terms:

No, at all, if I want to get out, there are many places that I can spend enjoyable time in, such as public parks (female, interviewee23, 37, a lecturer).

No, not at all, I am really very busy women, so that I hope to get enough time to spend it in my home (female, interviewee26, 41, a lecturer).

Not at all, I usually when I want to get out of the home go to my family, my friend or do window shopping (female, interviewee30, 31, a lawyer).

No, I have my own job so that sometimes I cannot find enough time to spend with my family (female, interviewee32, 35, a doctor).

However, two of the interviewees reported that it is considered as way of getting out:

Yes, sometime when I am in down mood, I go shopping to make me feel better (female, interviewee29, 58, A businesswoman).

For me personally, in fact, I have not free time, but sometimes when I'm in a bad mood I go to shop and empty my pocket to buy this and that, to get rid of the negative feeling and make me feel better and escape from household tasks (female, interviewee31, 28, a teacher).

Considering food shopping as a form of entertainment, only two participants reported that food shopping is not a form of entertainment:

For me, as I said food shopping is only a household duty. Regarding non- working housewives I can say that food shopping may be a way for them to get out of the house and have some pleasure. Also, food shopping from this angle may be considered as a way to raise their morale and feel a responsible person (female, interviewee23, 37, a lecturer).

No, I do it just as a household duty (female, interviewee26, 41, a lecturer).

However the rest of the interviewees regarded it as a form of entertainment:

Going food shopping is not only a household duty, but also a pleasant activity and one of the enjoyable activities for me and my family. In order to make it pleasurable for them, I allow my children to pick up some their favourites such as chocolate and juice.... something like that and take their advice in some household needs (female, interviewee24, 32, a demonstrator).

Sometimes, if I go shopping with others and I am in a good mood, it is considered as a form of entertainment. Sometime, I am forced to do it just as a household duty (female, interviewee25, 42, a lecturer).

Yes, I can say that it is considered as a form of entertainment. I really like cooking and eating. For this I like to do food shopping and enjoy it. I find choosing foods fun (female, interviewee29, 58, a businesswoman).

For me, I can say that it is considered as a form of entertainment. As I said before I like to do food shopping with others. I take their advice about what I want to buy because I was away from my country that means I have not a clear idea about it (female, interviewee30, 31, a lawyer).

Yes, sometimes I do food shopping to have fun and break the routine (female, interviewee31, 28, a teacher).

Briefly it may be useful to consider shopping motivations and patterns in the context of gender and employment. Males indicated that they tended to go food shopping only for a specific purpose**:**

I shop just for buying food (male, interviewee1, 56, an engineer).

I do not like shopping, but it is necessary for meeting my family needs (male, interviewee7, 50, a businessman).

For those females with full time jobs, food shopping was also perceived as a chore. They regarded food shopping as a household duty rather than a leisure activity and it was not regarded as a means of escaping the domestic environment:

… if I want to get out, there are many places that I can have an enjoyable time, such as public parks (female, interviewee23, 37, a lecturer).

… I have my own work which means there is a chance to spend some time far away from my home (female, interviewee24, 32, a demonstrator).

However, for those females without work, food shopping was regarded as a means to escape the domestic environment:

For ... non-working housewives, I can say that food shopping may be a way for them to get out of the house and have some pleasure. Also, food shopping from this angle may be considered as a way to raise their morale and feel like a responsible person (female, interviewee23, 37, a lecturer).

Even for some employed females, food shopping still provided a release.

I go to the shops to buy food and spend leisure time outside, instead of staying alone at home. I really get a lot of enjoyment from my friends (female, interviewee 18, 35, a lecturer).

5.2.8. Retail Attributes

When the interviewees were asked 'what factors are important in your choice of where to shop for food?' they highlighted a number of factors. These can be summarised as: variety, quality, price of products; hygiene; service quality; special offers; convenience of location; friendly staff; and other points such as car parking and entertainment. The quality of products was the most salient factor in choosing a store followed by variety and price of products respectively:

For me, the variety of products and quality are the most important factors I look at in my decision where I will go to shop (female, interviewee2, 57, a teacher).

Quality and price are the most important factors I look at in my decision as to where I will go to shop. I watch for the lowest possible price when I shop (male, interviewee4, 45, a lecturer).

Quality, availability and price of products are the most important factors that affect my choice (female, interviewee8, 40, a teacher).

In addition, some other attributes were highlighted:

The most important factors are product quality, the supermarket reputation and friendly staff who treat me well (male, interviewee1, 56, an engineer).

The variety of products and cleanliness are the most important factors I look at in my decision where I will go to shop (female, interviewee3, 30, a teacher).

Variety of products and some other facilities such as car parking are the most important factors for me (female, interviewee5, 25, an officer).

Price of products and special offers are the most important factors for me. (female, interviewee14, 38, a teacher).

Quality of products and quality of service. Is there any coffee shop or restaurant in the supermarket? (female, interviewee 18, 35, a lecturer).

In short, there were a number of criteria which were taken into account by shoppers in selecting between competing stores. Variety, quality and price of products are the most important factors. Hygiene; service quality; special offers; assortment; convenience of location; friendly staff; and other facilities such as car parking were reported by some interviewees as well.

5.2.9. Evaluation of Retails Formats

Interviewees compared supermarkets against traditional markets on a range of attributes. Almost all of the participants identified positive aspects of supermarket shopping compared to traditional markets – convenience, lack of overcrowding, wider selection of products, clear pricing, food safety and availability of car parking. Interviewees expressed mixed views on whether supermarkets possessed a price-based advantage.

In more detail, with respect to convenience of location, the findings indicated that almost all participants stated that supermarkets are usually located more conveniently than traditional markets although for a minority both were located conveniently. Regarding price of products, over half of the interviewees reported that the supermarket is more expensive than the market, whereas the rest of the participants stated the opposite:

It is more expensive than market. May be you are wondering why I like shopping at the supermarket, well, I tend not to look at the price too much. I look at variety and quality of products (female, interviewee2, 57, a teacher).

The majority of interviewees believed that quality of service was equally good in supermarkets and traditional markets, with the remainder believing that quality of service was better in supermarkets.

Regarding special offers, all interviewees mentioned that these were available only in supermarkets. However, traditional markets possess an advantage in terms of speed of service:

The market is better than the supermarket. In some supermarkets it is not so good, because there are one or two counters at the most, no matter what the shop area is (male, interviewee1, 56, an engineer).

It is not at the required level in the supermarket, where slow service leads to a long queue and a boring waiting for payment (female, interviewee2, 57, a teacher).

The market is better than the supermarket. Regarding the supermarket, in some seasons, for example, in the months celebrating as such Ramadan, there is a jam that influences service speed. However, in normal circumstances it is good (female, interviewee3, 30, a teacher).

I am not satisfied with it completely in the supermarket. There is a distinct lack of this, because there are an insufficient number of cashiers (male, interviewee4, 45, a lecturer).

In addition, only a few respondents viewed the supermarket as cleaner than traditional markets while the majority of respondents stated that both shopping outlets were equally good. Moreover, all respondents in the qualitative study stated that payment by card was absent from both:

This factor is missing in both; cards are not used yet in shopping in Libya (male, interviewee1, 56, an engineer).

Furthermore, respondents emphasized that supermarkets were superior to traditional markets in variety and quality of products, atmosphere, and assortment. On the other hand, one participant stated that traditional markets were perceived as possessing a quality advantage for fresh vegetables and fruits:

Regarding packaged food, there is high quality in supermarkets. However, the vegetables and fruits in markets are fresher than in supermarkets (male, interviewee21, 68, retired).

With respect to food safety, most of the interviewees rated supermarkets as superior:

The supermarket is better than the market. In the supermarket, usually there are special offers on products that have nearly reached the expiration date (female, interviewee2, 57, a teacher).

The supermarket is better than the market because of highly developed technology (female, interviewee6, 28, a teacher).

The supermarket is better than the market, because there is tighter control on products in terms of…country of origin labels and expiry date...etc. However, depending on my experience where I was working as a municipal guard, the market usually deals with food smugglers, which may be unsuitable for consumption (male, interviewee7, 50, a businessman).

However, one of participants said quite the contrary:

The market is better than the supermarket, because I have great confidence in local products, which I can get primarily at the market (female, interviewee8, 40, a teacher).

5.2.10. Shopper Typologies

The construction of shopper typologies is a well-established stream of research in retailing, with over 40 studies investigating retail patronage behaviour using a variety of bases, such as retail attribute importance, shopping motivations, attitude toward shopping, shopping frequency, and store loyalty (Ganesh *et al.*, 2010). However, for a better understanding about consumer food shopping behaviour as a consequence of the similarity in cultural values, retail market structures, the economic and social environment and most of the other conditions related to the study subject, interview questions drew on one previous study conducted in an Arabic society that identified six groups of shoppers (Jamal *et al*. 2006: pp. 76-77): budget conscious shoppers, independent perfectionist shoppers, socialising shoppers, apathetic shoppers, disloyal shoppers, and escapist shoppers.

Interviewees were presented with Jamal *et al*.'s (2006) shopping typology, with the researcher introducing each type of shopper verbally. Then interviewees were asked to consider the validity of each for Libya and, if appropriate, select which group they believed themselves to belong. The respondents were classified into one of four groups: independent perfectionist shoppers, budget conscious shoppers, socializing shoppers and escapist shoppers. However, none of the interviewees categorized themselves as apathetic shoppers or disloyal shoppers (Figure 5-1).

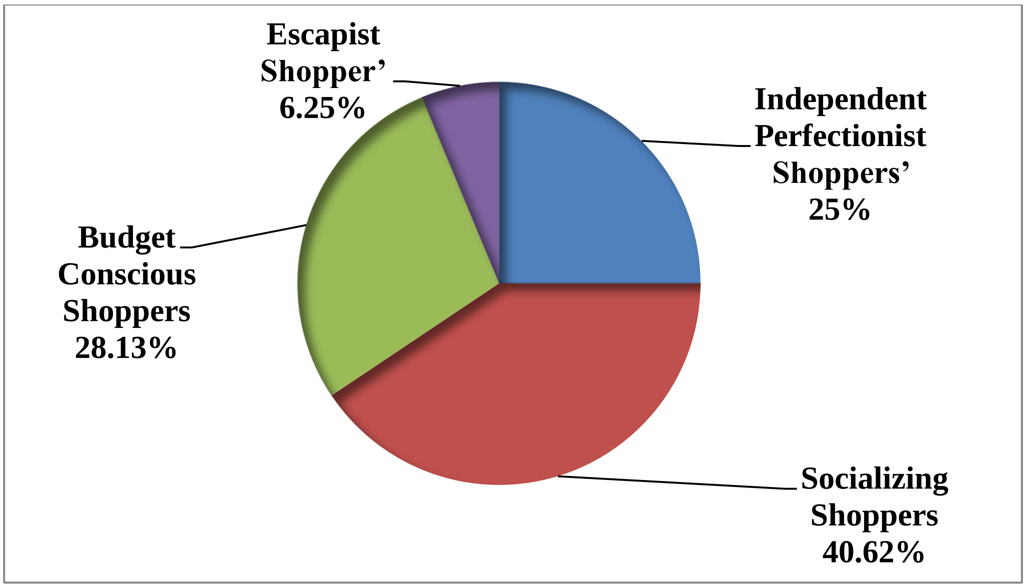

Figure 5-1: Libyan Shoppers Typologies

In general, the appropriateness of Jamal *et al*.’s (2006) classification was confirmed in the Libyan interviews. The interviews also revealed that men appeared to dominate the independent perfectionist shoppers’ segment:

> *I think independent perfectionist shopper best describes me. I prefer to patronize the same store and I tend to buy the same brand. Also, I do my shopping as fast as I can. There is no social reason behind my shopping trips (male, interviewee1, 56, an engineer).*

> *In general, I look for high quality and I do not care about the price. As any Libyan man, I like doing food shopping as fast as I can. Shopping for me is just for necessary needs. So, independent perfectionist shopper is the best style describing me (male, interviewee7, 50, a businessman).*

> *I look for quality and I am loyal to particular brands so, I can say that Independent perfectionist shopper is the best description of me (male, interviewee9, 49, a lecturer).*

However, women appeared to dominate in the socializing shoppers and budget conscious shoppers segments. Socializing shopper was most common for female interviewees:

> *Socializing shopper is the best for describing me. In general, I like shopping with my family. Also, I really enjoy food shopping for my first family (my children) and my second family (my parents) sometimes. When they feel good, I feel good. Food shopping is one of the enjoyable activities for me (female, interviewee24, 32, a demonstrator).*

Socializing shoppers fits best. I prefer go to shop with others and for others. For me, food shopping is a pleasant activity. I really like doing food shopping and try new stores and brands (female, interviewee27, 35, a lecturer).

When I shop I feel I have really achieved something useful for my family and enjoy myself at the same time. I look at the value along with quality. For me, food shopping is a pleasant activity (female, interviewee29, 58, a businesswoman).

For me, food shopping is a pleasant activity. I like shopping with my friends or family (my husband or my mother). I like to make my family feel good by buying special products like cakes and so on (female, interviewee30, 31, a lawyer).

Well, I can say socializing shopper. I enjoy shopping for my family when they feel good, I feel good too. I really like to do food shopping. Sometime, I take my sisters to shop in chocolate store for fun. I like to visit the same store and I always compare prices (female, interviewee32, 35, a doctor).

A smaller group of female respondents associated themselves most closely with the budget conscious group:

I look at the price firstly by comparing the prices; however this is not to say that I am careless about the quality. I tend to buy the same brand; and visit the same store. So, budget conscious shopper is the best for describing me (female, interviewee25, 42, a lecturer).

Budget conscious shopper describes me best. I prefer to buy the same brand and I have a preference for a particular supermarket. I always compare prices. For me, shopping is not a pleasant activity at all (female, interviewee26, 41, a lecturer).

In addition, two women stated that they were most like ‘independent perfectionist shoppers’:

Independent perfectionist shopper best describes me. I look at the quality first and foremost. Also, I tend to visit the same store. I do my shopping fast (female, interviewee17, 42, a lecturer).

Independent perfectionist shopper…. In general, when I purchase products, I try to buy the best quality or perfect choice. I do not care about the price. I make shopping trips as fast as I can. Shopping is not a social or pleasant activity for me. I tend to buy my favourite brands as well as I have a specialty store that I visit frequently (female, interviewee23, 37, a lecturer).

Finally, one woman identified herself as an ‘escapist shopper’:

Escapist shopper is the best fit with me. When I feel down, I go shopping to make me feel better, forget my problems and reduce stress (female, interviewee31, 28 a teacher).

These findings are in keeping with Jamal *et al* (2006, p.77) who claimed that “grocery shopping and the task of maintaining social ties is considered to be ‘women’s work’ putting some extra pressure and load on women shoppers”.

5.3. Conclusion

To sum up, interviewees overall welcomed the introduction of supermarkets to Libya. Some households still frequently use other outlets, mostly their neighbourhood grocer in emergency circumstances, and traditional markets to buy fresh produce. Interview evidence from Libya indicated that for some females, supermarkets offer a more socially acceptable and safer shopping environment compared to traditional food markets. In this regard, traditional culture rather than constraining the spread of supermarkets may facilitate the process. However, the social acceptability of females shopping in traditional food markets varies across cities and between families. In some families, the male head of the household remains the exclusive food shopper even if females are responsible for food preparation in the home. More commonly, shopping for food is also one of the household tasks undertaken by females.

Patterns of food shopping in Libya, as in the rest of the Arab world, cannot therefore be understood without recourse to a discussion of gender. For females in full-time employment, food shopping is largely regarded as another household chore. For those working part-time or not employed, food shopping may take on greater significance as a leisure activity and opportunity to escape the domestic environment. The ability to escape the latter, however, depends on family and local rules governing social acceptability.

Considering shopping patterns, all but one interviewee had a regular system for shopping and most make shopping decisions jointly with others. A number of factors affect the choice of where to shop (variety, quality, and price of products; cleanliness; service quality; special offers; convenience of location). These factors are common to other countries and the only factor identified in the international literature, which is currently irrelevant for Libya, is facilities to pay by card.

With respect to typologies of shoppers, three clear categories were identified: budget conscious, independent perfectionist, and socializing shoppers. The main motivators to shop were personal. In addition, the findings revealed that, even though, the interviewees reported that supermarkets offered more advantages than traditional markets, traditional markets retained an advantage in fresh vegetables and fruits.

However, using only the qualitative method can be problematic, as it may limit the generalisation of findings (Creswell, 2003). After conducting the interviews it was perceived that there was scope for further research building on the qualitative findings. Additional work was deemed useful to quantify the relationships between the choice of retail environment and motivating factors such as convenience, food safety, shopper comfort, and social acceptability. Clustering respondents according to shopping behaviour would provide the basis for consumer segmentation and this could be linked to an assessment of socioeconomic, geographic and cultural factors that may explain diversity in behaviour. As a result, quantitative research was carried out to address these themes and is discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 6 Quantitative Research Results

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analysis of the quantitative survey data which sought to measure Libyan consumers' characteristics, attitudes, preferences and food shopping behaviour. It includes a report of:

- Descriptive Analysis
- Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)
- Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)
- Cluster analysis (CA)
- Econometric analysis

6.2. Descriptive Analysis

This section describes the characteristics of the sample. It first presents the demographic characteristics of the sample and then the shopping profile of respondents, comparing the differences between female and male food shoppers. Frequencies and cross-tabulations are presented.

6.2.1. Demographic Profile

Socio-economic characteristics and demographic variables such as gender, marital status and income have been considered as important factors that influence the pattern of consumer food shopping behaviour (Mai, 1997; Priporas, 2002; El-Droubi, 2004; Alhemoud, 2008; Sohail, 2008; Tessier, 2010; Gorton *et al*., 2011; Prasad 2011). Table 6-1 detailed the main characteristics of the sample. The socioeconomic -demographic variables considered in this study include: gender, marital status, age, household size, level of income, education, nationality, whether the respondent lived abroad, birthplace, and occupation.

As detailed in Table 6-1, 55.53 per cent of the respondents were males. The majority of them were married (72.24 per cent), while 19.14 per cent were single. Only 21 respondents (5.66 per cent) were divorced and 11 respondents (2.96 per cent) were widowed. Regarding age, the vast majority of respondents were middle-aged or younger; more than 90 per cent of the respondents were under 54-years of age. With respect to family size, 133 respondents (35.85 per cent) were part of families of six or more members and 69 respondents (18.60 per cent) represented five member households. Just over one-fifth of the sample (21.56 per cent) was part of four member households while 17.25 per cent of respondents came from three member families. Finally, only 19 and 6 respondents (5.12 per cent and 1.62 per cent) represented two and one member families respectively. The average size of household (4.6 people) in the sample was slightly less than the average for both Benghazi and Libya based on the national census of 2010 where it was estimated to be 5.71 and 5.77 people respectively (General Authority for Information, 2010).

From the 371 respondents that took part in the research, 44.47 per cent had a combined household income in excess of $396.4[1] per month. 16.17 per cent of respondents had an income approximately equivalent to $396.4 and 85 respondents (22.92 per cent) had a monthly income less than $396.4. The remaining 16.44 per cent preferred not to reveal their income. As far as the level of education was concerned, 205 respondents (55.26 per cent) of this survey had a university level of education, 14.82 per cent had postgraduate degrees, and 16.98 per cent had finished secondary school. Very few respondents (5.12 per cent) had no qualifications. The remainder had completed secondary or primary school only.

In terms of nationality, the vast majority of respondents were Libyan (97.30 per cent). The majority of respondents have not lived abroad (77.60 per cent), and most grew up in Benghazi (83.84 per cent). Finally, considering occupation, the most frequently reported occupation was professional[2], who have typically a high level of education and/or professional training (27.22 per cent). The second and third largest groups represented in the sample were government officers and teachers (21.83 per cent and 17.77 per cent respectively). Housewives and businesspeople accounted for 11.59 per cent and 6.7 per cent respectively, followed by students and retired people (5.39 per cent and 3.77 per cent respectively). The remaining 3.77 per cent belonged to "other" occupations and 1.89 per cent was unemployed.

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[1] 1 Libyan Dinar = 0.79 United States Dollar.

[2] Including: lecturers, doctors, engineers, nurses, pharmacist, dentists, and geologists.

Table 6-1: Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Variables	*Respondents*		*Census 2010*
	Frequencies	*Per cent*	*Per cent*
Gender			
Male	206	55.53	50.56
Female	165	44.47	49.44
Total	371	100	100
Marital Statue			
Single	71	19.14	35.47
Married	268	72.24	61.23
Divorced	21	5.66	0.84
Widowed	11	2.96	2.46
Total	371	100	100
Age			
From 15 to 24	39	10.52	31.39
From 25 to 39	154	41.51	39.70
From 40 to 54	143	38.54	16.80
Aged 55 and over	35	9.43	12.11
Total	371	100	100
Household size			
One	6	1.62	Mean 5.8
Two	19	5.12	
Three	64	17.25	
Four	80	21.56	
Five	69	18.60	
Six and more	133	35.85	
Total	371	100	
Household Income (Libyan Dinar per month)			NA
Less than 500	85	22.92	
Around 500	60	16.17	
More than 500	165	44.47	
Prefer not to say	61	16.44	
Total	371	100	

Variables	*Respondents*		*Census 2010*
	Frequencies	***Per cent***	***Per cent***
Level of Education			
No qualifications	19	5.12	4.87
Primary education	11	2.96	9.83
Initial secondary education	18	4.85	18.00
Secondary education	63	16.98	35.14
A university education	205	55.26	30.67
Post-graduate	55	14.82	1.49
Total	371	100	100
Nationality			
Libyan	361	97.30	93.65
Non Libyan	10	2.70	6.35
Total	371	100	100
Lived Abroad			
Yes	83	22.40	NA
No	288	77.60	
Total	371	100	
Migration			
Always lived in Benghazi	311	83.84	NA
Moved to Benghazi from another part of Libya	48	12.93	
Moved from abroad	12	3.23	
Total	371	100	
Occupation			
Professional	101	27.22	Accurate data for these specific occupations can not be estimated
Government officers	81	21.83	
Teachers	66	17.77	
Housewives	43	11.59	
Businesspeople	25	6.74	
Students	20	5.39	
Retired	14	3.77	
Unemployed	7	1.89	
Other	14	3.77	
Total	371	100	

Comparisons of respondent demographics with general population statistics according to national census of 2010 (General Statistics Book, 2010) indicated the sample was in fact not entirely representative of the Libyan population. As can be seen in Table 6-1, the sample tends to be somewhat over-representative of Libyans, the university educated, and middle aged (40-54 years) persons. This mainly is due to the non-probability sample method that was used in the study because of the unrest that occurred in the country during the period of data collection. Additionally, it may reflect that educated people are more willing to participate in research and field studies. The middle aged group tend to be more responsible for family shopping than, for example, older people who usually live in extended families in Libya and young people. The sample population is however in line with that for the overall population regarding gender. However, the results should be interpreted with caution and it might not be possible to generalize to the whole population in Libya. Given the unrest in Libya during the period of data collection this however may be inevitable.

6.2.2. Shopping Behaviour

This section describes the shopping behaviour of respondents.

4.5.1.8. *Frequency of Shopping*

Table 6-2 detailed that the majority of households use supermarkets, traditional markets as well as independent stores. The frequency of use varies remarkably by format. Monthly shopping trips were most common for supermarkets (35.04 per cent visit supermarkets once per month). 20.22 per cent of the respondents visited supermarkets two to three times a month, while 9.97 per cent, 16.17 per cent and 15.63 per cent shopped at supermarkets once a week, two to three times a week and every day respectively. Only 11 respondents never shopped at a supermarket. The popularity of monthly shopping at supermarkets may reflect two factors: first, the relationship between shopping patterns and the system of salaries in Libya which were usually paid monthly. Second, in-store informal credit is unavailable in supermarkets, which means that households were most likely to visit only after their salary was received.

Just over one third of respondents (33.16 per cent) visited traditional markets weekly. This may reflect how traditional markets used to operate on a particular day of the week, although most now open every day. 21.83 per cent shopped two to three times a week at traditional markets. 55 respondents (14.29 per cent) stated that they never shopped at traditional markets, of whom 61.54 per cent were female. This is consistent with the qualitative findings that some females feel that it is socially unacceptable to visit traditional markets.

Table 6-2: Frequency of Shopping

Category	Supermarkets		Traditional markets		Independent stores	
	Frequency	**Per cent**	**Frequency**	**Per cent**	**Frequency**	**per cent**
Everyday	58	15.63	18	4.85	154	41.51
2-3 times a week	60	16.17	81	21.83	117	31.54
Once a week	37	9.97	123	33.16	35	9.43
2-3 times a month	75	20.22	38	10.24	24	6.47
Once a month	130	35.04	58	15.63	25	6.74
Never	11	2.97	53	14.29	16	4.31
Total	**371**	**100**	**371**	**100**	**371**	**100**

41.51 per cent of respondents shopped at independent stores every day. Therefore, frequent shopping at independent stores was the norm with 31.54 per cent of respondents shopping two to three times a week at independent stores. The main reason for frequent visits to independent stores, as noted by respondents, was to buy fresh, and daily consumed commodities such as bread. The availability of in-store credit promotes the use of independent stores and only 4.31 per cent report that they never shop at this particular format.

4.5.1.9. *Time Spent on a Shopping Trip*

With respect to time spent on a shopping trip, in general, respondents tend to spend more time in supermarkets compared to the other retail outlets that were considered in the study (Table 6-3). Whereas one half of the respondents spent between one and two hours on a trip to a supermarket, almost the same proportion spent less than one hour in traditional markets. 93.53 per cent of respondents spent less than one hour on a shopping trip to independent stores. This pattern reflects infrequent, but large shopping trips supermarkets and numerous small shopping trips to independent stores**.**

Table 6-3: Time Spent on a Shopping Trip

Category	Supermarkets		Traditional markets		Independent stores	
	Frequency	**Per cent**	**Frequency**	**Per cent**	**Frequency**	**per cent**
Never shop at	11	2.97	53	14.29	16	4.31
Less than one hour	104	28.03	175	47.17	347	93.53
1-2 hours	189	50.94	120	32.35	7	1.89
2-3 hours	60	16.17	19	5.12	1	0.27
More than 3 hours	7	1.89	4	1.08	0	0.00
Total	**371**	**100**	**371**	**100**	**371**	**100**

4.5.1.10. *Buying Decisions*

In terms of shopping decisions, a little more than half of the respondents make their decision about what to buy in conjunction with others, 23.52 per cent alone and 19.96 per cent reported that it depends on the circumstances (Table 6-4).

Table 6-4: Shopping Alone or With Others

Category	Supermarket		Frequency	Per cent	Traditional market		Frequency	Per cent
	Male	***Female***			***Male***	***Female***		
Always with others	39	63	102	27.49	36	61	97	26.15
Usually with others	56	43	99	26.68	28	46	74	19.95
Never shop at	9	2	11	2.97	21	32	53	14.29
Always alone	19	8	27	7.28	41	5	46	12.39
Usually alone	33	12	45	12.13	39	5	44	11.86
No clear pattern	50	37	87	23.45	41	16	57	15.36
Total	**206**	**165**	**371**	**100**	**206**	**165**	**371**	**100**

4.5.1.11.*Monthly Spend by Type of Retail Outlet for Different Product Categories*

The average percentage spend per month by type of retail outlet (supermarkets, traditional markets and independent stores) for five food categories (fresh fruit and vegetables, fresh meat, fresh fish, packaged food and beverages) is presented in Table 6-5.

Table 6-5: Average Percentage Spent by Type of Retail Outlet for Different Product Categories

Goods	Supermarket	Traditional	Independent
Fresh fruits and vegetables	20.61	49.91	29.02
Fresh meat	29.57	1.33	69.08
Fresh fish	15.49	59.51	21.64
Packaged food	65.81	3.44	30.77
Beverage	62.12	2.38	35.21

Important differences were apparent across food categories. For fruit and vegetables and fresh fish, traditional markets accounted for the highest proportion of spending whereas independent stores (e.g. butchers) accounted for more than half of spending on fresh meat. For packaged food goods and beverages, supermarkets were far more important. These results on variations across product categories were consistent with the findings of the qualitative research (See Chapter 4, section 4.3.).

4.5.1.12.*Analysis by Gender*

A Chi-square contingency test was used to explore whether differences in shopping behaviour between males and females were statistically significant and consistent with qualitative findings. All statistical tests were conducted at the 5 per cent significance level. Profiles were established by examining statistically significant differences under hypotheses:

H_0: there are no differences between males and females in their shopping behaviour.

H_1: there are differences between males and females in their shopping behaviour.

The results showed that there were some significant differences between females and males regarding shopping behaviour (see Table 6-6). For instance, with respect to shopping alone or with others, there was a significant difference between females and males (Significance statistic = 0.000) for both traditional markets and supermarkets. These results were consistent with the qualitative findings. Female participants were less likely to shop alone, especially at traditional markets (See Table 6-4. However, as detailed in Table 6-6, there were no significant differences between males and females with regards to the time spent shopping in traditional markets and independent stores.

Table 6-6: Summary of Tests for Gender Identity and Behavioural Characteristics

Behavioural Characteristic	**Chi-square Statistic and* Significance**	**Null Hypothesis**
Time spent in supermarket	χ^2 (4)= 31.680, Sig = 0.000	Reject
Time spent in traditional market	χ^2 (4)= 6.944, Sig = 0.139	**Accept**
Time spent in independent store	χ^2 (3)= 3.6016, Sig = 0.308	**Accept**
Shopping decision	χ^2 (2)= 8.081, Sig = 0.018	Reject
Spending in supermarket	χ^2 (3)= 5.729, Sig = 0.126	**Accept**
Spending in traditional market	χ^2 (3)= 7.407, Sig = 0.060	**Accept**
Spending in independent store	χ^2 (3)= 10.212, Sig = 0.017	Reject
Visits to supermarkets	χ^2 (5)= 23.792, Sig = 0.000	Reject
Visits to traditional markets	χ^2 (5)= 74.900, Sig = 0.000	Reject

6.2.3. Importance of Retail Outlet Attributes

Table 6-7 detailed the average importance given to particular retail outlet attributes in the choice of where to buy food (1 = not important, 5 = most important) and the relative performance of supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores on each attribute. Attributes with a mean score equal to or greater than 3 were considered important as this value referred to moderately important on the scale used. In Table 6-7 the attributes were listed in descending order of importance. In general terms, in descending order, Libyan shoppers placed greatest importance on food safety, quality of products, quality of service, speed of service, and variety of products. Importance also was given to car parking, price of products, atmosphere, and special offers. Other

* χ^2 (degrees of freedom (df)) = Chi square value, Sig = Significance statistic

features such as freshness of products, location, and in- store credit were classified as of reasonable importance. The lowest ratings of importance were allocated to cleanliness of the place, and personal safety. The importance of food safety has been emphasised by many researches and it is in keeping with other studies that highlight the increased salience of this attribute in non-Western markets (Posri *et al*., 2006; Wang *et al*., 2008; Gorton *et al*., 2011).

The latter columns of Table 6-7 report how well supermarkets, traditional markets and independent stores perform in the respondents' local area (1 = very poor; 5 = very good) on each of these attributes. The findings indicated that supermarkets performed the best on all items, except freshness of products and in-store credit (traditional markets performed the best on freshness of products and independent stores for in-store credit as shown in Figure 6-1 as well as Table 6-7)**.** Only for one attribute (car parking) were differences in the mean scores between supermarkets, traditional markets and independent stores not significant. The greatest dissimilarities between ratings for the three formats were apparent for social acceptance, personal safety, cleanliness of place, food safety and, in-store credit. Significant differences in convenience of location, atmosphere, quality of service, variety of products, and quality of products were also apparent**.** Overall, data provides further evidence for the difference between supermarkets and traditional markets in terms of social acceptance, in line with the results of the qualitative research.

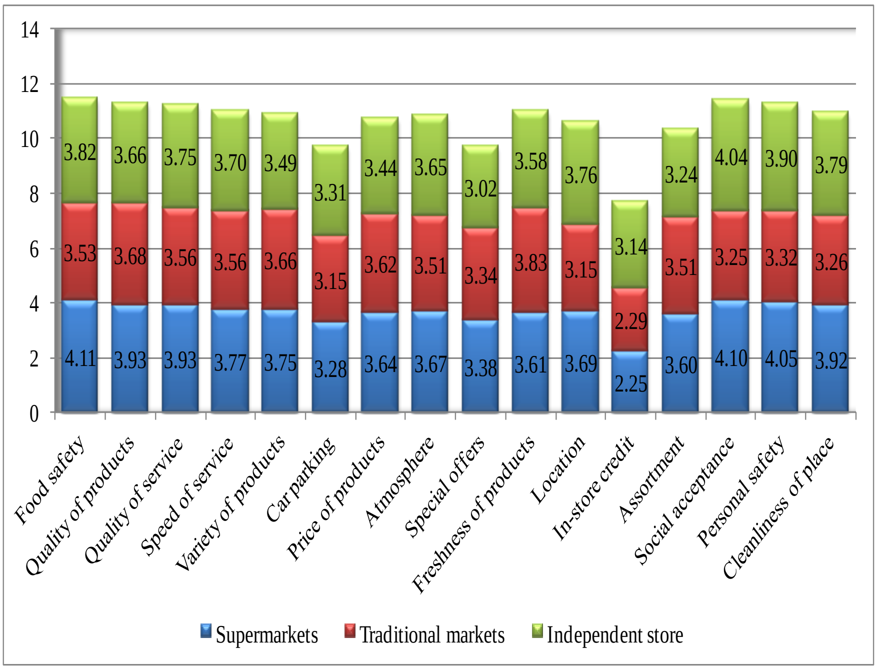


Figure 6-1: Mean Performance Scores for Supermarkets, Traditional Markets and Independent Stores on Retail Attributes

Table 6-7: Importance Weightings for Retail Outlet Attributes and Mean Score on those Attributes for Supermarkets, Traditional Markets and Independent Stores

Attributes	*Average importance rating*	*Supermarkets*	*Traditional markets*	*Independent stores*	*F test*
Food safety	4.61	4.11^{A}[1]	3.53^{C}	3.82^{B}	42.61^{***}
Quality of products	4.15	3.93^{A}	3.68^{B}	3.66^{B}	11.871^{***}
Quality of service	4.09	3.93^{A}	3.56^{C}	3.75^{B}	16.451^{***}
Speed of service	4.04	3.77^{A}	3.56^{B}	3.70^{A}	5.341^{***}
Variety of products	3.84	3.75^{A}	3.66^{A}	3.49^{B}	12.831^{***}
Car parking	3.76	3.28	3.15	3.31	2.23
Price of products	3.64	3.64^{A}	3.62^{A}	3.44^{B}	6.631^{***}
Atmosphere	3.63	3.67^{A}	3.51^{B}	3.65^{A}	3.911^{**}
Special offers	3.52	3.38^{A}	3.34^{A}	3.02^{B}	15.361^{***}
Freshness of products	3.46	3.61^{B}	3.83^{A}	3.58^{B}	8.071^{***}
Location	3.46	3.69^{A}	3.15^{B}	3.76^{A}	35.921^{***}
In-store credit	3.41	2.25^{B}	2.29^{B}	3.14^{A}	65.701^{***}
Assortment	3.15	3.60^{A}	3.51^{A}	3.24^{B}	17.251^{***}
Social acceptance	3.00	4.10^{A}	3.25^{B}	4.04^{A}	117.301^{***}
Personal safety	2.54	4.05^{A}	3.32^{B}	3.90^{A}	67.471^{***}
Cleanliness of place	2.52	3.92^{A}	3.26^{B}	3.79^{A}	52.511^{***}

[1] Means that do not share a letter are significantly different, using Tukey Method and 95.0% Confidence.

6.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Given the existence of *a priori* theory that was presented in Jamal *et al.*'s (2006) model, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to identify how well this model fits the current research data regarding shopping motivations. To achieve this end, a measurement model was conceptualised with ten latent variables and 35 original items as observed variables. Data were analysed using the AMOS19 statistical software package. The measurement model was specified as congeneric, with all indicators and error residuals restricted to load on a single factor (i.e. no cross-loading). The maximum likelihood estimation (ML) default in AMOS 19 was used.

Both the overall goodness model fit and the criteria for construct validity were considered. Indeed, there are several measurements of overall model fit including absolute fit index and incremental fit indices as well as cut off criteria for fit indices. However, Hair, *et al.* (2010, p. 672) argued that "at least one increment index and one absolute index, in addition to the chi square test (χ^2) value and the associated degrees of freedom should be reported to provide adequate evidence of model fit". Regarding the cut-off criterion, Hu and Bentler (1999, p. 27) recommend thresholds for particular measures that result in lower Type II error rates (with acceptable costs of Type-I error rates).

The Chi square (χ^2) statistic was used as the most fundamental measure of differences between the observed and estimated covariance matrices. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) are the most widely used absolute fit indices. Increment indices were also assessed (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Table 6-8 detailed the selected fit statistics from the CFA output as well as guidelines for goodness of fit.

The overall χ^2 was 823.62 with 515 degrees of freedom. The *p*-value associated with this result was 0.000. This highly significant result indicated that a significant amount of observed covariance between items remains unexplained by the original model (Milošević *et al.*, 2012). The value for RMSEA was 0.040. This value appears quite low and is below commonly accepted limits for a model with a sample size of 371. Therefore, the RMSEA indicated an unacceptable fit for the Jamal *et al.* (2006) model. Regarding the incremental fit indices, CFI is the most widely used measure. CFI was estimated to be 0.93, which provided additional support for the notion of inadequate model fit (see Table 6-8).

Table 6-8: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Goodness of Fit Statistics)

Fit index	Threshold	Value
Chi-square	-	823.62
Degrees of freedom	-	515
Probability level	Sign p- value expected with large sample	0.000
RMSEA	Close to 0.6	0.040
PClose	> 0.05	0.999
CFI	Close to 0.95	0.92

Overall, the goodness fit criteria results indicated that Jamal's *et al.* (2006) model provided an unacceptable level of goodness of fit. However, to provide greater understanding of goodness of fit, further tests of reliability and validity were undertaken. To evaluate the convergent validity, the standardized factor loading was first examined. As can be seen however, given the sample size of 371, it is not unexpected that all of the loadings are statistically significant; as a result some other criteria should be used.

Calculating both the Construct Reliabilities (CR) and Average Variance Estimated (AVE) for all constructs, revealed that for some items scores were less than the suggested thresholds of 0.7 for CR and 0.5 for AVE (Hair *et al.*, 2010) (see Table 6-10). These convergent validity issues indicate that the latent factors are not well explained by the observed variables. Therefore, this is further evidence to suggest that Jamal *et al.'s* (2006) model is not a good fit for the research data.

To conclude, the CFA results indicated that Jamal *et al.*'s (2006) model is inappropriate for the Libyan case and as a result, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was justified to better understand Libyan shopping behaviour and to answer the research questions.

Table 6-9: Standardized Factor Loading

Item	*Standardized loading*
Factor 1—Gratification seeking	
When I am in down mood, I go shopping to make me feel better	0.815
To me shopping is a way to relieve stress	0.908
I go to shopping when I want to treat myself to something special	**0.468**[1]
While shopping I can normally forget my problems	**0.476**
Factor 2—Social shopping	
I like shopping with my friends or family to socialize	0.713
I enjoy socializing with others when I shop	0.841
Shopping with others is a bonding experience	0.912
Factor 3—High quality seeking	
When it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the very best or perfect choice	0.792
In general I usually try to buy the best overall quality	0.895
I make special effort to choose the very best quality products	**0.497**
My standards and expectations for the products that I buy are high	**0.479**
Factor 4—Confused by choice	
There are so many brands to choose that often I feel confused	0.534
Sometimes it’s hard to choose which stores to shop at	0.553
The more I learn about products, the harder it seems to choose the best	0.899
All the information I get on different products confuses me	0.856
Factor 5—Value shopping	
For the most parts, I go shopping when there are sales	0.611
I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop	0.769
I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop	0.720
Factor 6—Brand loyal/habitual	
I have favourite brands I buy over and over	0.829
Once I find a product or brand I like, I stick with it	0.674
I go to the same store each time I shop	**0.325**
I like to buy the same brand	0.533
Factor 7—Brand conscious	
The more expensive brands are usually my choice	0.724
The higher the price of the product, the better is its quality	0.743
Nice department and specialty stores offer me the best products	**0.475**
The most advertised brands are usually the very good choices	**0.320**
Factor 8—Utilitarian	
I make shopping trips fast	**0.420**
While shopping, I try to accomplish just what I want to as soon as possible	0.662
While shopping I try to find just the items that I am looking for	0.666
Factor 9—Hedonic shopping	
Going shopping is one of the enjoyable activities for me	0.781
I enjoy shopping just for the fun of it	0.794
I enjoy shopping more than most people do	0.765
I love to go shopping when I can find time	**0.476**
Factor 10—Role playing	
I like shopping for others because when they feel good, I feel good	0.793
I enjoy shopping for my family and friends	0.886

[1] Figures in bold indicate items that do not meet the minimum criteria

Table 6-10: CR and AVE Estimates

Factor	CR	AVE
Role playing	0.83	0.71
Hedonic shopping	0.83	0.55
Gratification seeking	0.77	0.48
Utilitarian	0.61	0.35
Brand conscious	0.66	0.35
Brand loyalty	0.69	0.38
Value shopping	0.74	0.49
Confused by choice	0.81	0.53
High quality seeking	0.77	0.48
Social shopping	0.86	0.68

6.4. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Principal axis factoring extraction method with Varimax rotation was conducted to assess the underlying structures that influence consumer food shopping behaviour. The variables consisted of the 59 items that were used to measure shopping motivations where each item was measured on a seven-point scale (1 = strongly = disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The variables in this study are assumed to be metric. Items were derived from Jamal *et al.'s* (2006) study, as well as salient items such as gender and shopping task and social acceptance which were added in the light of the qualitative research to suit the Libyan case, were used in the exploratory factor analysis EFA.

6.4.1. Confirmation of the Correlation of Data

Inter-correlation of the variables was confirmed by visual inspection of the correlation matrix, Bartlett's test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test (KMO) (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of some significant correlation at 0.01 levels. The Bartlett test of Sphericity was significant (χ^2 (1711) =

7546.841, Sig = 0.000)[1]. A significant result (Sig. < 0.05) indicated that the matrix was not an identity matrix; i.e., the variables do relate to one another enough to run a meaningful EFA. Furthermore, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was around 0.7 (KMO = 0.723), exceeding the threshold value of 0.5 (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

6.4.2. Factor Extraction

A 19- factor solution with eigenvalues greater than one was extracted by applying exploratory factor analysis using principal axis method with Varimax rotation, explaining 65.85 per cent of the total variance. Examination of the factor loadings, however, revealed that there was more than one variable which cross loaded and were thus difficult to interpret. Hair *et al*. (2010, p. 119) suggested that "if a variable persists in having cross loading, it becomes a candidate for deletion". Therefore, after excluding these variables one by one and inspecting the factor solution, the item loadings and the anti-image correlation matrix, a total of 26 items were deleted. The remaining 33 items were again subjected to EFA and a 12 - factor solution was extracted.

The Bartlett test of Sphericity was significant (χ^2 (528) = 4667.535, Sig = 0.000). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was = 0.698 (see Table 6-11), and greater than 0.5 for each individual variable by checking the diagonal of the anti-image correlation matrix.

Table 6-11: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.698
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	***Approx. Chi-Square***	4667.535
	df	528
	Sig.	0.000

6.4.3. Evaluate the Goodness of Fit of the Solution

By using EFA, the 59 original variables were reduced to 12 factors. The data reduction rate was 55.93 per cent and information loss was 44.07 per cent. To determine whether a "12

[1] Chi-square (degrees of freedom) = Chi square statistic, Significance statistic.

Factor Solution" was suitable, the communalities were examined and deemed acceptable (Communalities > 0.5). In addition, the total variance which was explained by these factors was 73.75 per cent. Furthermore, by examining the rotated factor matrix, all the factor loadings were considered practically significant. None of the items presented factor loadings of less than 0.6 even though a factor loading with 0.3 is acceptable with a sample size of more than 350 (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Also, the factor loadings that are the most widely used approach as evidence for both convergent and discriminant validity demonstrated sufficient validity; the variables within a single factor were highly correlated (convergence) and all variables loaded significantly only on one factor (discrimination). In order to quantify the scale reliabilities of the factors identified, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed. The reliability of the overall was 0.786 (see Table 6-12); none of the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were lower than the threshold level of 0.60 as shown in Table 6-13.

Table 6-12: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.786	33

As detailed in Table 6-13, the 12 factors can be described as follows:

1. *Hedonic shopping* factor: this factor accounted for 8.14 per cent of total variance and consisted of four of the variables "enjoy shopping", "enjoyable activities", "fun" and "love shopping".

2. *Confused by choice* factor accounted for 7.90 per cent of total variance and was strongly associated with "the more I learn about products, the harder it seems to choose", "all the information I get on different products confuses me", "there are so many brands to choose that often I feel confused" and "sometimes it's hard to choose which stores to shop at".

Table 6-13: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) Results

Items	Factor loading	α[1]	% of Variance	h^2
Factor 1-Hedonic shopping		*0.83*	8.14	
I enjoy shopping more than most people do	0.82			0.73
Going shopping is one of the enjoyable activities for me	0.81			0.72
I enjoy shopping just for the fun of it	0.79			0.72
I love to go shopping when I can find time	0.70			0.62
Factor 2-Confused by choice		*0.79*	7.90	
The more I learn about products, the harder it seems to choose the best	0.88			0.80
All the information I get on different products confuses me	0.84			0.78
There are so many brands to choose that often I feel confused	0.69			0.55
Sometimes it's hard to choose which stores to shop at	0.65			0.56
Factor 3-Social shopping		*0.86*	7.24	
Shopping with others is a bonding experience	0.88			0.84
I enjoy socializing with others when I shop	0.86			0.81
I like shopping with my friends or family to socialize	0.80			0.71
Factor 4-Value shopping		*0.73*	7.16	
I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop	0.83			0.73
I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop	0.80			0.69
For the most parts, I go shopping when there are sales	0.73			0.63
Factor 5-Brand loyal/habitual			6.17	
I have favourite brands I buy over and over	0.83			0.72
Once I find a product or brand I like, I stick with it	0.78			0.65
I like to buy the same brand	0.75			0.58
Factor 6-Brand conscious		*0.67*	5.93	
The higher the price of the product, the better is its quality	0.84			0.72
The more expensive brands are usually my choice	0.79			0.69
Nice department and specialty stores offer me the best products	0.66			0.50
Factor 7-High quality seeking		*0.85*	5.64	
When it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the perfect choice	0.84			0.73
In general I usually try to buy the best overall quality	0.79			0.68
Getting very good quality is important to me	0.66			0.50
Factor 8- Gratification seeking		*0.86*	5.36	
When I am in down mood, I go shopping to make me feel	0.92			0.88
To me shopping is a way to relieve stress	0.90			0.87
Factor 9- Gender roles and shopping task		*0.82*	5.28	
Food shopping is a task for men only	0.90			0.84
A woman's place is in the home	0.90			0.83
Factor10- Role playing			5.17	
I like shopping for others because when they feel good, I feel good	0.90	*0.81*		0.85
I enjoy shopping for my family and friends	0.88			0.83
Factor 11-Impulsiveness		*0.78*	5.00	
I am impulsive when purchasing	0.90			0.81
Often I make careless purchases I later wish I had not	0.88			0.81
Factor12-Social acceptance		*0.69*	4.76	
It is acceptable for a woman to go shopping in supermarkets alone or	0.86			0.78
It is acceptable for a woman to go shopping in traditional market *al*one	0.85			0.77
Total variance			**73.62**	
Over all reliability		***0.78***		

[1] Cronbach's alpha
[2] h^2 refers to communality

3. The third factor was correlated with “shopping with others is a bonding experience”, “I enjoy socializing with others when I shop” and “I like shopping with my friends or family to socialize”, so can be called “*social shopping*” and accounted for 7.24 per cent of total variance.

4. *High quality seeking* factor was correlated with “When it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the perfect choice”, “in general I usually try to buy the best overall quality” and “getting very good quality is important to me”, and accounted for 5.64 per cent of total variance.

5. *Value shopping* was associated with three variables: “I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop”, “I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop” and “for the most parts, I go shopping when there are sales”, and accounted for 7.16 per cent of total variance.

6. *Brand loyalty* factor was most strongly correlated with: “I have favourite brands I buy over and over”, “once I find a product or brand I like, I stick with it” and “I like to buy the same brand”, and accounted for 6.17 per cent of total variance.

7. *Brand consciousness*: this factor accounted for 5.93 per cent of total variance and had a strong association with “the higher the price of the product, the better is its quality”, “the more expensive brands are usually my choice” and “nice department and specialty stores offer me the best products”.

8. *Gratification seeking* factor was associated strongly with two variables: “when I am in down mood, I go shopping to make me feel better” and “to me shopping is a way to relieve stress” and interpreted 5.36 per cent of total variance.

9. *Gender roles and shopping task*: it was correlated with “food shopping is a task for men only” and “a woman’s role is in the home” and accounted for 5.28 per cent of total variance.

10. *Role playing* factor was associated with “I like shopping for others because when they feel good, I feel good” and “I enjoy shopping for my family and friends” and accounted for 5.17 per cent of total variance.

11. *Impulsiveness* factor: this factor was correlated with: “I am impulsive when purchasing” and “often I make careless purchases I later wish I had not”; and accounted for 5.00 per cent of total variance.

12. *Social acceptance* factor: it accounted for 4.76 per cent of total variance and was associated with: “it is acceptable for a woman to go shopping in supermark*et al*one or with other woman” and “it is acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a traditional mark*et al*one or with another woman”.

6.5. Cluster Analysis (CA)

In order to produce a typology of shoppers, CA was applied. This consisted of two stages. Firstly, hierarchical analysis was performed to define the number of clusters, identify outliers and profile the cluster centres. Secondly, a non-hierarchical (*k*-means) method was applied to determine final cluster membership using centroids from the first stage as initial seed points. After outliers (12 cases), records with missing data (4 cases) as well as small clusters with 15 cases (4.1 per cent) were removed, as recommended by (Hair *et al.*, 2010), the validated sample size was 340.

In the first stage of CA, hierarchical analysis was employed to group the respondents into homogeneous groups based upon their shopping behaviour using Ward’s method, squared Euclidian distance. There was no need to standardise variables, because all the items had the same unit of measurement**.** The variables included in the cluster analysis were the 12 factors derived from the EFA. An examination of the agglomeration schedule suggested a range of cluster solutions (3-6) were potentially appropriate.

The second stage consisted of employing k-means cluster analysis using the hierarchical analysis as initial seeds. As the SPSS software does not save the cluster centres from the hierarchical analysis they were calculated separately using the aggregate procedure in SPSS (Mooi and Sarstedt, 2011). A *k*-means cluster analysis was performed for the range (3- 6) of cluster solutions. By evaluating the (3-6) range of cluster solutions, the solution which had the best logical interpretation and practical significance, was the six cluster solution. Outliers were identified by plotting the distances to their cluster centres for all of the cases (See Figure 6-2). Outliers were removed and the cluster analysis rerun. A six cluster solution was still the preferred solution. None of the clusters in the final solution accounted for less than 10 per cent of the total sample.

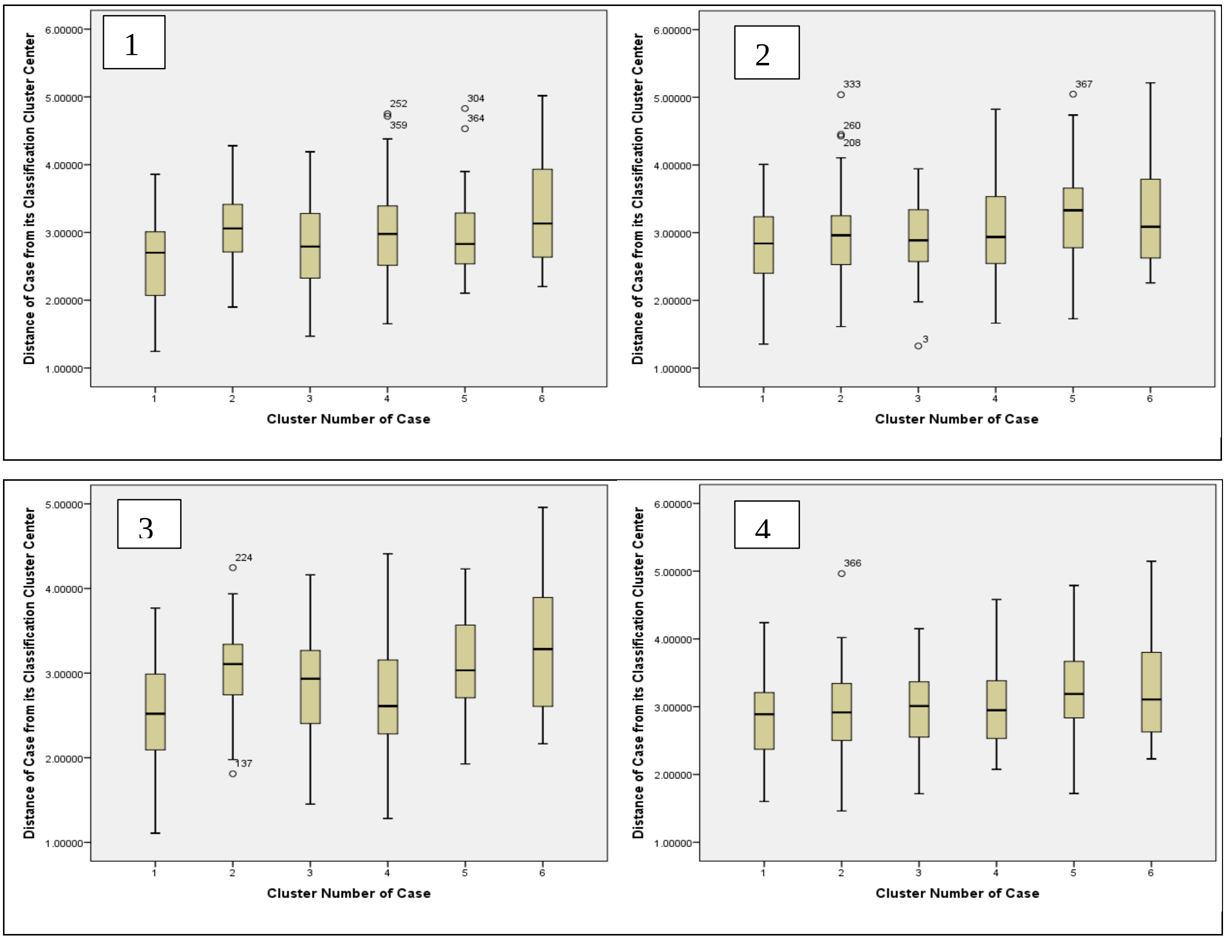


Figure 6-2: Plot of Distances to Cluster Centres

6.5.1. Cluster Profiles

As can be seen in Table 6-14, cluster 1 placed least emphasis on the brand loyalty factor (-0.83), but placed the greatest emphasis on the fourth factor (Value Shopping) (0.71). Cluster 2 had the highest positive impression (1.36) in gender roles, and the lowest negative impression (-0.47) for the social acceptance factor. Cluster 3 placed the highest positive emphasis (0.59) on role playing, and the lowest emphasis (-0.81) on the third factor (social shopping). Cluster 4 placed the least emphasis (-0.82) on brand consciousness, and the highest on the value factor (0.41). Cluster 5 had the highest positive impression (0.88) for the hedonic shopping factor, and the lowest emphasis on value shopping (-0.84). Cluster 6 had the lowest scores (-2.40) for the fourth factor (high quality seeking) and placed greater emphasis (0.26) on impulsiveness. In more detail the clusters can be interpreted and labelled as follows:

1. **Disloyal shoppers**: this cluster accounted for 17.65 per cent of respondents (see Figure 6-3), and provided the lowest rating on brand loyalty across the six clusters. In contrast, it placed the highest emphasis on value, followed by brand consciousness, confused by choice, and social acceptance of all clusters concerned. This was in harmony with one of Jamal *et al.*'s clusters that had the same label.

2. **Traditionalist shoppers**: This cluster accounted for 16.76 per cent of respondents. Of all clusters this one scored the highest on gender roles, then social shopping, followed by impulsiveness. On the other hand, this cluster scored the lowest on social acceptance.

3. **Quality-oriented shoppers**: accounted for 15.88 per cent of the respondents. This group, relative to the others, placed the least emphasis on hedonic motivations, the second lowest on social acceptance, and the third lowest on gratification, but scored the highest on role playing, and high quality. This cluster somewhat similar to independent perfectionist shopper in Jamal *et al.*'s study.

4. **Value shoppers**: this was the fourth group of shoppers, which made up the second lowest percentage (15.59 per cent) of respondents recording the highest score for value. This cluster scored the lowest rating of any cluster for brand consciousness followed by confusion by choice and impulsiveness factors but gave the highest score for gratification. In comparison to the results of Jamal *et al.* (2006), this cluster was much like their budget conscious shoppers.

5. **Enthusiastic shoppers**: This was the largest group of shoppers, which made up 24.12 per cent of respondents. This cluster compared to other clusters, scored the highest on the hedonic shopping and brand loyalty factors whereas value and gender roles factors were scored the lowest by this group. The segment was fairly similar to Jamal *et al*.'s notion of socializing shoppers.

Table 6-14: Results of the Non-Hierarchical Cluster Analysis and Mean Scores for Each Factor

Shopping motivations	***Cluster1***	***Cluster 2***	***Cluster 3***	***Cluster 4***	***Cluster 5***	***Cluster6***
	Disloyal Shoppers	***Traditionalist Shoppers***	***Quality-Oriented shoppers***	***Value shoppers***	***Enthusiastic shoppers***	***Apathetic shoppers***
Hedonic shopping	0.441	-0.097	***-0.825***	*-0.685*	**0.878**	*-0.232*
	5.28[1]	***4.29***	***2.65***	***3.07***	***5.69***	***3.75***
Confused by choice	**0.450**	0.008	-0.051	*-0.659*	0.081	-0.045
	5.06	***4.36***	***3.97***	***3.17***	***4.50***	***4.09***
Social shopping	0.089	**0.508**	*-0.819*	0.250	0.177	-0.129
	4.54	***4.67***	***2.36***	***4.11***	***4.51***	***3.59***
High quality seeking	0.302	0.307	**0.358**	0.249	0.033	*-2.396*
	5.33	***5.34***	***5.35***	***5.30***	***5.15***	***2.81***
Value shopping	**0.709**	-0.033	-0.222	0.412	*-0.556*	0.094
	4.93	***3.77***	***3.07***	***4.01***	***2.83***	***3.57***
Brand loyal	***-0.825***	0.229	-0.118	0.347	**0.467**	*-0.507*
	4.07	***5.30***	***4.87***	***5.25***	***5.52***	***4.03***
Brand conscious	**0.471**	0.199	-0.039	*-0.842*	0.072	-0.177
	4.86	***4.59***	***3.98***	***2.91***	***4.39***	***3.85***
Gratification seeking	0.195	0.054	-0.573	**0.299**	-0.084	0.254
	3.59	***3.18***	***1.52***	***3.24***	***3.02***	***3.24***
Gender roles and shopping task	-0.029	**1.358**	-0.190	-0.454	*-0.555*	0.150
	1.77	***5.03***	***1.72***	***1.84***	***2.10***	***3.03***
Role playing	0.088	0.222	**0.591**	-0.168	0.230	-0.178
	5.15	***5.32***	***5.35***	***4.71***	***5.24***	***4.44***
Impulsiveness	-0.349	**0.427**	0.350	*-0.541*	-0.088	0.257
	3.40	***4.73***	***4.52***	***2.59***	***3.63***	***4.51***
Social acceptance	**0.293**	*-0.469*	0.171	-0.011	0.047	-0.030
	4.77	***3.32***	***4.39***	***4.21***	***4.40***	***3.85***
N	**60**	**57**	**54**	**53**	**82**	**34**
%	**17.65%**	**16.76%**	**15.88%**	**15.59%**	**24.12%**	**10.00%**

[1] Bold italic= mean score.

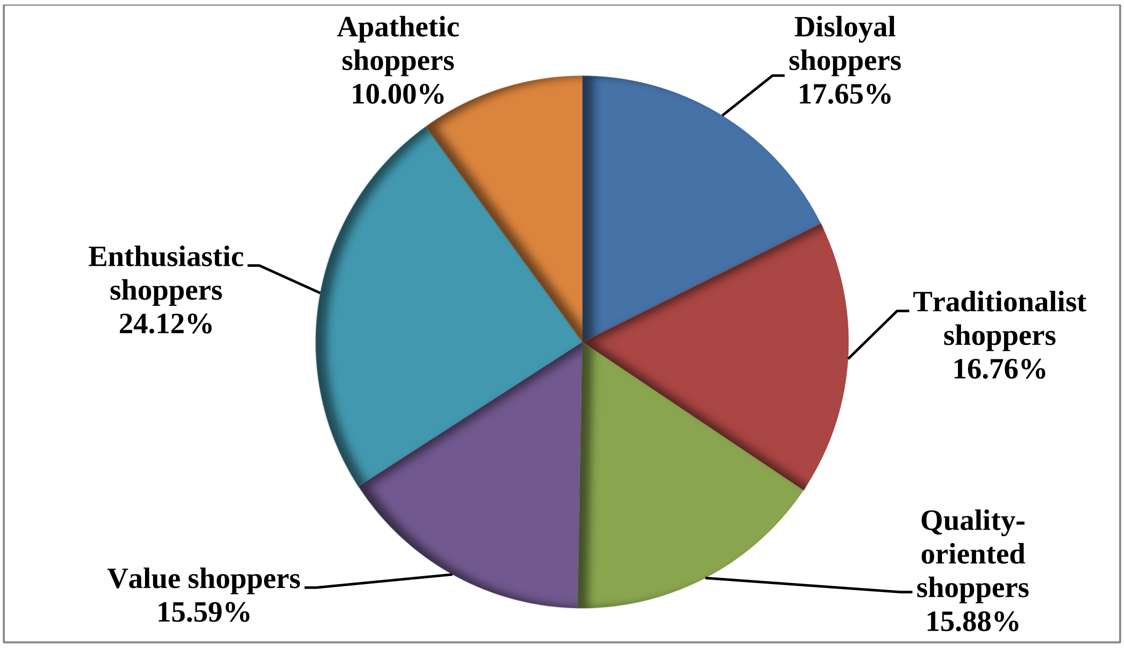


Figure 6-3 : Typology of Libyan Shoppers

6. **Apathetic shoppers**: This was smallest cluster (10 per cent of the respondents), which in general scored low on almost all of the considered factors, however, compared to other clusters it had the lowest rating for high quality seeking and role playing factors. This segment matched the apathetic shoppers that are reported by Jamal *et al.* (2006).

6.5.2. Clusters Profiling Using Demographic and Behavioural Variables

To profile and compare the clusters in greater depth, their demographic and socioeconomic characteristics are analysed using relevant variables not included in the initial factor analysis. To identify any statistically significant differences between clusters, a chi-square contingency test using Crosstabs and ANOVA test for comparison of means were used. A Chi-square contingency test was applied with nominal variables, whereas ANOVA was applied for scale variables. All statistical tests were conducted at the 5 per cent significance level. Profiles using χ^2 tests were established by examining statistically significant differences between clusters under hypotheses:

H_0: there is no difference between the clusters in the profile variables

H_1: there is difference between the clusters in the profile variables

ANOVA tests were conducted, examining statistically significant differences between clusters under hypotheses:

H_0: average scores for cluster identity are equal
H_1: average scores for cluster identity are not equal

The results indicated that there were significant differences between the six clusters in six of the considered profile variables including gender, age, number of family members, income of the household, occupation, and visits to traditional markets. Findings are detailed in Table 6-15. Only significant differences variables are highlighted. The clusters were profiled as follows:

As can be seen in Table 6-16, cluster 1 “Disloyal Shoppers” was composed of 62.03 per cent females, and 37.97 per cent males (see Figure 6-4). There was a high proportion of 25- 36 year olds (46.84 per cent) in this cluster, however, in comparison to the other clusters; it recorded the highest percentage of those aged 55 and over (15.19 per cent). People in this segment had a family of six people or more (34.18 per cent) or three persons (26.58 per cent). Their monthly income was in the highest category (45.57 per cent) and this cluster had a higher percentage of people who preferred to not say how much their income is (24.05 per cent) than other clusters. With respect to occupation, they worked as teachers (25 per cent), housewives (16.46 per cent), and professional and government officers with 21.52 per cent for both of last two categories. Also, this group had a high proportion of people who went with others to shop (50.63 per cent). However, of all the clusters, it had the highest percentage of members (20.25 per cent) who stated that they had no clear pattern in visits to traditional markets.

Cluster 2 “Traditionalist shoppers”, compared to the other clusters, recorded the highest proportion of males (80.56 per cent), and respondents aged between 25 and 39 years old (47.22 per cent). As was also the case for cluster 1, it had a high proportion of those aged 40-54 (37.50 per cent). Shoppers in this cluster, all lived in more than two person households with a considerable proportion of families with four (26.39 per cent) or six or more members (27.78 per cent). Over one half of them had an income equating to more than $396.4 (51 per cent). Although, the group had the highest percentage of government officers (27.78 per cent), there was also a high proportion of professionals (23. 61 per cent) and teachers (22.22 per cent). Regarding going to traditional markets, this segment had the highest percentage going usually alone (26.39 per cent).

Table 6-15: Summary of Tests for Cluster Identity and Demographic, Socioeconomic and Shopping Behaviour Characteristics

Variables	***Chi-square Statistic and Significance****	***Null Hypothesis***
Gender	χ^2(5)= 39.448, Sig = 0.000	*Reject*
Marital status	χ^2(15)= 16.235, Sig = 0.367	**Accept**
Age	χ^2(15)= 25.374, Sig = 0.045	*Reject*
No. of members	χ^2(25)= 40.288, Sig = 0.027	*Reject*
Income of the household	χ^2(15)= 31.272, Sig = 0.008	*Reject*
Education	χ^2(15)= 31.871, Sig = 0.162	**Accept**
Nationality	χ^2(5)= 3.126, Sig = 0.681	**Accept**
Lived abroad	χ^2(5)= 6.918, Sig = 0.227	**Accept**
Migration	χ^2(10)= 5.926, Sig = 0.821	**Accept**
Occupation	χ^2(110)= 161.975, Sig = 0.001	*Reject*
Visit a supermarket	χ^2(25)= 28.590, Sig = 0.281	**Accept**
Visit a traditional market	χ^2(25)= 33.753, Sig = 0.113	**Accept**
Visit an independent store	χ^2(25)= 26.398, Sig = 0.387	**Accept**
Time in supermarket	χ^2(15)= 10.466, Sig = 0.789	**Accept**
Time in traditional market	χ^2(15)= 17.739, Sig = 0.277	**Accept**
Time in independent store	χ^2(10)= 13.446, Sig = 0.200	**Accept**
Shopping decision	χ^2(10)= 10.481, Sig = 0.339	**Accept**
Spending in supermarket	χ^2(10)= 10.864, Sig = 0.369	**Accept**
Spending in traditional market	χ^2(10)= 12.590, Sig = 0.247	**Accept**
Spending in independent store	χ^2(10)= 12.4002, Sig = 0.259	**Accept**
Going to supermarket	χ^2(25)= 21.7825, Sig = 0.646	**Accept**
Going to traditional market	χ^2(25)= 52.509, Sig = 0.001	*Reject*

* χ^2 (degrees of freedom (df)) = Chi square value, Sig = Significance statistic

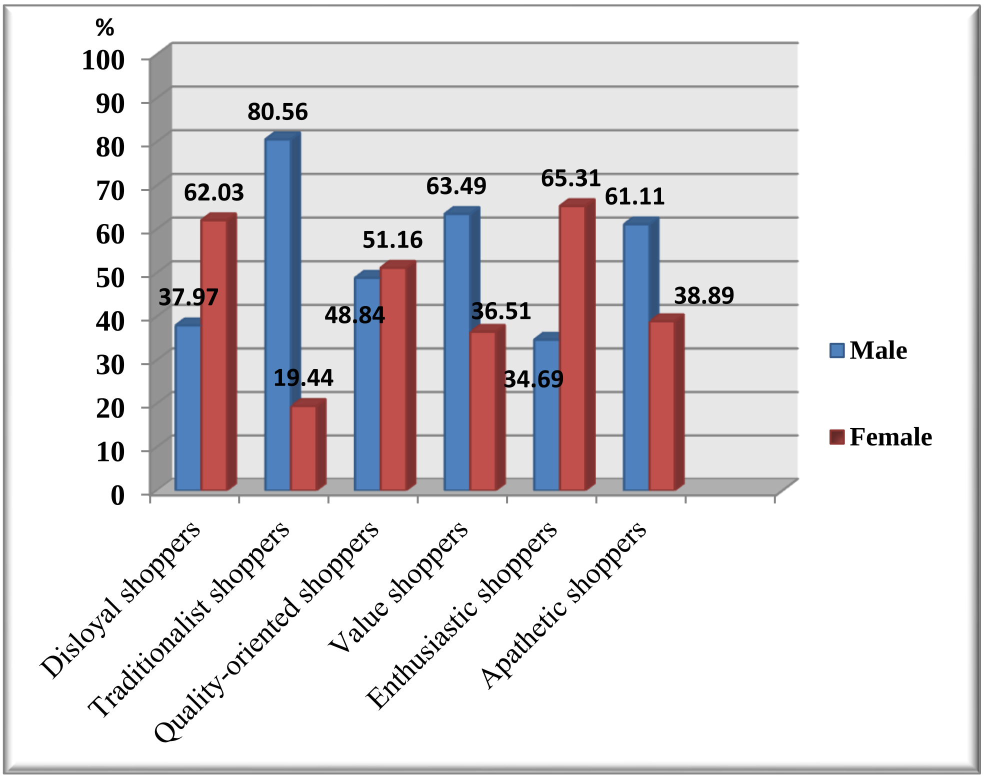


Figure 6-4: Gender and Shoppers Typologies

Cluster 3 "Quality-oriented shoppers" was almost equally divided between males (49 per cent) and females (51 per cent). This cluster was skewed to those aged from 40 to 54 (51 per cent) and who were a part of households with more than six members (46.51 per cent). It also, relative to other groups, had a high proportion of 26- 39 year olds (32.56 per cent). Regarding income, 47 per cent earned more than 500 Libyan dinars ($396.4). Over one-third of members of this cluster (37 per cent) were professionals. 23. 26 per cent of them tended to shop always with others and 18.60 per cent shopped always alone. Compared to the other clusters, Cluster 3 had the highest share of students (11.63 per cent) and those that had never shopped at traditional markets (30.23 per cent).

Cluster 4: "Value shoppers". Most members of this group were males (63.49 per cent). This cluster was weighted to those aged from 25-39 (44.44 per cent) and 40-54 year olds (41.27 per cent), living in a family of more than six people (46.51 per cent). Compared to others clusters, this group registered the highest percentage of members who had an income of more than 500 Libyan dinars ($396.4) (57.14 per cent) and professional people (48.62 per cent).

Cluster 5, “Enthusiastic shoppers”, was biased toward females, those aged from 25 to 39 (38.78 per cent) and 40-54 year olds (42.86 per cent, living in a family of four people and more. In comparison to the other clusters, this group recorded the highest percentage of those with incomes equating to less than $396.4 (43 per cent), housewives (28.57 per cent) and retired citizens (10.20 per cent), and those preferring to go shopping with others.

Cluster 6, “Apathetic shoppers”, was comprised predominately of males (61.11 per cent) who earned a monthly household income greater than $396.4. This group had a marginally younger age profile compare to the others, with a quarter of members aged under 25 and one third aged between 25 and 39. Also, of all clusters, it had a higher proportion of single person households, had incomes equating to $396.4, employing as government officers (30.56 per cent), as well as placing greater emphasis on going shopping with others. A summary of the most important elements of each shopper segment is presented in Table 6-17.

Regarding the importance of retail outlet attributes, all groups registered insignificant differences in scores for the importance of retail outlet attributes, as shown in Table 6-18. Other additional shopping behaviour variables that varied insignificantly across the clusters are documented in

Table 6-19. In general, the clusters tended to have similar shopping patterns. In all clusters, respondents most commonly visited supermarkets once per month and spent between 1 and 2 hours in store. The majority of respondents in all clusters visit traditional markets but this is significantly less for ‘Quality- Oriented shoppers’. Quality- Oriented shoppers were also significantly less likely to visit independent stores, but across the clusters the vast majority of respondents did so, typically every day.

Table 6-16: Summary of Cluster Profile Based on Demographic- Socioeconomic Characteristic

Variables	*Disloyal shopper*	*Traditionalist shopper*	*Quality-Oriented shopper*	*Value shoppers*	*Enthusiastic shoppers*	*Apathetic shopper*
Gender *%*	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Male	37.97	***80.56***	48.84	**63.49**	34.69	**61.11**
Female	**62.03**	19.44	**51.16**	36.51	***65.31***	38.89
Age *%*						
From 15 to 24	12.66	6.94	11.63	6.35	6.12	*25.00*
From 25 to 39	**46.84**	**47.22**	32.56	41.27	38.78	33.33
From 40 to 54	25.32	37.50	**51.16**	**44.44**	**42.86**	**38.89**
Aged 55 and over	*15.19*	8.33	4.65	7.94	12.24	2.78
Household Size *%*						
One	0.00	1.39	0.00	1.59	0.00	***8.33***
Two	6.33	4.17	4.65	***7.94***	4.08	2.78
Three	***26.58***	19.44	9.30	17.46	12.24	11.11
Four	16.46	26.39	23.26	14.29	**34.69**	16.67
Five	16.46	20.83	16.28	14.29	***26.53***	22.22
Six and more	**34.18**	**27.78**	***46.51***	**44.44**	22.45	**38.89**
Household Income						
Less than 500	15.19	19.44	23.26	20.63	**42.86**	16.67
Around 500	15.19	12.50	16.28	12.70	18.37	**30.56**
More than 500	**45.57**	**51.39**	**46.51**	**57.14**	24.49	**33.33**
Prefer not to say	*24.05*	16.67	13.95	9.52	14.29	19.44
Occupation *%*						
Professional	21.52	23.61	**37.21**	**47.62**	14.29	11.11
Government officers	21.52	**27.78**	16.28	19.05	16.33	**30.56**
Teachers	**25.32**	22.22	16.28	12.70	18.37	13.89
Housewives	16.46	2.78	9.30	7.94	**28.57**	8.33
Businesspeople	8.86	8.33	2.33	6.35	4.08	11.11
Students	3.80	4.17	*11.63*	1.59	4.08	11.11
Retired	2.53	2.78	4.65	1.59	*10.20*	2.78
Unemployed	0.00	1.39	0.00	0.00	4.08	11.11
Others	0.00	*6.94*	2.33	3.17	0.00	0.00
Going to traditional market						
Always with others	**29.11**	19.44	23.26	**25.40**	*34.70*	**25.00**
Usually with others	21.52	16.67	4.65	17.46	***36.73***	**25.00**
Never shop at	15.19	12.50	**30.23**	12.70	6.12	11.11
Always alone	6.33	8.33	18.60	17.46	10.20	8.33
Usually alone	7.59	**26.39**	9.30	14.29	4.08	11.11
No clear pattern	*20.25*	16.67	13.95	12.70	8.16	19.44

Table 6-17: Summary of Shopper Segments Profiles

Profile	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	Cluster 6
%	17.65	16.76	15.88	15.59	24.12	10.00
Title for cluster	*Disloyal*	*Traditionalist*	*Quality-oriented*	*Value*	*Enthusiastic*	*Apathetic*
Shopping motivations						
Hedonic shopping	higher than average	lower than average	*lowest*	lower than average	*Highest*	lower than average
Confused by choice	*highest*	average	average	*lowest*	Average	average
Social shopping	average	*highest*	*lowest*	average	higher than average	lower than average
High quality	higher than average	higher than average	highest	average	Average	*lowest*
Value shopping	*highest*	average	lower than average	higher than average	*Lowest*	average
Brand loyal	*lowest*	higher than average	lower than average	higher than average	*Highest*	lower than average
Brand conscious	*highest*	higher than average	average	*lowest*	Average	lower than average
Gratification	higher than average	average	*lowest*	*highest*	Average	higher than average
Gender roles	lower than average	*highest*	lower than average	lower than average	*Lowest*	higher than average
Role playing	average	higher than average	*highest*	low	higher than average	*lowest*
Impulsiveness	lower than average	*highest*	higher than average	*lowest*	Average	higher than average
Social acceptance	*highest*	*lowest*	higher than average	lower than average	Average	average
Demographics						
Gender	female	male	mixed	male	Female	male
Age	Mixed	25 to 54	25 to 54	25 to 54	25 and more	15 to 54
Family size	Three and more	Three and more	Four and more	Four and more	Four and more	Four and more
Income	More than 500	More than 500	More than 500	More than 500	Less than 500	Around 500 & More than 500
Occupation	Teachers	Government officers	Professional	Professional	Housewives	Government officers
Behaviour variables						
Going to traditional market	with others No clear	Alone with others	Never shop with others	with others	with others	With others

Table 6-18: Average Scores for Importance of Retail Outlet Attributes by Cluster

Attributes	Average Score						Overall Average	F Sig
	1	2	3	4	5	6		
Location/Convenience	3.49	3.41	3.60	3.43	3.35	3.42	3.46	***0.924***
Price of product	3.56	3.76	3.60	3.57	3.80	3.58	3.66	***0.763***
Special offers	3.56	3.44	3.63	3.63	3.49	3.33	3.52	***0.588***
Assortment	3.37	3.17	3.00	3.11	3.00	3.17	3.16	***0.413***
Quality of service	4.20	4.04	4.05	4.06	3.90	4.17	4.08	***0.587***
Speed of service	4.04	4.07	3.93	4.17	3.98	4.08	4.05	***0.727***
Quality of product	4.09	4.10	4.12	4.33	4.00	4.33	4.15	***0.226***
Variety of product	3.78	3.93	3.72	4.00	3.78	3.81	3.85	***0.646***
Freshness of produce	3.35	3.57	3.51	3.32	3.31	3.90	3.42	***0.715***
Atmosphere	3.48	3.69	3.56	3.60	3.82	3.69	3.63	***0.644***
Cleanliness of place	2.47	2.46	2.47	2,56	2.73	2.22	2.49	***0.553***
Food safety	4.58	4.69	4.70	4.63	4.61	4.56	4.63	***0.538***
Personal safety	2.51	2.30	2.95	2.57	2.71	2.47	2.56	***0.322***
In – store credit	3.37	3.57	3.37	3.40	3.33	3.36	3.41	***0.425***
Car parking	3.81	3.80	3.77	3.89	3.71	3.53	3.77	***0.584***
Social acceptability	3.83	3.96	3.98	3.86	3.49	3.75	3.82	***0.212***

Table 6-19: Cluster Profile Using Additional Shopping Behaviour Variables

	Disloyal Shopper	***Traditionalist Shopper***	***Quality-Oriented shopper***	***Value shopper***	***Enthusiastic shoppers***	***Apathetic shopper***
Visit a supermarket						
Everyday	6.33	5.56	6.98	3.17	6.12	*8.33*
Two- three times a week	15.19	16.67	13.95	14.29	*24.49*	19.44
Once a week	10.13	*23.61*	9.30	12.70	10.20	5.56
Two- three times a month	*25.32*	22.22	11.63	22.22	14.29	13.89
Once a month	41.78	30.56	*51.16*	46.03	42.86	44.44
Never	1.29	1.39	6.98	1.59	2.04	*8.33*
Visit a traditional market						
Everyday	5.06	4.17	2.33	*7.94*	6.12	2.78
Two- three times a week	17.72	30.56	9.30	25.40	18.37	*33.33*
Once a week	39.24	31.94	23.26	36.51	*44.90*	30.56
Two- three times a month	8.87	9.72	*18.60*	7.94	14.29	8.33
Once a month	12.66	11.11	13.95	7.94	10.20	*16.67*
Never	16.46	12.5	*32.56*	14.29	6.12	8.33
Visit an independent store						
Everyday	50.63	62.5	48.84	47.62	57.14	*66.67*
Two- three times a week	32.91	22.22	30.23	*38.10*	30.61	22.22
Once a week	*10.13*	8.33	2.33	6.35	4.08	5.56
Two- three times a month	2.53	1.39	*6.98*	3.17	6.12	0.00
Once a month	0.00	4.17	*4.65*	0.00	0.00	2.78
Never	3.80	1.39	*6.98*	4.76	2.04	2.78
Time in supermarket						
Less than one hour	26.92	*38.03*	25.00	25.81	22.92	32.35
1-2 hours	51.28	50.70	55.00	54.84	50.00	*55.88*

	Disloyal Shopper	*Traditionalist Shopper*	*Quality-Oriented shopper*	*Value shopper*	*Enthusiastic shoppers*	*Apathetic shopper*
2-3 hours	20.51	9.86	17.50	16.138	*22.92*	11.76
More than 3 hours	1.28	1.41	2.50	3.23	*4.17*	0.00
Time in traditional market						
Less than one hour	48.53	49.21	62.07	55.56	*76.09*	45.45
1-2 hours	*45.59*	44.44	31.03	37.04	17.39	45.45
2-3 hours	5.88	4.76	6.90	7.41	4.35	*9.09*
More than 3 hours	0.00	1.59	0.00	0.00	*2.17*	0.00
Time in independent store						
Less than one hour	98.70	*100.00*	*100.00*	96.67	93.75	94.29
1-2 hours	1.30	0.00	0.00	1.67	*6.25*	5.71
2-3 hours	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.66	0.00	0.00
More than 3 hours	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Shopping decision						
Alone	22.78	25.00	27.91	17.46	18.37	*38.89*
With others	*60.76*	55.566	51.16	57.14	57.14	52.78
Depended on circumstances	16.46	19.44	20.93	*25.40*	24.49	8.33
Spending on supermarket						
Less than 300	46.16	33.80	37.50	29.03	45.83	*47.06*
300-500	47.44	56.34	55.00	*56.45*	50.00	50.00
More than 500	6.41	9.86	7.50	*14.52*	4.17	2.94
Spending on traditional market						
Less than 300	92.53	92.06	93.33	83.33	93.48	84.85
300-500	7.46	4.76	6.67	16.67	6.52	12.12
More than 500	0.00	3.17	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.03

	Disloyal Shopper	*Traditionalist Shopper*	*Quality-Oriented shopper*	*Value shopper*	*Enthusiastic shoppers*	*Apathetic shopper*
Spending on independent store						
Less than 300	77.63	74.65	90.24	80.00	87.5O	74.29
300-500	22.37	22.55	7.32	20.00	10.42	25.71
More than 500	0.00	2.82	2.44	0.00	2.083	0.00
Going to supermarket						
Always with others	31.65	20.83	27.91	30.16	26.53	27.78
Usually with others	21.52	25.00	18.60	*38.10*	32.65	19.44
Never shop	1.27	2.78	*6.98*	1.59	2.04	5.56
Always alone	5.06	*11.11*	6.98	6.35	8.16	5.56
Usually alone	12.66	*18.06*	13.95	6.35	8.16	16.67
No clear pattern	*27.85*	22.22	25.58	17.46	22.45	25.00

6.5.3. Econometric Analysis

To understand shopping behaviour in greater depth, econometric analysis was applied in two stages.

6.5.4. Ordered Probit Model

In the first step, three models were estimated. The frequency of visits to supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores were used as dependent variables, with the values for the dependent variable taking the following: “1 for “everyday”, “2” for “2-3 times a week”, “3” for “once a week”, “4” for 2-3 times a month”, “5” for “once a month”, and “6” for “never shop at particular format”. Retail outlet attributes and socioeconomic variables were utilised as independent variables. The statistically significant bootstrapped ordered Probit models were reported in Table 6-20. Log- likelihood tests were applied to assess the overall significance of the various independent variables in explaining differences in the number of visits. Although Log-likelihood tests rejected the null hypotheses, the probability value of 0.000 for the Wald test indicated that at least one of the explanatory variables used in the models was appropriate. In other words, although, the models did not identify many significant variables, the goodness-of-fit measured by the χ^2 showed that the choice of explanatory variables included in the ordered Probit models were relevant for explaining variation in the frequency of visits to different retail formats in Libya. In addition, Table 6-20 presented the estimates of cut-offs variables. According to Maddala (1983), the threshold coefficients should exhibit the relationship $c_1 < c_2 < c_3 < c_4 < c_5$ and must be positive. As can be seen in Table 6-20, the estimated cut-offs satisfied this condition and were all positive and ordered properly.

Considering socio-economic characteristics, only gender was important in explaining variations in the frequency of visits to supermarkets and traditional markets. The significantly positive coefficient for gender indicated that males were less frequent visitors to supermarkets. However, frequency of visits to traditional market was negatively related to gender thereby indicating that males were significantly more frequent visitors to traditional markets. However there was no significant relationship between frequency of visits to independent stores and all other considering socio-economic characteristics. Regarding retail attributes, frequency of supermarket visits was positively related to the importance given to convenience of location, car parking and social acceptability, and negatively related to speed of service. In other words, for instance, those who regarded convenience of location, car parking and social acceptability as being more important in their choice of retail outlet were more frequent visitors to supermarkets. The frequency of traditional market visits was positively related to the importance given to freshness of produce. Frequency of independent store visits was positively related to the quality of service and provision of in-store credit.

6.5.5. Tobit Models

The Tobit models empirically investigate the determinants of proportionate spending in supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores for selected product categories. The censored dependent variables were the percentage of spending on a particular product category (fresh fruit and vegetables [FFV], fresh meat, fresh fish, packaged food, and beverages) accounted for by supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores. Retail outlet attributes and socioeconomic variables were used as the independent variables. In the case of fresh meat, packaged food and beverages only supermarkets and independent stores were considered. This was because they were identified as products that make up low proportions of consumers’ spending in traditional markets (i.e. about 1.33% for fresh meat, 3.44% for packaged food, and 2.38% for beverages) as shown in Table 6-5.

Table 6-20: Bootstrapped Ordered Probit Models

Independents	*Dependents*					
(N= 371)	frequency of supermarket visits		frequency of traditional market visits		frequency of independent store visits	
	Coefficient*	z- value	Coefficient	z- value	Coefficient	z- value
Models	***1***		***2***		***3***	
Retail outlet attributes						
Location/convenience	**0.126****	2.01	-0.070	-1.12	0.012	0.14
Price of products	-0.010	-0.15	0.073	1.14	-0.070	-1.17
Special offers	0.003	0.05	0.076	1.12	0.073	0.81
Assortment	0.038	0.66	0.034	0.61	-0.090	-1.41
Quality of service	-0.096	-1.36	0.100	1.18	**0.150***	1.77
Speed of service	**-0.132***	-1.82	-0.083	-0.81	-0.036	-0.35
Quality of products	0.066	0.77	-0.054	-0.59	-0.001	-0.01
Variety of products	0.016	0.19	-0.066	-1.03	0.086	1.16
Freshness of produce	0.063	1.14	**0.394*****	5.12	0.007	0.11
Atmosphere	0.039	0.62	0.016	0.27	-0.048	-0.71
Cleanliness of place	-0.057	-0.82	-0.036	-0.60	-0.024	-0.40
Food safety	0.062	0.57	-0.100	-1.10	0.041	0.43
Personal safety	0.055	1.12	0.010	0.23	0.034	0.70
In – store credit	0.022	0.45	0.050	1.24	**0.495*****	7.31
Car parking facilities	**0.190****	2.09	-0.040	-0.57	-0.038	-0.49
Social acceptability	**0.268*****	5.00	-0.020	-0.44	0.056	1.10
Socio-economic characteristics						
Gender	**1.414*****	9.58	**-0.453*****	-4.07	**-0.611*****	**-3.50**
Marital statue	-0.063	-0.41	-0.082	-0.50	-0.222	-1.30
Age	-0.037	-0.44	0.090	0.88	0.050	0.58
Size of family	-0.076	-1.41	-0.064	-1.19	-0.043	-0.86
Income	-0.002	-0.04	0.039	0.84	-0.019	-0.28
Education	0.001	0.03	0.028	0.61	0.002	0.05
Nationality	0.077	0.13	-0.046	-0.12	0.207	0.53
Lived abroad	-0.122	-0.66	0.140	0.94	0.001	0.01
Migration	-0.031	-0.24	-0.167	-1.17	-0.021	-0.15
Occupation	0.003	0.26	0.010	0.79	-0.008	-0.45
cut1	*1.014*	-	*-0.987*	-	*-1.191*	-
cut2	*2.762*	-	*-0.325*	-	*-0.540*	-
cut3	*3.513*	-	*0.004*	-	*-0.110*	-
cut4	*3.872*	-	*0.992*	-	*0.359*	-
cut5	*4.575*		*2.171*	-	*1.397*	-
Pseudo R^2	0.184		0.090		0.135	
Log likelihood	-497.857		-557.109		-463.608	
Wald chi2(26) (Prob>chi2)	632.98*** (0.000)		126.21*** (0.000)		153.50*** (0.000)	

*: *-10%,**-5%,***-1%- level of significance

Regarding FFV and considering retail attributes, as reported in Table 6-21, the respondents with a higher proportion of spending in supermarkets rated social acceptability as being of greater importance, whereas freshness of produce was significantly less important for those depending more on supermarkets for FFV. Gender and age were significant in explaining variations in the percentage of total expenditure on FFV accounted by supermarkets. In other words, those relying on supermarkets for FFV were significantly more likely to be females and younger. Respondents with a higher proportion of spending in traditional markets recorded freshness of produce as a more important consideration whereas the cleanliness of place and social acceptability were significantly less important for this group. Only gender was significant in explaining variations in the percentage of total expenditure on FFV accounted by traditional markets, where females were significantly lower users. For those with a higher proportion of spending in independent stores, cleanliness of place and assortment were rated as significantly more important attributes while, only special offers was significantly less important for this group. Those relying on independent stores for FFV were less likely to be female, and biased toward the young.

As detailed in Table 6-22, the Tobit model for the percentage of total spending on fresh meat accounted for by different retail formats revealed that respondents with a higher proportion of spending in supermarket rated atmosphere and social acceptability as being of greater importance, whereas freshness of produce was significantly less important for this group. Gender and age were significant in explaining variations in the percentage of total fresh meat spend accounted by supermarkets. Those relying on supermarkets for fresh meat were significantly more likely to be female, and younger. In contrast, the respondents with a higher proportion of spending in independent stores recorded freshness of produce as a more important factor, whereas atmosphere and social acceptability were significantly less important for this group. The significant negative coefficient for gender indicated that this group was biased toward males.

Analysis of the Tobit models as shown in Table 6-23 for the percentage of total spending on fresh fish accounted for by supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores revealed a negative relationship between the percentage spent in supermarkets and freshness of produce and a significantly positive relationship with social acceptability.

Table 6-21: Bootstrapped Tobit Models for Percentage of Spending on FFV at Different Retail Outlet

Independents	**Dependents (Percentage of spending)**					
(N= 371)	at supermarkets		at traditional markets		at independent stores	
	Coefficient[*]	z-value	Coefficient	z-value	Coefficient	z-value
Models	***1***		***2***		***3***	
Retail outlet attributes						
Location/convenience	-0.808	-0.47	0.729	0.40	*-0.250*	*-0.15*
Price of products	2.606	1.43	-0.253	-0.11	-1.333	-0.76
Special offers	1.657	1.01	0.690	0.33	**-3.908****	-1.81
Assortment	-0.330	-0.20	-2.595	-1.40	**4.129****	2.50
Quality of service	0.392	0.18	-3.104	-1.50	2.008	0.87
Speed of service	-0.415	-0.19	-0.189	-0.08	-0.475	-0.18
Quality of products	-0.148	-0.07	0.044	0.02	-0.132	-0.05
Variety of products	-1.905	-1.26	0.950	0.43	0.207	0.10
Freshness of produce	**-6.563*****	-4.00	**8.018****	4.38	-2.067	-1.04
Atmosphere	0.667	0.43	3.420	1.47	-3.073	-1.55
Cleanliness of place	1.426	1.00	**-7.929*****	-4.18	**6.439*****	3.56
Food safety	-3.052	-1.10	0.691	0.26	0.681	0.22
Personal safety	1.190	1.01	-0.325	-0.21	-0.159	-0.12
In – store credit	-0.205	-0.15	-1.364	-1.07	1.976	1.64
Car parking facilities	0.427	0.23	2.104	0.87	-2.915	-1.36
Social acceptability	**7.703*****	5.59	**-6.492*****	-3.63	-0.189	-0.14
Socio-economic characteristics						
Gender	**16.627*****	5.42	**-10.546****	-2.30	**-8.237***	-1.80
Marital status	3.657	1.32	-4.718	-1.19	-0.661	-0.20
Age	**-4.112****	-2.19	-0.991	-0.35	3.273	1.50
Size of family	-0.152	-0.13	1.371	0.80	-1.034	-0.71
Income	-0.144	-0.10	-0.150	-0.08	-0.897	-0.52
Education	1.830	1.18	0.421	0.24	-2.171	-1.24
Nationality	-2.927	-1.54	18.750	1.26	-3.398	-0.17
Lived abroad	-2.666	-0.59	0.484	0.09	1.522	0.29
Migration	-0.165	-0.05	2.026	0.55	-0.234	-0.07
Occupation	0.958	1.30	-0.081	-0.15	-0.425	-0.94
Constant	*5.704*	*0.28*	*53.088*	*1.59*	*54.799*	*1.64*
Sigma	26.472		34.693		*31.482*	
Pseudo R^2	0.057		0.033		0.017	
Log likelihood	-1224.172		-1487.750		-1445.208	
Wald chi2(26)	457.50*** (0.000)		183.81*** 0.000)		81.82*** (0.000)	

[*] *-10%,**-5%,***-1%- level of significance

Table 6-22: Bootstrapped Tobit Models for Percentage of Spending on Fresh Meat Accounted for by Different Retail Formats

Independents	***Dependents***			
	Percentage of spending at supermarkets		Percentage of spending at independent stores	
(N= 371)	Coefficient[*]	z- value	Coefficient	z- value
Models	***1***		***2***	
Retail outlet attributes				
Location/convenience	*2.231*	1.01	-2.106	-0.94
Price of products	3.253	1.26	-3.405	-1.11
Special offers	-0.065	-0.02	0.226	0.07
Assortment	-1.868	-0.97	1.471	0.56
Quality of service	-2.893	-0.95	3.098	0.82
Speed of service	3.473	1.27	-3.893	-1.05
Quality of products	-4.427	-1.20	4.726	1.39
Variety of products	2.804	0.98	-2.809	-0.96
Freshness of produce	**-15.632*****	-6.74	**15.688*****	5.96
Atmosphere	**4.827****	2.28	**-4.740***	-1.95
Cleanliness of place	-1.657	-0.64	1.591	0.53
Food safety	-3.435	-0.92	3.343	0.80
Personal safety	0.480	0.26	-0.460	-0.24
In – store credit	1.992	1.06	-2.592	-1.35
Car parking facilities	-1.118	-0.36	1.043	0.34
Social acceptability	**5.067****	2.07	**-4.993*****	-2.45
Socio-economic characteristics				
Gender	**11.612****	2.01	**-12.270****	-1.96
Marital status	-5.527	-1.05	6.318	1.10
Age	-1.450	-0.48	1.123	0.32
Size of family	1.870	0.92	-2.017	-0.96
Income	-1.155	-0.52	1.218	0.54
Education	1.348	0.64	-1.023	-0.40
Nationality	3.343	0.21	-1.796	-0.11
Lived abroad	-1.947	-0.27	3.437	0.58
Migration	-3.212	-0.49	2.714	0.46
Occupation	-0.037	-0.05	0.026	0.03
Constant	*37.476*	*1.05*	*59.059*	*1.71**
Sigma	42.895		*43.637*	
Pseudo R^2	0.036		0.035	
Log likelihood	-1250.764		-1265.227	
Wald chi2(26) (Prob>chi2)	253.91***	(0.000)	174.28***	(0.000)

[*]: *-10%,**-5%,***-1%- level of significance

Table 6-23: Bootstrapped Tobit Models for Percentage of Spending on Fresh Fish Accounted for by Different Retail Formats

Independents	***Dependents (Percentage of spending)***					
(N= 371)	at supermarkets		at traditional markets		at independent stores	
	Coefficient[*]	z-	Coefficient	z-	Coefficient	z-
Models	***1***		***2***		***3***	
Retail outlet attributes						
Location/convenience	2.208	0.74	1.863	0.49	-2.179	-0.83
Price of products	1.321	0.45	.820	0.16	-2.477	-0.74
Special offers	-4.278	-1.02	6.595	1.01	-1.011	-0.28
Assortment	0.493	0.15	-1.856	-0.40	3.503	1.07
Quality of service	-4.037	-1.02	7.480	1.31	-2.674	-0.70
Speed of service	-1.467	-0.34	4.081	0.71	-0.333	-0.09
Quality of products	3.300	0.68	-1.047	-0.19	0.441	0.11
Variety of products	4.573	1.20	-5.911	-1.31	2.335	0.83
Freshness of produce	**-6.690****	-1.92	**12.766*****	2.91	-3.372	-1.04
Atmosphere	4.931	1.33	-5.525	-1.22	-1.437	-0.41
Cleanliness of place	1.974	0.69	**-19.279*****	-4.71	**19.809*****	6.14
Food safety	7.184	1.07	-11.224	-1.33	-1.283	-0.27
Personal safety	**8.162*****	3.45	**-17.691*****	-5.33	**19.705*****	8.93
In – store credit	1.570	0.73	-2.908	-0.78	-0.449	-0.23
Car parking facilities	0.468	0.11	2.037	0.40	0.931	0.31
Social acceptability	**7.069*****	2.46	-4.869	-1.38	-1.914	-0.75
Socio-economic characteristics						
Gender	**16.913****	2.32	**-28.955*****	-3.22	**11.919***	1.80
Marital status	-.300	-0.04	-13.147	-0.96	**15.708****	2.08
Age	-2.169	-0.62	-9.324	-1.17	1.973	0.50
Size of family	0.789	0.35	-2.709	-0.61	0.545	0.21
Income	0.723	0.22	3.570	0.67	0.100	0.03
Education	0.233	0.08	-1.647	-0.41	-1.535	-0.64
Nationality	-1.415	-0.06	12.920	0.43	-2.391	-0.17
Lived abroad	2.250	0.28	-5.576	-0.48	4.062	0.41
Migration	-4.958	-0.71	14.516	2.03	-4.996	-0.90
Occupation	0.307	0.28	-0.444	-0.33	0.252	0.27
Constant	*-125.780****	*-2.50*	*288.837****	*3.77*	*-114.952****	*-2.69*
Sigma	48.224		69.087		*44.199*	
Pseudo R^2	0.043		0.0742		0.121	
Log likelihood	-897.203					
Wald chi2(26)	259.02**** (0.000)		265.6***(0.000)		442.92*** (0.000)	

[*]: *-10%,**-5%,***-1%- level of significance

In other words, those buying a greater proportion of fresh fish from supermarkets rated social acceptability as being more important and freshness of produce less important. Females spent proportionally more in supermarkets. With respect to the percentage spent in traditional markets, cleanliness of place and personal safety were recorded as less important. Males spent proportionally more in traditional markets. Those whose expenditure was skewed to traditional markets placed greater emphasis on freshness of produce. For those with a higher proportion of spending in independent stores, cleanliness of place and personal safety were rated as being of greater importance. Those relying on independent stores for fresh fish were significantly more likely to be female and married.

For packaged food, Table 6-24 indicates that those buying a greater proportion of these goods from supermarkets placed greater emphasis on special offers, atmosphere, and car parking facilities, whereas in-store credit was rated as less important. In contrast, those buying a greater proportion of packaged food from independent stores rated special offers and atmosphere as being of less importance, whereas they placed greater emphasis on in-store credit. Regarding socioeconomic characteristics, only gender and age were significant in explaining variations in the supermarkets' share of total expenditure on packaged food. Females and older consumers spent proportionally more in supermarkets, while males tended to spend more in independent stores.

Finally, Table 6-25, detailed the results of the Tobit models for the percentage of total spending on beverages accounted for by supermarkets and independent stores. The results indicate that there were significant positive relationships between the percentage spent in supermarkets and the importance of special offers, atmosphere and car parking facilities (as in the case of packaged food), and negative relationships with in–store credit and quality of service. Regarding socio-economic characteristics, only gender was significant in explaining variations in the percentage of total expenditure on beverages accounted for by supermarkets and independent stores. Those relying on supermarkets for beverages were more likely to be female, whereas those relying on independent stores for beverages were more likely to be males. Those relying on independent stores for beverages were less concerned with special offers, atmosphere and car parking facilities but rated quality of service, cleanliness of place and in-store credit as being of greater importance.

Table 6-24: Bootstrapped Tobit Models for Percentage of Spending on Packaged Food Accounted for by Different Retail Formats

Independents	***Dependents***			
(N= 371)	Percentage of spending at supermarkets		Percentage of spending at independent stores	
	Coefficient[*]	z- value	Coefficient	z- value
Models	***1***		***2***	
Retail outlet attributes				
Location/convenience	*-0.585*	-0.58	0.620	0.50
Price of products	0.169	0.11	-0.546	-0.30
Special offers	**6.518*****	3.84	**-6.531*****	-4.25
Assortment	-1.209	-1.05	0.975	0.72
Quality of service	-0.882	-0.66	0.087	0.05
Speed of service	1.956	0.90	-1.003	-0.61
Quality of products	-1.941	-0.97	2.231	1.12
Variety of products	0.726	0.44	-0.626	-0.41
Freshness of produce	-0.849	-0.77	1.237	1.24
Atmosphere	**6.708*****	4.77	**-4.763*****	-3.53
Cleanliness of place	-0.319	-0.25	1.465	1.36
Food safety	-1.032	-0.42	1.238	0.57
Personal safety	-0.037	-0.05	-0.686	-0.90
In – store credit	**-2.436*****	-2.52	**2.216****	2.20
Car parking facilities	**3.547****	2.05	-2.502	-1.43
Social acceptability	0.614	0.53	-0.631	-0.62
Socio-economic				
Gender	**6.165*****	2.79	**-6.946*****	-3.11
Marital status	3.802	1.06	-4.042	-1.36
Age	**3.054***	1.72	-1.536	-1.13
Size of family	0.984	1.11	-1.230	-1.06
Income	0.476	0.42	-0.397	-0.32
Education	0.828	0.59	-1.196	-0.81
Nationality	-3.470	-0.49	4.334	0.60
Lived abroad	-3.130	-1.02	3.44	1.02
Migration	-1.566	-0.62	0.927	0.36
Occupation	-0.789	-2.30	0.742	1.33
Constant	*6.807*	*0.38*	*76.004****	*3.89*
sigma	22.191		*20.879*	
Pseudo R^2	0.034		0.030	
Log likelihood	-1540.123		-1522.740	
Wald chi2(26) (Prob>chi2)	178.11***	(0.000)	135.59***	(0.000)

[*]: *-10%,**-5%,***-1%- level of significance

Table 6-25: Bootstrapped Tobit Models for Percentage of Spending on Beverages Accounted for by Different Retail Formats

Independents	***Dependents***			
(N= 371)	Percentage of spending at supermarkets		Percentage of spending at independent stores	
	Coefficient[*]	z- value	Coefficient	z- value
Models	***1***		***2***	
Retail outlet attributes				
Location/convenience	-0.412	-0.26	0.467	0.37
Price of products	1.468	0.84	-1.877	-1.17
Special offers	**9.908*****	5.15	**-9.934*****	-6.66
Assortment	-0.3782	-0.31	0.108	0.08
Quality of service	**-3.472***	-1.88	**3.869*****	2.43
Speed of service	1.924	0.84	-2.14	-1.19
Quality of products	-0.356	-0.16	1.331	0.65
Variety of products	-0.026	-0.02	-0.299	-0.20
Freshness of produce	-2.258	-1.77	2.116	1.43
Atmosphere	**5.326*****	3.23	**-3.486****	-2.26
Cleanliness of place	0.780	0.55	-.585	-0.33
Food safety	-2.754	-0.97	1.211	0.46
Personal safety	1.156	0.97	-1.570	-1.48
In – store credit	**-2.368****	-2.14	**2.338*****	2.16
Car parking facilities	**6.182*****	2.77	**-5.198*****	-3.04
Social acceptability	-0.150	-0.11	-0.329	-0.28
Socio-economic characteristics				
Gender	**5.767***	1.94	**-6.499****	-2.27
Marital status	1.398	0.33	-1.151	-0.35
Age	2.091	0.90	-1.609	-0.91
Size of family	-0.033	-0.03	0.358	0.31
Income	1.167	0.82	-1.186	-0.96
Education	0.151	0.11	-0.249	-0.21
Nationality	2.747	0.35	-3.176	-0.45
Lived abroad	1.083	0.32	-1.865	-0.47
Migration	-1.669	-0.58	1.108	0.31
Occupation	-0.410	-0.88	0.443	0.96
Constant	*-4.790*	*-0.23*	*104.291****	*4.92*
Sigma	*26.152*		*24.733*	
Pseudo R^2	0.032		0.031	
Log likelihood	-1552.981			
Wald chi2(26) (Prob>chi2)	189.60***	(0.000)	308.81***	(0.000)

[*]: *-10%,**-5%,***-1%- level of significance

6.6. Effect of the 17th Revolution in Consumer Food Shopping Behaviour

Finally, taking into account the revolution that occurred in Libya during the period of data collection the question “Has the revolution of 17th of February had an impact on your shopping behaviour?” was added to the questionnaire. This was an open ended question. Some respondents revealed that there had been an impact in terms of a focus only on basic needs:

> *Yes, there is an impact; I started shopping weekly with a focus on basic food items, not as before where I shopped monthly and bought a large amount of food to store for several months.*

> *There is a lack of liquidity which led to a lack of imports from abroad. Also, the battles that tore the country apart, affected domestic trade. All these things led to a rise in prices. This increase imposes the need to order priorities.*

> *Yes there is an effect on shopping behaviour. Due to lack of financial resources and high prices the main focus is to buy necessities only.*

> *Of course there is an effect. I try to save my money by buying just the necessary items and ignore luxuries.*

In addition, some of the respondents highlighted a positive effect on a personal level such as a greater sense of the needs of others:

> *Yes, the events have had a very big impact because of the lack of liquidity I stopped buying some luxuries, even after the situation has improved as my sense of poor people became more acute than before.*

> *Yes, there is positive impact in terms of achieving social solidarity and practical cooperation and the creation of a new spirit and a bright look for a better future.*

> *Yes, I become more flexible and patient when there is a lack of products.*

> *Yes, especially in the early days there was a fear of lack of products, but when the situation stabilized there was a sense of solidarity with others and their needs.*

> *Yes it has affected all aspects of life, not just shopping. Always, when I go shopping I do not like to wait. If there was overcrowding, I go and come back at another time when it is less*

busy but now I wait with all the spirit of sport.

Of course, the revolution has an impact on shopping because of the shortage of salaries which led directly to a reduction in purchasing power. Also an increase in prices led to focus on the priorities and the important things. I become as economical as much as possible.

Yes I learned to be economical and appreciated of the circumstances of my husband and his income and taking into account the simple priorities.

Yes, there is a positive influence, thank God, although there is a rise in prices, but the reward is freedom.

However, some reported a negative impact:

Yes, the impact for me is negative; prices are very high level and there is a lack of food as a result of some people buying large quantities and stockpiling them in their homes.

6.7. Conclusion

In this chapter, the results of the data analysis were presented to understand Libyan food shoppers' behavioural patterns by using relevant statistical methods. Descriptive statistics were used to present the socio-economic characteristics of the sample and detail respondents' food shopping behaviour. The importance of attributes affecting the choice of retail formats and how well supermarkets, traditional markets and independent stores performed on these measures were assessed. After presenting of the descriptive statistics, the analysis of data continued with the use of factor analysis including confirmatory (CFA) and exploratory (EFA) analysis.

The CFA results indicated that Jamal *et al.*'s (2006) model was inappropriate for the Libyan case. EFA identified 12 factors: hedonism, confused by choice, social shopping, value shopping, brand loyalty, brand conscious, high quality seeking, gratification seeking, gender roles and shopping task, role playing, impulsiveness and social acceptance. The factors generated provided the basis for cluster analysis, in order to investigate the existence of distinctive groups of shoppers (shopper segments) based on shopping motivations. Also, the study provided insights into the segments' socio-economic characteristics and shopping behaviour by using crosstabs and ANOVA tests. Six groups of shoppers were identified: disloyal, traditionalist, quality-oriented, value, enthusiastic, and apathetic shoppers.

In addition, econometric modelling considered the possible relationships between shopping behaviour and the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents and retail outlet attributes. The Probit models identified determinants of shoppers' frequency of visits to supermarkets, traditional markets and independent stores while the Tobit models dealt with percentages of spending accounted for by different retail formats for four selected product categories: fresh fruit and vegetables, fresh meat, fresh fish, packaged food and beverages. The majority of socio-economic characteristics except gender, age and marital status were poor predictors of the variation in the percentage spent on considered categories. The hypotheses were tested for significance and the results indicated that females were significantly less likely than males to visit traditional markets. Supermarket visitors were more concerned about social acceptability whereas, patrons of traditional markets placed greater emphasis on freshness. Heavy users of independent stores placed greater emphasis on in-store credit. The discussion of the results was presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 7 Discussion

7.1. Introduction

This empirical study attempts to shed light on consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya with a view to expanding the body of knowledge in this research area. The objective of this chapter is to compare the findings of this study with previous work reported in the literature review as well as some other studies from Western countries to produce a rich discussion. The chapter is organised into two main sections as follows: in the first section, the results of the qualitative research are comparatively analysed, considering in particular findings on retail formats and gender roles and social acceptability. The second section considers similarities and differences between this study's quantitative findings and those presented in the literature including shopping styles and typologies of shoppers, motives for retail outlets choice, evaluation of retail outlets and pattern of store choice based on particular categories of products.

7.2. Qualitative Research

According to the findings of the qualitative study that was carried out in Tripoli, some fundamental outcomes were revealed especially in terms of food shopping and gender roles that are presented in the following discussion.

7.2.1. Retail Formats

Interviewees identified three main types of food retail formats in Libya: supermarkets, independent stores and traditional markets. Traditional formats include open and closed markets, often utilised for buying fresh fruits, vegetables, and fish, and which previously opened only on a particular day of the week such as (Souk Al- Juma (Friday market), and Souk Al- Thalat (Tuesday market).

In general, Libyan consumers shop at multiple formats, dividing their grocery purchases between several different places: supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores. The greater penetration of supermarkets for buying packaged and long-life goods, traditional markets for fresh products, and independent stores for daily and emergency provisions, follows many other studies of food retailing in developing countries (Goldman, 1974; Samiee, 1993; Goldman *et al.*,1999; Ho, 2005; Maruyama and Trung, 2007) and in particular the Arab world and North Africa, for example; Kuwait (Al-Otaibi, 1988), Qatar (El-Droubi, 2004), Saudi Arabia (Tuncalp and

Yavas,1990; Zairi and Al-Rasheed, 2010; Sohail, 2008), Tunisia (Tessier *et al.*, 2010), and Morocco (Amine and Lazzaoui, 2011), all of which documented the tendency of consumers to split their food purchases between more than one retail outlet.

However, despite this combination of traditional markets, independent stores and supermarkets, the majority of Libyan consumers appeared to prefer shopping at supermarkets. These findings are in contrast to (Goldman, 1974) who argued that the adoption of supermarkets would be limited as “low income consumers in developing countries tend to place a great deal of emphasis on personal relationships with their retailers and shy from unfamiliar environments”. Goldman (1974) also argued that adoption of supermarkets would be limited where traditional markets and independent stores are regarded as social centres where friends and neighbours meet. Samiee (1993) made similar points relating to the role of personal relationships, arguing that “business in the Middle East [is] conducted on a very personal basis, and if they do not like you, they will never, never like your products” (Samiee, 1993.p.112). However the findings for Libya are consistent with (Zairi and Al-Rasheed, 2010) who stated that even though large numbers still shop at mixed type of grocery outlets, a majority of Saudis show a preference for shopping at supermarkets.

Interviewees cited the functional benefits of supermarkets (convenience, wider selection of products, clear pricing and availability of car parking) in motivating the switch to the ‘modern format’ rather than, as discussed by Amine and Lazzaoui (2011), conceptualizing it as a means for social differentiation. In contrast to Goldman *et al.*’s (1999) who concluded consumers in Hong Kong did not mind inferior shopping environments (e.g. dirt, smell, noise, crowding), Libyan shoppers were not indifferent to the quality of the shopping environment (e.g. overcrowding, noise and personal safety) and the latter played an important role in shaping format choice.

7.2.2. Gender Shopping and Social Acceptability

Powerful recurring words and terms emerged from the interview data that highlight the issue of the social acceptability of women shopping in traditional markets: “courage”, “over-crowding”, “uncomfortable”, “safe”/ “safety” and “shame”/ “shameful”. It appeared that supermarkets, which are not over-crowded and where staff and customers are respectful and polite, offer a safer, more enjoyable and socially-acceptable environment for female shoppers that is in-keeping with Arab socio-cultural norms.

In contrast to previous research (Ho, 2005; Uncles and Kwok, 2009; Minten *et al.,* 2010), the Libyan case highlighted the role of gender in shaping format choice to a greater extent that other demographic characteristics. In particular females were less frequent visitors to traditional markets compared to males. The Libyan case provided evidence of a complex picture, highlighting significant variations, from family to family and geographically, in the social acceptability of females shopping at traditional markets and other formats. In other words, the contrasting views highlight significant differences in the social acceptability of females shopping for food across cities and families. In general, however, it is socially acceptable for women to shop in a supermarket either alone or with other women.

The importance of gender roles has been underestimated in previous research on understanding shopping behaviour in Arab societies and developing countries in general (Hino 2010). Visiting supermarkets does not appear to be beneath richer Libyan women, in contrast to Samiee (1993, p.112) who claimed that "In some African markets, the self-service feature of supermarkets had to be significantly modified when store owners discovered that women supermarket shoppers, typically from the upper classes, saw it as beneath their position in society to push grocery carts or pick and place selected items in them". As Libyan society and social norms evolve, the contrast with El Droubi's (2004, p.205) conclusion for Qatar becomes starker, who wrote "contrary to the general food shopping situation in the developed countries where over three-quarters of the main food shopping is done by wives, usually alone, the men in Qatar do not entertain the idea of allowing their wives to go alone for shopping for food and grocery" (El-Droubi, 2004.p.205).

For females with full time jobs, food shopping was regarded as a household duty rather than a leisure activity. However, for females without work, food shopping was often regarded as a means to escape the domestic environment. For some employed females, food shopping still provided a release. In this respect the findings confirm those of other studies which indicated that "working wives tend to shop less frequently, and make greater use of husbands in shopping activities than non-working wives" (Douglas, 1976, p.16). This is because working wives typically have limited time available for shopping and other household chores. In addition, this conclusion is in keeping with El-Droubi (2004, p.216) who noted that "the continuous and steady increase in Qatari female participation in the formal workforce affects consumption of convenience food products and a move towards one-stop shopping".

While gender relations were a meaningful factor explaining retail format use in Libya, many studies for other developing countries primarily focus on economic factors, especially incomes, population density and private car ownership (Ho, 2005; Uncles and Kwok, 2009; Minten *et al.*, 2010; Gorton *et al.*, 2011). This suggests that the factors governing supermarket adoption are not homogenous across developing countries thereby making the case for scholars and retail practitioners to consider variations in gender relations and their impact on retail patronage.

7.3. Quantitative Research

Considering the quantitative results, the next subsections discuss the key themes to uncover both similarities and differences with previous findings, as follows:

7.3.1. Shopping Patterns

Regarding shopping frequency, Libyan shoppers tended to visit supermarkets regularly (at least once a month). The popularity of monthly shopping at supermarkets may reflect two factors: first, the relationship between shopping patterns and the system of salaries in Libya which were usually paid monthly. Second, in-store informal credit is unavailable in supermarkets, which means that households were most likely to visit only after their salary was received. This conclusion is in contrast to (Alhemoud, 2008) who pointed out that consumers in Kuwait tented to visit supermarkets at least once a week for shopping purposes.

However, visits to traditional markets were typically weekly. This may reflect how traditional markets used to operate on a particular day of the week, although most now open every day, especially those selling fruits and vegetables. This is consistent with the qualitative findings that revealed that weekly visits to traditional markets were more common. Generally, these results are out of line with El-Droubi (2004) who revealed that Qatari consumers tended to carry out shopping whenever the need arises and depending on their mood, which indicated that there is no sense of time preciousness supporting the notion that shopping is a means of enjoyment. This behaviour was justified as people in Qatar have a little to do after work ends because of a higher probability of having housemaids and chefs.

In terms of shopping decisions, similar to what is described by (El-Droubi, 2004) for Qatar, joint husband and wife trips become common for the main shopping trip in Libya, where the results showed that a little more than half of the respondents make their decision about what to buy in conjunction with others. These results also are consistent with the findings of the qualitative research. However, only females tend to make shopping decisions alone. This may be due to their responsibility for cooking and family care. The latter conclusion is confirmed by (Al-Otaibi, 1988) who stated that females are responsible for food shopping in more cases which was considered surprising in a male dominated society. However a number of factors, contributed to this result. Firstly, “the co-operative societies are found within the neighbourhood shopping centres”. Secondly, “an increasing proportion of females are gaining employment and learning to drive cars” Al-Otaibi (1988, p. 289).

7.3.2. Shopping Styles and Typologies

The shopping motivations scales seek to capture the reasons people go shopping, and have a broad variety of applications to marketing research. This research has investigated shopping motivations by addressing the question “what are the shopping motivations, shopping values and decision making styles that drive consumers’ patterns of food shopping?” as one of the research objectives.

The results revealed that hedonic shopping, confused by choice, social shopping, value seeking, brand loyalty, brand conscious, high quality seeking, gratification seeking, gender roles and shopping task, role playing, impulsiveness and social acceptance were important factors that drive Libyan consumers to shop as reported in Chapter 5; section 5.4.3. These findings differ from those of previous research. Jamal *et al.’s* (2006) study was used as a template for questionnaire design and analysis. However, the confirmatory factor analysis revealed a poor fit between Jamal *et al.’s* (2006) model and the Libyan case, even though there were some shared motivations such as gratification seeking, high quality seeking, confused by choice, social shopping, value seeking, brand loyalty, brand conscious, hedonic shopping, and role playing.

The main dissimilarity compared to Jamal *et al*.’*s* (2006) findings was that the impulsiveness factor was emphasised strongly by Libyan shoppers, which was not the case in Qatar. The emphasis on impulsiveness is not surprising given the fact that it is normally considered to be of strategic importance to retailers and is thought to be linked with hedonic consumption and sensory stimulation (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Jamal *et al*., 2006). Furthermore, the findings do not support the importance of three factors commonly attributed to shopping motivations including: adventure shopping, novelty seeking, and utilitarian shopping. This might be due to the timing of the study and the direct effect of the uprising that led participants to be more preoccupied n with prices and food availability in order to meet basic needs rather than to seek to adventure and novelty. There is some evidence for this in answers to the final open ended question that was added to the questionnaire. However, even during times of peace, participants may not be more adventure and novelty seeking, in that they regard food shopping as an on-going and routine activity which does not provide any sense of adventure and novelty seeking (Smith and Carsky, 1996). Also, it might be that any notions of adventure shopping and novelty seeking are subsumed within the hedonic aspect of the shopping experience. The lack of emphasis on utilitarian shopping may reflect the specific nature of shoppers in Libya and the fact that for many Libyans, as revealed in the qualitative research, food shopping is a leisure activity not just a household duty and in line with the emphasis on hedonic shopping motives which are confirmed in the present study.

The results further indicated that food consumers in Libya can be classified into six consumer segments according to their decision-making styles: disloyal shoppers, traditionalist shoppers, quality-oriented shoppers, value shoppers, enthusiastic shoppers, and apathetic shoppers. The identification of six shopper segments is in the line with some previous studies in the literature in both Western and non-Western contexts that share a common goal of categorizing consumers into a limited number of groups (Westbrook and Black, 1985; Geuens *et al*., 2001; Jamal *et al*., 2006). However, the detection of six Libyan shopper segments contrasts with many previous studies (e.g. Stone, 1954 (4 clusters); Lesser and Hughes, 1986 (7 clusters) ; Boedeker, 1995 (2 clusters); Arnold and Reynolds, 2003 (5 clusters); Bourlakis *et al*. 2006 (4 clusters); El-Adly, 2007 (3 clusters); Ganesh *et al.*, 2007 (4 clusters) ; Anic *et al*., 2012 (5 clusters)). Economic and apathetic shoppers were the most common clusters labels among all these studies.

On other hand, with respect the labelling of the segments, the results also revealed the typology of shoppers for Libya was in harmony with other cases, for example; disloyal shoppers were identified by Jamal *et al*. (2006), traditionalist shoppers by Lesser and Hughes (1986), Boedeker (1995), Arnold and Reynolds (2003) and Anic *et al*. (2012), quality-oriented shoppers by (Darden and Ashton, 1974), enthusiastic shoppers by Arnold and Reynolds (2003) and Bourlakis *et al.* (2006), and apathetic shoppers by Stone (1954), Darden and Ashton (1974), Westbrook and Black (1985), Jamal *et al*. (2006) and Ganesh *et al.* (2007). Only one cluster (value shoppers) fails to match any others, but there were similarities to some groups such as economic shoppers (Stone, 1954; Westbrook and Black, 1985; Jamal *et al*., 2006; Ahmed *et al.*, 2007) and the budget conscious group (Jamal *et al*., 2006) in terms of properties.

The largest segment, labelled enthusiastic shoppers, was interested in almost all aspects of the shopping process. For this segment the primary shopping motivations are hedonism, brand loyalty, role playing, and social shopping. These shoppers appeared to see shopping as a leisure activity, fulfilling an important role in family and social life. However, at the same time, they also preferred to buy the same brands. The segment was fairly similar to (Jamal *et al.*, 2006) notion of socializing shoppers and the enthusiasts cluster of Arnold and Reynolds (2003), which scored highly on all hedonic motivations. The segment was predominantly female and had a large number of housewives with university education.

The second largest segment, disloyal shoppers, did not appear to patronize the same brands. They were confused by choice and experienced information overload. At the same time, this segment was driven by value seeking, brand consciousness, high quality seeking, and tended to enjoy the hedonic aspects as well. In other words, while they were seeking value, they were also 'price equals quality' conscious consumers who were watching out to buy well-known, normally expensive brands (Jamal *et al.*, 2006). The segment matches the disloyal shoppers reported by (Jamal *et al.*, 2006), who scored lowly on brand loyalty and highly on value seeking motivation. However, the main deference was on confusion where there was a high score in the Libyan case and the opposite in Qatar.

The third largest segment, traditionalist shoppers, placed great emphasis on gender roles, a moderate emphasis on social shopping, and low emphasis on social acceptance. In other words, they considered shopping to be the duty of men with a woman's place being in the home and looking after children. They did not allow women to shop alone or with other women. However, they tended to be socially oriented, impulsive, and high quality seeking. Also, they attached little value to brand loyalty and role playing. The segment was composed of a significant majority of young males, and had a large number of government officers. Interestingly, this segment was absent from prior studies. This reflects the modification of the scale to account for the importance of gender roles highlighted by the qualitative research, and the cultural environment of Libya.

Thus although, one of Arnold and Reynolds' (2003) segments had the same label, they are quite different. This difference may due to the use of different scales from Arnold and Reynolds' (2003) study which focused on shopping motivations that are primarily hedonic and non-product in nature. This included six categories (adventure shopping, social shopping, gratification shopping, idea shopping, role shopping, and value shopping) whereas this study incorporated, alongside hedonic motivations, utilitarian, confusion, impulsiveness, high quality consciousness, brand consciousness, novelty seeking, and some new scales that was generated from the qualitative research including social acceptance and gender roles.

The fourth largest segment, quality-oriented shoppers, was characterised by a high score on quality seeking, impulsiveness, and role playing. However, this cluster scored low on hedonic shopping, gratification seeking, brand loyalty, and brand consciousness. In other words, they placed great importance on high quality but regarded shopping as a chore and not a pleasant social activity. This cluster appeared to be a fairly similar to Jamal *et al.*'s (2006) independent perfectionist shoppers who tended to score high on the importance of quality and brand loyalty. The segment was gender balanced but biased to middle aged respondents.

The fifth largest segment, value shoppers, placed considerable emphasis on value shopping and brand loyalty and a moderate emphasis on gratification seeking, high quality seeking and social shopping. This group scored low in hedonic shopping, impulsiveness, confused by choice and gender roles. In other words, they paid great attention to value, patronize the same brands and are not particularly brand conscious. The budget conscious group that was presented by (Jamal *et al.*, 2006) as well as "economic shoppers" that was reported by Stone (1954) and Westbrook and Black (1985) are similar to this segment in terms of the emphasis on value shopping.

The final cluster, apathetic shoppers, was almost the mirror image of the first segment (enthusiastic shoppers). This group cared little about almost all aspects of shopping, except that there was some moderate value attached to impulsiveness and the gratification aspect of shopping. Compared to Jamal *et al.*'s (2006) study, this segment appeared to be fairly different. Despite this, in both cases shoppers were apparently not driven by many of the motivations usually linked to the process of shopping, the main driver for Libyan shoppers were impulsiveness and gratification motivations whereas in Qatar, apathetic shoppers were hedonic and confused. The segment appeared to be similar to the apathetic shoppers of (Westbrook and Black, 1985) who tended to be uninterested in all aspects of the shopping process. Since this cluster, in comparison with the other clusters, was mainly composed of those aged under 25 years, it may reflect that young adults do not take shopping for food as seriously as older adults.

7.3.3. Motives for Retail Outlet Choice

Store choice is influenced by a number of factors, which affect the decision-making process. In the context of understanding the reasons why consumers choose to shop at a particular retail format, the present study assessed the relative importance of store attributes and examined the reasons behind store format patronage and choice.

According to the findings of this study**,** the most important factor that influenced Libyan shoppers' store choice was food safety, followed by quality of products, quality of service, speed of service, and variety of products. The importance of food safety was in the line with other studies that highlight the increased salience of this attribute in non-Western markets (e.g. Gorton *et al*., 2011). Comparing mean scores, Libyan shoppers rated the food safety factor a little higher than Thai shoppers (scores of 4.61 and 4.34 respectively) . The explicit importance that was given to food safety may be due to the direct relationship with health issues. Also, this may reflect the indirect impact of war conditions that prevailed during the study period where there was a major concern about food safety as a result of the absence of health control and a customs service at the borders, which were opened without any control.

The importance of quality of products with a mean score of 4.15 (on a 5 point scale) and service factors (4.09) are consistent with the findings of Gorton *et al.* (2011) who found that quality of products is was one of the most important factors affecting store choice in Thailand (mean of 4.45). Also, the results provided clear evidence for the importance of variety of products (3.84), car parking (3.76), price of products (3.64), atmosphere (3.63), and location (3.46). This is in contrast to the findings of Sohail (2008), who found that price (1.68), quality and variety of products (1.47), and store location and shop atmosphere (2.14) were not important determinants of store selection for Saudi shoppers. Surprisingly, the findings contradicted those of Gorton *et al*. (2011) in one regard, in that they argued that cleanliness of the place is more important in a non-Western context (mean of 4.25), whereas the present study revealed that cleanliness of place appeared to be unimportant for Libyan consumers regardless of store type with a mean score of 2.52. This might be due to the nature of Libyan society, which considers hygiene as a foregone conclusion because of the strong linkage to Islamic religion and culture of the community.

7.3.4. Evaluation of Supermarkets, Traditional Markets, and Independent Stores

Based on the findings in this study, an analysis of retail attributes and the weighting given to them by consumers revealed that supermarkets, overall, outperform traditional markets and independent stores on all salient attributes, except freshness of products and in-store credit (traditional markets performed the best on freshness of products and independent stores for in-store credit). These results are in marked contrast to Goldman *et al*. (1999) who argued that supermarkets only outperform traditional markets on attributes that are relatively unimportant and that traditional retailers possess cost advantages and are more suited to the values of consumers in developing countries which they label "indifference to variety, quality, service, shopping environment, emphasis on price" (Goldman *et al*., 1999, p.128).

However, the findings are consistent with more recent studies of retail format choice in emerging economies (Hino, 2010; Gorton *et al*., 2011). As Hino (2010, p.69) stated, "the impact of format outputs is relatively high in terms of both adoption and usage in both studies. This finding is supported by the perception of the supermarket viewed as providing superior outputs compared to traditional outlets". Gorton *et al*. (2011) pointed out that for data on Thailand, on all items, supermarkets performed better than wet markets.

Regarding the evaluation of attractiveness ratings, the results revealed that supermarkets had an advantage in terms of 13 out 15 attributes: food safety, quality of products, quality of service, speed of service, variety of products, price of products, atmosphere, special offers, location, assortment, cleanliness, personal safety, and social acceptance. This finding supports a number of previous studies in the marketing literature (Al-Otaibi, 1988; Tuncalp and Yavas, 1990; El-Adly, 2007; Alhemoud, 2008; Gorton *et al*., 2011).

Of the 13 attractiveness factors, two were consistent with the findings of Al-Otaibi (1988) who stated that the primary motivation for both foodstuff and non-foodstuff purchases was found to be a reasonable price. The second most important motivation in foodstuff shopping was proximity. Also, the findings echo those of (Tuncalp and Yavas, 1990) who asserted that greater variety, lower prices, cleanliness, and convenient location were the most important factors that influenced the patronage behaviour for supermarkets in Saudi Arabia. In addition, these outcomes were to some extent in line with (El-Adly, 2007). The latter identified six mall attractiveness factors, namely comfort including cleanness of place and security in the mall, entertainment, diversity, mall essence such as quality of products and level of price, convenience, and luxury were important determinants of patronage behaviour. Moreover, they support the conclusion of (Alhemoud, 2008), who identified the range, quality and variety of products, and the fairness of prices as the most important determinants of decisions as to where to shop in Kuwait.

Regarding the evaluation of traditional markets, freshness of products was perceived by the majority of respondents to be its only advantage. Interestingly, the results indicated that the availability of in-store credit was the main factor underpinning the patronage of independent stores. The superiority of independent stores in terms of in-store credit factor is highlighted by some previous studies (El-Droubi, 2004, Tessier *et al*., 2010). El-Droubi (2004, p.198) stated that "grocery shops were once preferred as they offered credit to shoppers who can pay all debts later at the beginning of the next month without incurring any interest charges". In addition, Tessier *et al*. (2010, p.1416) noted that "overall the reason that most contrasted the choice of grocer *v*. other types of retail was availability of credit".

7.3.5. Pattern of Store Choice Based on Particular Categories of Products

This study analysed Libyan consumer behaviour across different retail formats and how household demographics (gender, marital status, number of family members, age, income, level of education, nationality and migration) affected shopping behaviour. Ordered Probit and Tobit models with three categories of retail outlet formats (supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores) were estimated.

Considering socio-economic characteristics, the results of the ordered Probit models indicated that only gender was important in explaining variations in the frequency of visits to supermarkets, independent stores and traditional markets. Females were more frequent visitors to supermarkets. In this regard, the same finding is quoted by El-Droubi (2004. p.223) who stated that "many women prefer to shop in large stores rather than in public markets or in small shops for cultural reasons, particularly in attempts to reduce the possibility of mixing with men". Frequency of visits to traditional markets was negatively related to gender thereby indicating that males were significantly more frequent visitors to traditional markets. However, this finding may not hold for other cultural environments, for instance (Gorton *et al*., 2011) found that males were significantly less frequent visitors to wet markets compared to females in Thailand.

The Tobit models estimated the percentage of consumers' total spending accounted for by different retail outlets in four selected product categories: fresh fruit and vegetables, fresh meat, fresh fish, packaged food and beverages. Considering retail attributes, those with a higher proportion of spending on fresh products (fresh fruits and vegetables, fresh meat, and fresh fish) in supermarkets rated social acceptability and atmosphere as more important considerations whereas the freshness of produce attribute was rated as less important. In contrast, those spending proportionally more in traditional markets on fresh products (fresh fruits and vegetables, and fresh fish) rated freshness of produce and variety of products as more important attributes, while cleanliness of place, social acceptability, and personal safety were significantly less important. These results again reflected the superior performance of traditional markets for freshness of produce**.** A preference for shopping for fresh food items in traditional markets may reflect the tendency of Arab families to prepare and eat fresh meals at home on a daily basis, in line with traditional directives (Hino, 2010). This is consistent with the long held claim that consumers in developing countries are more likely to buy their fresh food items at traditional outlets rather than supermarkets (Goldman *et al.* 1999; Priporas,2002). The latter reported that "the majority of the respondents purchase fruits and vegetables from laikes (open markets) and meat, bread, and fish from specialised stores.

Similarly, those for whom independent stores accounted for a high proportion of their expenditure on fresh meat rated freshness of produce as a more important attribute and rated as less important atmosphere and social acceptability. Those relying most on independent stores for meat were significantly more likely to be males. An advantage of independent stores is that they offer fresh meat and a greater ability to select specific cuts of meat according to consumer choice (El-Droubi, 2004).

Regarding packaged food and drinks, those with a higher proportion of spending in supermarkets recorded special offers, atmosphere, and car parking facilities as more important factors while the provision of in-store credit was rated as less important. For those with a higher proportion of spending in independent stores, in-store credit was rated as more important while special offers and atmosphere were deemed less important. The availability of credit in independent stores may reflect mutual trust between the seller and the buyer as a result of relationships and friendships built up over many years.

Regarding socio-economic characteristics, only gender was significant in all the Tobit models, where females tended to spend more in supermarkets compared to males. This is consistent with the qualitative findings that many females eschew traditional outlets and prefer to shop at supermarkets.

In addition, age was significant for the percentage of spending on fresh fruits and vegetables and packaged food in supermarkets where young people spent relatively more on fresh fruits and vegetables whereas older respondents spent relatively more on packaged food.

However, across the product categories, the rest of the socio-economic characteristics including size of family, income, level of education, nationality, lived abroad, migration, and occupation were insignificant for explaining variations in expenditure accounted for by the three formats. This conclusion again confirmed the results of the qualitative research that highlighted gender was a significant factor in explaining retail format choice in Libya, rather than economic factors that were revealed by other studies in developing countries (Uncles and Kwok, 2009; Hino, 2010; Minten *et al.,* 2010; Gorton *et al*., 2011). In an Arab context, Hino, (2010**)** reported that economic variables were found to be the most influential factors affecting format adoption in Jordan, but this study did not specifically consider gender.

The non-confirmation of the impact of economic variables in the Libyan case may reflect that income levels in Libya are high enough to support supermarket adoption. Libya had a high gross domestic product equivalent to approximately $10,000 per person in the mid-2000s (United Nations Development Programme, 2009). In addition, because the findings may reflect that Libyan shoppers were more preoccupied with product attributes such as food safety and quality which were identified as the most important factors that influence Libyan consumer store choice.

7.4. Conclusion

In Libya, even though, food shopping has traditionally been a task for male household members, with traditional markets regarded as inappropriate spaces for females alone or with other women, shopping for food is increasingly now one of the household tasks undertaken by females. The safer, cleaner, and less crowded environment offered by large supermarkets has contributed to women feeling more comfortable shopping for food and henceforth being able to shop as independent consumers. For females in full-time employment, food shopping was largely another household chore. For those working part-time or not employed, food shopping may take on greater significance as a leisure activity and opportunity to escape the domestic environment. The ability to escape the latter, however, depends on family and local rules governing social acceptability. This is leading to radical changes in shopping patterns.

Six segments of shoppers were identified (disloyal shoppers, traditionalist shoppers, quality-oriented shoppers, value shoppers, enthusiastic shoppers, and apathetic shoppers). Some of the clusters resemble those identified in previous studies although there are also some clear contrasts. For instance, traditionalist shoppers in Libya have very different motivations than those labelled 'traditionalist' in Western studies of shopping behaviour. Furthermore, the value shoppers' cluster was very similar to the 'economic shopper' segment that was reported in much earlier research. Interestingly, an apathetic shoppers segment was identified, in common with various previous studies.

Females spent proportionally more in supermarkets and less in traditional markets. The important factor that predominantly influenced Libyan shoppers' patronage behaviour regardless of store type was food safety, following by quality of products, quality of service, speed of service, and variety of products. The analysis of retail attributes and weighting given to the three formats by consumers revealed that supermarket, overall, outperformed traditional markets and independent stores on the most salient attributes. Social acceptability was identified as a major factor governing the adoption of supermarkets by female shoppers.

The traditional market had superiority in terms of freshness of products. The independent stores on the other hand enhanced their attractiveness to consumers by offering in-store credit. However, even though a majority of Libyans prefer shopping at supermarkets, large numbers still shop at other types of grocery outlets. Overall, the Libyan case has provided interesting evidence that enhances the existing literature. Subsequent to discussing the research findings, it was imperative to summarise the findings in terms of the research objectives set, detail implications for marketing theory and practices, followed by research limitations, recommendations, and suggestions for future research, which was undertaken in the final chapter.

Chapter 8 Conclusion, Implications and Limitations

8.1. Introduction

The study was conducted to investigate consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya, an emerging market. Understanding consumers and their shopping behaviour is important for marketers to develop their marketing strategy. In a bid to understand the issue, the study commenced with a detailed review of the existing literature. Moreover, a classification Libyan shopper into different segments was undertaken and similarities and differences across the segments were examined. Empirical evidence was presented to support the findings. The results of this research have broad implications for both researchers and marketers.

This chapter is sub-divided into five main sections. The first section presents conclusions organised according to the research objectives. Additionally, the implications of research for the existing literature, the limitations of the results, and the recommendations for retailers are presented in turn. Recommendations for future research are considered in the final section of the chapter.

8.2. Summary of the Study

Libya is an emerging market that is currently attracting considerable international interest and investment. A number of global retailers have or are planning to enter this market or increase their investments. In addition, Libya has been facing important economic and social changes since the end of the 1990s, the influence of which is reflected at all levels, including patterns of food shopping behaviour. While the door for foreign investment remains open, it would be a mistake not to recognise that the political and security outlook for the country remains uncertain and that a number of factors will impact on the Libyan business environment, in the aftermath of the revolution that took place in Libya in February 2011.

Even though, some of the large European retail chains (e.g. Marks & Spencer) have a presence in Libya, especially in the capital city of Tripoli, and a large number of modern shopping stores have emerged in recent years competing with traditional markets, there is a dearth of research on this topic and it is yet to receive the attention it deserves. Consequently, this study was conducted to examine consumer food shopping behaviour, filling this gap in the literature by investigating the specific situation in Libya. This study makes an important contribution to the existing literature by extending our knowledge of food shopping behaviour to an Arab and North African background.

The main aim of this study was to explore consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya. To this end, first of all a review of the literature was conducted to better understand and develop the research's empirical framework. The construction of shopper typologies is a well-established stream of research in retailing with many studies investigating retail patronage behaviour using a variety of bases, such as retail attribute importance, shopping motivations, attitudes toward shopping, shopping frequency, and store loyalty. The literature review paid particular attention to studies conducted in Arabic-speaking societies as well as key studies related to the topic in the hand.

Overall, "modern" retail formats such as supermarkets and hypermarkets have multiplied rapidly worldwide. As food retail markets in developed countries become saturated, attention has turned to emerging economies as a possible source of growth. There are two theories in the literature that are relevant. One is that consumers will switch to modern formats in developing countries while the other argues that traditional formats such as wet markets will retain an advantage. Both have evidence supporting their view. Attracting the consumer is the final goal for both of them. Urbanisation, an increase in income, and foreign direct investment are the main driving forces for the continued spread of supermarkets whereas the ability to respond more effectively to consumer needs particularly in fresh food is the main reason behind the survival of wet markets.

Based on the review of the literature and the qualitative research results, specific objectives were identified. These objectives were as follows:

1. To explore the key determinants of consumer's patronage of the three main retail formats in Libya, namely traditional markets, modern supermarkets, and independent stores.

2. To identify the factors that influence consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya on the basis of food shopping motives, values and decision-making styles.

3. To classify the consumers to segments, identifying the membership of each group on the basis of food shopping motives, values and decision-making styles and, profiling the characteristics (demographic, behaviour) of each cluster.

4. To identify whether there are differences between respondents in terms of patronage of supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores in terms of demographic characteristics and the identified image dimensions.

5. To identify the determinants of variations in expenditure across particular product categories (fresh fruit and vegetables, fresh meat, fresh fish, packaged food, and beverages).

To achieve the objectives of this project, a number of research questions were answered. The key questions were as follows:

1. What are the main factors that influence retail outlet choice in Libya?

2. What are the shopping motivations, values and decision making styles that drive consumers' patterns of food shopping?

3. What are the consumer segments that could be developed on the basis of food shopping motives, values and decision-making styles?

4. Do consumers differ in terms of patronage of supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores across their demographic characteristics and the identified image dimensions?

5. How do consumers differ in their expenditure across selected product categories?

In the light of the research objectives set, the research design was formulated. Survey work incorporated some of the psychological scales used in Jamal *et al*.'s (2006) study whereas scales for store attributes were derived largely from (Gorton *et al*., 2011). However, some additional items were included, based on the qualitative findings relating to gender roles and social acceptability.

This empirical study has attempted to shed light on consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya with a view to expanding the body of knowledge in this research area by using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Given limited previous research, data sources, and information on consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya, qualitative in-depth interviews were conducted initially. Data collection proceeded in two rounds. In the first phase, interviews were conducted face to face in Tripoli in summer 2010. Following analysis of the first wave of interviews a set of theoretical gaps were identified, principally relating to social acceptability and the role of food shopping as a leisure activity. These issues informed the second stage of interviewing.

The qualitative research revealed that interviewees overall welcome the introduction of supermarkets to Libya. Some households still frequently use other outlets, mostly their neighbourhood grocer in emergency circumstances, and traditional markets to buy fresh produce. Interview evidence from Libya indicated that for some females, supermarkets offer a more socially acceptable and safer shopping environment compared to traditional food markets. In this regard, traditional culture rather than constraining the spread of supermarkets may facilitate the process. However, the social acceptability of women shopping in traditional food markets varies between cities and families. In some families, the male head of the household remains the exclusive food shopper even if females are responsible for food preparation in the home. More commonly, shopping for food was also one of the household tasks undertaken by females.

Patterns of food shopping in Libya, as in the rest of the Arab world, cannot therefore be understood without recourse to a discussion of gender. For females in full-time employment, food shopping is largely regarded as another household chore. For those working part-time or not employed, food shopping may take on greater significance as a leisure activity and opportunity to escape the domestic environment. The ability to escape the latter, however, depends on family and local rules governing social acceptability.

Considering shopping patterns, all but one interviewee had a regular system for shopping and most make shopping decisions jointly with others. A number of factors affect the choice of where to shop (variety, quality, and price of products; cleanliness; service quality; special offers; convenience of location). These factors are common to other countries and the only factor identified in the international literature, which is currently irrelevant for Libya, is facilities to pay by card.

With respect to typologies of shoppers, three clear categories were identified: budget conscious, independent perfectionist, and socializing shoppers. The shopper types identified in the qualitative research are broadly consistent with those identified in the quantitative research. The budget conscious segment is consistent with value shoppers. The independent perfectionist shopper segment is consistent with quality-oriented shoppers. Socializing shoppers are consistent with enthusiastic shoppers. In addition, the findings revealed that, even though, the interviewees reported that supermarkets offered more advantages than traditional markets, traditional markets retained an advantage in fresh vegetables and fruits.

To further meet the objectives of the research, a structured questionnaire was designed for use in fieldwork. The initial development of the questionnaire was based on the qualitative research findings plus previous research. In order to clarify the questions and the appropriateness of the proposed scales both pretesting and a pilot study were carried out. After some minor modifications in the light of the pilot study were made, the questionnaire was distributed relying on self-administered questionnaires using a drop-off/ pick-up method. Data collection was completed in summer 2011. Data were analysed to answer the research questions. To this end several software packages were utilised (NVivo8&10, SPSS 19, Stata 11, and Amos 16).

Regarding quantitative research, the results of the data analysis were presented to understand Libyan food shoppers' behavioural patterns by using relevant statistical methods. Descriptive statistics were used to present the socio-economic characteristics of the sample and detail respondents' food shopping behaviour. The study indicated that the majority of households used supermarkets, traditional markets as well as independent stores. The frequency of use varies by format. Monthly shopping trips were most common for supermarkets, weekly for traditional markets and daily for independent stores. With respect to time spent on a shopping trip, in general, respondents tend to spend more time in supermarkets compared to the other retail outlets that were considered in the study. In terms of shopping decision, a little more than half of the respondents make decisions about what to buy in conjunction with others. Moreover, the results showed that there were some significant differences between females and males regarding shopping behaviour. For instance, with respect to shopping alone or with others, there was a significant difference between females and males for both traditional markets and supermarkets.

8.3. Conclusions related to the Research Questions

This section presents conclusions relating to each of the research objectives:

To explore the key determinants of consumers' patronage of the three main retail formats in Libya (traditional markets, modern supermarkets, and independent stores) and to answer the first research question "What are the main factors that influence store choice in Libya?", the importance of attributes affecting the choice of retail format and how well supermarkets, traditional markets and independent stores performed on these measures was assessed. The findings revealed that the Libyan shopper attached the greatest importance to food safety, quality of products, quality of service, speed of service, and variety of products. Importance also was given to car parking, price of products, atmosphere, and special offers. Other features such as freshness of products, location, and in-store credit were classified as of reasonable importance. The lowest ratings of importance were allocated to cleanliness of the place, and personal safety. The ratings for cleanliness might be due to the nature of Libyan society, which considers hygiene as a foregone conclusion because of the strong linkage to Islamic religion and culture of the community. The ratings for personal safety may reflect that almost all participants tend to undertake food shopping with others, engendering feelings of being comfortable and safe. Also, the findings indicated that supermarkets performed the best on all items, except freshness of products and in-store credit (traditional markets performed the best on freshness of products and independent stores for in-store credit)**.** Only for one attribute (car parking) were differences in the mean scores between supermarkets, traditional markets and independent stores not statistically significant.

To identify the factors that influence consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya and answer the second research question, "what are the shopping motivations, shopping value and decision making styles that drive consumers to shop for food?", first of all, the analysis of data continued with the use of confirmatory (CFA) analysis. The CFA results indicated that Jamal *et al.*'s (2006) model was inappropriate for the Libyan case. As a result, Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was applied identifying 12 factors: hedonism, confused by choice, social shopping, value shopping, brand loyalty, brand conscious, high quality seeking, gratification seeking, gender roles and shopping task, role playing, impulsiveness and social acceptance. The factors generated provided the basis for cluster analysis, in order to investigate the existence of distinctive groups of shoppers (retail segments) based on shopping motivations.

Classifying and profiling Libyan shoppers in terms of food shopping behaviour, and demographic characteristics led to an answer to the third research question, "What are the consumer segments that could be developed on the basis of food shopping motives, values and decision-making styles?". For this task cluster analysis was used. Six groups of shoppers were identified: disloyal, traditionalist, quality-oriented, value, enthusiastic, and apathetic shoppers. Also, the study provided insights into the segments' socio-economic characteristics and shopping behaviour by using crosstabs and ANOVA tests. Some of the clusters were similar to groups identified in previous studies but other cases significant contrasts were apparent. For instance, traditionalist shoppers in Libya have very different motivations than those labelled "traditionalist" in Western studies of shopping behaviour. Furthermore, the "value shoppers" cluster was very similar to the "economic shopper" segment that was reported in previous research in terms of the emphasis on value. In Libya, as in many other countries, a group of apathetic shoppers were discerned.

To identify whether there are differences between respondents in terms of patronage of supermarkets, traditional markets, and independent stores in terms of demographic characteristics and the identified image dimensions, econometric analysis was used. The econometric models were estimated to interpret the possible relationships between retail outlet attributes, the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents and shopping behaviour. Probit models identified determinants of shoppers' frequency of visits to supermarkets, traditional markets and independent stores. The majority of socio-economic characteristics except gender, age and marital status were poor predictors of variations in the percentage spent on considered product categories by different retail formats. The hypotheses were tested for significance and the results indicated that females were significantly less likely than males to visit traditional markets. Supermarket visitors were more concerned about social acceptability whereas, patrons of traditional markets placed greater emphasis on freshness. Heavy users of independent stores placed greater emphasis on in-store credit. The greatest dissimilarities between ratings for the three formats were apparent for social acceptance, personal safety, cleanliness of place, food safety and, in-store credit. Significant differences in convenience of location, atmosphere, quality of service, variety of products, and quality of products were also apparent.

To identify the determinants of variations in expenditure across particular product categories (fresh fruit and vegetables, fresh meat, fresh fish, packaged food, and beverages) econometric analysis was used again. Specifically, this involved the application of Tobit models where the dependent variable was the percentage of household spending for a particular product category (fresh fruit and vegetables, fresh meat, fresh fish, packaged food and beverages) accounted by supermarkets, independent stores and traditional markets. The findings revealed that females spent proportionally more in supermarkets and less in traditional markets.

The most important factors that influenced Libyan shoppers' patronage behaviour regardless of store type was food safety, following by quality of products, quality of service, speed of service, and variety of products. The analysis of retail attributes and the weightings given to the three formats by consumers revealed that supermarket, overall, outperformed traditional markets and independent stores on most salient attributes. Social acceptability was identified as a major factor governing the adoption of supermarkets by female shoppers. Traditional markets retained superiority in terms of freshness of products. The independent stores on the other hand improved their attractiveness to consumers by offering in-store credit. However, even though a majority of the sample indicated a preference for shopping at supermarkets, large numbers still shop at other types of grocery outlets.

8.4. Contributions of the Study

The research makes several important contributions to the literature. First, the current study is one of the first empirical studies undertaken on consumers in an Eastern culture (i.e. Libya) while most other studies reported in the literature have been conducted in a Western context. According to the researcher's knowledge, there has been no previous empirical study that explored consumer food shopping behaviour in the context of Libyan culture. In other words, this study contributes to the current literature as one of the first empirical attempts to investigate the dynamics of shopping behaviour patterns of consumers in a radically different cultural background (Libya).

The second chief contribution of the study is the definition of a typology of shoppers on the basis of shopping motivations, shopping value, and decision-making styles. This is significant because most of the existing literature has sought to develop a typology of shoppers based either on shopping motives, shopping values or on decision-making styles. The research combined the three perspectives together to seek a better understanding of the reasons consumers go shopping.

Moreover, a new dimension was added by this thesis to theories of retail format adoption as it captured the impact of gender roles, in changing the consumer behaviour, and explaining patterns of food shopping and their impact on the grocery market. The results of this study are valuable because of the linkages between gender and important aspects of shopping behaviour and patronage of particular retail outlets. Gender often plays a pivotal role in influencing consumer food shopping activities in Libya.

Finally, the study contributes from the development of an updated set of attribute and motivation measures incorporating gender roles and shopping tasks and social acceptance scales. Previous work utilises a wide range of measures that were developed over 20 years ago (Ganesh *et al.*, 2007). The findings of the qualitative research highlighted the themes of social acceptability and gender roles, given their salience in the Libyan case and their lack of prominence in the literature relating to the adoption of supermarkets in developing economies. The development of a new scale in the present project has proved to be a reliable (a high alpha coefficient of 0.70 was obtained for the scale). The reliability tests performed on the two components of the scale, gender roles and shopping tasks and social acceptance, also showed a high level of internal consistency with alpha coefficients of 0.82 and 0.69 respectively.

In conclusion, the findings of the study develop understanding of food shopping behaviour in an emerging economy, taking the Libyan case as an example. Several contributions to the current body of knowledge about consumer food shopping behaviour in a non-Western context were highlighted, linked to the research results. The findings can also be used to focus recommendations for food retailers on improving their role and image, as identified by consumers, in an attempt to increase satisfaction amongst consumers.

8.5. Implications for Practitioners

Based on the results of the study a number of implications can be suggested of relevance for practitioners in the food retail sector. The results are useful for companies that are already operating in or are debating whether to enter the Libyan market.

1. The results revealed that Libyans shop not only for functional reasons, but also want it to be a social and pleasant activity. Retailers, especially supermarkets, should pay attention to providing incidental benefits to shoppers which enhance the social experience, such as restaurants with separate suites for families only, a place for prayer and so on, to encourage consumers to spend time shopping in an enjoyable manner.

2. In Libya the introduction of supermarkets has been welcomed by consumers and any switch to them, and away from traditional markets and independent stores, has been consumer led. In general, supermarkets are regarded as “a good thing”. Critical to their success in Libya will be the extent to which they offer a more female friendly and safer shopping environment than traditional outlets. Given the role gender relations play in retail patronage, supermarkets must be female friendly. In an Arab context, this could be achieved by incorporating, for instance, good lighting, wide aisles, and an open layout, and providing a high level of security, for example by increasing the presence and visibility of security officials, better lighting and installing emergency phones.

3. Regarding the importance of attributes affecting the choice of retail formats and how well supermarkets, traditional markets and independent stores performed on some measures, the results revealed that Libyan shoppers placed the greatest emphasis on food safety, quality of products, quality of service, speed of service, and variety of products in descending order. Marketers must take food safety seriously by paying very strict attention to health risk issues. Despite the fact that this apprehension of health risks may have subsided after the war, it is likely to remain salient.

4. Supermarket managers should concentrate their commercial operations on products for which the supermarkets have a competitive advantage (e.g non-perishable products). To improve the offering of fresh fruits and vegetables they could mimic the layout of the best markets, demonstrating the freshness of such goods.

5. Taking into the account that about 90% of Libyan people are Muslim, and there is a considerable demand for halal food, international modern formats should offer fresh halal products to cater for its Muslim customers and launch a halal own brand in response to demand from the Muslim community.

6. Marketing depends on effective segmentation, targeting and positioning. The profiling of distinct shopper segments is therefore useful for retail managers. The research identified six segments, each of which has its own characteristics. Profiling each segment in terms of attractiveness factors, demographics, and shopping behaviour helps retail managers in constructing marketing communication strategies and designing appealing store environments, meeting the needs of particular segments.

For example, traditionalist shoppers showed the highest inclination on gender roles. This segment considered food shopping traditionally as a task for male household members, and regarded food shopping as an inappropriate task for females alone or with other women. The development of supermarkets in meeting the needs of this segment must think about ways that would help increase their confidence and sense of comfort when shopping. This could be achieved, for example, by making the shopping environment safer, for instance with the use of surveillance cameras and security officers in shopping areas. These steps are likely to be effective in making this segment more comfortable and confident in allowing women to shop for food as dependent or independent consumers as long as there is a degree of cultural change, appreciating that what counts as socially acceptable may shift over time as the study showed.

Enthusiastic shoppers scored the highest on the hedonic shopping factor and thus they are likely to respond positively as mentioned earlier, to innovative shopping places that accommodate different stores, restaurants and leisure facilities in order to spend their time as pleasantly as possible. Value shoppers placed a lot of emphasis on seeking value, looking for discounts, bargains, and sales. Marketing communication messages with typical sales promotional offers and price reductions are likely to be very effective for this segment.

8.6. Limitations of the Study

As with any empirical work, there are several limitations associated with the present study. Specifically, this study was conducted during a period of civil unrest that had a direct effect on the research and its results that should be interpreted with several unavoidable limitations in mind.

Firstly, due to the uprising, the study area was changed from the capital city Tripoli to the second city Benghazi. The method of sampling was also affected. These changes have their own effect on the results of the study to some degree. For example it is difficult to extend the results to Libya as whole given that data collection only took place within the city of Benghazi only. Also, a non-probabilistic sampling method was used in both qualitative and quantitative research. Therefore biases in the selection of respondents may have occurred. Thus, it might not be possible to generalize the results to the whole population in Libya. Moreover, the sample in the main part of the study (quantitative research) included only Libyan citizens since the majority of non-Libyan people dispersed to their countries of origin because of the war.

In addition, the sample size was relatively small compared to some similar studies. The small sample size hampers the ability to generalise to the overall population and reduces the power of statistical tests in the data analysis (Herche and Balasubramanian, 1994). A larger sample size, particularly covering other cities in Libya, would have been useful to assess the stability and dependability of the findings (Mokhlis, 2006). However, given the civil unrest during the period of data collection this was infeasible and it is important to remember that "if statistical tests are significant, one can consider the sample size as adequate" (Herche and Balasubramanian, 1994, p.71). Despite the shortcomings in sample size, this study has been able to give a detailed picture of consumer food shopping behaviour and retail patronage.

As a final limitation, the scope of the present study was strictly limited to only one product category (i.e. shopping for food). The choice of the product context might limit the range of shopping motives and that could be perceived as important. Motives and their salience may vary for non-food items such as cleaning products, and personal care products. As a result of this, the conclusions drawn from this study are focused on food retail behaviour only. However, despite these limitations, the results of this study offer useful findings and provide directions for future research that should be addressed.

8.7. Recommendations for Future Research

The results of this study present a solid basis for further interesting research.

1. Additional work is required to verify the relationships between the choice of retail environment and motivating factors such as convenience, food safety, shopper comfort, and social acceptability in different Libyan cities. This would provide the basis for explaining diversity in consumer food shopping behaviour and how far it can be linked to socioeconomic, geographic and cultural factors.

2. It would also be useful to document whether the growth of supermarkets in Libya is leading to changes in diet, health and exercise, for example by increasing consumption of processed foods. This would require panel data that tracks, amongst other variables, retail outlet choice, food purchases and calorie consumption over time.

3. Further research could also examine food shopping behaviour within different product categories, taking into consideration cross-cultural differences. Ackennan and Tellis (2001, p.77) asserted that "Culture impacts not just the products consumers buy but also consumers' shopping and the response of retailers" .

4. Research could extend the current approach to a comparison of multiple cultures that would be interesting to see whether the shopping patterns and motivations found in this study are mirrored elsewhere in developing countries, in the rest of Arabic world as well as inside Libya itself for example, by considering the expatriates and native Libyan people.

5. Similarly, it may be worthwhile to study shopping motives over time in order to be able to take into account the dynamics of consumer behaviour and attitudinal patterns since all shopping motives were measured at one point in time.

6. A longitudinal study would capture variations over time, such as the effect of particular events like Ramadan. Ramadan is more than a holy month and has a deep social, cultural, and economic impact on the daily life of Muslims (Odabasi and Argan, 2009). The latter stated that Ramadan has to be regarded as month of shopping. Although, different views were concluded regarding Ramadan consumption patterns in the literature (some of them highlighted an increase in food consumption during Ramadan whereas some others pointed to a reduction in total food consumption), the variety of foods increases, and there are an increase in the expenditure in overall (Odabasi and Argan, 2009). As a result, it might be interesting to investigate the underlying aspects of Libyan consumers' shopping patterns during this specific event, Ramadan.

8.8. Conclusion

This study explored factors affecting consumers' food shopping behaviour in Libya as a country whose retail environment has been dominated by traditional markets and small independent stores for generations. This final chapter presented conclusions on the main findings of the research and its implications for practitioners as well as the limitations of the study, before discussing suggestions for future research. In conclusion, although the limitations provide a good starting point for extending the research, the thesis provides the basis for understanding the nature and salience of store attributes and shopping motives that drive consumers to shop for food in Libya.

As a closing note, it should be reiterated that because of the war conditions that were associated with the study period and the limited scope of this study, further research is required to validate the findings reported in this study. Until these proposals for further research come to fruition, the conclusions of the study should be taken carefully, but the study represents to date the only rigorous and theoretically informed research on consumer food shopping behaviour in Libya.

Appendix 1: Interview Guide

First round of interviews

Q1. Filter question: Do you undertake food shopping for your household?

Q2. When confronted with the words 'supermarket' and 'market', what comes to mind?

Q3. How often do you shop for food? Why is this?

Q4. How often do you usually visit? Why is this?

- Supermarket
- Traditional market

Q5. Are decisions about the food you buy in a supermarket usually made by:

- You alone
- Jointly with others
- Depends on the circumstances

Q6. What factors are important in your choice of where to shop for food?

Q7. Let's look at a set of potential factors which may influence your choice. How do supermarkets perform on these factors compared to traditional markets?

1. Convenience of location
2. Price of products
3. Special offers
4. Assortment
5. Quality of service
6. Speed of service
7. Product quality
8. Variety of products
9. Payment by card
10. Atmosphere
11. Cleanliness
12. Food safety

Q8.Which style do you feel best describes you?

- Socializing shoppers: this group likes shopping with my friends or family to socialize.

- Disloyal shopper: this group is primarily concerned with enjoyment. Brand and store loyalty are not important for him.
- Independent perfectionist shoppers, who look for quality, brand loyalty, confusion and utilitarian shopping
- Escapist shoppers: this group go to shop when they are in down mood; to feeling better and looking for hedonic shopping.
- Apathetic shoppers: this category does not care about all store attribute dimensions, particularly the store quality dimension.
- Budget conscious shoppers: looking for value, gratification, brand loyalty and brand conscious with preparing a list of the requirements according to limited budget.

Q9. Gender:

- Male
- Female

Q10. The average income in Libya is 500 LYD. How does your income compare with this?

- Below
- Around the same
- Above

Additional questions for stage 2 interviews

Q11. Social acceptability

A. In Libya, is it socially acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a market alone? With other women? Why?

B. In Libya, is it socially acceptable for a woman to go shopping
in a supermarket alone? With other women? Why?

C. For a woman, is there any difference between markets and supermarkets in terms of social acceptability? Why? Why not?

Q12. Food shopping as a leisure activity

- Do you regard food shopping as a leisure activity?
- Is food shopping a way of getting out of the home?
- Is food shopping a form of entertainment?

Appendix 2: English Version of Questionnaire

Survey of Consumer Food Shopping Behaviour

I am conducting a survey on consumer shopping behaviour and would be very grateful if you would spare some time to answer some questions.

The information will remain anonymous and confidential. We are interested in your opinions.

Screening Question

You should recruit:

- Do you undertake any food shopping?

  - ☐ **Yes** Continue with Question 1
  - ☐ **No** Please, give it to the person who undertakes food shopping in your family.

Section 1: Food Shopping Behaviour

1.1. How often do you usually visit a supermarket to purchase food?

Tick one box

☐ Everyday	☐ Two to three times a month
☐ Two to three times a week	☐ Once a month
☐ Once a week	☐ Never

1.2. How often do you usually visit a traditional market to purchase food?

Tick one box

☐ Everyday	☐ Two to three times a month
☐ Two to three times a week	☐ Once a month
☐ Once a week	☐ Never

1.3. How often do you usually visit an independent store to purchase food?

Tick one box

☐ Everyday	☐ Two to three times a month
☐ Two to three times a week	☐ Once a month
☐ Once a week	☐ Never

1.4. How much time do you spend food shopping in a typical week?

Tick one box

Outlet	Less than an hour	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3 hours or more
Supermarket	☐	☐	☐	☐
Traditional market	☐	☐	☐	☐
Independent store	☐	☐	☐	☐

1.5. Are decisions about the food you buy usually made by you alone or jointly with others in the household?

☐ You	☐ Jointly with others	☐ Depends on circumstances

1.6. On average, how much do you spend on food shopping per month?

Outlets	**Less than 300 LYD per month**	**300-500 LYD per month**	**More than 500 LYD per month**
Supermarket	☐	☐	☐
Traditional market	☐	☐	☐
Independent store	☐	☐	☐

1.7. When visiting a supermarket, do you usually go alone or with others?

☐ Always with others	☐ Always alone
☐ Usually with others	☐ Usually alone
☐ No clear pattern	☐ Never shop at supermarkets

1.8. When visiting a traditional food market, do you usually go along or with others?

☐ Always with others	☐ Always alone
☐ Usually with others	☐ Usually alone
☐ No clear pattern	☐ Never shop at supermarkets

1.9. Please complete the table below on what proportion of the total amount you spend in an average month on different food categories you buy from ‘Traditional markets’, ‘supermarkets’ and ‘independent stores? (Note: percentages should add to 100%)

Items	**Traditional market**	**Supermarket**	**Independent store**	**Total**
Fresh Fruit and Vegetables	%	%	%	100%
Fresh Meat	%	%	%	100%
Fresh fish	%	%	%	100%
Packaged foods	%	%	%	100%
Beverages	%	%	%	100%

Section 2: Food Shopping Motivations and Decision Making

In this section I am going to show you some statements that may influence in your decision and identify the main reasons to do food shopping. I want you to choose the best one describes your attitude do so.

Tick one box for each statement

Statements	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
When I am in down mood, I go shopping to make me feel better	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To me shopping is a way to relieve stress	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I go shopping when I want to treat myself to something special	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like shopping with my friends or family to socialize	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy socializing with others when I shop	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Shopping with others is a bonding experience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I only go shopping during sales	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like shopping for others because when they feel good, I feel good	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy shopping for my family and friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I find shopping stimulating	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
While shopping I can normally forget my problems	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
While shopping at a store, I feel disappointed if I have to go to a different store to complete my shopping	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
While shopping, I try to accomplish just what I want to as soon as possible	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Statements	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
While shopping I try to find just the items that I am looking for	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy shopping more than most people do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I love to go shopping when I can find time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I always compare prices	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am cautious in trying new products	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy exploring alternative stores	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to try new products and brands for fun	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to buy the same brand	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Getting very good quality is important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the very best or perfect choice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In general I usually try to buy the best overall quality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I make a special effort to choose the very best quality products	☐		☐		☐		☐
I really do not give my purchase much thought or care	☐		☐		☐		☐
My standards and expectations for the products that I buy are high	☐		☐		☐		☐
A product does not have to be perfect, or the best to satisfy me	☐		☐		☐		☐
The well-known national brands are best for me	☐		☐		☐		☐
The more expensive brands are usually my choice	☐		☐		☐		☐

Statements	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
A product does not have to be perfect, or the best to satisfy me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The well-known national brands are best for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The more expensive brands are usually my choice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The higher the price of the product, the better is its quality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Nice department and specialty stores offer me the best products	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer buying the best-selling brands	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The most advertised brands are usually the very best choices	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Shopping is not a pleasant activity for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Going shopping is one of the most enjoyable activities for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Shopping in many stores wastes my time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy shopping just for the fun of it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I make shopping trips fast	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I should plan my shopping trip more carefully than I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am impulsive when purchasing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Often I make careless purchases I later wish I had not	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I take the time to shop carefully for the best buys	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I carefully watch how much I spend	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
There are so many brands to choose that often I feel confused	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The more I learn about products, the harder it seems to choose the best	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
All the information I get on different products confuses me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Statements	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
I have favourite brands I buy over and over	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Once I find a product or brand I like, I stick with it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I go to the same store each time I shop	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Investigating a new store is generally a waste of time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Food shopping is a way of getting out of the house for women	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a traditional mark*et al*one or with other women	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is acceptable for a woman to go shopping in a super - mark*et al*one or with other women	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
A woman’s role is in the home	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Food shopping is a task for men only	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Section 3: Retail Choice

3.1. How important of the following factors in the choice of where you buy food?

Tick one box

Factors	Not Important	Minor Importance	Moderate Importance	Major Importance	Most Important
a. Location/convenience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Price of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Special offers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Assortment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Quality of service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Speed of service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. Qquality of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. Variety of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. Freshness of produce	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. Atmosphere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
k. Cleanliness of place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
l. food safety	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
m. Personal safety	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
n. In – store credit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
o. Car parking facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
p. Social acceptability	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
q. Other ____________	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3.2. For traditional food markets in your area, please rate them on the following factors? Tick one box

Factors	I have no experience	Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good
a. Location/Convenience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Price of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Special offers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Assortment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Quality of service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Speed of service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. Quality of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. Variety of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. Freshness of produce	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. Atmosphere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
k. Cleanliness of place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
l. Food safety	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
m. Personal safety	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
n. In – store credit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
o. Car parking facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
p. Social acceptability	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
q. Other ________________	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3.3. For the supermarkets in your area, please rate them on the following factors?

Tick one box

Factors	I have no experience	Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good
a. Location/convenience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Price of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Special offers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Assortment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Quality of service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Speed of service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. Quality of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. Variety of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. Freshness of produce	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. Atmosphere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
k. Cleanliness of place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
l. Food safety	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
m. Personal safety	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
n. In – store credit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
o. Car parking facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
p. Social acceptability	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
q. Other__________________	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3.4. For the independent store in your area, please rate them on the following factors? Tick one box

Factors	I have no experience	Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good
a. Location/convenience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Price of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Special offers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Assortment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Quality of service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Speed of service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. Quality of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. Variety of product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. Freshness of produce	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. Atmosphere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
k. Cleanliness of place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
l. Food safety	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
m. Personal safety	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
n. In – store credit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
o. Car parking facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
p. Social acceptability	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
q. Other _______________	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Section 4: Personal Details

4.1. Gender

Tick one box

☐ Male	☐ Female

4.2. Marital statue

Tick one box

☐ Single	☐ Married
☐ Divorcee	☐ Widowed

4.3. Age

Tick one box

☐ From 15 to 24	☐ From 40 to 54
☐ From 25 to 39	☐ Aged 55 and over

4.4. No. of members, including yourself, of the household

Tick one box

☐ One	☐ Four
☐ Two	☐ Five
☐ Three	☐ Six and more

4.5. Approximately, what is the combined income of your household (per month)?

Tick one box

☐ Less than 500 LYD	☐ Around 500 LYD
☐ More than 500 LYD	☐ Prefer not to say

4.6. Highest level of education completed

Tick one box

☐ No qualifications	☐ Primary education
☐ Initial Secondary education	☐ Secondary education
☐ A university education	☐ Post-graduate

4.7. Nationality

Tick one box

☐ Libyan	☐ Non Libyan

4.8. Have you ever lived abroad?

Tick one box

☐ Yes	☐ No

4.9. Have you always lived in

Tick one box

☐ **Benghazi**	☐ **Moved to Benghazi from another part of Libya**	☐ **Moved from abroad**

4.10. Occupation

Please write down your occupation: ______________________

4.11. Where is your house located?

Please write the name of your region:______________________

4.12. Has the revolution of February 17, had any impact on your food shopping behaviour? If the answer is yes, please write in more detail is the nature of this effect?

Thank You for Your Time

Appendix 3: Arabic Version of Questionnaire

دراسة لسلوك المستهلك الليبى فى التسوق لشراء المواد الغذائية

التاريخ : **رقم الاستبانه :**

اود اجراء دراسة استقصائية عن سلوك المستهلك فى التسوق فى ليبيا . حسن تعاونكم واعطاءكم بعضا من وقتكم لاكمال هذه الاستبانة سيكون له عظيم الاثر و الامتنان.

من فضلك يجب الاجابة على السؤال التالى كخطوة اولى:

- **هل انت الشخص المسئول عن التسوق لشراء المواد الغذائية؟**

☐ **نعم** **فضلا اذهب الى السؤال الاول.**

☐ **لا** **فضلا مررها الى الشخص المسئول عن التسوق للمواد الغذائية فى العائلة.**

القسم (1): السلوك التسوقى

1.1. كم مرة عادة تزور السوبرماركت لشراء المواد الغذائية ؟

كل يوم	☐	مرتين الى ثلاث مرات في الشهر	☐
مرتين الى ثلاث مرات في الاسبوع	☐	مرة واحدة بالشهر	☐
مرة واحدة بالاسبوع	☐	أبدا	☐

2.1. كم مرة عادة تزور السوق التقليدى لشراء المواد الغذائية ؟

كل يوم	☐	مرتين الى ثلاث مرات في الشهر	☐
مرتين الى ثلاث مرات في الاسبوع	☐	مرة واحدة بالشهر	☐
مرة واحدة بالاسبوع	☐	أبدا	☐

3.1. كم مرة عادة تزور المحلات الخاصة لشراء المواد الغذائية ؟

كل يوم	☐	مرتين الى ثلاث مرات في الشهر	☐
مرتين الى ثلاث مرات في الاسبوع	☐	مرة واحدة بالشهر	☐
مرة واحدة بالاسبوع	☐	أبدا	☐

4.1. كم من الوقت تقضي فى رحلة التسوق لشراء المواد الغذائية؟

مكان الشراء	من ساعة اقل	ساعة 1-2	ساعة 2-3	ساعات من 3 اكثر
السوبرماركت	☐	☐	☐	☐
السوق التقليدى	☐	☐	☐	☐
متجر خاص	☐	☐	☐	☐

5.1. هل تقرر ما يجب شرائه من مواد غذائية بمفردك او بمشاركة مع اخرين ؟

انت ☐	بمشاركة الأخرين ☐	يتوقف على الظروف ☐

6.1. فى المتوسط كم تصرف من النقود على شراء الطعام في الشهر؟

مكان الشراء	اقل من 300 د.ل فى الشهر	ما يعادل 300-500 د.ل فى الشهر	اكثر من 500 د.ل فى الشهر
السوبرماركت	☐	☐	☐
السوق التقليدى	☐	☐	☐
متجر خاص	☐	☐	☐

7.1. هل تذهب للسوبرماركت وحدك او برفقة اخرين؟

دائما مع الاخرين ☐	دائما لوحدى ☐
عادة مع الاخرين ☐	عادة لوحدى ☐
لا اتسوق فى السوبر ماركت ابدا ☐	لا يوجد روتين معين ☐

8.1. هل تذهب للسوق التقليدى وحدك او برفقة اخرين؟

دائما مع الاخرين ☐	دائما لوحدى ☐
عادة مع الاخرين ☐	عادة لوحدي ☐
لا اتسوق فى السوبر ماركت ابدا ☐	لا يوجد روتين معين ☐

9.1. لو سمحت اكمل الجدول ادناه بكتابة النسبة المئوية حول معدل ما تصرفه على المنتجات الغذائية في كل شهر عند شرائك من السوبرماركت او السوق التقليدي او المتجر الخاص؟

ملاحظة المجموع الافقى يجب أن يكون 100

البيان	السوبرماركت	السوق التقليدي	المتجر خاص	الاجمالي
خضروات وفواكه طازجة	%	%	%	100%
لحم طازج	%	%	%	100%
سمك طازج	%	%	%	100%
اغذية معلبة	%	%	%	100%
مشروبات	%	%	%	100%

القسم (2): دوافع التسوق

فى هذا القسم هناك بعض الاقترحات التى ممكن ان تصف او تشرح بعض الدوافع الرئيسية للتسوق. من فضلك اختار ما يناسبك او تشعر انه يصف حالتك.

1.2.اختر اجابة واحده لكل بيان:

البيان	غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق متوسط	غير موافق قليلا	محايد	موافق بشدة	موافقة متوسطه	موافقه قليلة
اذهب للتسوق عندما يكون مزاجي متعكر لأخفف عن نفسي	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
بالنسبة لي التسوق يعتبر طريقة للتخفيف التوتر	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
اذهب للتسوق عندما اريد ان ادلل نفسى بشئ خاص	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احب التسوق مع عائلتي او اصدقائي لكى اتواصل معهم	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احب التواصل مع الاخرين عندما اتسوق	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
التسوق مع الاخرين هو تجربة للتواصل	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
اتسوق فقط اثناء التخفيضات	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احب ان ابحث عن الخصومات اثناء التسوق	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
أنا احب اصطياد الصفقات الرابحة عندما اتسوق	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احب ان اتسوق من اجل الاخرين لانه اذا شعروا بالسعادة اشعر انا ايضا بالسعادة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احب التسوق من أجل عائلتى و اصدقائي	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
ارى التسوق امر محفز	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
عادة عند التسوق اتمكن من نسيان مشاكلى	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
اثناء التسوق فى متجر ما اشعر بالاحباط اذا اضطررت للذهاب الى متجر اخر لشراء باقى احتياجاتى	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

البيان	غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق متوسط	غير موافق قليلا	محايد	موافق بشدة	موافقة متوسطه	موافقه قليلة
اثناء تسوقي احاول تحقيق ما اريد فى اسرع وقت ممكن	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
اثناء تسوقي احاول ان اجد الاشياء التى ابحث عنها فقط	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
استمتع بالتسوق اكثر من معظم الناس	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احب التسوق عندما اجد وقت لذلك	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
انا اقارن الاسعار دائما	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
انا حذر فى تجربة المنتجات جديدة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
انا احب ان استكشف متاجر بديلة اخرى	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احب تجربة منتجات وماركات جديدة من باب الاستمتاع	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احب ان شترى نفس الماركة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
الحصول على جودة ممتازة امر مهم بالنسبة لي	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
عندما يتعلق الأمر بشراء المنتجات، أحاول الحصول على أفضل خيار	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
بشكل عام ان احاول اشتري المنتجات ذات الجودة العالية	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
أنا بذل جهد خاص لاختيار افضل نوعية من المنتجات	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
حقيقة لا اعير انا اهتماما كبيرا بما اشتريه	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
شروطي و معاييري لما اشتريه من منتجات عالية جدا	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
المنتج لا يجب أن يكون مثاليا، أوهو الافضل حتى يرضنى	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
الماركات المعروفة العالمية هى الافضل بالنسبة لي	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
الماركات الأغلى هي اختياري عادة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

البيان	غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق متوسط	غير موافق قليلا	محايد	موافق بشدة	موافقة متوسطه	موافقه قليلة
كلما كان السعر اعلى كما كان المنتج ذو جودة افضل	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
الاقسام الانيقة وا المتخصصة توفر المنتجات عادة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
افضل ان اشتري اكثر الماركات مبيعا	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
العلامات التجارية المعلن عنها اكثر وعادة ما تكون أفضل الخيارات	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
التسوق امر غير ممتع بالنسبة لي	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
الذهاب للتسوق من اكثر النشاطات امتاعا بالنسبة لي	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
التسوق في محلات كثيرة يضيع وقتي	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احب التسوق لمجرد الاستمتاع به	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
اتسوق بسرعة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
يجب علي ان اخطط لرحلة تسوقي اكثر مما افعل	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
انا متسرع اثناء الشراء	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احيانا اشتري حاجيات غير مهمة اتمنى اني لم اشتريها لاحقا	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
اخذ وقتي فى التسوق لأفضل الشرائات	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
اراقب بحذر ما اصرفه عند تسوقى	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
هناك الكثير من الماركات واحيانا احتار فى الاختيار بينهم	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
احيانا هناك صعوبة فى اختيار فى اى محل اتسوق	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
كلما اعرف اكثر عن المنتجات كلما تزداد حيرتي في ايهم اشتري	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
المعلومات التي اتلقاها عن المنتجات المختلفة تحيرني	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

البيان	غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق متوسط	غير موافق قليلا	محايد	موافق بشدة	موافقة متوسطه	موافقه قليلة
لدى ماركات مفضلة واشتريها مرارا و تكرارا	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
عندما اجد منتج او ماركة تعجبني فانى اتعلق بها	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
اذهب لنفس المحل فى كل مرة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
التحقق من محل اخر هو عادة مضيعة للوقت	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
الذهاب لشراء الغذاء هو وسيلة للخروج من المنزل بالنسبة للنساء	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
مقبولا اجتماعيا للمراه ان تذهب للتسوق فى الاسواق التقليديه وحدها او مع غيرها من النساء	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
مقبولا اجتماعيا للمراه ان تدهب للتسوق فى السوبر ماركت وحدها او مع غيرها من النساء	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
دور المراة فى البيت فقط	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

القسم (3):

1.3. ما هى مدى أهمية العوامل التاليه فى اختيار مكان التسوق بالنسبة لك؟

ضع علامه فى مربع واحد

العوامل	غير مهم	اهميه ثانويه	اهميه معتدله	اهميه كبرى	الاكثر اهمية
الموقع	□	□	□	□	□
سعر المنتج	□	□	□	□	□
عروض خاصة	□	□	□	□	□
تشكيلات	□	□	□	□	□
المعاملة	□	□	□	□	□
سرعه الخدمة	□	□	□	□	□
جودة المنتج	□	□	□	□	□
تنوع المنتج	□	□	□	□	□
نضارة المنتج	□	□	□	□	□
الشعور العام	□	□	□	□	□
نظافه المكان	□	□	□	□	□
سلامه الغذاء	□	□	□	□	□
سلامه الشخصية	□	□	□	□	□
الشراء بالدين	□	□	□	□	□
موقف السيارات	□	□	□	□	□
القبول الاجتماعى	□	□	□	□	□
اخرى.......	□	□	□	□	□

1.3. كيف تقييم السوبرماركت فى منطقتك وفقا العوامل التاليه:

ضع علامه فى مربع واحد

العوامل	ليس لدى خبرة	سئ للغايه	سئ	متوسط	جيد	جيد جدا
الموقع	□	□	□	□	□	□
سعر المنتج	□	□	□	□	□	□
عرض خاص	□	□	□	□	□	□
تشكيلة	□	□	□	□	□	□
المعاملة	□	□	□	□	□	□
سرعه الخدمة	□	□	□	□	□	□
جودة المنتج	□	□	□	□	□	□
تنوع المنتج	□	□	□	□	□	□
نضارة المنتج	□	□	□	□	□	□
الشعور العام	□	□	□	□	□	□
نظافه المكان	□	□	□	□	□	□
سلامه الغذاء	□	□	□	□	□	□
سلامه شخصية	□	□	□	□	□	□
الشراء بالدين	□	□	□	□	□	□
موقف السيارات	□	□	□	□	□	□
القبول الاجتماعى	□	□	□	□	□	□
اخرى.......	□	□	□	□	□	□

.2.3 كيف تقييم الاسواق الشعبية فى منطقتك وفقا العوامل التاليه:

ضع العلامه فى مربع واحد

العوامل	ليس لدى خبرة	سئ للغايه	سئ	متوسط	جيد	جيد جدا
الموقع	□	□	□	□	□	□
سعر المنتج	□	□	□	□	□	□
عرض خاص	□	□	□	□	□	□
تشكيلة	□	□	□	□	□	□
المعاملة	□	□	□	□	□	□
سرعه الخدمة	□	□	□	□	□	□
جودة المنتج	□	□	□	□	□	□
تنوع المنتج	□	□	□	□	□	□
نضارة المنتج	□	□	□	□	□	□
الشعور العام	□	□	□	□	□	□
نظافه المكان	□	□	□	□	□	□
سلامه الغذاء	□	□	□	□	□	□
سلامه شخصية	□	□	□	□	□	□
الشراء بالدين	□	□	□	□	□	□
موقف السيارات	□	□	□	□	□	□
القبول الاجتماعى	□	□	□	□	□	□
اخرى.......	□	□	□	□	□	□

3.3. كيف تقييم المتجر الخاص فى منطقتك وفقا العوامل التاليه:

ضع العلامه فى مربع واحد

العوامل	ليس لدى خبرة	سئ للغايه	سئ	متوسط	جيد	جيد جدا
الموقع	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
سعر المنتج	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
عرض خاص	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
تشكيلة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
المعاملة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
سرعه الخدمة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
جودة المنتج	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
تنوع المنتج	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
نضارة المنتج	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
الشعور العام	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
نظافه المكان	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
سلامه الغذاء	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
سلامه شخصية	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
الشراء بالدين	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
موقف السيارات	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
القبول الاجتماعى	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
اخرى.......	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

القسم 4: بيانات شخصية

1.4. الجنس:

ضع علامه على مربع واحد

ذكر ☐	انثى ☐

2.4. الحاله الاجتماعية:

ضع علامه على مربع واحد

اعزب ☐	متزوج ☐
مطلق ☐	ارمل ☐

3.4. العمر:

ضع علامه فى مربع واحد

من 15 الى 4 2 ☐	من 40 الى 54 ☐
من 25 الى 39 ☐	من 55 و ما فوق ☐

4.4. عدد الافراد فى المنزل من ضمنهم انت:

ضع علامه على مربع واحد

واحد ☐	ثلاثة ☐	خمسة ☐
اثنان ☐	اربعة ☐	ستة واكثر ☐

5.4. تقريبا ماهو مجموع دخل اسرتك شهريا:

ضع علامه على مربع واحد

اقل من 500 دينار ليبي ☐	حوالى 500 دينار ليبيى ☐
اكثر من 500 دينار ليبى ☐	افضل ان لا اقول ☐

6.4. اعلى مستوى من التعليم الدى اكملته:

ضع علامه على مربع واحد

لا شهادة ☐	تعليم ابتدائى ☐
تعليم اعدادى ☐	تعليم ثانوى ☐
جامعى ☐	دراسات عليا ☐

7.4. الجنسيه:

ضع علامه على مربع واحد

ليبيى ☐	غير ليبيى ☐

8.4. هل عشت فى الخارج؟

ضع علامه على مربع واحد

نعم ☐	لا ☐

9.4. هل عشت دائما فى ؟

ضع علامه على مربع واحد

بنغازى ☐	انتقلت الى بنغازى من منطقه اخرى فى ليبيا ☐	انتقلت من الخارج ☐

12.4. المهنة :

الرجاء كتابه المهنة ....

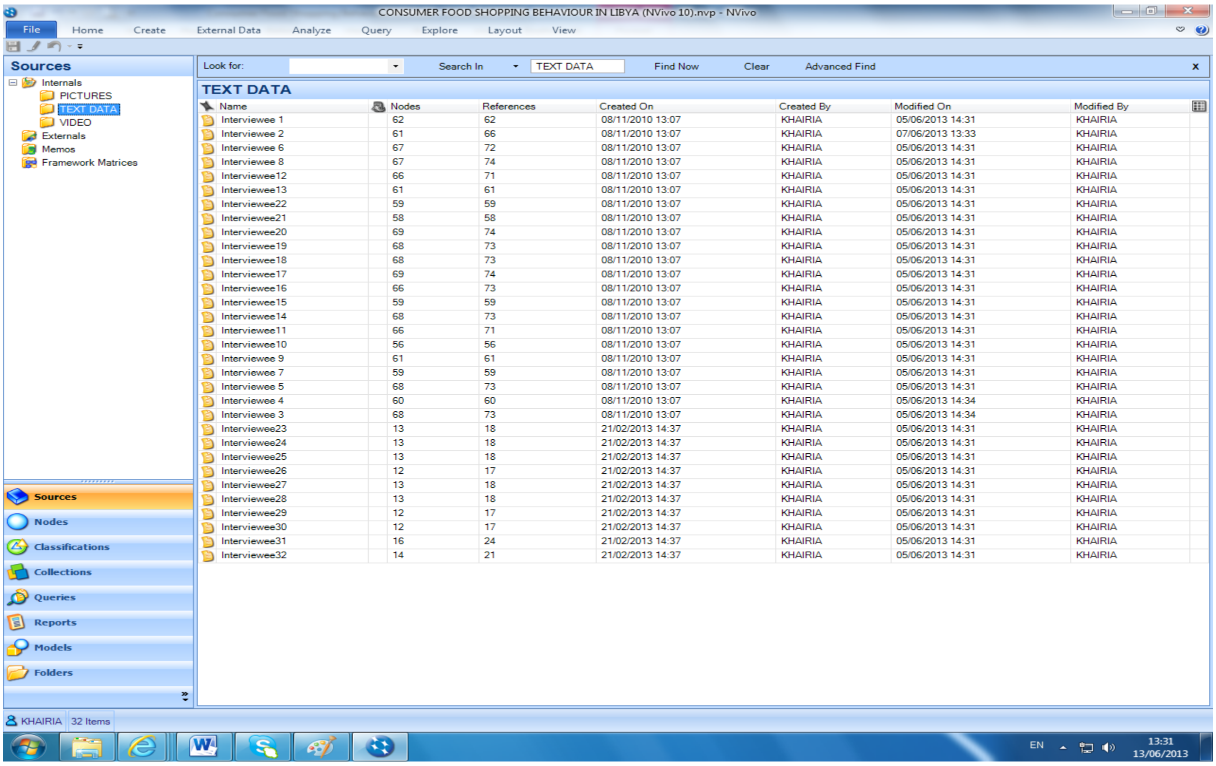
11.4. اين يقع منزلك؟

الرجاء كتابه اسم المنطقه ....

12.4. هل كان لثورة ١٧ فبراير اى تأثير على سلوكك فى التسوق لشراء المواد الغذائية؟ إذا كانت الاجابة بنعم يرجى الكتابة بنوع من التفصيل كيف كان هذا التأثير؟

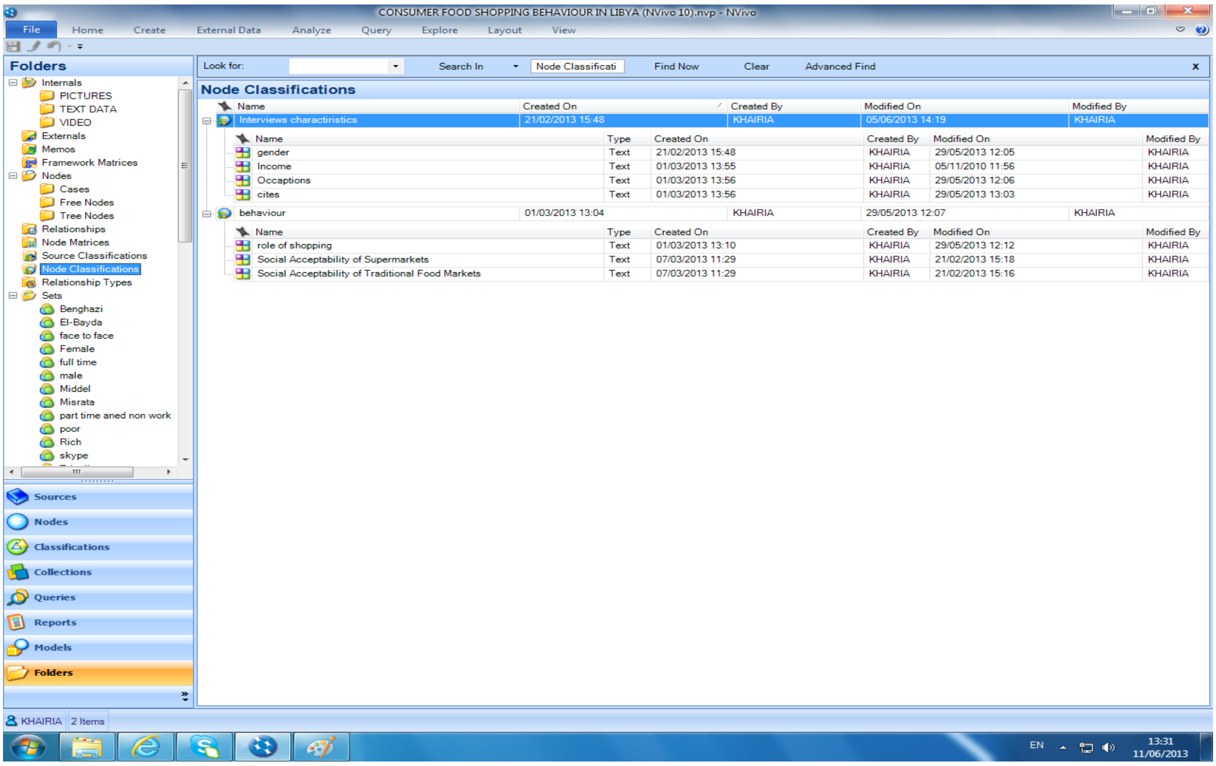
شكرا جزيلا لك على وقتك

Appendix 4: NVivo Out Put



TEXT DATA

Name	Nodes	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
Interviewee 1	62	62	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee 2	61	66	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	07/06/2013 13:33	KHAIRIA
Interviewee 6	67	72	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee 8	67	74	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee12	66	71	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee13	61	61	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee22	59	59	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee21	58	58	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee20	69	74	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee19	68	73	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee18	68	73	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee17	69	74	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee16	66	73	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee15	59	59	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee14	68	73	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee11	66	71	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee10	56	56	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee 9	61	61	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee 7	59	59	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee 5	68	73	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee 4	60	60	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:34	KHAIRIA
Interviewee 3	68	73	08/11/2010 13:07	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:34	KHAIRIA
Interviewee23	13	18	21/02/2013 14:37	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee24	13	18	21/02/2013 14:37	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee25	13	18	21/02/2013 14:37	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee26	12	17	21/02/2013 14:37	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee27	13	18	21/02/2013 14:37	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee28	13	18	21/02/2013 14:37	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee29	12	17	21/02/2013 14:37	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee30	12	17	21/02/2013 14:37	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee31	16	24	21/02/2013 14:37	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA
Interviewee32	14	21	21/02/2013 14:37	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:31	KHAIRIA



Node Classifications

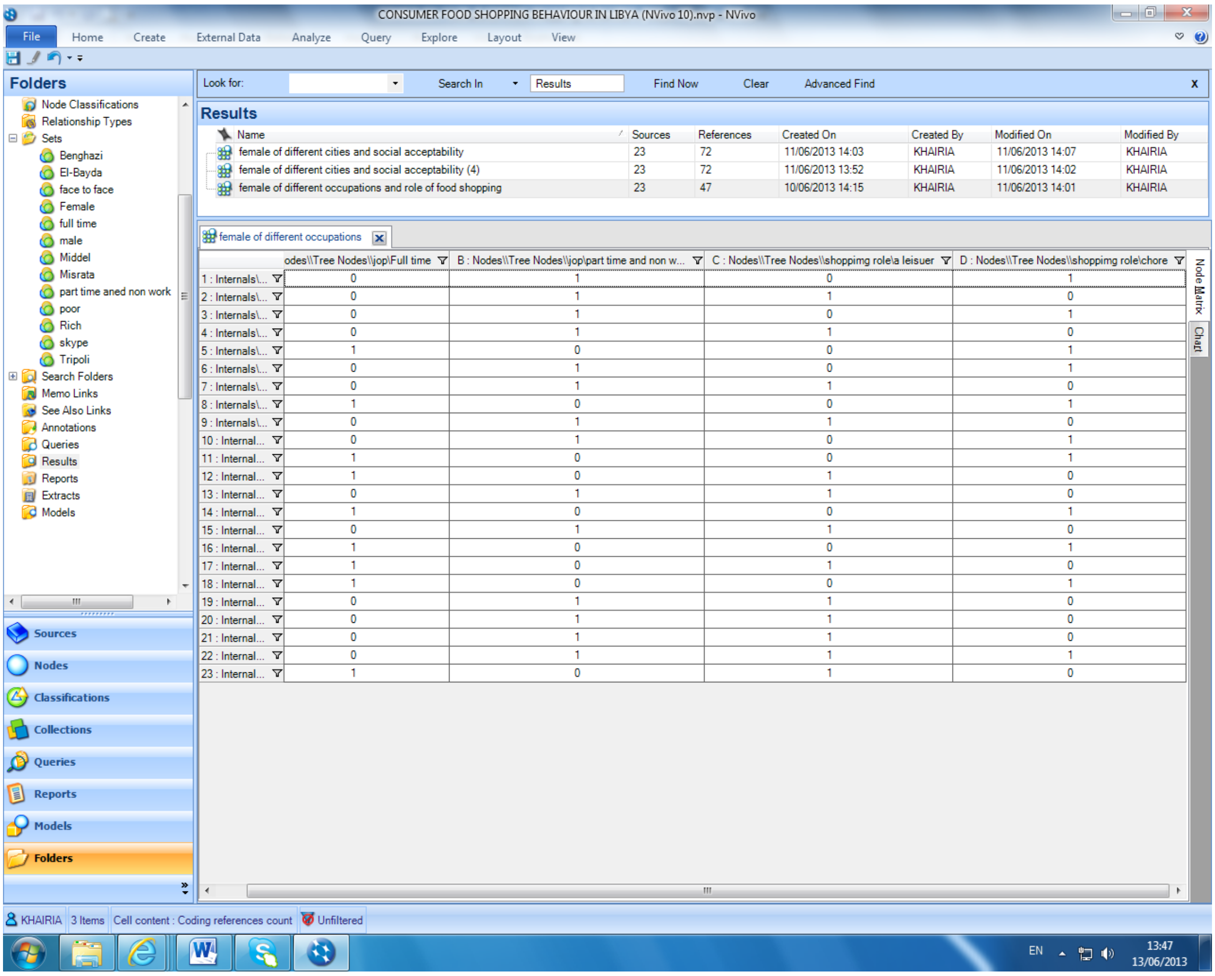
Name	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
Interviews charactiristics	21/02/2013 15:48	KHAIRIA	05/06/2013 14:19	KHAIRIA
behaviour	01/03/2013 13:04	KHAIRIA	29/05/2013 12:07	KHAIRIA

Interviews charactiristics:

Name	Type	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
gender	Text	21/02/2013 15:48	KHAIRIA	29/05/2013 12:05	KHAIRIA
Income	Text	01/03/2013 13:55	KHAIRIA	05/11/2010 11:56	KHAIRIA
Occaptions	Text	01/03/2013 13:56	KHAIRIA	29/05/2013 12:06	KHAIRIA
cites	Text	01/03/2013 13:56	KHAIRIA	29/05/2013 13:03	KHAIRIA

behaviour:

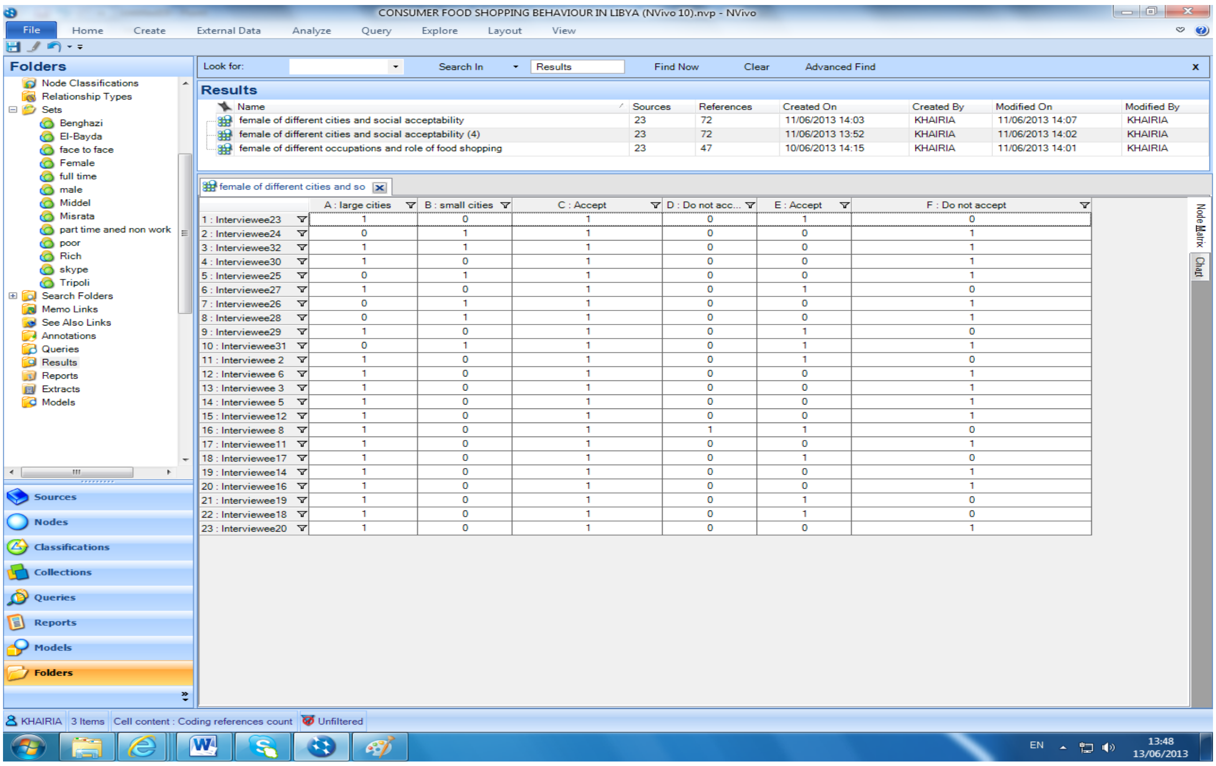
Name	Type	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
role of shopping	Text	01/03/2013 13:10	KHAIRIA	29/05/2013 12:12	KHAIRIA
Social Acceptability of Supermarkets	Text	07/03/2013 11:29	KHAIRIA	21/02/2013 15:18	KHAIRIA
Social Acceptability of Traditional Food Markets	Text	07/03/2013 11:29	KHAIRIA	21/02/2013 15:16	KHAIRIA



Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
female of different cities and social acceptability	23	72	11/06/2013 14:03	KHAIRIA	11/06/2013 14:07	KHAIRIA
female of different cities and social acceptability (4)	23	72	11/06/2013 13:52	KHAIRIA	11/06/2013 14:02	KHAIRIA
female of different occupations and role of food shopping	23	47	10/06/2013 14:15	KHAIRIA	11/06/2013 14:01	KHAIRIA

female of different occupations

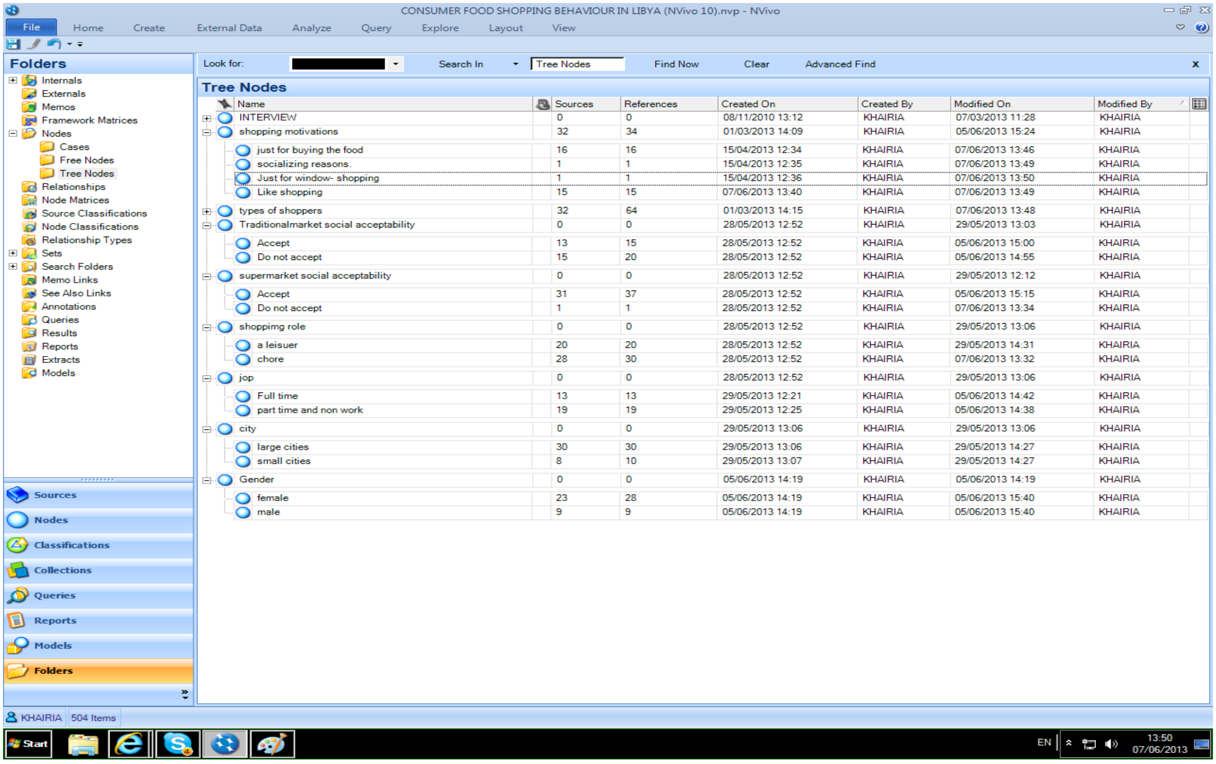
	odes\\Tree Nodes\\jop\Full time	B : Nodes\\Tree Nodes\\jop\part time and non w...	C : Nodes\\Tree Nodes\\shoppimg role\a leisuer	D : Nodes\\Tree Nodes\\shoppimg role\chore
1 : Internals\...	0	1	0	1
2 : Internals\...	0	1	1	0
3 : Internals\...	0	1	0	1
4 : Internals\...	0	1	1	0
5 : Internals\...	1	0	0	1
6 : Internals\...	0	1	0	1
7 : Internals\...	0	1	1	0
8 : Internals\...	1	0	0	1
9 : Internals\...	0	1	1	0
10 : Internal...	0	1	0	1
11 : Internal...	1	0	0	1
12 : Internal...	1	0	1	0
13 : Internal...	0	1	1	0
14 : Internal...	1	0	0	1
15 : Internal...	0	1	1	0
16 : Internal...	1	0	0	1
17 : Internal...	1	0	1	0
18 : Internal...	1	0	0	1
19 : Internal...	0	1	1	0
20 : Internal...	0	1	1	0
21 : Internal...	0	1	1	0
22 : Internal...	0	1	1	1
23 : Internal...	1	0	1	0



Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
female of different cities and social acceptability	23	72	11/06/2013 14:03	KHAIRIA	11/06/2013 14:07	KHAIRIA
female of different cities and social acceptability (4)	23	72	11/06/2013 13:52	KHAIRIA	11/06/2013 14:02	KHAIRIA
female of different occupations and role of food shopping	23	47	10/06/2013 14:15	KHAIRIA	11/06/2013 14:01	KHAIRIA

female of different cities and so

	A : large cities	B : small cities	C : Accept	D : Do not acc...	E : Accept	F : Do not accept
1 : Interviewee23	1	0	1	0	1	0
2 : Interviewee24	0	1	1	0	0	1
3 : Interviewee32	1	1	1	0	0	1
4 : Interviewee30	1	0	1	0	0	1
5 : Interviewee25	0	1	1	0	0	1
6 : Interviewee27	1	0	1	0	1	0
7 : Interviewee26	0	1	1	0	0	1
8 : Interviewee28	0	1	1	0	0	1
9 : Interviewee29	1	0	1	0	1	0
10 : Interviewee31	0	1	1	0	1	1
11 : Interviewee 2	1	0	1	0	1	0
12 : Interviewee 6	1	0	1	0	0	1
13 : Interviewee 3	1	0	1	0	0	1
14 : Interviewee 5	1	0	1	0	0	1
15 : Interviewee12	1	0	1	0	0	1
16 : Interviewee 8	1	0	1	1	1	0
17 : Interviewee11	1	0	1	0	0	1
18 : Interviewee17	1	0	1	0	1	0
19 : Interviewee14	1	0	1	0	0	1
20 : Interviewee16	1	0	1	0	0	1
21 : Interviewee19	1	0	1	0	1	0
22 : Interviewee18	1	0	1	0	1	0
23 : Interviewee20	1	0	1	0	0	1



CONSUMER FOOD SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR IN LIBYA (NVivo 10).nvp - NVivo
File Home Create External Data Analyze Query Explore Layout View
Folders
Internals
Externals
Memos
Framework Matrices
Nodes
Cases
Free Nodes
Tree Nodes
Relationships
Node Matrices
Source Classifications
Node Classifications
Relationship Types
Sets
Search Folders
Memo Links
See Also Links
Annotations
Queries
Results
Reports
Extracts
Models
Sources
Nodes
Classifications
Collections
Queries
Reports
Models
Folders
Look for: [redacted] Search In Tree Nodes Find Now Clear Advanced Find
Tree Nodes
Name | Sources | References | Created On | Created By | Modified On | Modified By
INTERVIEW | 0 | 0 | 08/11/2010 13:12 | KHAIRIA | 07/03/2013 11:28 | KHAIRIA
shopping motivations | 32 | 34 | 01/03/2013 14:09 | KHAIRIA | 05/06/2013 15:24 | KHAIRIA
just for buying the food | 16 | 16 | 15/04/2013 12:34 | KHAIRIA | 07/06/2013 13:46 | KHAIRIA
socializing reasons. | 1 | 1 | 15/04/2013 12:35 | KHAIRIA | 07/06/2013 13:49 | KHAIRIA
Just for window- shopping | 1 | 1 | 15/04/2013 12:36 | KHAIRIA | 07/06/2013 13:50 | KHAIRIA
Like shopping | 15 | 15 | 07/06/2013 13:40 | KHAIRIA | 07/06/2013 13:49 | KHAIRIA
types of shoppers | 32 | 64 | 01/03/2013 14:15 | KHAIRIA | 07/06/2013 13:48 | KHAIRIA
Traditionalmarket social acceptability | 0 | 0 | 28/05/2013 12:52 | KHAIRIA | 29/05/2013 13:03 | KHAIRIA
Accept | 13 | 15 | 28/05/2013 12:52 | KHAIRIA | 05/06/2013 15:00 | KHAIRIA
Do not accept | 15 | 20 | 28/05/2013 12:52 | KHAIRIA | 05/06/2013 14:55 | KHAIRIA
supermarket social acceptability | 0 | 0 | 28/05/2013 12:52 | KHAIRIA | 29/05/2013 12:12 | KHAIRIA
Accept | 31 | 37 | 28/05/2013 12:52 | KHAIRIA | 05/06/2013 15:15 | KHAIRIA
Do not accept | 1 | 1 | 28/05/2013 12:52 | KHAIRIA | 07/06/2013 13:34 | KHAIRIA
shoppimg role | 0 | 0 | 28/05/2013 12:52 | KHAIRIA | 29/05/2013 13:06 | KHAIRIA
a leisuer | 20 | 20 | 28/05/2013 12:52 | KHAIRIA | 29/05/2013 14:31 | KHAIRIA
chore | 28 | 30 | 28/05/2013 12:52 | KHAIRIA | 07/06/2013 13:32 | KHAIRIA
jop | 0 | 0 | 28/05/2013 12:52 | KHAIRIA | 29/05/2013 13:06 | KHAIRIA
Full time | 13 | 13 | 29/05/2013 12:21 | KHAIRIA | 05/06/2013 14:42 | KHAIRIA
part time and non work | 19 | 19 | 29/05/2013 12:25 | KHAIRIA | 05/06/2013 14:38 | KHAIRIA
city | 0 | 0 | 29/05/2013 13:06 | KHAIRIA | 29/05/2013 13:06 | KHAIRIA
large cities | 30 | 30 | 29/05/2013 13:06 | KHAIRIA | 29/05/2013 14:27 | KHAIRIA
small cities | 8 | 10 | 29/05/2013 13:07 | KHAIRIA | 29/05/2013 14:27 | KHAIRIA
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female | 23 | 28 | 05/06/2013 14:19 | KHAIRIA | 05/06/2013 15:40 | KHAIRIA
male | 9 | 9 | 05/06/2013 14:19 | KHAIRIA | 05/06/2013 15:40 | KHAIRIA
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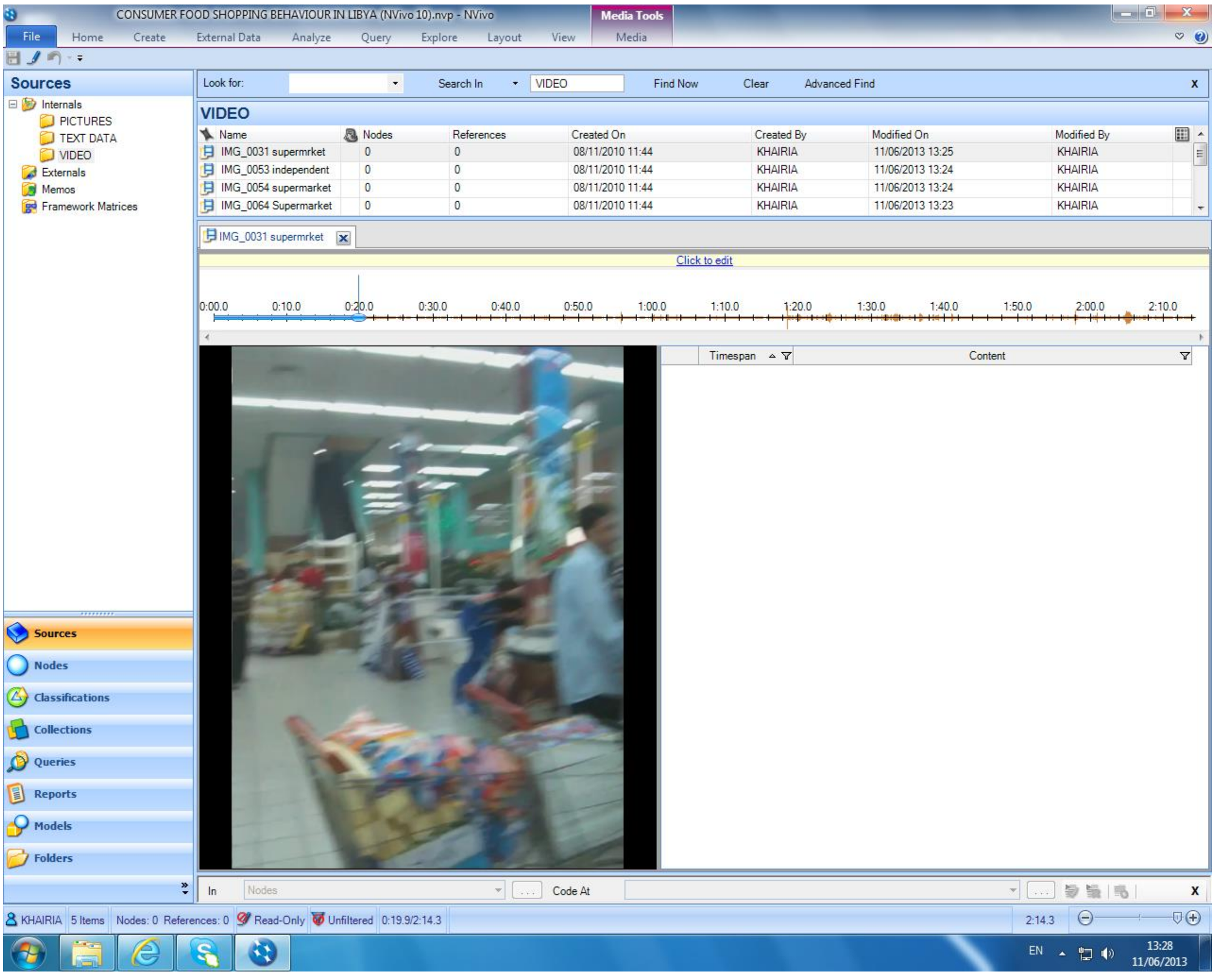

CONSUMER FOOD SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR IN LIBYA (NVivo 10).nvp - NVivo
Media Tools
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