OLDER CONSUMERS' SHOPPING ORIENTATIONS AND ONLINE PURCHASE INTENTION BASED ON THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR

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ÖZET

YAŞLI TÜKETİCİLERİN ALIŞVERİŞ YÖNELİMLERİ VE ONLINE SATIN ALMA NİYETİNİN PLANLI DAVRANIŞ TEORİSİ KAPSAMINDA İNCELENMESİ

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Günümüzde, dünya nüfusu başta gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan ülkeler başta olmak üzere yaşlanmaktadır. Dünya nüfusu yaşlanmasına rağmen, yaşlı tüketiciler hakkındaki araştırmalar sınırlıdır. Özellikle teknolojik gelişmeler sayesinde tüketiciler arasında yaygınlaşan online alışveriş kapsamında yaşlı tüketicilerin ihmal edilmiş olduğu görülmektedir. Bu nedenle bu araştırma kapsamında öncelikle yaşlı tüketicilerin online alışveriş niyeti planlı davranış teorisi kapsamında incelenmektedir. İkincil olarak yaşlı tüketiciler hakkındaki araştırmaların azlığı sebebiyle, yaşlı tüketicilerin online alışveriş yönelimleri incelenmiştir ve daha sonrasında yaşlı tüketicilerin alışveriş yönelimlerinin online satın alma niyeti üzerinde bir etkisi olup olmadığı test edilmiştir. Araştırmada tesadüfi olmayan örnekleme yöntemlerinden kartopu örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın örneklemini 55 yaş ve üzeri 209 katılımcı oluşturmuştur. Veriler hem çevrimdışı hem de çevrimiçi olarak toplanmıştır. Toplanan veriler SPSS programının 22. versiyonu kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuç olarak, planlı davranış teorisi boyutları ve online alışveriş niyeti arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Yaşlı tüketicilerin alışveriş yönelimlerinin yaşa bağlı olarak değiştiği, ancak eğitim durumu ve gelir seviyesine göre değişmediği bulunmuştur. Ayrıca alışveriş yönelimlerinin online alışveriş niyeti üzerinde bir etkisi olduğu; ancak planlı davranış teorisi boyutlarıyla birlikte incelendiğinde online alışveriş niyeti üzerinde etkisinin olmadığı bulunmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yaşlı tüketiciler, Planlı davranış teorisi, Alışveriş yönelimi, Online alışveriş, Online satın alma niyeti

ABSTRACT

OLDER CONSUMERS' SHOPPING ORINTENTATIONS AND ONLINE PURCHASE INTENTION BASED ON THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR

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Anadolu University, Graduate School of Social Sciences, August 2019

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Nowadays, world population is aging particularly in developed and developing countries. Although the world population is aging, researches on older consumers are limited. Older consumers were seen as a neglected market segment within the context of online shopping, which has become more and more popular among consumers due to technological developments. Therefore, in this research, older consumers' online shopping intention was examined within the scope of theory of planned behavior firstly. Due to lack of researches on older consumers, older consumers' online shopping orientation was investigated secondly. Subsequently, the influence of older consumers' shopping orientation on online purchase intention was examined. In this research, snowball sampling method, was used. The sample of the research consisted of 209 respondents aged 55 and over. Data was collected both offline and online and analyzed with SPSS version 22. As a result, it was found that there is a significant relationship between the sub-dimensions of the theory of planned behavior and online shopping intention. Additionally, the results indicated that older consumers' shopping orientation changed according to age, but did not change according to educational background and income level. Besides, it was found that older consumers' shopping orientation had an influence on online shopping intention; however, older consumers' shopping orientation has no influence on online shopping intention, when it was tested with the sub-dimensions of theory of planned behavior.

Key words: Older consumers, Theory of planned behavior, Shopping orientation, Online shopping, Online purchase intention

26/08/2019

STATEMENT OF COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND RULES

I hereby truthfully declare that this thesis is an original work prepared by me; that I have behaved in accordance with the scientific ethical principles and rules throughout the stages of preparation, data collection, analysis and presentation of my work; that I have cited the sources of all the data and information that could be obtained within the scope of this study, and included these sources in the references section; and that this study has been scanned for plagiarism with "scientific plagiarism detection program" whatsoever. I also declare that, if a case contrary to my declaration is detected in my work at any time, I hereby express my consent to all ethical and legal consequences that are involved.

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Seran YÜKSEL

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATION

α: Cronbach's Alpha

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

df: Degrees of Freedom

KMO: Kaiser Meyer Olkin Test of Sampling Adequacy

Std. deviation: Standard deviation

OECD: The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

PBC: Perceived Behavioral Control

SN: Subjective Norm

Sig.: Significance

SIM: Subscriber Identity Module

TPB: Theory of Planned Behavior

TSI: Turkish Statistical Institute

WHO: World Health Organization

X^2: Chi-Square

1. INTRODUCTION

The world population is aging particularly in developed and developing countries. In most developed countries, older adults are the fastest growing demographic group (Vicente and Lopes, 2016) and numerous developing countries like Turkey also expect similar consequences in the near future.

Older adults were an ignored subject to most studies about technology, technological devices, and online shopping based upon the bias about older adults. Older adults were seen as not so tech-savvy, but the new researches indicated that the use of Internet and mobile devices became popular among older adults (TNS, 2013 as cited in Vicente and Lopes, 2016).

Although the population aging, older consumers were a neglected market segment within the context of online shopping, which has become more and more popular among consumers due to technological developments. Older consumers' behavior in the context of online shopping has been investigated mostly in developed countries. Nowadays, these circumstances are changing. Older consumers are seen as a potential market (Pew Internet and American Life Project, 2010 as cited in Lian and Yen, 2014) and industries started to develop and design specialized products and services to meet older consumers' needs (Lian and Yen, 2014).

The theory of planned behavior was used in several researches in the context of online shopping. The theory of planned behavior provides an understanding of the behavior, which is influenced by intention, by using attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991).

Online shopping behavior, online purchase intention, continuance intention of online shopping were the several research subjects that was investigated by the theory of planned behavior (George, 2004 as cited in Lim et al., 2011; Hsu et al., 2006; Lin, 2007 as cited in Lim et al., 2011). Also, Lim et al. (2011) and Chakraborty et al. (2016) used the theory of planned behavior to understand older consumers' behavior in the context of online shopping. Therefore, this research aims to explain older consumers' online purchase intention by using the theory of planned behavior.

Similarly, older consumers' shopping orientation was also a neglected subject unfortunately. Although, consumers' shopping orientation in the offline and online environments was a widely investigated subject for decades (Stone, 1954; Tauber, 1972; Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Babin et al., 1994; Wolfinberger and Gilly, 2001; To et al., 2007;Handa and Gupta, 2014), the researchers did not focus on older consumers' shopping orientation both in the offline and online environments. Thus, within the context of this research, older consumers' shopping orientations in the online environments will be investigated.

1.1. Problem of the Study

This study intends to identify the older consumers' online shopping decisions on the basis of theory of planned behavior primarily. The main problem of the study can be identified as; "Is there any significant relation between the sub-constructs of theory of planned behavior and older consumers' online shopping intention in the context of online shopping?". Secondly, this study intends to clarify the shopping orientations of older consumers and examines the effect of shopping orientations of older consumers on their online shopping decisions. So, the second problem of this study can be identified as: "Is there any significant relation between shopping orientation of older consumers and their online shopping intention?".

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The main objective of this study is to understand online purchase intentions of older consumers in the context of the theory of planned behavior. So, the sub-dimensions of the theory of planned behavior will be used to understand the online purchase intentions of older consumers. The attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control of older consumers will be examined. Also, the shopping orientations of older consumers will be within the scope of this study.

Accordingly, the research questions of this study are stated below:

- Is there any significant relation between gender and previous online shopping experience?
- Is there any significant difference between older consumers' with and without previous online shopping experience in terms of attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and online purchase intention?

- Is there any significant difference among the older consumers with different levels of computer and smart phone skills in terms of online purchase intention?
- Is there any relation between self-rated computer/smart phone skills of older consumers and online purchase intention?
- Is there any significant difference among the older consumers with different average Internet usage time in terms of online purchase intention?
- Is there any relation between the time spend online and online purchase intention?
- Is there any significant difference among age groups in terms of attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and online purchase intention?
- Is there any significant difference among different educational backgrounds in terms of attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and online purchase intention?
- Is there any significant difference among different income levels in terms of attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and online purchase intention?
- Does the older consumers' attitude toward online shopping affect their online purchase intentions?
- Does the subjective norm affect older consumers' online purchase intention?
- Does older consumers' perceived behavioral control affect their online s purchase intention?
- Do the sub-dimensions of the theory of planned behavior (attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control) explain the older consumers' online purchase intention?
- Is there any significant difference between consumers with and without previous online shopping experience in terms of shopping orientations?
- Is there any significant difference among age groups in terms of older consumers' shopping orientations?
- Is there any significant difference among different educational backgrounds in terms of older consumers' shopping orientations?

- Is there any significant difference among different income levels in terms of older consumers' shopping orientations?
- Is there any relation between older consumers' shopping orientations and their online purchase intentions?
- Do the sub-dimensions of the theory of planned behavior (attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control) and shopping orientations of older consumers explain the older consumers' online purchase intention?

1.3. Significance of the Study

The world population is aging particularly in developed and developing countries. In most developed countries, older adults are the fastest growing demographic group (Vicente and Lopes, 2016) and numerous developing countries like Turkey also expect similar consequences in the near future.

Although the population aging, older consumers were a neglected market segment within the context of online shopping, which has become more and more popular among consumers due to technological developments. Nowadays, older consumers are seen as a potential market (Pew Internet and American Project, 2010 as cited in Lian and Yen, 2014).and industries started to design specialized products and services to meet older consumers' needs (Lian and Yen, 2014).

Therefore, this research aims to explain older consumers' online purchasing intention, by using the theory of planned behavior. Additionally, the lack of researches about older consumers, older consumers' shopping orientations in the online environments will be investigated. The findings of this study will be useful to the academia, practitioners, international marketing specialist and to the general public.

1.4. Limitations

First of all, this study was geographically limited to the older consumers, who live in Eskişehir and İzmir.

Secondly, snowball sampling was used in data gathering process due to the difficulty of finding the older consumers with the knowledge of basic computer/smart phone skills. But as one of the characteristics of snowball sampling, the results cannot be generalized.

Thirdly, this study was mostly focused on older consumers, who are below 65 years old, due to the difficulty of finding older consumers over 65 years old, with the knowledge of basic computer/smart phone skills. Thus, in order to understand shopping orientation and online purchase intention of older consumers in Turkey, the number of the respondents over 65 years old must be increased.

And finally, the difficulty of finding older consumers with the knowledge of basic computer/smart phone skills resulted the smallness of the sample size.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Aging Population and Older Consumers

Changing demographic structure of the world is a fact cannot be overlooked. As the older population has increased all around the world, a new type of consumers with different needs and wants has created. Thus, prior information about aging population and older consumers will be given in this part. At first, changing demographic structure, aging population, and aging consumers will be discussed. Secondly, information about older consumers' usage rate of technology, internet and mobile devices will be given. Finally, older consumers' characteristics and attitude toward online shopping orientations will be discussed.

2.1.1. Changing demographic structure

The world's demographic structure has changed throughout history and even now it is changing. Currently, the world population and the population of Turkey is aging and this situation has been termed as population aging.

The population aging term means that, due to change of a population's age structure, a decrease in the share of children and young people in that population, and relative increase in the share of elderly people (over 60 years or over 65 years) (DPT as cited in Mandıracıoğlu, 2010). To put it simply, increasing life expectancy and falling fertility rates are two key drivers of population aging (World Health Organization, 2015).

Gerontology is a multi-disciplinary field of science that examines old age, ageing process, and the particular problems of older people and it has three components; the biological, the psychological, and the social (Victor, 2013).

2.1.2. Aging population

The population of the world is aging, due to outreached expected length of life and decreasing fertility rate. The world population turns into a middle-aged and mature society from young-oriented society (Dychtwald, 1997 as cited in Niemelä-Nyrhinen, 2007).

According to World Health Organization (WHO)'s (2015, p. 44) report, in 2015 the proportion of population aged 60 years or older in the countries that are members of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) is changing averagely between 20-24% - 25-29%. Turkey has 20-24% of population aged 60 years and older in 2015 (WHO, 2015, p. 44). The only country in the world that currently has 30+% of population aged 60 years or older is Japan. The other countries in the world 20-24% or less than these percentage of population 60 years and older (WHO, 2015, p. 44) (see Table 2.1).

Considering WHO's projections by 2050 the world is aging. The proportion of population aged 60 years or older in the countries that are members of OECD will change between 30+% and 25-29% by 2050. Turkey is expected to have 25-29% of population aged 60 years and older by 2050. The other countries in the world will have more percentage of population aged 60 years and older than 2015 with an exception of the most of the Sub-Saharan Africa (WHO, 2015, p. 44) (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1. *The proportion of population aged 60 years or older in OECD countries and Turkey in 2015 and 2050 by projection (Source: World report on ageing and health, WHO, 2015)*

	2015	**2050 by projection**
OECD countries	20-24% between 25-29%	25-29% between 30+%
Turkey	20-24%	25-29%

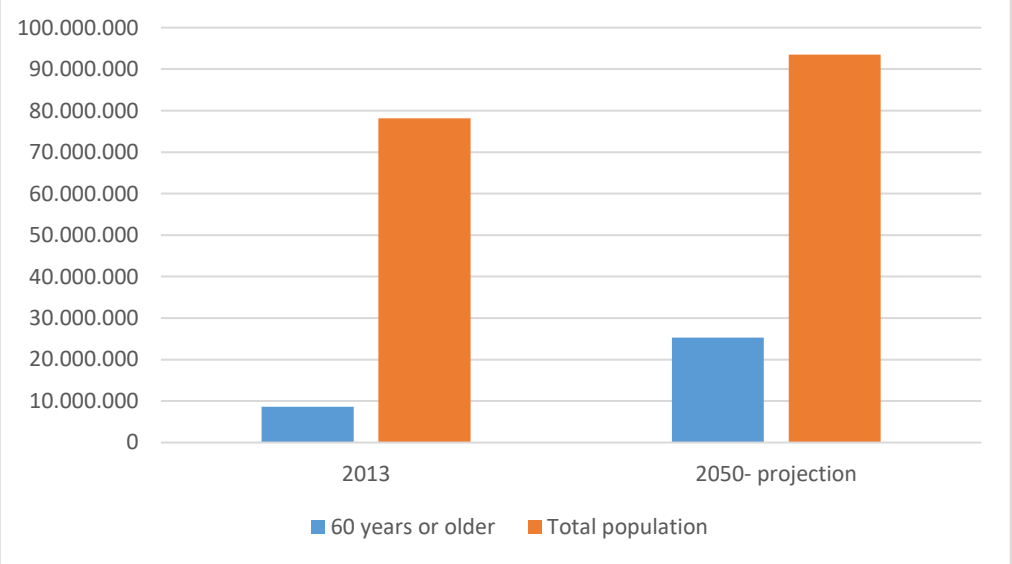
Also, in 2017 the estimated population of people aged 60 years or older is 962 million and by 2050 it is projected to rise almost 2.1 billion around the world (United

Nations, 2017, p. 11). According to United Nations' (2017, p. 11) report, by 2100 the population of people aged 60 years or older could rise to 3.1 billion.

The projections demonstrate that the population of people aged 60 years or older could rise to 3.1 billion by 2100 (United Nations, 2017, p. 44)

In 2013 the population of Turkey was 78.151.750 and the population of 60 years or older was 8.637.298. By 2050 it is expected that, the population of Turkey will be 93.475.575 and the population of 60 years or older will be 25.316.462 according to projections of Turkish Statistical Institute (TSI, 2013, assessed date: 06.06.17) (see Chart 2.1).

Chart 2.1. *The population of 60 years or older in Turkey in 2013 and in 2050 by projection (Source: Population and population projection statistics TSI, 2013)*



2.1.3. Aging consumers

Due to aging population in developed and developing countries, older people have started to seen as a market segment and thus, the aging in consumer behavior has developed as a new research topic. In the literature, the aging consumers have given various names like older adults, elderly consumers, seniors, senior citizens, silver surfers, grey, grey market, mature consumer, and baby boomers. In this study aging consumers labeled as older consumers in the following chapters.

Aging consumers started to seen as a consumer market by researchers in the beginning of the 1970s. In the 1970s, researchers tried to reveal the size and growth of aging consumer market (Klippel, 1974 as cited in Zniva and Weitzl, 2017, p. 268). Phillips and Sternthal (1977) discussed the influence of aging on decision making and consumer behavior (as cited in Zniva and Weitzl, 2017, p. 268).

The discrepancies in behavior due to age were the subject, that researchers examined empirically, in the 1980s (e.g. Schewe, 1984; Tynan and Drayton, 1985 as cited in Zniva and Weitzl, 2017, p. 268). The age here was explained as the years a person lived and titled as "chronological aging (Zniva and Weitzl, 2017, p. 268)".

Davis and Friedrich (2010, p. 202) divided the older aged people into three categories, which are the young-old (60 to 69 years), the middle-old (70 to 79 years), and the old-old (80 to 99 years).

In the 1990s, researchers acknowledged the fact that chronological age cannot explain older consumers' behavior. By this reason, several researchers used different aging theories to explain the aging process. In order to identify the consumer behavior in later life, Moschis (1991, p. 517) examined the traditional theories of aging process. According to traditional theories aging process consists of biological, psychological, and social aspects (Moschis, 1991, p. 517).

Grégoire (2003) presented the influence of age-related changes on consumer responses. Grégoire (2003, p. 20) investigated the influence of age-related changes (i.e. biological, psychological, and social) on consumer behavior.

Moschis (2012) divided chronological aging process into three broad categories as (1) biological aging, (2) psychological aging, and (3) social aging process. These categories are followed by (4) life events and (5) life circumstances (see Figure 2.1).

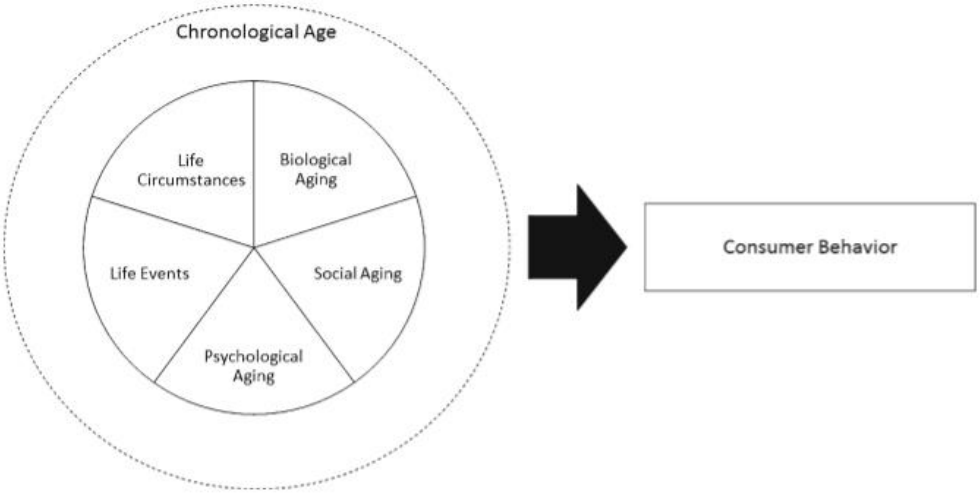


Figure 2.1. *Categorization of age-related factors (Zniva and Weitzl, 2016, p. 271)*

(1) *Biological aging* refers to "the changes in human capacity resulting from changes in cells and tissues that in turn cause deterioration of the biological system and its subsystems (Moschis, 1994, p. 58)". According to Grégoire (2003, p. 20-21), biological aging affects the consumer behavior in later life due to physiological changes like, decline in vision/audition, loss of mobility, constant pain or chronic diseases. The physiological changes can also affect the psychology of older consumers (Maigai and McFadden, 1996 as cited in Grégoire, 2003, p. 20).

(2) *Psychological aging*, refers to the changes of cognition, personality, and the self (Moschis, 2012, p. 58). As people age, they tend to experience decline in memory and cognition (Zniva and Weitzl, 2016, p. 271). The decline in memory and cognition may vary by personal and environmental circumstances (Yoon et al., 2009 as cited in Zniva and Weitzl, 2016, p. 271), but it affects the consumers behavior (Zniva and Weitzl, 2016, p. 271). Additionally, people experience changes in personality and the self. Changes in personality and the self are influenced by "self-perceived age" (Zniva and Weitzl, 2016, p.271). Self-perceived age affects the consumer behavior (Moschis and Mathur, 2006; Teller et al., 2013 as cited in Zniva and Weitzl, 2016, p. 271), because older people may think and feel younger than their chronological age (Zniva and Weitzl, 2016, p. 271).

(3) *Social aging* refers to changes of the relationships, that people experienced as they aged (Moschis, 1994). People's relationship with other change throughout their lives and they may have new roles and responsibilities like being a grandparent (Moschis, 2012, p. 59). Also, these changes affect the products and services they need for their new roles and responsibilities (Moschis, 2012, p. 59).

(4) *Life events* are experienced by people individually. People tend to face unexpected or programmed events throughout their lives (Moschis, 2012, p. 59). People tend to experience life events mostly when they are 40, 50, and 60 years old (Silvers, 1997 as cited in Zniva and Weitz, 2016, p. 272), and these events may affect consumption behavior and shopping habits positively and negatively. The unexpected event may be loss of a spouse and the programmed event may be retirement (Moschis, 2012, p. 272), but both the unexpected and programmed events affect the person's thoughts, and change consumption behaviors and shopping habits (Andreasen, 1984 and Marthur et al., 2003, 2008 as cited in Zniva and Weitzl, 2016, p. 272).

(5) *Life circumstances* experienced by people collectively and also known as "cohort effects" (Moschis, 2012, p. 59). People who lived with same historical and environmental factor are expected to have same thoughts, consumption behaviors, and shopping habits (Moschis, 2012, p. 59; Moschis and Marthur, 2007 as cited in Zniva and Weitzl, 2016, p. 272).

2.1.4. Older consumers and technology

Until recently young adults were subject to most studies and discussions about technology, technological devices, and use of technological innovations and adaptation to them (Vicente and Lopes, 2016). This situation was predominantly based on the prejudice that older adults are averse to technology, unwilling to experiment technological innovations and prefer to do things in old-fashioned way (Abascal and Civit, 2000; Hazer and Sanli, 2010; Nasir, Hassan, and Jomhari, 2008; Szmigin and Carrigan, 2000 as cited in Vicente and Lopes, 2016). The other reason, which caused to lack of research interest about the older adults and technological issues is the negative image of the elderly since the early 21th century in consequence of their lack of productivity and loss of social prestige (Dias, 2012 as cited in Vicente and Lopes, 2016). Many studies indicated a strong negative correlation between age and technology

adoption and use (e.g. Czaja and Lee, 2007; Morris, Goodman, and Brading, 2007; Neves and Amaro, 2012; van Deursen and van Dijk, 2014 as cited in Vicente and Lopes, 2016).

However, this issue gradually has started to change and older adults have started to gain more attention in academic, business and technology worlds due to many reasons (Vicente and Lopes, 2016). First of all, as indicated before older adults are the fastest growing demographic group in most developed countries (Vicente and Lopes, 2016) and numerous developing countries like Turkey also expect similar consequences in the near future. Secondly, the older adults of today have different values, attitudes, life expectancies, life styles and financial possessions from previous generations hence the knowledge about older adults needs to be updated (Ahmad, 2002 as cited in Vicente and Lopes, 2016). Furthermore, several studies indicate that older adults are similar to other people in terms of technology acceptance and adoption and they should not be called as technophobic (e.g. Conci et al, 2009; Mallenius, Rossi, and Tuunainen, 2007; Morris et al, 2007; Rogers, Mayhom, and Fisk, 2009; Rogers and Mynatt, 2003; Selwyn, 2004; Steele, Secomble, and Wong, 2009; Vuori and Holmlund-Rytkönen, 2005 as cited in Vicente and Lopes, 2016).

Moreover, older adults should not be seen as a homogeneous group, because they comprise of several sub-groups with distinct life styles, values, motivations, attitudes, outlook, self-perceptions, and financial possessions (Bone, 1991; Vuori and Holmlund-Rytkönen, 2005). When it comes to segmenting this heterogeneous market, even though chronological age is one of the most common method, Bone (1991) suggested five key segmentation criteria which are discretionary income and health as demographic variables; discretionary time and activity level as lifestyle variables, and response to other people as psychological variable. Moschis et al (2004) also studied on the segmentation of the consumers aged 55 and older and developed the life-stage model that contains four mature consumer segments, which are healthy hermits, ailing outgoers, frail reclusives, and healthy indulgers (as cited in Moschis, 2007).

Although the new technologies like internet and mobile/ smart phones appear to be seen as designed for the young people, the older generations have started to arouse interest to them. The use of internet and mobile/ smart phones have increased and correspondingly the concept of online shopping, which can be seen as another example of the new technologies, showed up and spread out.

2.1.4.1. Older consumers and internet

The everyday use of internet is mostly realized by younger generations and the most people in productive age. Initially, the computers and internet were coded as the domain of younger generations. Therefore, the use of internet was not so common among older adults (Carpentier Reifova and Fiserova, 2012).

The internet was across the globe, although the number of older people browsing online is growing due to the increase in the size of aging population surprisingly older age groups have received little attention (Vuori and Holmund-Rytkönen, 2005). The internet with its new communication and information possibilities and still increasing accessibility should be considered as a great opportunity for elderly to remain an active part of the society (Carpentier Reifova and Fiserova, 2012).

Öztürk et al. (2012) investigated older Turkish consumers' relationship with information and communication technology (smart phone, computer, and Internet). They conducted a qualitative study and segmented older consumers into four groups as; technology opponents, technology lovers, survivors, and technology ignorants. This study indicated that older Turkish consumers did not assort with technological developments predominantly. Additionally, they stated that, most of the participants don't have an Internet connection at home (9 out of 13) and don't use the Internet (11 out of 13). Interestingly, most of the participants (8 out of 13) think that they have a pretty good knowledge about Internet. Additionally, the technology lovers segment stated their purpose of the use of the Internet. Older consumers in this group use the Internet to retrieve information (about the topics which they are interested in), read online news (e.g. sports) and, shop via Internet.

Generally older adults use the internet to send e-mails, search for information about goods and services, read online news, and retrieve information on health and culture. Online communication is particularly useful when staying in touch with family members who live far away and whom the older adults meet very rarely. Also, an easier access to public and welfare services can be another benefit for older adults. Furthermore, services like internet banking can save time and prevent elderly from unnecessary walking. Besides these services, downloading music or movies, watching online TV etc., also make the life of younger generations more comfortable and easier and can be beneficial even for older adults (Carpentier Reifova and Fiserova, 2012).

The internet is emphasized with its significant potential to increase life quality in the old age. Growing older seems more secure today with better social and medical care and its result of longer life expectancy and it provides broader variety of life style options within an active approach to old age (Carpentier Reifova and Fiserova, 2012).

When the benefits of the internet cannot be disregarded, the older adults' usage of internet should be examined. Between 2004 and 2016, a survey conducted by TSI has examined the usage rate of computer and internet in last 3 months by individuals. The individuals divided by age groups and gender. The older age groups' results can be seen in the Table 2.2 and Table 2.3. As it can be seen the usage rate of computer and internet has increased throughout 2004 and 2016. It seems that the older adults are keener to use and get the benefits provided by these technologies, and also it is possible that they can get the benefits.

Table 2.2. *The older adults' usage rate of computer and internet by last 3 months in 2004 (Source: Individuals using the computer and Internet in the last 3 months by age groups, TSI, 2013)*

	Age groups	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
Computer	55-64	4,0	0,7	2,3
	65-74	0,8	0,1	0,4
Internet	55-64	2,7	0,6	1,6
	65-74	0,9	0,1	0,4

Table 2.3. *The older adults' usage rate of computer and internet by last 3 months in 2016 (Source: Individuals using the computer and Internet in the last 3 months by age groups, TSI, 2013)*

	Age groups	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
Computer	55-64	22,2	10,1	16,1
	65-74	9,2	4,3	6,5
Internet	55-64	28,9	13,3	21,0
	65-74	12,5	5,8	8,8

2.1.4.2. Older consumers and mobile devices

Technological changes have affected our daily lives and the mobile devices have started to improve the quality of life. Mobile devices are currently a must for many people and no longer cannot be separated from everyday life. Mobile devices enable communication and interaction among people and due to that they increase the speed and volume of information between people. Older adults are also have been affected from those developments and they are seeking to learn how to use them better and more efficiently.

The term "mobile" is still discussed because there is a confusion between concepts that are used synonymously (Heis et al., 2016). This term can indicate different devices like wireless connections, Bluetooth, tablets, smartphones, laptops etc. But in this thesis, this term will be directly related to mobility and connectivity like the research of Heis et al. (2016). Tablets and smartphones can be given as the main examples of mobile devices that are directly related to mobility and connectivity.

In recent years, mobile communication technology has gained worldwide popularity. Mobile phone ownership rates reaching impressive levels in some countries. In 2012, there were nearly 400 million mobile phone subscribers and almost 629 million active SIM (Subscriber Identity Module) cards in Europe. These results are expected to rise to 417 million mobile phone subscribers and 700 million active SIM cards by 2017 (Fernandez-Ardevol, 2010 as cited in Vicente and Lopes, 2015).

In 2013, TSI conducted a survey about availability of devices in households in Turkey. According to this survey 31,4% of households have portable computers (e.g. laptop and netbook), 6,2% of them have tablet computer, 93,7% of them have mobile phone including smart phone. Same survey conducted in 2015 and the rates were increased to 36,4% of households for portable computer ownership (e.g. laptop and netbook), 29,6% for tablet computers, and to 96,9% for mobile phone ownership including smart phone. Availability of mobile phone has dominance among others which allows people to stay in touch and easy access to information anywhere and anytime.

The level of mobile phone adoption is different across subgroups. In the EU27 member states, almost all citizens below the age of 55 have a mobile phone but for those aged 75 and over this rate is only 55% (TNS, 2013 as cited in Vicente and Lopes, 2015).

There are different usage patterns of different age groups. Younger people's use of mobile phones is driven mainly by social and psychological motivations (Vicente and Lopes, 2015). Adults generally use them for personal/family safety and job-related purposes (Conci, Pianesi, and Zancarano, 2009 as cited in Vicente and Lopes, 2015). Older adults mostly use mobile phones as a support for their functional autonomy and continuing living independently in their own homes (Boulton-Lewis, Buys, Lovie-Kitchin, Barnett, and David, 2007 as cited in Lopes and Vicente, 2015).

2.1.5. Older consumers and online shopping

Online shopping is used frequently by consumers under favor of the development of technological devices and Internet. Thus, the relation between consumers and online shopping widely examined by the researchers. Regrettably, the older consumers' relationship with online shopping has been neglected by most of the researchers. Therefore, older consumers' behavior toward online shopping was discussed in this chapter.

As mentioned before, the population of older adults are increasing in developed and developing countries. Also, the rate of the Internet usage and ownership of mobile devices (e.g. smartphones, tablet computers, laptops) and computers among older adults are remarkable. Although, older adults are more tech-savvy nowadays than the past, the use of the Internet is accepted as the domain of the youth. Therefore, this potential market of older adults has been neglected by researchers and practitioners, and the online behaviors of older consumer was a less considered subject for them.

Whilst the number of older consumers is increasing, to date there has been a general neglect of older consumers by marketers. In spite of this situation, their value has been emphasized by various researchers (Bartos, 1980; Dodge 1958; Gelb; 1975, 1978; Gunter, 1998; Moschis 1992; Nielson and Curry, 1997; Strous, 2005 as cited in Angell et. al, 2012). Demographic interplay of online shopping orientation and behavior has been studied extensively by researchers. Some studies have outlined the association between demographic factors that are linked with online purchasing behaviors by country and some of them were focused on gender, income, age and education (Kwarting and Pilik, 2016).

Older consumers' behavior in the context of online shopping subject has been investigated mostly in developed countries. The "Pew Internet & American Life Project

2010" report, which was conducted in United States, stated that older adults' online skills are improving and they are expected to be more active online in the future (Zichkur and Coordinator, 2010 as cited in Lian and Yen, 2014).

As the "Pew Internet & American Life Project 2010" report indicated the increasing tendency of older adults' online activity in the future, the marketers and practitioners should pay more attention to this potential market (as cited in Lian and Yen, 2014). In the past, older consumers have not been recognized as a target market for online shopping operations, but this way of thinking is changing these days. Nowadays, more and more industries are seeing seniors as a potential market and they are developing/ designing specialized products and services for them (Lian and Yen, 2014).

This change has not happened just because of the increase of the older consumers' online activity. Their income level and willingness to purchase increased in comparison to 30 years ago (Ahonen and Vaittinen, 2015; Atkinson and Hayes, 2010 as cited in Kuoppamaki, 2017). Also, older consumers have more leisure time than younger consumers.

Older consumers are accepted as people who are born between the years 1946 and 1964 and generally seen as a homogeneous group. However, they can be segmented by their age and objective of life. Boschini (2015) stated that baby boomers can be segmented as two distinct groups: (1) younger boomers, and (2) older boomers. (1) *Younger boomers* were born between the years 1964 and 1956, and their objective of life includes having a carrier, and raising a family. (2) *Older boomers* were born between the years 1955 and 1946, and their objective of life includes retirement, becoming a grandparent, and they have different possibilities about how they are willing to change their life beyond the career and the family. The marketers can determine different online shopping strategies for each segmented group.

Also, several studies have underlined the fact that overlooking the over-60s consumer group could be a misjudgment as they are generally financially attractive (Metz and Underwood, 2005; Stroud, 2005; Treuger, 2002; Wolfe and Snyder, 2003 as cited in Angell et. al, 2012).

In summary, marketers and practitioners should recognize and focus on the older consumers in the context of online shopping, because they have money and time to make

purchases and their population are increasing, even though this population may need to be segmented in case of marketing and selling the products and services.

In addition, Pew Internet Survey (2011) indicated that online shopping attitude differs by age (Horrigan, 2008 as cited in Chattaraman et al., 2012). Compared to the younger responderts older consumers, who are 50 years and older in this study, thought that online shopping process is more complicated, time-consuming, and less convenient (Horrigan, 2008 as cited in Chattaraman et al., 2012). Correspondingly, older users tend to face barriers while adopting online shopping, despite the fact that the online shopping is becoming crucial for them because of the negative effect of the age on out-of-home mobility (McMellon and Schiffman, 2000 as cited in Chattaraman et al., 2012).

Online shopping is beneficial for older consumers as their out-of-home mobility declines. Thus, one of the key drivers of online shopping for them is the opportunity to purchase services and goods online, which means they do not need to leave their homes to access the needed product and service (Debicka et al., 2018). Lian and Yen (2014) also determined convenience as the major driver, and performance expectation and social influence as drivers on older adults' online shopping intention. Performance expectation expresses that the users expect that information technologies have a positive effect on their job performance. In the context of online shopping performance expectation refers to browsing the products and comparing them better (Lian and Yen, 2014). Social influence points out how the consumers' peers expect them the use of new information technology and in the context of online shopping it shows how the consumers' online shopping is influenced by the people (e.g. family, spouses, colleagues, etc.) they care about (Lian and Yen, 2014).

Prensky (2001) defined older adults' as "digital immigrants" (as cited in Obal and Kurz, 2012). Even though when older adults were born there was not a technological world, they had to adapt new technology into their lives (Obal and Kurz, 2012). Thus, they faced barriers in the terms of new technologies and online shopping. However, there are few studies about older consumers and online shopping in the literature, the studies which approach the subject from the "barrier perspective" are fewer.

Lian and Yen (2014) determined three major barriers preventing older consumers to shop online. The major barriers are: (1) value, (2) risk, and (3) tradition. (1) *Value* is

considered as a barrier when the consumers couldn't differentiate the innovative product and the existing product. If the innovative product has not a higher value than existing products, the consumers will be less willing to use the innovative product. In the context of online shopping, convenience and economic advantages can be given as examples. If the consumers do not think that online shopping is much more economical, and convenient than visiting brick-and-mortar stores, they will prefer much likely to use traditional shopping ways. (2) *Risk* is a barrier for the consumers because when the consumers do not understand the innovative product, they cannot predict and accept the risks and uncertainties associated with the after use of the product. In the context of online shopping, if the consumers are feeling uneasy while buying online, because of the chances of losing their username and password, which may also end up in wrong hands, or purchasing a wrong product; they will tend to prefer less likely to use online shopping by the reason of not knowing what to do after these situations emerge. (3) *Tradition* is a barrier for consumers because the innovation attempts to change and conflict with the consumers' existing culture. In terms of online shopping, if the consumers like visiting physical stores and buying products and services with salespersons' guidance, their existing shopping choice will be a barrier to prevent them buying online.

Debicka et al. (2018) investigated older adults purchasing decision in the context of online shopping in Poland, and found that the lack of the possibility to touch or see the product is the one of the major disadvantages for older consumers. The other major and most important disadvantage while shopping online is the risk of getting the product, which isn't matching with the description. Getting a faulty product is also a major barrier for them.

Additionally, understanding the drivers and barriers which affect older consumers' purchasing decisions allows marketers and practitioners to understand how to meet older consumers' demands and requirements. Also, understanding the characteristics of the so-called baby boomer generation is important for adjusting online stores and using new technologies to meet their demands and requirements (Debicka et al., 2018). Achieving success is important for them. Solidarity and loyalty are also seen as important values. As a generation grew up in difficult conditions, baby boomers value safety and stability greatly (Debicka et al., 2018).

According to the research of Rahman and Hussain (2014), older consumers' online purchases are affected by safety concern and ease of use of the website. In the context of online shopping, safety concern is an important issue. Khalifa and Limayem (2003) stated that the less the consumers are worried about security breaches, the more they will use online shopping (as cited in Chakraborty, 2016).

Also, the security and safety of online payment plays an important role in older consumers' online shopping intention (Rahman and Hussain, 2014). Older consumers may avoid shopping online in case of distrust of security and safety concerns (Rahman and Hussain, 2014). On the contrary, Grimes et al. (2010) found that even though older adults' awareness level of security risks on the internet is lower than younger adults, they avoid security risks better than younger adults (as cited in Chakraborty et al., 2016).

Chakraborty et al. (2016) investigated the older adults' online shopping intention in case of data breach in online stores. They found that older adults' online shopping intention is significantly affected by data breach in online stores. Their study demonstrated that self-monitoring of bank transactions reduces the impact of the post data breach on older consumers' intention to shop online.

Obal and Kurz (2012) analyzed how the consumers develop trust in e-services. Their results indicated that older consumers value privacy and they look for cues, which may show the privacy of the website, before the online transactions. They found that referrals for the vendor were the most important determinant for older consumers because they tend to be skeptical about online vendors. The feedback mechanisms and website navigability were less important for them than for millennials.

Although Obal and Kurz's (2012) research demonstrated that website navigability is not a strong determinant of online trust for older consumers, perceived ease of use of the websites and website design for older consumers considered as important issues which has investigated by several researchers.

Older adults are expected to have worse eyesight, motor-skills and cognitive skills compared to young adults (Becker, 2004; Gregor and Newell, 2001; Hawthorn, 2000 as cited in Rahman and Hussain, 2014). Thus, older consumers have troubles with computer use and navigation of the websites (Rahman and Hussain, 2014) as most of the websites are not designed with older adults in mind (Reisenwitz et al., 2007 as cited in Rahman

and Hussain, 2014). Therefore, if an online shopping website is designed with older adults in mind specifically, it may increase company's competitiveness and revenue eventually.

Website design plays an important role for older consumers' online shopping decisions because older consumers' online shopping decisions depend on the perceived ease of website use. Websites should be designed in an elderly-friendly way which does not use small font size, hyperlinks, overlapping windows, and complicated search bars (Pepper, 2002 as cited in Rahman and Hussain, 2014).

Djamasbi et al. (2011) focused on aesthetics of a website's rather than functionality of it. They investigated how website experience differs for two generational cohorts, which are baby boomer generation and generation y, and tested it with eye tracking technology. They found that baby boomer generation opt the website pages which contain images and little text. Also, they tolerated more web components than younger ones.

Although most of the websites has not designed for older adults but for their younger counterparts, the websites, which is designed with elderly friendly attitude, have a great potential. An online store, which is called "theboomshop.com", has been designed for only for older consumers. This online store has made their main focus as baby boomers and sells products that fits the life of 50+ consumers. Its website contains stylish products for older consumers like reading glasses, travel accessories, anti-fatigue mats, naturel supplement solutions which has been selected by specialist and doctors. Theboomshop.com has also an elderly-friendly interface that provides aesthetics, ease of use, and functionality. The older consumers can look for the needed products at first then even order them via telephone.

When the "online shopping" subject has discussed in detail, the influence of consumer reviews on online purchasing decisions cannot be overlooked. Von Helversen et al. (2018) investigated the influence of single affect-rich positive or negative consumer reviews on online purchasing decisions and found that the single affect-rich negative review of a product/service has a great influence on older consumers but interestingly, the single affect-rich positive review and average consumer ratings of a product/service have no influence on them at all. Additionally, product attributes have taken into account by older adults while making purchasing decisions online.

Kuoppamäki et al. (2017) examined how the Finnish older adults' use of the mobile technology (i.e. smartphones and tablet) for online shopping and found that the older adults which have a graduate diploma tend to purchase via their smartphones and tablets more than others. Additionally, presence of a child at home increases online shopping tendency via mobile technology because the child can teach them the technological skills they needed, also encourage them to shop online. Also, Kuoppamäki et al. (2017) found that while education is a strong predictor of purchasing online, gender is not.

A study which has been carried out in Canada has distinguished the online activities of Canadian boomers (which is aged between 45 and 64) and seniors (which is aged 65 and older). The results of this research have revealed that internet shopping includes not only purchasing online, but also browsing products and services online to gather information (window shopping) about them for making future purchasing decisions, which may result in either an online or in-store purchase (Veenhof and Timusk, 2007). In addition, the most popular online purchases were travel arrangements and reading materials such as books, magazines and online papers (Veenhof and Timusk, 2007). Accordingly, since seniors typically purchase less than boomers in general; the internet usage and online purchasing of seniors of tomorrow, which are boomers currently, is expected to rise as they will spend more time online than today's seniors (Veenhof and Timusk, 2007).

As well as the study that is conducted in a developed country like Canada, there are studies conducted in developing countries like Ghana. Kwarting and Pılik (2016) has conducted a study about the effect of demographic factors on online shopping behavior. According to this study, people over 51 were not advocate for the use of internet shopping mostly.

In a study, which was conducted in Poland, the older consumer segment spends their money on mostly cinema/theatre tickets (44%), then respectively clothes and accessories (38%), and books, CDs, and DVDs (12%) (Debicka et al., 2018).

2.2. Theory of Planned Behavior

Theory of planned behavior (TPB) was established by Ajzen (1991, p. 181) as an extension of theory of reasoned action (TRA). In need of dealing with the limitations and further additions of the theory of reasoned action, the theory of planned behavior was developed (Ajzen, 1991, p. 181).

Theory of reasoned action assumed that an individual's intention has an immediate effect on her/his action and focused on "volitional behavior" of the individual (Ajzen, 1985, p. 12). Originally, theory of reasoned action consisted of two determinants which are: (1) attitude toward behavior and (2) subjective norm (Ajzen, 1985, p. 12). Ajzen (1985, p. 12) stated that attitude toward behavior is determined by personal thoughts (positive and negative) and subjective norm is affected by social influence. These two determinants affect the individual's intention to perform a behavior or not.

As mentioned before, theory of reasoned action assumes that the individual has "volitional control" over behavior (Ajzen, 1985, p. 35-36). Ajzen (1985, p. 36) indicated the fact that some people have limitations (e.g. skills, knowledge, ability, time) to perform a behavior cannot be overlooked. By the reason of that, another determinant, which is known as perceived behavioral control (PBC), needed to be added to the research model in order to explain an individual's control over the circumstance (Ajzen, 1985, p. 36).

Theory of planned behavior consists three independent determinants which predict intention to perform any behavior. These determinants are: (1) attitude toward behavior, (2) subjective norm, and (3) perceived behavioral control. (1) *Attitude toward behavior* is about the individual's positive or negative thoughts on performing any behavior, (2) *subjective norm* refers to social influence of performing a behavior or not, and (3) *perceived behavioral control* is individual's limitations or ease of performing any behavior (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). Intention can be interpreted to an individual's willingness to perform a certain behavior and it is determined by these factors and behavior is influenced by behavioral intention and perceived behavioral control jointly (Ajzen, 1991, p. 182). Intention is seen as the best determinant to explain the behavior (Ajzen, 1991 as cited in Herrero-Crespo and Rodriguez del Bosque, 2008, p. 2832). There are two explanations to this circumstance. Firstly, perceived behavioral control affects behavioral intention to perform or not to perform any behavior and secondly perceived behavioral

control can be used as a substitute to measure the actual behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991, p. 184).

If an individual has the resources and the ability to perform a certain behavior, then the term of actual behavioral control can be spoken of. Measuring actual behavioral control may be difficult or impossible in many circumstances, therefore perceived behavioral control can be used as a substitute (https://people.umass.edu/aizen/abc.html assessed date: 15.07.19).

According to theory of planned behavior, an individual's positive attitude toward a certain behavior and positive subjective norm regarding a certain behavior should have stronger influence on an individual's intention to perform this behavior (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). Additionally, if an individual has more control (PBC) over the circumstances which may affect his/her intention of performing this behavior, like his/her skills, abilities, time, money, etc., an individual's intention to perform this behavior should be more likely higher (Ajzen, 1991, p.188). The magnitude of these independent determinants that predict the intention may vary by case (Ajzen, 1991, p.188).

Ajzen (1991, p. 189) stated that human behavior is directed by three identified "salient beliefs". These beliefs are separated and identified as*:* (1) behavioral beliefs, (2) normative beliefs, *and* (3) control beliefs. (1) *Behavioral beliefs* refer to the beliefs of possible outcome or the attribute of performing or not performing a certain behavior (Ajzen, 1991, p. 191). (2) *Normative beliefs* refer to the possible positive or negative social influence or pressure about performing a certain behavior (Ajzen, 1991, p. 195). (3) *Control beliefs* identified as "a set that deal with the presence or absence of requisite resources and opportunities (Ajzen, 1991, p. 196)".

The diagram of the theory of planned behavior is given at Figure 2.2.

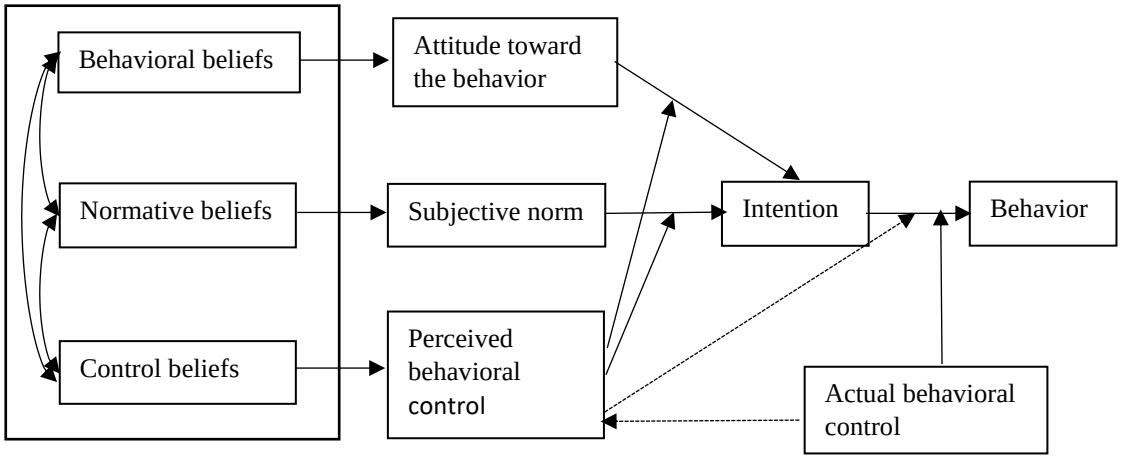


Figure 2.2. *Diagram of the theory of planned behavior (Source: https://people.umass.edu/aizen/tpb.diag.html, assessed date: 15.07.19)*

2.2.1. Use of theory of planned behavior within the context of online shopping

Theory of planned behavior has been used by several researchers in the area of online shopping. Most of these researches was used the younger subjects (e.g. undergraduate students, younger consumers) as sample because of the belief, which younger people are potential consumers in e-commerce as they are considered as tech-savvy (Lim et al., 2011, p. 1712). Lim et al. (2011) summarized the researches that used the theory of planned behavior on younger consumers' online purchase intention. As an example, Lin (2007) examined the undergraduate students' online purchase intention for textbooks (as cited in Lim et al., 2011, p. 1712). Additionally, Hsu et al. (2006) examined undergraduate students' continuance intention of using online shopping and George (2004) examined actual online purchasing behavior of undergraduate students (as cited in Lim et al., 2011, p. 1712).

Some of the researchers used the theory of planned behavior by adding other dimensions of their study. Yang (2012) used the theory of planned behavior to investigate mobile shopping adoption by adding consumer technology traits to the research model. Limayem et al. (2000) used this theory to determine the factors which affects online shopping intention by adding perceived innovativeness and perceived consequences to the research model. Herrero Crespo and Rodriguez del Bosque (2008) also investigated the factors which may lead Internet users to use online shopping by using the theory of planned behavior. They added personal innovativeness to their research model. In

summary, the use of the theory of planned behavior varies by the objective of the online shopping researches.

2.2.2. Use of theory of planned behavior for understanding the older consumers' online shopping behavior

Theory of planned behavior was used by fewer researchers with respect to older consumers' online shopping behavior and intention in consequence of them to be not seen as potential consumers in the context of online shopping. Lim et al. (2011) investigated Malaysian baby boomers' online shopping intention by using the theory of planned behavior. They used baby boomers who have never purchased online as sample. They found that attitude and subjective norm have influence on online purchase intention but interestingly perceived behavioral control has no influence on online purchase intention. Also, they suggested several implications for marketing researchers who want to focus on grey market (Lim et al., 2011, p. 1715-1716).

Another research, which was investigated by Chakraborty et al. (2016, p. 48), compared older adults' (above 55 years) and younger adults' (below 55 years) online shopping intention within the context of post data breach by using the theory of planned behavior. Chakraborty et al. (2016, p. 52) found that trusting beliefs and attitude toward online shopping have a significant influence on older consumers' online shopping intention after data breach.

2.3. Online Shopping Orientation

The shopping orientation term has been emerged by the need of segmenting customers. The researchers have developed interest in shopping orientation due to gain maximum revenues and profits from specific consumer segments who have a variety of attitudes toward shopping (Vyncke, 2002; Westbrook and Black, 1985 as cited in Kim et al., 2011). In addition, the use of shopping orientation to segment consumers offers managers in general a deeper view of their consumers (Rigopoulou et al., 2008).

The shopping orientation is defined by several researchers (Stone 1954; Lumpkin 1985; Hawkins et a. 1989; Darden and Dorsch 1990; Shim and Kotsiopulos 1992a as cited in Rigopoulou et al. 2008) as shopping or shoppers' style, encompassing interests, opinions, attitudes, shopping preferences, activities and behaviors prior, during and after shopping process. Shopping orientation has been defined as the "desired consumer value

(assessed prior to a specific shopping activity), instead of received shopping value (assessed after a specific shopping activity)" (Kim et al., 2014, p. 2885).

Some researchers (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Childers et al., 2002; Cardoso and Pinto, 2010 as cited in Cervellon et al., 2015) stated that "shopping orientation" and "shopping motivation" terms were different from each other. According to them, shopping motivation differs from shopping orientation because shopping motivation derives benefit from shopping experience with no intention to purchase goods necessarily.

The shopping orientation has been a major research topic since Stone (1954) introduced the concept of retail shopper typology based on shoppers' social characteristics. Stone (1954) classified four consumer types: (1) economic, (2) personalizing, (3) ethical, and (4) apathetic. (1) *Economic consumer type* is extremely sensitive to price, quality, and assortment of merchandise and values efficiency. (2) *Personalizing consumer type* tends to shop at a store which he/she formed personal attachments with store personnel and wants to be treated in a personal manner. (3) *Ethical consumer type* shops where he/she thinks that it is ethical to shop there and is willing to sacrifice lower prices or a wider selection of goods to achieve this goal. (4) *Apathetic consumer type* isn't interested in shopping and shops only he/she have to. The stores' convenient location is important for them to purchase goods because they want to minimize the effort, they have to use for shopping activities.

Tauber (1972) investigated further why people shop based on hypothesis that some motives for shopping may be unrelated to the need of purchasing goods, and people may gain satisfaction from shopping activity instead of the need. According to his research, the motivations for shopping activity may be personal (e.g. role playing, diversion, self-gratification, learning about new trends, physical activity, and sensory stimulation), and social (e.g. social experiences outside the home, communication with others having a similar interest, peer group attraction, status and authority, and pleasure of bargaining. In addition, he hypothesized that the shopping activities may satisfy the personal and social need which is different than the need of purchasing goods, itself. Also, impulse shopping may be prompted by the motives identified above with unplanned purchase intended.

Hirschman and Holbrook (1982b, p. 139) extended the research of Tauber (1972) with the important factors of the consumption experience which has been neglected until that time. The factors emerged were; (1) the role of esthetic products, (2) multisensory aspects of product enjoyment, (3) the syntactic dimension of communication, (4) time budgeting in the pursuit of pleasure, (5) product-related fantasies and imagery, (6) feeling arising from consumption, and (7) the role of play in providing enjoyment and fun.

Thereafter, the researchers have studied diversified shopping orientation based on consumers' lifestyle and demographic characteristics (e.g., Cho and Song, 2010; Kwon et al., 1991; Lumpkin, 1985; Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1993 as cited in Kim et al., 2011).

Kim et al. (2011) revealed that four retail shopper types represent the consumers in the new millennium; (1) hedonic shoppers, (2) utilitarian shoppers, (3) demanding shoppers, (4) apathetic shoppers. (1) *Hedonic shoppers*, which tend to be Gen Y and baby boomers with children, like to shop for fun and entertainment whilst (2) *utilitarian shoppers*, which tend to be Gen X, are convenience seeking, sale-prone, and tend to like smart shopping. (3) *Demanding shoppers*, which are the majority of young females, show an interest in hedonic and utilitarian benefits of shopping, at the same time. (4) *Apathetic shoppers*, which tend to be male, baby boomers with high income, and don't have children, have lowest interest and enjoyment in shopping.

Also, the effect of demographic and economic changes in society cannot be overlooked. These changes which have occurred through decades affected consumers' consumption and shopping behaviors (Kim et al., 2011). Although the demographic and economic changes in society (e.g. emphasizing of mass market in the 1950s and 60s, increased number of female workers in the 1970s, and increased number of full-time working women and single men in the 1980s (Zeithaml, 1988 as cited in Kim et al., 2011)) utilitarian shopping was prevalent for decades (Kim et al., 2011). In the 1990s retailers focused on the emotional aspect of shopping (Mathwick et al., 2001 as cited in Kim et al., 2011) and by entering 21st century, both utilitarian and hedonic aspects of shopping have been sought by consumers (Kim et al., 2007 as cited in Kim et al., 2011).

Since the use of internet shopping is increasing, several researchers have examined online shopping orientation and online shopping orientation segments. Saqib

et al. (2016) argued that due to increased use of online shopping the shopping orientation of consumers can vary in terms of their shopping behavior.

Shopping orientation is considered to be a very important indicator of online purchase intention (Gehrt et al., 2007).

Gehrt et al. (2007) examined shopping orientations of Internet users in Japan and determined four types of Internet shopping segments: (1) shopping enjoyment, (2) brand browser, (3) price browser, and (4) dislikes shopping. *Shopping enjoyment segment* has most frequent Internet shopping purchasers among them and members of this segment are influenced by recreation, quality, and impulse orientation. Demographically, they tend to be the males aged between 30 and 39 with household incomes of $30,000-$60,000. *Brand browser segment* is influenced by brand and convenience shopping orientations and inclines to compare and acquire brands promptly. Older consumers, college graduates, and high-income households are members of this segment. Also, they tend to be Internet users who have the longest histories of Internet usage. *Price browser segment* is affected by price, convenience, and recreation shopping orientation. Members of this segment are mostly women, younger consumers, lower income and educational level consumers, and lower Internet experience consumers. *Dislikes shopping segment* includes least Internet shopping purchasers who are not driven by any of the shopping orientations. Members of this segment dislike shopping and they tend to be older, well-educated, professional males who have higher incomes than average.

Brown et al. (2001) examined the relationship between online shopping orientations and online purchase intention. Shopping orientations were divided to seven segments, which are personalizing shoppers, recreational shoppers, economic shoppers, involved shoppers, convenience-oriented recreational shoppers, community-oriented shoppers, and apathetic convenience-oriented shoppers (Brown et al., 2001, p. 1676-1677). They found that all of these shopping orientation does not affect online purchase intention.

Swinyard and Smith (2003) argued that there are two heterogeneous shopper types (online and off-line shoppers) which have been divided by their use of computer and Internet. Online shoppers, which are more comfortable with computer and Internet, find online shopping easy and entertaining. On the contrary, off-line shoppers use Internet for

chatting, visiting news groups, playing games, and looking for jobs. In this study, online and off-line shopper segments determined and compared to each other.

According to Swinyard and Smith (2003), online shopper segments identified as: (1) shopping lovers, (2) adventure explorers, (3) suspicious learners, and (4) business users. (1) *Shopping lovers* like to purchase online and are expected to continue being enthusiastic online buyers. (2) *Adventurous explorers* find online shopping entertaining and can be online shopping advocates in future. (3) *Suspicious learners* are new to use Internet and are not much worried about shopping on the Internet and giving credit card numbers unlike some other segments. (4) *Business users* use Internet for professional purposes mostly and shop online frequently.

Offline segments identified as: (1) fearful browsers, (2) shopping avoiders, (3) technology muddlers, and (4) fun seekers. *Fearful browsers* are capable of using Internet for online shopping but they can't overcome their fears about online shopping risks. Thus, they generally use Internet for looking for products instead of purchasing them online. *Shopping avoiders* have severe obstacles like not understanding Internet ordering process, having doubts about the quality of Internet merchandise, not wanting wait for products to arrive. *Technology muddlers* are the least computer users among all of the shopping segment and viewed as an unattractive target market for online selling. *Fun seekers* use Internet for recreational reasons mostly and don't like to shop online.

Allred et al. (2006) extended the research of Swinyard and Smith (2003) by adding differences between online shoppers and offline shoppers. Online shoppers like online shopping convenience and value, and love browsing online. On the other hand, offline shoppers prefer socializing at brick-and-mortar stores, hate online shopping because of the obstacles like online financial risks, have lesser computer skills to shop online and no e-shopping support group.

Additionally, Allred et al. (2006) determined three online and offline shopper segments. Online shopper segments identified as: (1) socializers, (2) e-shopping lovers, and (3) e-value leaders. *Socializers* spend online frequently although they spend more at local retail stores. It is expected to see this segment as opinion leaders. *E-Shopping lovers* have a significant share in online shopper segments and spend online more than other. *E-*

Value leaders spend the most time online and have the best computer skills among others. This shopper segment is already an opinion leader of online shopping.

Offline shopper segments are identified as: (1) fearful conservatives, (2) shopping averters, and (3) technology muddlers. *Fearful conservatives* have limited computer skills to shop online and characterized by their online insecurity. *Shopping averters* are seen as potential online shoppers among other offline shopper segments. *Technology muddlers* lack computer skills to shop online and won't be expected to become a promising online shopper segment in the future.

Moreover, Handa and Gupta (2014) conducted a research based on the relationship between online shopping orientation and shopping orientation, and identified three types of shopping orientations: experiential(experience) orientation, entertainment orientation, and convenience orientation. According to this study, online shoppers tend to be more convenience-oriented than non-online shoppers and also, non-online shoppers tend to be more entertainment- and experiential-oriented than online shoppers. Accordingly, purchasing a product at any time of the day without having to wait long queue is important for online shoppers. Besides non-online shoppers have doubts about the quality of the product that are purchased without seeing and touching.

Handa and Gupta (2014) also stated that online shopping consumers perceive higher level of risks than non-online shoppers. Online shopping consumers are at a disadvantage since they cannot test, experience, and compare products before purchasing them. Shoppers tend to experience the products beforehand (Liao and Cheung, 2001). In addition, they titled these consumers as "touch-and feel" type (Liao and Cheung, 2001).

Liao and Cheung's (2001) findings also have been supported by prior research of Li and colleagues (1999). Li and colleagues (1999) classified consumers as frequent online buyers, occasional online buyers, and non-online buyers and found that the frequency of online shopping is low for the consumers who prefer experiencing products before purchasing. They also found that education, convenience orientation, experience orientation, channel knowledge, accessibility, and distribution have an impact on online shopping behavior. Additively, Liao and Cheung (2001) concluded that the preferred shopping experience by consumers, transaction security, price, vendor quality, IT education and Internet usage affects the purchase willingness of online consumers.

Bellman, Lohse, and Johnson (1999) stated that demographics is not an indicator of online buying behavior and identified two variables which can predict online buying behavior. These variables are (1) wired lifestyle, and (2) time starvation. They also indicated that consumers need to look for product information before purchasing online. In order to do that they must use Internet as frequent as their other activities in daily life. Thus, online consumers must have a (1) *wired lifestyle*. Also, (2) *time starvation* influences the online buying behavior because of the increasing number of working consumers. These consumers tend to shop online because they have less time to visit brick-and-mortar stores in order to look for products and make comparisons.

The security concerns for purchasing goods online are seen as an obstacle for online shopping. Han et al. (2001) conducted a research about online shopping behavior of university students and found that web security concerns have an important impact on potential online consumers. The results also indicated that the students who have higher level of computer and web tools experience, and spend more time on Internet are more likely to shop online than the other students who don't have. They suggested that the security concerns of online shopping can be reduced by getting more computer experience and gaining knowledge about online shopping.

Lee and colleagues (2001) stated two main categories of perceived risk while purchasing online. These main categories are (1) perceived risk associated with product/service and (2) perceived risk associated with online transactions. (1) *Perceived risk associated with product/service* comprises financial, functional, time, opportunity losses and product risk. (2) *Perceived risk associated with online transaction* comprises risk of privacy, security, and nonrepudiation (as cited in Li and Zhang, 2002). In the context of perceived risks that emerged while shopping online financial loss, product risk, risk of privacy and security have been found significant by researchers (Senecal, 2000; Borchers, 2001; Bhatnagar et al., 2002 as cited in Li and Zhang, 2002).

Perceived risk can be reduced by risk relieving offers to online consumers. Providing money-back guarantee, offering well-known brands, and offering price reduction has been identified as good risk reliving attributes (Akaah and Korgaonkar, 1988; Van den Poel and Leunis, 1996 as cited in Van den Poel and Leunis, 1999). Among them, providing a money-back guarantee and offering well-known brands have found to

be more effective on online consumers than offering price reduction (Van den Poel and Leunis, 1999).

Perceived risks can increase if the consumers do not have trust to the online vendors. If there is lack of trust to online vendors, consumers may substitute brand reliability for vendor trust (Lunn and Suman, 2002). Thus, brand-oriented consumers are expected to purchase online due to their reduced sense of perceived risk towards well-known brands (Van den Poel and Leunis, 1999).

These orientations, which has been identified differently by several researchers, are important because they help managers to meet customers' needs and preferences. In order to meet customers' needs and preferences, which can differ for each consumer, it is expected that customers' online shopping orientations can change by product types. Girard et al. (2003) evaluated relation between consumers' online shopping orientation and shopping preferences for various types of products. They examined relationship between shopping orientations, such as price-consciousness, risk-aversion, innovativeness, brand-consciousness, importance of convenience, variety-seeking inclination, and impulsiveness, and purchase preferences for different product types. They divided product types into three categories: (1) experience (e.g. clothing and perfumes), (2) search (e.g. books and DVDs), and (3) credence (e.g. vitamin and air purifiers) products. *Experience products'* qualities cannot be determined by consumers before the purchase, while *search products'* qualities can be determined by consumers' inspection before the purchase (Nelson, 1974 as cited in Girard et al., 2003). *Credence products'* qualities cannot be verified by average consumer even after the purchase (Darby and Karni, 1973 as cited in Girard et al., 2003). Girard et al. (2003) have found that consumers' online shopping orientation and shopping preferences vary by product category. They detected that experience, search, and credence products purchased mostly by convenience and recreational oriented shoppers.

Nirmala and Dewi (2011) conducted a research about the relationship between online shopping orientations and fashion products. They stated brand/fashion consciousness, shopping enjoyment, price consciousness, shopping confidence, convenience/time consciousness, in-home shopping tendency as types of clothing shopping orientations. They found that shopping orientations like shopping enjoyment,

price consciousness, in-home shopping tendency has significant effect on consumers' online shopping intention for fashion products.

2.3.1. Hedonic shopping orientation

Hedonic shopping orientation has become a popular concept since it is proposed by the researchers since in 1990s and retailers focused on the emotional aspect of shopping (Mathwick et al., 2001 as cited in Kim et al., 2011). Thereby, the researchers focused on hedonic aspects of shopping to respond the consumers' emotional needs, especially since the beginning of 21st century (Kim et al., 2007 as cited in Kim et al., 2011).

Holbrook and Hirschman (1982b) investigated the emotional aspects (e.g. feelings, fantasies, entertainment) of shopping. They labeled the newly focused aspect of the shopping orientation as "experiential view (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982b, p. 132)". Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) also labeled the consumers with the tendency of hedonic shopping orientation as recreational shoppers. According to Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980, p. 78), these consumers see shopping as a leisure-time activity and enjoy while shopping. Thus, they stated that these consumers attracted by aesthetic appeal of the store and shopping enjoyment. The results of the study also indicated that these consumers tend to make impulse purchases and go on shopping trip without planning it beforehand (Korgaonkar and Bellenger, 1980, p. 92).

Babin et al. (1994, p. 650) stated that consumers with hedonic shopping orientation identifies shopping as an activity instead of as a task. They like to go on shopping trips, enjoy shopping, and make more impulse purchases than the consumers with utilitarian shopping orientation (Babin et al., 1994, p. 651). Babin et al. (1994, p. 651) stated the reason of the impulse purchases as a result of the consumers' need of coping with their emotions.

Arnold and Reynolds (2003) investigated adult consumers' hedonic shopping orientation and divided hedonic shopping orientation into six categories. These categories were identified as (1) adventure, (2) social shopping, (3) gratification, (4) role, (5) value, and (6) idea shopping orientations. *Adventure shopping orientation* was described as "shopping for adventure, excitement, and entering a different universe of exciting sights, smells, and sounds (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003, p. 80)". The adult consumers with *social shopping orientation*, enjoy shopping when they shop with a family member or friend.*)*

Gratification shopping orientation refers to using shopping for coping with stress or negative mood. *Idea shopping orientation* refers to using shopping for keeping up with new products or services. *Role shopping* refers to feeling enjoyment while shopping for others (e.g. buying gifts for a family member or a friend). The adult consumers' with *value shopping orientation* tend to enjoy shopping when they look for discounts or bargain for a product. Arnold and Reynolds (2003) stated that with the hedonic shopping orientation, consumers may feel enjoyment not just for the discovering or purchasing a product or a service, as well as socializing with others or using shopping for coping with stress.

In addition to Arnold and Reynolds' (2003) study, several researchers (Kim et al., 2011; Cervellon et al., 2015) defined and used the sub-concepts of hedonic shopping orientations in retail business. While Kim et al. (2011, p. 104) used the sub-concepts of hedonic shopping orientation as shopping enjoyment and aesthetic appeal of the store, Cervellon et al. (2015, p. 33) used sub-concepts of hedonic shopping orientation as service enjoyment, ambience enjoyment and product enjoyment in their research.

Consumers' hedonic shopping orientation on the offline environments was discussed heretofore. By the reason of emergence and development of information technologies, consumers' hedonic shopping orientation on the online environments has come into prominence. Wolfinberger and Gilly (2001), To et al. (2007), and To and Sung (2014) are the various researchers that investigated consumers' hedonic shopping orientation on the online environments.

As their name mentioned before, Wolfinberger and Gilly (2001, p. 35) suggested generalizing the motivations of the consumers with hedonic shopping orientation to shop on the online environment as well as the offline environment. They stated that consumers with hedonic shopping orientation use online shopping mostly for auctions and hobby-type searches, and secondly looking for discounts (Wolfinberger and Gilly, 2001, p. 46). Also, looking for discounts may seem as a characteristic of utilitarian shopping orientation, but consumers with hedonic shopping orientation enjoy the feeling of hunting the great discounts (Wolfinberger and Gilly, 2001, p. 47).

To and Sung (2014) also investigated the factors of hedonic shopping orientation on the online environment. To and Sung (2014, p. 2231) stated that the consumers with

hedonic shopping orientation tend to use online shopping for feeling to pleasure of bargaining, having privacy, socializing while shopping in chat rooms/user groups, learning new trends or products, and online shopping achievement (i.e. purchasing a limited or unique product online) respectively. Privacy and online shopping achievement were considered as the unique factors of hedonic shopping orientation on the online environment (To and Sung, 2014, p. 2230). Additionally, To et al. (2007) found that adventure, authority and status influenced hedonic shopping orientation on the online environment.

2.3.2. Utilitarian shopping orientation

As mentioned before, utilitarian shopping orientation is a subject that was focused by researchers for decades (Kim et al. 2011, p. 103). By entering 21st century didn't change the consumers' needs for utilitarian aspects of shopping orientation as well as hedonic aspects of shopping orientation (Kim et al., 2007 as cited in Kim et al. 2011).

Hirschman and Holbrook (1982a, p. 94) stated that consumers with utilitarian shopping orientation tend to see shopping process in economic perspective rather than emotional perspective. Meanwhile shopping process is seen in economic perspective by consumers, it is expected that maximizing functionality and utility of the product is important for them (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982a, p. 94).

Additionally, Babin et al. (1994, p. 650) stated that consumers with utilitarian shopping orientation accept shopping process as a task-related activity. Also, these consumers do not make impulse purchases (Babin et al., 1994, p. 651). Discounts and bargaining also influence consumers with utilitarian shopping orientation and these influences are different than the ones of consumers with hedonic shopping orientation, because consumers with utilitarian shopping orientation see them as an efficient end while purchasing, not the feeling of hunting for discount or feeling pleasure by bargaining (Babin et al., 1994, p. 652).

Kim et al. (2011) used three sub-concepts of utilitarian shopping orientation in their study. These sub-concepts are identified as: (1) convenience-seeking orientation, (2) sale proneness, and (3) smart shopping orientation. Consumers with convenience-seeking orientation prefer saving time and effort while shopping (Noble et al., 2006 and Williams et al., 1978 as cited in Kim et al., 2011, p. 105). Sale proneness is a sub-concept utilitarian shopping orientation because looking for discounts, bargains, purchase offers affects

consumers' purchase evaluations of a product or a service (Lichtenstein et al., 1993 as cited in Kim et al., 2011, p. 105). (3) Smart shopping orientation refers to feeling proud and smart after the shopping trip (Schindler, 1989 as cited in Kim et al., 2011, p. 106). Consumers with smart shopping orientation focus on spending less time, money, and energy while shopping (Kim et al., 2011, p. 106). Additionally, Cervellon et al. (2015, p. 33) used money saving, assortment, convenience, and time saving as the sub-concepts of the utilitarian shopping orientation.

As mentioned in hedonic shopping orientation concept, Wolfinberger and Gilly (2001) investigated the consumers' utilitarian shopping orientation in the online environments. They suggested generalizing the idea of motivation of the consumers with utilitarian shopping orientation to shop on the online environment as well as the offline environment. According to Wolfinberger and Gilly (2001, p. 41), consumers with utilitarian shopping orientation value convenience, information availability, selection, and lack of sociality while shopping in the online environments.

As Wolfinberger and Gilly (2001) stated that the reasons for online shopping may be also utilitarian. Consumers' may shop online by the reason of receiving convenience, accessibility, availability of information, and being goal-focused (Bridges and Florsheim, 2008, p. 310). Bridges and Florsheim (2008, p. 313) also suggested that focusing on providing utilitarian features for the website may increase the online purchasing.

To et al. (2007, p. 774) found that utilitarian shopping orientation is influenced by cost saving, convenience, information availability, and selection in the online shopping environment.

3. METHODOLOGY

In the methodology part, the research design and the research model will be discussed primarily. Then the research instrument, data collection tools and data gathering procedure will be presented.

3.1. Research Design

In this research, the quantitative research design was adopted to investigate the data and the relationships which may occur from the data. The quantitative research design provides to measure the research model, to describe the collected data, and to test the hypotheses systematically. It also helps to examine the cause-effect relationships.

The research design consists of two main phases. The first phase was constituted by reviewing relevant literature and designing research model according to relevant literature. The second phase was constituted by conducting questionnaires to test the designed model.

3.2. Research Model

In the literature review part, the research model explained partially as demographic factors, shopping orientations, and theory of planned behavior. The research model developed after reviewing the literature and secondary data.

This research has two objectives. The first objective of this research is to reveal older consumers' online shopping orientation in the context of the theory of planned behavior. The second objective of this research is to reveal the relationship between shopping orientation and online purchase intention. Also, when investigating older consumers' online purchase intentions, demographic factors such as gender, age, marital status, education level, job status, monthly average income, and family size cannot be overlooked. Therefore, demographic factors are added to the research model. Figure 3.1 shows the illustration of the research model.

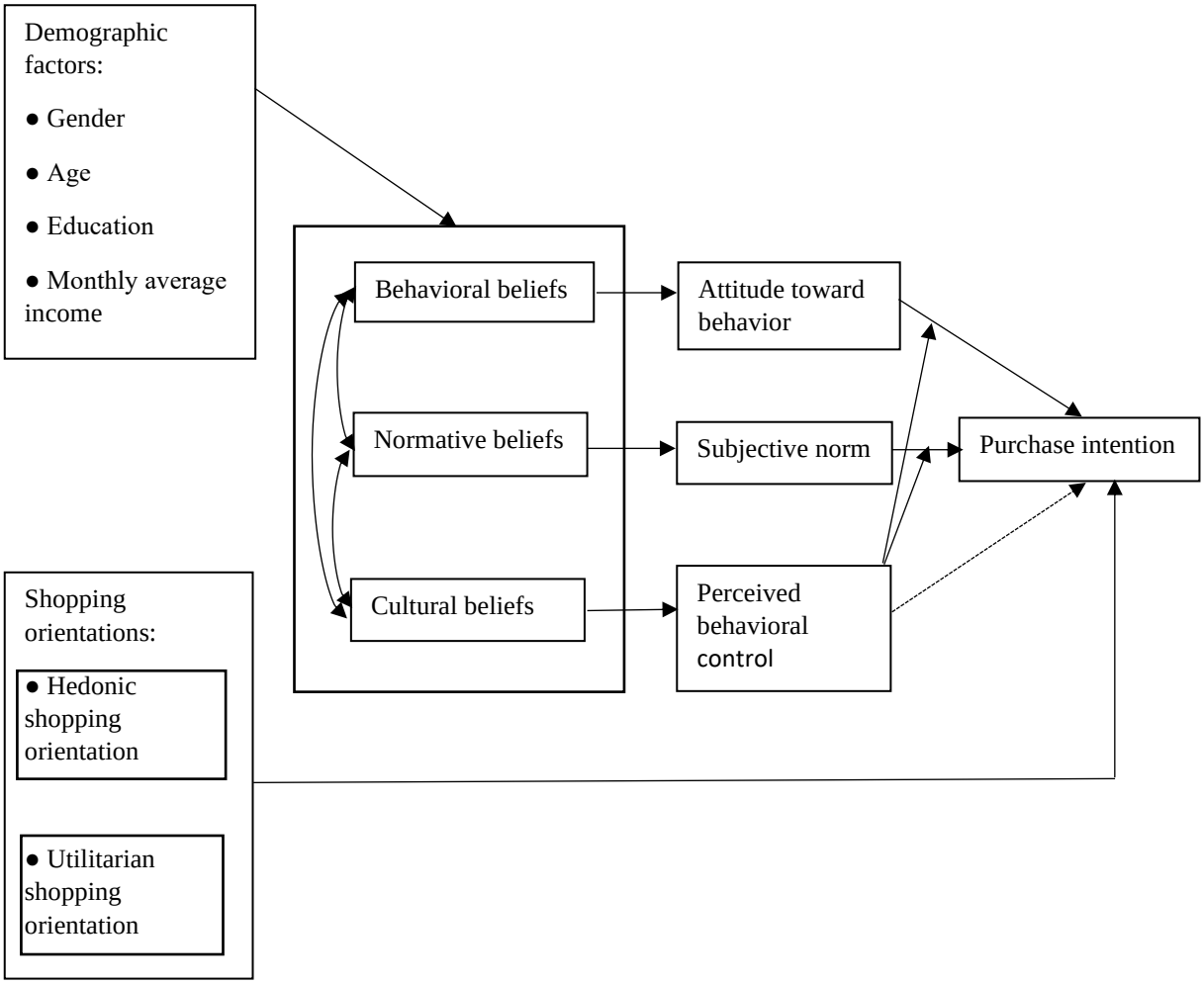


Figure 3.1. *Illustration of the research model*

3.3. Sample

The universe of this research has been selected as older people over age 55 that has a smart phone and computer or at least one of these, in Eskişehir and İzmir

The snowball sampling method was used in the research. The snowball sampling method is a non-probability sampling technique (Altunışık et al., 2010 p. 137). It allows to the researcher to reach hidden and hard-to-reach populations (e.g. criminals, prostitutes, drug users) (On-at et al., 2014, p. 82). Snowball sampling technique is also can be used if there is lack of information about the population (On-at et al., 2014, p. 82). Handcock and Gile (2016, p. 369) states that the snowball sampling technique can be used in cases, such as using probability sampling techniques is impossible or impractical due to lack of information about the sampling frame.

At first, the researcher makes contact with a person from the hard-to-reach population then asks him/her to participate to study. Then, the researcher makes contact with another people from this population with the help of the first person and asks them to participate study as well. This technique is used until the desired sample size is completed (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 141)

The snowball sampling method was used in the research because finding older people with computer and smartphone literacy was hard. The snowball sampling method made it more convenient. A total of 209 was used as the sample size.

3.4. Research Instrument

A questionnaire was used as the research instrument. The questionnaire consists of four sections. Before starting the questionnaire, the purpose of the study was explained to the respondents and the details about the study was given to them. In the first part, the questions about their ownership and literacy of computer/smartphone were asked primarily. The reason of these questions was asked primarily was to eliminate the invalid surveys, which might be given to older people with no knowledge of technological devices. If they do not own one of the technological devices and do not know how to use them, their survey would be identified as an invalid survey beforehand. Afterwards, the questions about their level and frequency of internet usage and familiarity of online shopping were asked. In the second part, the focus of the questionnaire was to determine the respondents' shopping orientations. In order to achieve that, scale items were used and the respondents were asked to rate them according to their level of agreement. In the third part, the scale items were used to evaluate their attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and intention to use Internet for purchasing online. The respondents were expected to rate them like the second part. In the second and third part, Likert-type scale was used to explain to level of agreement. Likert-type scale was constituted as "1= strongly disagree", "2=disagree", "3=neither disagree nor agree", "4=agree", "5=strongly agree". In the fourth, and the last, part the questions were asked to identify the respondents' demographic characteristics. The questionnaire was translated to Turkish before given to the respondents. The questionnaire contained a total of 58 questions and it took 7-10 minutes to answer.

3.5. Measurement Scales

The following scales and items are used in the research.

Measures and Scales of the Theory of Planned Behavior:

Variable	Item	Reference(s)	Number of items
Attitude	• "I consider shopping online is a good thing." • "I think shopping online is an essential nowadays." • "I think online shopping is beneficial for consumers." • "I think online shopping is a good idea." • "I have a positive opinion in online shopping." • "I like to shop online."	Lim, Yap, Lee (2011)	6
Subjective Norm	• "The people who have an influence on me, think that I should shop online." • "The people who are important to me, encourage me to shop online." • "My family thinks that I can shop online." • "My friends think that I can shop online." • "My acquaintances think that I can shop online."	Lin (2007)	5
Perceived Behavioral Control	• "I have the resources and the knowledge to shop online." • "I think that I have self-confidence to use online shopping."	Lim et al (2011)	2
Intention	• "I think that I shop online." [R] • "I have an intention to use online shopping in the next 6 months." • "I hope that I use online shopping in the next 6 months." • "I want to shop online in the next 6 months."	Herrero Crespo and Rodriguez del Bosque (2008)	4

Note. R: reversed item

Measures and Scales of Shopping Orientation:

Hedonic Shopping Orientation	• "Shopping is truly a joy for me." • "Compared to other things I could have done; the time spent shopping was truly enjoyable." • "During the shopping trip, I felt the excitement of the hunt." • "Shopping is an escape for me." • "I enjoy being immersed in exciting new products." • "I enjoy the shopping trip for its own sake, not just for the items I may purchase." • "I continue to shop, not because I had to but because I want to." • "I have good time because I was able to act on the "spur of the moment"." • "While shopping, I'm able to forget my problems." • "While shopping, I felt a sense of adventure." • "I can fantasize during shopping trip." • "When shopping, I often have fun." • "When shopping, I try to get it over with as soon as possible." [R] • "When shopping, I am usually looking for entertainment." • "When shopping, I mainly carry out what I have planned." [R] • "I like to kill time by shopping." • "When shopping, I like to browse around."	Babin, Darden, Griffin (1994); Büttner and Florack (2003)	17
Utilitarian Shopping Orientation	• "I think that I am successful in shopping." • "I feel really smart about shopping." • "I think that it is good store visit when it ends very quickly." • "The shopping trip is not a very nice time out." • "When shopping, I act as deliberately and goal-focused as possible."	Babin, Darden, Griffin (1994); Büttner and Florack (2003)	5

Note. R: reversed item

3.5.1. Validity

Validity is the extent, which explains how well the measures represents the concept of the research (Hair Jr. et al., 1995, p. 3). It focuses to what should be measured by appropriate instruments. The research instrument, which is a questionnaire in this research, needs to nullify any systematic or nonrandom error to be valid (Hair Jr. et al., 1995 p. 3). The credibility of a research findings depends upon the validity and reliability of the measurement scales (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 121).

In order to investigate the older consumers' shopping orientations, and their intention to purchasing online; a questionnaire was planned and developed. During the questionnaire design process, many procedures were undertaken which are stated below:

- A vast number of items of the questionnaire was constituted to cover the important areas of the research. In addition to that, the respondents were given adequate time to understand and complete the questionnaire.
- In order to define and develop the scales and the measures which was used in this research, a comprehensive literature reviewing process was done. The items of the questionnaire were taken its final form with the help of the academic experts in the field.
- Comprehensibility was examined with 10 respondents, person-to-person.
- Pilot testing of the questionnaire was conducted with 30 respondents.

3.5.2. Content Validity

Content validity evaluate the appropriateness of the research instrument. Content validity is done to ensure that the questionnaire of the research contains a sufficient number of questions to measure a fact (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 121). Before testing content validity of this research, the research instruments were reviewed and analyzed how the previous studies measured the concepts. In order to test the content validity, factor analysis was done. In addition to content validity, wording and clarity of the items of the questionnaire was discussed by the experts of the academic field.

3.5.3. Reliability

Reliability is the extend which determines how to obtain same values by using the same instruments more than once. The values are expected to be seen as very consistent through these multiple measurements. Reliability differs from validity, which focuses on

how well to define the concept, by focusing on how to measure the variables consistently (Hair Jr. et al., 1995, p. 2-3).

3.6. Data Gathering Procedure

The procedures, that were followed in this survey, are given below:

- The purpose of the study was explained to the respondents in the beginning of the questionnaire.
- The details about the survey's parts also explained to the respondents clearly.
- The respondents were requested to be honest with their answers and to be careful while filling the survey.
- As the snowball sampling techniques was used, the survey was given the respondents and the people who might know potential respondents. The respondents were identified as people who are aging 55 and older with ownership of computer and/or smart phone and having basic knowledge about how to use them and Internet.
- The questionnaires were provided as hard copy and conducted face-to-face with a group of participants. In addition to that, the questionnaires were produced into Google forms and sent to the respondents and people who know potential respondents through e-mails, social network sites (e.g. Facebook, Instagram) and social network applications (e.g. WhatsApp).
- Respondents were requested to respond all the questions and to not to leave any question unanswered.
- Data was collected from March till June 2019 in Eskişehir and İzmir. 209 valid questionnaires were collected.
- Returned hard copy questionnaires were checked and analyzed to ensure accuracy, consistency, reliability, and credibility. Returned google form questionnaires were checked and analyzed firstly, then copied in excel to ensure accuracy, consistency, reliability, and credibility.
- The data gathered was collated and coded into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and statistically analyzed.

3.7. Data Analysis

The discriminant validity and reliability were tested by factor analysis and Cronbach alpha values. In order to test the hypothesizes, independent t-test and regression analysis were used. In this process, SPSS version 22 was used to conduct the data analysis. Detailed analysis of data discussed in the next chapter.

3.8. Ethical Considerations

Several procedures were implemented to ensure the research was conducted in accordance with the ethical conduct. Furthermore, confidentiality of the information which were provided by the respondents were preserved by these procedures. These procedures are given below:

- The questionnaire checked by academic experts to ensure that ethical rules were followed during the data gathering process.
- The confidentiality and privacy of respondents was provided by the questionnaire design. The questionnaire did not seek the names, the address, and the contact details of the respondents (Appendix 1).
- The findings were presented as they were gathered and analyzed from the questionnaires honestly.

4. DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

In this chapter, respondent's demographic profiles, their computer and smart phone literacy, the internet usage rate of them, their familiarity of online shopping, services and products purchased via Internet by them are discussed primarily. Then the findings of reliability, factor analysis, correlation and regression analysis are presented.

4.1. Demographic Profiles of the Respondents

In order to identify the respondent's demographic profiles, descriptive statistics were conducted with a total of valid 209 questionnaires.

Sample demographics are shown in Table 4.1. According to Table 4.1, results show that out of 209 respondents, 123 were female representing 58,9% and 86 were male representing 41,1%, which showed a generally balanced gender participation.

The results further describe the respondents' age. 79 respondents are aging between 54-59 years representing 37,8%; 75 respondents are aging between 60-64 years representing 35,9%; and 55 respondents are 65 years old or older representing 26,3%. As the age increases, the distribution of respondents declines due to the difficulty of finding older participants with computer/smart phone literacy. As is seen from the Table 4.1, the smallest group of respondents are 65 years or older.

The marital status of respondents is mostly married. The results show that, out of 209 respondents, 150 are married representing 71,8%; 37 are widow/widower representing 17,7%; and 22 are single representing 10,5%.

Table 4.1 also indicates that out of 209 respondents, 32 have primary or secondary school degree and represents 15,3%; 47 have high school degree and represents 22,5%; 36 have associate degree and represents 17,2%; 94 have undergraduate/graduate/postgraduate degree represents 45%.

146 of the respondents are retiree representing 69,9%; 38 of them are employed representing 18,2%; and 25 of them are unemployed representing 12%. It is expected to see the most of the respondents are retirees due to sampling conditions of the study.

The results show that, 99 of the respondents earn less than 3000TL representing 47,4%; 76 of them earn between 3000TL – 4999TL representing 36,4%; 34 of them earn 5000TL or more representing 16,3% on the monthly basis.

Respondents have different family sizes. Out of 209 respondents, 35 live alone representing 16,7%; 84 live with a spouse representing 40,2%; 63 live with a spouse and a child/children representing 30,1%; 15 live with a child/children representing 7,2%; and 12 live with another family member (e.g. elder parents, another relatives) representing 5,7%.

Table 4.1. *Sample demographics*

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Gender			
Female	123	58,9	58,9
Male	86	41,1	100
Total	209	100	
Age			
54-59	79	37,8	37,8
60-64	75	35,9	73,7
65+	55	26,3	100
Total	209	100	
Marital status			
Single	22	10,5	10,5
Married	150	71,8	82,3
Widow/widower	37	17,7	100
Total	209	100	
Educational background			
Primary and secondary school	32	15,3	15,3
High school	47	22,5	37,8
Associate degree	36	17,2	55,0
Undergraduate/graduate/ postgraduate	94	45,0	100
Total	209	100	
Job status			
Employed	38	18,2	18,2
Unemployed	25	12,0	30,1
Retiree	146	69,9	100
Total	209	100	

Table 4.1. *Sample demographics (continued)*

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Monthly average income			
<3000TL	99	47,4	47,4
3000TL-4999TL	76	36,4	83,7
>5000TL	34	16,3	100
Total	209	100	
Family size			
Living alone	35	16,7	16,7
Living with a spouse	84	40,2	56,9
Living with a spouse and children	63	30,1	87,1
Living with children	15	7,2	94,3
Other	12	5,7	100
Total	209	100	

4.2. Computer and Smart Phone Literacy of Respondents

Descriptive statistics were conducted to determine the computer and smartphone ownership rate of the respondents. Since the defined sample group has to own a computer or a smartphone, all of the 209 respondents have to own at least one of them. These 209 valid questionnaires were analyzed. As it can be seen at Table 4.2, out of 209 respondents, 166 have a computer in their houses representing 79,4%; 43 don't have a computer in their houses representing 20,6%.

The ownership of smart phones is higher than the ownership of computer among the respondents. Out of 209 respondents, only 13 stated that they don't own smart phone representing 6,2%. 196 of the respondents, own smartphones themselves representing 93,8% (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. *Computer/smart phone ownership rate of respondents*

	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Cumulative Percentage**
1. Computer ownership			
Yes	166	79,4	79,4
No	43	20,6	100
Total	209	100	
2. Smart phone ownership			
Yes	196	93,8	93,8
No	13	6,2	100
Total	209	100	

These 209 respondents also rated their computer and smartphone skills. Out of 209 respondents, 19 rated their computer skills as very bad representing 9,1%; 41 rated their computer skills as bad representing 41%; 80 rated their computer skills as neither bad nor good representing 38,3%; 60 rated their computer skills as good representing 28,7%; and 9 rated their computer skills as very good representing 4,3% (see Table 4.3). As it can be seen at Table 4.3, most of the respondents rated their computer skills as neither bad nor good (80 of them). Overall mean of the computer skills of the respondents is 3 with the variance of 1.024. Result supports that the respondents mostly rate their computer skills as neither bad nor good.

Table 4.3 also shows the smart phone skills of respondents. As the results can be seen at the Table 4.3, 13 of the respondents don't use a smart phone. Hence, 196 respondents rated their smart phone skills. Only 5 of the respondents rated their smart phone skills as very bad and similarly only 5 of them thought their smart phone skills as very good representing 2,4% for each category. 17 respondents out of 209 as bad representing 8,1%. 74 respondents rated their smart phone skills as neither bad nor good representing 35,4%. 95 respondents, representing 45,5%, thought their smart phone skills as good. Interestingly, respondents think themselves more skilled with their smart phones in comparison with their computers. Overall mean of smart phone skills rated by respondents is 3,19 with the variance of 1,258. Even though, more respondents rated their

smart phone skills as good than as neither bad nor good; on the average respondents thinks their smart phone skills as neither bad nor good.

Table 4.3. *Self-rated computer and smart phone skills of the respondents*

	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Cumulative Percentage**
1. Computer skills rated by respondents			
Very bad	19	9,1	9,1
Bad	41	19,6	28,7
Neither bad nor good	80	38,3	67,0
Good	60	28,7	95,7
Very good	9	4,3	100
Total	209	100	
2. Smart phone skills rated by respondents			
Doesn't use a smart phone	13	6,2	6,2
Very bad	5	2,4	8,6
Bad	17	8,1	16,7
Neither bad nor good	74	35,4	52,2
Good	95	45,5	97,6
Very good	5	2,4	100
Total	209	100	

4.3. Internet Usage of Respondents

Descriptive analysis was conducted in order to identify respondents' active Internet usage time and frequency. According to Table 4.4, 198 of the respondents have continuous Internet access which represents 94,7%. Only 11 of them don't have continuous Internet access which represents 5,3%. 95 out of 209 respondents are Internet users more than 7 years, which represents 45,5% of the sample. 39 of them are using Internet actively 5-6 years representing 18,7%. 40 respondents are using Internet 3-4 years representing 19,1%. 22 respondents are Internet users only for 1-2 years representing 10,5%. Only 13 respondents are using Internet actively less than a year representing 6,2%. As the results show that, nearly half of the respondents are using Internet actively more than 7 years, and 93,7% of the respondents are Internet users at least 1 year of more.

Table 4.4 also shows how frequently respondents use Internet. 181 respondents use Internet everyday representing 86,6%. 20 respondents, which represents 9,6%, use Internet a couple times of week, and only 8 respondents use Internet once in a week or less representing 3,8%. In addition to frequency of Internet usage, the respondents were asked how long they use Internet averagely on a weekly basis. 83 respondents spend 1-5 hours per week representing 39,7%. 48 respondents spend 6-10 hours per week representing 23%. 27 respondents use Internet 11-15 hours per week representing 12,9%. 16 respondents spend 16-20 hours per week representing 7,7%. 35 respondents use Internet more than 21 hours representing 16,7%. In summary, results show that the respondents are active Internet users, they use Internet frequently and they spend adequate time on Internet.

Table 4.4. *Internet usage of respondents*

	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Cumulative Percentage**
5. Continuous Internet access			
Yes	198	94,7	94,7
No	11	5,3	100
Total	209	100	
6. Active Internet usage			
Less than a year	13	6,2	6,2
1-2 years	22	10,5	16,7
3-4 years	40	19,1	35,9
5-6 years	39	18,7	54,5
More than 7 years	95	45,5	100
Total	209	100	
7. Frequency of Internet usage			
Everyday	181	86,6	86,6
A couple times in a week	20	9,6	96,2
Once in a week or less	8	3,8	100
Total	209	100	

Table 4.4. *Internet usage of respondents (continued)*

	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Cumulative Percentage**
8. Average Internet usage time per week			
1-5 hours	83	39,7	39,7
6-10 hours	48	23,0	62,7
11-15 hours	27	12,9	75,6
16-20 hours	16	7,7	83,3
More than 21 hours	35	16,7	100
Total	209	100	

4.4. Familiarity with Online Shopping

Results from Table 4.5 show respondents' familiarity with online shopping. Out of 209 respondents, 96 respondents shopped online with a help of somebody (e.g. spouse, children, grandchildren etc.) representing 45,9%. 113 respondents have never shopped online with a help of somebody representing 54,1%. 106 respondents, which represent 50,7% of the sample, shopped online by themselves. 103 respondents have never shopped online by themselves representing 49,3%. The percentages of the respondents, who shopped online at least once and have never shopped online, are almost half.

The respondents, who are online shoppers, were asked how long they have been shopping online by themselves. 19 respondents have been using online shopping less than a year representing 9,1%. 18 respondents have been shopping online for 1-2 years representing 8,6%. 26 respondents have been shopping online for 3-4 years representing 12,4%. 19 respondents have been shopping online for 5-6 years representing 9,1%. 24 respondents have been using online shopping more than 7 years representing 11,5%. In summary, half of the respondents engage with online shopping at some levels and only 24 respondents out of 209 have been shopping more than 7 years.

Table 4.5. *Respondents' familiarity with online shopping*

	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Cumulative Percentage**
9.Have you ever shopped online with the help of somebody?			
Yes	96	45,9	45,9
No	113	54,1	100
Total	209	100	
10. Have you ever shopped online by yourself?			
Yes	106	50,7	50,7
No	103	49,3	100
Total	209	100	
11. How long have you been shopping online by yourself?			
Never shopped online by myself	103	49,3	49,3
Less than a year	19	9,1	58,4
1-2 years	18	8,6	67,0
3-4 years	26	12,4	79,4
5-6 years	19	9,1	88,5
More than 7 years	24	11,5	100
Total	209	100	

4.4.1. Online shopping experience of respondents

Chi-square test provides the researcher to examine the relationship and the differences between two different variables (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 215). A Chi-square test was conducted to find out the relationship between female and male respondents in terms of online shopping experience.

Table 4.6 shows the online shopping experience of the respondents in terms of gender. As it can be seen at Table 4.6, half of the both female (49,6%) and male (52,3%) respondents used online shopping before.

Table 4.7 shows the results of Chi-square test of online shopping experience of the respondents in terms of gender. According to the results, there is no significant difference between women and men, in terms of online shopping experience (p>0,05).

Table 4.6. *Descriptive statistics of respondents online shopping experience in terms of gender*

Gender	Online shopping experience					
	Yes		No		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage		
Female	61	49,6%	62	50,4%	123	100,0%
Male	45	52,3%	41	47,7%	86	100,0%
Total	106	50,7%	103	49,3%	209	100,0%

Table 4.7. *Chi-square test of online shopping experience of the respondents in terms of gender*

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	0,151	1	0,697*
Likelihood ratio	0,151	1	0,697
Linear-by-linear association	0,150	1	0,698
N of valid cases	209		

*Note: *p>0,05*

4.5. Products and Services Purchased via Internet

As mentioned before, 106 out of 209 respondents used online shopping before. These respondents were asked an open-ended question in order to find out the goods and services that they purchased via Internet. 82 respondents answered and gave examples of the products and services. The results are given in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. *Categories of products and services purchased via Internet*

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Clothing	27	33%
Shoes, bags, accessories	24	29%
Foods and cleaning supplies	12	15%
Electronics	11	13%
Bus/flight ticket	11	13%
Small home appliances	10	12%
Cosmetics and personal care products	9	11%

Table 4.8. *Categories of products and services purchased via Internet (continued)*

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Vitamins/nutritional supplements	7	9%
Books and stationery	6	7%
White goods	5	6%
Souvenir	4	5%
Outdoor equipment	3	4%
Other	6	7%

As it can be seen at Table 4.8, 27 respondents purchased clothes online, representing 33%, and 27 respondents purchased shoes, bags, and accessories online, representing 29%. 12 respondents bought food and cleaning supplies via Internet, representing 15%. 11 respondents said that they bought electronics, bus/flight ticket, and furniture and home decorations, representing 13% for each category. 10 respondents purchased small home appliances online, representing 12%. 9 respondents purchased cosmetic and personal care products online, representing 11%. 7 respondents bought vitamins and nutritional supplements online, representing 9%. 6 respondents bought books and stationery representing 7%, 5 respondents bought white goods representing 6%, 4 respondents bought souvenir representing 5%, 3 respondents bought outdoor equipment representing 4% via Internet, respectively. 6 respondents purchased other products like cat and dog food, garden equipment, concert ticket, tour package representing 7%.

Most of the respondents purchased clothes (33%), and shoes, bags, and accessories (29%) online, respectively. Food and cleaning supplies (15%), electronics (13%), bus/flight tickets (13%), and furniture and home decorations (13%) followed them. Small home appliances (12%), cosmetic and personal care products (11%), and vitamins and nutritional supplements (9%) were purchased online thirdly. The least purchased products online were books and stationery (7%), white goods (6%), souvenir (5%), and outdoor equipment (4%). 7% of the respondents gave cat and dog food, garden

equipment, concert ticket, and tour package as examples that they purchased online before.

4.6. Online Shopping Intention of Respondents Based on the Theory of Planned Behavior

In this chapter, online shopping intention of respondents was examined based on theory of planned behavior. First of all, factor analysis was conducted, and then internal consistency reliability of emerged factors was tested. Secondly, the relationship between previous online shopping experience and theory of planned behavior was examined. Thirdly, the effect of demographic factors (age, educational background, and income) on the factors of theory of planned behavior was examined. In the end, correlation and regression analysis were conducted to test the factors of theory of planned behavior whether they explained the online purchase intention of older consumers.

4.6.1. Factor analysis

Factor analysis enables the researcher an easier understanding and interpreting of the interrelationship among several variables, which was assumed as related, by reducing the dimensions (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 262). Hair Jr. et al. (1995, p. 362) stated that the factor analysis provides the researcher to identify the separate dimensions and to determine which variable is explained by which dimension at first. Then, the data reduction and the summarization process take place. The objective of the factor analysis is to explain complicated facts with the help of the underlying dimensions (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 262).

In order to perform factor analysis to the variables of the theory of planned behavior, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy was carried out at first. The minimum satisfying KMO test value is 0,70 (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 266). Kaiser (1974) considered 0,80 and above as high; between 0,70 and 0,80 as average; between 0,60 and 0,70 as mediocre; between 0,50 and 0,60 as weak; and below 0,5 as not acceptable (as cited in Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 266). KMO test value for the theory of planned behavior measured as 0,898. In addition to KMO test, Bartlett's test of sphericity was performed. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was found significant ($p<0,05$), which means variance hypothesis and covariance matrix was rejected. the Bartlett's test of sphericity examines the correlation matrix whether it is equivalent to unit matrix or not (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 270). The results of Bartlett's test of sphericity, indicated that the correlation matrix was not equivalent to the unit matrix. The results of KMO test and

Bartlett's test shows that the data of the theory of planned behavior is well suited to conduct a factor analysis.

While determining the factors, eigenvalue was considered as greater than "1" (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 272). As it can be seen at Table 4.9, the factor analysis of the theory of planned behavior produced 3 factors with eigenvalues greater than "1". Hair Jr. et al. (1998) stated that suggested explained total variance of factors should be above 60% (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 273). The emerged factors also explained 74,265% of the total variance, which meats the 60% criteria.

As explained before, there are three subconstructs of theory of planned behavior as; attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. The factor analysis also emerged three factors with eigenvalues greater than "1". The findings of the factor analysis of theory of planned behavior are given in the Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. *Factor analysis of theory of planned behavior*

Items			**Component**		
	Mean	**Std. deviation**	**1**	**2**	**3**
Eigenvalue			7,173	1,433	1,048
Variance Explained			55,181	11,025	8,060
KMO Test	0,898				
Bartlett Test	X^2=2055,531 df=78 Sig.=0,000				
Factor 1: Attitude					
"I consider shopping online is a good thing."	3,19	1,032	0,725		
"I think shopping online is an essential nowadays."	2,85	1,088	0,745		
"I think online shopping is beneficial for consumers."	3,38	0,912	0,772		
"I think online shopping is a good idea."	3,30	1,078	0,769		
"I have a positive opinion toward online shopping."	3,28	1,015	0,848		
"I like to shop online."	3,17	0,943	0,781		

Table 4.9. *Factor analysis of theory of planned behavior (continued)*

Factor 2: Subjective Norm					
"The people who have an influence on me, think that I should shop online."	2,77	0,963		0,897	
"The people who are important to me, encourage me to shop online."	2,72	1,019		0,867	
"My family thinks that I can shop online."	3,15	1,093		0,637	
"My friends think that I can shop online."	3,16	1,083		0,621	
"My acquaintances think that I can shop online."	3,33	0,932		0,487	
Factor 3: Perceived Behavioral Control					
"I have the resources and the knowledge to shop online."	3,09	1,155			0,862
"I think that I have self-confidence to use online shopping."	3,04	1,194			0,876

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Factor 1 is Attitude, which refers the older consumers' attitude towards online shopping. The eigenvalue is 7,173 and the factor explains 55,181% of the total variance. Cronbach's alpha value is 0,920 and all the factor loadings are above 0,60.

Factor 2 is Subjective Norm, which refer to older consumers' opinion how the other people think about older consumers' ability to shop online. The eigenvalue is 1,433 and the factor explains 11,025% of the total variance. Cronbach's alpha value is 0,869 and all the factor loadings are above 0,60.

Factor 3 is Perceived Behavioral Control, which refers to the older consumers' inner thoughts about their ability and skills to perform online shopping. The eigenvalue is 1,048 and the factor explains 8,060% of the total variance. Cronbach's alpha value is 0,890 and all the factor loadings are above 0,60.

4.6.2. Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability is an approach to measure the internal reliability of the research instrument and usually measured with Cronbach's alpha (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 123). The research instrument must be reliable by the reason of gathering reliable

data from it, when it was used to test the same constructs repeatedly (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 122).

Internal consistency of this study was measured with Cronbach's alpha. Acceptance of Cronbach's alpha depends on values. Values less than 0,50 are regarded as unacceptable, the values between 0,50 – 0,60 are regarded as undesirable, and the values between 0,60 – 0,70 are acceptable at minimum. The reliability of the study is regarded as respectable if the Cronbach's alpha values are between 0,70 – 0,90. The values above 0,90 regarded as excellent (George and Mallery, 2003 as cited in Kilic, 2016, p. 48). Although Tavakol and Dennick (2011, p. 54) suggest item reduction of the questionnaire, if the Cronbach's alpha measured above 0,90; some researchers described the Cronbach's alpha value as strong (0,91-0,93) and as excellent (0,93-0,94) (Taber, 2017, p. 1278). Thus, the Cronbach's alpha value above 0,90 accepted in this research and the item reduction was not needed.

As mentioned before, the reliability analysis of this study was measured with Cronbach's alpha values. Each construct of the study and their Cronbach's alpha values is given at Table 4.10.

Older consumers' behavior toward online shopping was examined with the theory of planned behavior. The overall Cronbach's alpha value of the theory of planned behavior is 0,923, which means it is excellent in regard to reliability.

The construct of the theory of planned behavior, which is used in this study, is consisted of attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control of older consumers, and older consumers' intention to shop online in the future.

The older consumers' attitude toward online shopping was measured with 6 items and Cronbach's alpha value of the attitude is 0,920, which is excellent in regard to reliability.

Subjective norm refers to older consumers' opinion how the other people (e.g. family, friend, significant other) think about older consumers' ability to shop online. Subjective norm is measured with 5 items and Cronbach's alpha value of the subjective norm is 0,869, which is regarded as respectable.

Perceived behavioral control refers to the older consumers' inner thoughts about their ability to perform online shopping. It is measured with 2 items and Cronbach's alpha

value of the perceived behavioral control is 0,890, which is respectable in regard to reliability.

Intention refers to older consumers' online shopping intention in the near future (i.e. in the next 6 months in this study). Intention is measured with 4 items and Cronbach's alpha value of the intention is 0,915, which is excellent in regard to reliability.

Cronbach's alpha value of the theory of planned behavior is 0,923 overall, which is also excellent in regard to reliability. Cronbach's value of the theory of planned behavior and its each construct is regarded as very good in summary. Thus, the measurement scale of the theory of planned behavior is reliable.

Table 4.10. *Internal consistency reliability*

	Mean	**Std. deviation**	**Cronbach's alpha**
Theory of planned behavior	3,059	0,046	0,923
• Attitude	3,194	0,853	0,920
• Subjective norm	3,027	0,828	0,869
• Perceived behavioral control	3,067	1,115	0,890
• Intention	3,050	1,028	0,915

4.6.3. The relationship between online shopping experience and the theory of planned behavior

In this research, t-test was conducted to understand the difference between two groups within older consumers, which are online shoppers and non-online shoppers. T-test offered an insight to online shoppers' and non-online shoppers' attitude toward online shopping. It also examined if there is a difference between online shoppers and non-online shoppers within the scope of the other three theory of planned behavior factors (subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and intention) in this study.

Using t-test was appropriate for this research because it compares two independent sample means, and analyzes whether there are significant differences between these two groups statistically or not (Hair Jr. et al., 1995, p. 261). It enables comparing only two groups (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 180). The independent samples t-test conducted with a 0,05 critical level of significance. Table 4.11 shows the results of the independent samples t-test.

Table 4.11. *The difference between online shoppers and non-online shoppers within the factors of theory of planned behavior*

Factors		Mean	Std. deviation	t-value	Sig (2-tailed)
Attitude	Older consumers who shopped online	3,6116	0,65292	8,232	0,000**
	Older consumers who did not shop online	2,7638	0,82364		
Subjective Norm	Older consumers who shopped online	3,3830	0,74174	7,003	0,000**
	Older consumers who did not shop online	2,6602	0,75034		
Perceived Behavioral Control	Older consumers who shopped online	3,8443	0,73473	201,754	0,000**
	Older consumers who did not shop online	2,2670	0,83963		
Intention	Older consumers who shopped online	3,7453	0,67699	13,577	0,000**
	Older consumers who did not shop online	2,3350	0,81616		

*Note: *p<0,05; **p<0,01*

The independent samples t-test was conducted to compare attitude toward online shopping for the two older consumer groups of online shoppers and non-online shoppers. The results from Table 4.11 shows that there is significant difference (p<0,05) in the scores for online shoppers (Mean 3,6116; Std. deviation 0,65602) and non-online shoppers (Mean 2,7638; Std. deviation 0,82364)

According to results from the Table 4.11, there is significant difference (p<0,05) in the scores for subjective norm of online shoppers (Mean 3,3830; Std. deviation 2,6602) and non-online shoppers.

The other factor of perceived behavioral control was also analyzed with t-test if there is a significant difference between online shoppers and non-online shoppers. The results show that there is a significant difference (p<0,05) in the scores for online shoppers (Mean 3,8443; Std. deviation 0,73473) and non-online shoppers (Mean 2,2670; Std. deviation 0,83963). Those results also show that the online shoppers and non-online shoppers don’t have only a significant difference in the context of perceived behavioral

control, but also this significant difference is stronger than other factors of the theory of planned behavior.

Online purchase intention also differs within the two groups of older consumers. The results show that there is a significant difference ($p<0,05$) in the scores for online shoppers (Mean 3,7453; Std. deviation 0,67699) and non-online shoppers (Mean 2,3350; Std. deviation 0,81916).

4.6.4. The relationship between self-rated skills and online purchase intention

In this research, the respondents were asked to rate their computer and smart phone skills. The relationship between the respondents' self-reported skills and their online purchase intention was investigated with one-way ANOVA and correlation analysis.

Firstly, the respondents' computer and smart phone skills were reclassified as bad (i.e. which consists of very bad and bad), average, and good (i.e. which consists of good and very good). Then, one-way ANOVA was conducted to investigate the differences among self-rated skill groups. One-way ANOVA enables the researcher to compare more than two sample sizes (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 197). Thus, one-way ANOVA is suitable to identify the differences among these identified groups. Table 4.12 shows one-way ANOVA results of self-rated computer skills of respondents and intention. Additionally, the one-way ANOVA results of self-rated smart phone skills of respondents and intention is given at Table 4.13.

As it can be seen at Table 4.12, there is a significant difference among the respondents, who rated their computer skills variously, in terms of online purchase intention ($p<0,01$).

To identify which self-rated computer skill groups affected online purchase intention, a post-hoc analysis was conducted. As the homogeneity of variances test indicated that variances of intention were not homogenous in terms of respondents' self-reported computer skills, Games-Howell was used for the post-hoc analysis. The results show that there is significant difference among all of the self-rated computer skill groups ($p<0,01$and $p<0,05$). There is significant difference between the respondents who rated their skills as bad and average ($p<0,01$), and average and good ($p<0,01$).

Also, the respondents who rated their computer skills as bad and good differentiate in terms of intention (p<0,05).

Table 4.12. *One-way ANOVA results of self-rated computer skills and online purchase intention*

Factor	Self-rated computer skills	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation	F	Sig.	Post-hoc
Intention	Bad	60	2,5167	0,96316	23,437	0,000*	1-2; 1-3; 2-3
	Average	80	2,9531	0,96382			
	Good	69	3,6268	0,86669			

*Note: *p<0,01; **p<0,05*

As it can be seen at Table 4.13, there is a significant difference between self-rated smart phone skills groups in terms of intention (p<0,01). To identify which self-rated smart phone skill group differentiate in terms of intention, a post-hoc analysis was conducted. the homogeneity of variances test indicated that variances of intention were homogenously distributed, Scheffe analysis was used as post-hoc analysis. Scheffe analysis' results indicated that there is significant difference statistically between the respondents who rated their smart phone skills as bad and good (p<0,01), and average and good (p<0,01) in terms of intention.

Table 4.13. *One-way ANOVA results of self-rated smart phone skills and online purchase intention*

Factor	Self-rated smart phone skills	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation	F	Sig.	Post-hoc
Intention	Bad	22	2,8182	1,23727	21,208	0,000*	1-3; 2-3
	Average	74	2,6216	0,92921			
	Good	100	3,5200	0,84139			

*Note: *p<0,01; **p<0,05*

Additionally, the relationship between self-reported skills and online purchase intention was examined by using correlation analysis. Table 4.14 shows the means and standard deviations of self-rated computer skills and intention. According to Table 4.14, self-rated computer skills (mean 3,0861) and intention (3,0502) had almost same scores.

Table 4.14. *Means and standard deviations of self-rated computer skills and online purchase intention (n=209)*

	Mean	**Std. deviation**
Self-rated computer skills	3,0861	1,57268
Intention	3,0502	1,02838

Correlation analysis provides an understanding of the relationship and the dependence between two variables (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 226). By this reason, correlation analysis was used to reveal the relationship between self-rated computer skills and intention, and self-rated smart phone skills and intention (see Table 4.15 and Table 4.17). Also, it can be said that the closed the correlation coefficient to "-1" or "+1", the stronger the relationship between these variables (Altunışık, 2010, p. 226).

Table 4.15 shows the Pearson correlations of self-rated computer skills and intention. The results indicated that self-rated computers skills and intention were correlated (R=0,427).

Table 4.15. *Pearson correlations of self-rated computer skills and online purchase intention (n=209)*

	1	**2**
1. Self-rated computer skills	1,000	
2. Intention	0,427**	1,000

***Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level(2-tailed)*

In this research, the relationship between self-rated smart phone skills and intention was investigated as well as the self-rated computer skills and intention. This relationship also examined by correlation analysis. Table 4.16 shows the means and standard deviations of self-rated smart phone skills and intention. According to Table

4.16, self-rated smart phone skills (mean 3,7959) had a higher score than intention (mean 3,1020).

Table 4.16. *Means and standard deviations of self-rated smart phone skills and online purchase intention (n=196)*

	Mean	**Std. deviation**
Self-rated smart phone skills	3,7959	1,36595
Intention	3,1020	1,01674

Table 4.17 shows Pearson correlations of self-rated smart phone skills and intentions. The result of correlation analysis indicated that self-rated smart phone skills and intention were correlated (R=0,355).

Table 4.17. *Pearson correlations of self-rated smart phone skills and online purchase intention (n=196)*

	1	**2**
1. Self-rated smart phone skills	1,000	
2. Intention	0,355**	1,000

***Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level(2-tailed)*

In summary, there is correlation between intention and both of the self-rated computer and smart phone skills. Interestingly, self-rated smart phone skills (mean 3,7959) had a higher score than self-rated computer skills (mean 3,0861). On the contrary, the correlation between self-rated computer skills and intention (R=0,427) is stronger than the correlation between self-rated smart phone skills and intention (R=0,355).

4.6.5. The relationship between internet usage time and online purchase intention

As mentioned before, the respondents were asked their average internet usage time on a weekly basis. The time they spend online also may affect their online purchase intention. By this reason, to reveal the differences among the respondents, who spend various time on Internet, the time they spend on Internet was reclassified as low (i.e. less than 11 hours), average (i.e. between 11 – 15 hours), and high (more than 16

hours). Then, one-way ANOVA was conducted to investigate the differences among these identified groups (see Table 4.18).

According to Table 4.18, the respondents with different average Internet usage time per week differentiate in terms of intention (p<0,01). To reveal which identified groups are differentiate in terms of intention, a post-hoc analysis was conducted. Games-Howell was used as the post-hoc analysis, because the homogeneity of variances test results indicated that the variances of intention were not distributed homogeneously. Games-Howell analysis indicated that, there is significant difference between the respondents who are using Internet less than others and average (p<0,05) and less than others and higher than others (p<0,01).

Table 4.18. *One-way ANOVA results of average Internet usage time per week and online purchase intention*

Factor	Average Internet usage time per week	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation	F	Sig.	Post-hoc
Intention	Low	131	2,7653	0,97011	16,139	0,000*	1-2; 1-3
	Average	27	3,3519	0,94630			
	High	51	3,6225	0,94389			

*Note: *p<0,01; **p<0,05*

To investigate relationship between internet usage time and online purchase intention, correlation analysis was conducted. Table 4.19 shows the means and standard deviations of average Internet usage time per week. According to Table 4.19, average Internet usage time per week had higher score (mean 3,0502) than intention (mean 2,2344).

Table 4.19. *Means and standard deviations of average Internet usage time per week (n=209)*

	Mean	Std. deviation
Average Internet usage time per week	3,0502	1,02838
Intention	2,2344	1,70620

Pearson correlations of average Internet usage time per week and intention can be seen at Table 4.20. The results of correlation analysis indicated that average Internet usage time per week and intention are correlated significantly (R=0,365).

Table 4.20. *Pearson correlations of average Internet usage time per week and online purchase intention (n=209)*

	1	**2**
1. Average Internet usage time per week	1,000	
2. Intention	0,365**	1,000

4.6.6. Demographic characteristics and factors affecting online purchasing decisions

The influence of demographic characteristics (age, educational background, income) on online purchasing decisions cannot be overlooked. In order to determine and to identify the effect of age, educational background, and income on online purchasing decisions, one-way ANOVA was conducted. It was used in this research by the reason of the fact that, one-way ANOVA enables to compare more than two sample sizes in contradiction to t-test (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 197). The results of one-way ANOVA were discussed at following chapters.

4.6.6.1. The effect of age on the factors of the theory of planned behavior

In order to determine the effect of age on the factors of the theory of planned behavior, one-way ANOVA was conducted (see Table 4.21). The results show that there is no significant difference between age groups in terms of the theory of planned behavior (p>0,05). According to the results, age has no influence on attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and finally online purchase intention.

Table 4.21. *One-way ANOVA results of age and factors of the theory of planned behavior*

Factors	**Age (years)**	**Frequency**	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**	**F**	**Sig.**	**Post-hoc**
Attitude	55-59	79	3,2764	0,89828	1,634	0,198	-
	60-64	75	3,2356	0,84722			
	65+	55	3,0182	0,78284			

Table 4.21. *One-way ANOVA results of age and factors of the theory of planned behavior (continued)*

Subjective norm	55-59	79	3,0810	0,81996	0,272	0,762	-
	60-64	75	2,9973	0,82232			
	65+	65+	2,9891	0,85671			
Perceived behavioral control	55-59	79	3,2785	1,14564	2,594	0,077	-
	60-64	75	3,0000	1,06543			
	65+	65+	2,8545	1,10417			
Intention	55-59	79	3,1614	1,08754	1,719	0,182	-
	60-64	75	3,0900	0,99631			
	65+	65+	2,8364	0,96851			

4.6.6.2. The effect of educational background on the factors of the theory of planned behavior

In order to determine the effect of educational background on the factors of the theory of planned behavior, one-way ANOVA was conducted. As it can be seen at Table 4.22, there is no significant difference between attitude toward online shopping ($p>0,05$) and educational background. In addition to that, subjective norm ($p>0,05$) and intention ($p>0,05$) were not affected by education background. Perceived behavioral control ($p<0,01$) was the only factor that was affected by educational background.

To identify which educational background groups affected perceived behavioral control, a post-hoc analysis was conducted. The homogeneity of variances test indicated that variances of perceived behavioral control were not homogenous in terms of educational background. Thus, for the post-hoc analysis, Games-Howell was used. The results indicated that there is significant difference between the respondents, with secondary school degree or less and with associate degree statistically ($p<0,01$). Additionally, the perceived behavioral control of the respondents, with secondary school or less degree and with undergraduate degree or more differentiate ($p<0,01$).

Table 4.22. *One-way ANOVA results of educational background and factors of the theory of planned behavior*

Factors	Educational background	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation	F	Sig.	Post-hoc
Attitude	≤secondary school	32	2,9740	1,04993	0,927	0,429	-
	high school	47	3,1879	0,77211			
	associate degree	36	3,2870	0,67918			
	undergraduate≥	94	3,2358	0,87832			
Subjective norm	≤secondary school	32	2,8187	0,85965	0,799	0,496	-
	high school	47	3,0766	0,75706			
	associate degree	36	3,0667	0,83083			
	undergraduate≥	94	3,0574	0,85137			
Perceived behavioral control	≤secondary school	32	2,2969	0,95765	9,761	0,000**	1-3; 1-4
	high school	47	2,8298	0,93412			
	associate degree	36	3,4722	0,97060			
	undergraduate≥	94	3,0670	1,15798			
Intention	≤secondary school	32	2,5313	1,18245	4,282	0,006**	-
	high school	47	2,9681	1,04077			
	associate degree	36	3,0903	0,97313			
	undergraduate≥	94	3,2527	0,93217			

*Note: *p<0,05; **p<0,01*

4.6.6.3. The effect of income on the factors of the theory of planned behavior

In order to determine the effect of average income on the factors of the theory of planned behavior, one-way ANOVA was conducted (see Table 4.23). The results show that, there is no significant difference between attitude toward online shopping and average income (p>0,05). Also, average income of the respondents does not affect the

subjective norm (p>0,05). In terms of average income, perceived behavioral control (p<0,01) and online purchase intention (p<0,01) shows a significant difference statistically.

To identify the differences between average income groups, post-hoc analyses were conducted. The homogeneity of variances test indicated that variances of perceived behavioral control were not homogenous in terms of educational background. Because of that, Games-Howell analysis was used as post-hoc analysis. Games-Howell analysis indicated that there is a significant difference between the respondents who have less than 3000TL and between 3000TL – 4999TL as average monthly income (p<0,01). The respondents who have less than 3000TL and more than 5000TL, differentiate in terms of perceived behavioral control also (p<0,01). There is no significant difference between earning 3000TL – 4999TL and more than 5000TL in terms of perceived behavioral control.

Purchase intention differentiated within income groups in terms of perceived behavioral control. As the variance were homogenously distributed, Scheffe analysis was used as post-hoc analysis. Scheffe analysis indicated that there is significant difference with the respondents who earn less than 3000TL and more than 5000TL(p<0,01); and also, who earn between 3000TL – 4999TL and more than 5000TL (p<0,05) in terms of intention.

Table 4.23. *One-way ANOVA results of the effect of income on the factors of the theory of planned behavior*

Factors	**Average income**	**Frequency**	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**	**F**	**Sig.**	**Post-hoc**
Attitude	<3000TL	99	3,1111	0,90068	1,187	0,307	-
	3000TL-4999TL	76	3,2259	0,75949			
	≥5000TL	34	3,3627	0,90497			
Subjective norm	<3000TL	99	2,9434	0,83497	1,855	0,159	-
	3000TL-4999TL	76	3,0316	0,82239			
	≥5000TL	34	3,2588	0,79625			

Table 4.23. *One-way ANOVA results of the effect of income on the factors of the theory of planned behavior (continued)*

Perceived behavioral control	<3000TL	99	2,7475	1,04826	9,527	0,000**	1-2; 1-3
	3000TL-4999TL	76	3,2500	1,05987			
	≥5000TL	34	3,5882	1,16431			
Intention	<3000TL	99	2,8460	0,09470	8,545	0,000**	1-3; 2-3
	3000TL-4999TL	76	3,0428	1,08273			
	≥5000TL	34	3,6618	0,74336			

*Note: *p<0,05; **p<0,01*

4.6.7. Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis is a technique that measures the relationship and the dependence between two variables (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 226). In order to determine possible complication before conducting the regression analysis, the correlation between the variables must be measured. Thus, conducting a correlation analysis is a prior condition of the regression analysis.

Correlation coefficient value ranges between "-1" to "+1" and indicates if there is a correlation between two variables and the strength of the relationship. The closer the correlation coefficient to "-1" or "+1", the stronger the relationship between these variables. If correlation coefficient value is measured as "0", this means that there is no noticeable relationship between these variables (Altunışık, 2010, p. 226).

Attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control are recognized as independent variables and intention is recognized as dependent variable. Before beginning the correlation analysis, mean and standard deviation of all the contained items was calculated (see Table 4.24). Then Pearson Correlations was conducted to measure the correlations between attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control and intention (see Table 4.25).

Table 4.24. *Means and standard deviations of the factors of the theory of planned behavior (n=209)*

Factors	Mean	Std. deviation
Attitude	3,1938	0,85348
Subjective norm	3,0268	0,82768
Perceived behavioral control	3,0670	1,11494
Intention	3,0502	1,02838

According to Table 4.24, the factor of attitude had a higher score (mean 3,19838) than other factors. Perceived behavioral control (mean 3,0670) and intention (mean 3,0502) had approximate averages. Subjective norm had the lowest score (mean 3,02670) among them but all the factors of the theory of planned behavior had nearly close scores.

Table 4.25. *Pearson correlations of the factors of the theory of planned behavior (n=209)*

	1	2	3	4
Factor 1. Attitude	1,000			
Factor 2. Subjective norm	0,645**	1,000		
Factor 3. Perceived behavioral control	0,580**	0,554**	1,000	
Factor 4. Intention	0,730**	0,672**	0,697**	1,000

*** Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed).*

The correlation analysis shows that all the contained variables are correlated significantly (a range between 0,730 – 0,580) (see Table 4.25). According to Table 4.25, intention (R=0,730) had the highest correlation coefficient and had the strongest correlation with attitude. The other factors, subjective norm (R=0,672) and perceived behavioral control (R=0,697), were highly correlated with intention. The correlation between subjective norm (R=0,645) and attitude was also adequate. Perceived behavioral control was also correlated with attitude (R=0,580) and subjective norm (R=0,554). In summary, intention was highly correlated with other factors of the theory of planned behavior (strongest with attitude with R=0,730). The correlation between correlation between subjective norm and perceived behavioral control is the weakest.

4.6.8. Regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis provides the researcher to understand the relationship between one dependent variable and several independent variables. (Hair Jr. et al., 1995, p. 13). Its objective is to predict the changes in the dependent variable, which is expected to change when the independent variables change. (Hair Jr. et al., 1995, p. 13). Thus, multiple regression analysis is the appropriate analysis to examine the relationship between purchase intention and the factors of the theory of planned behavior. While conducting regression analysis, purchase intention was considered as the dependent variable; attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control were considered as the independent variables.

Table 4.26 shows the summary statistics of the theory of planned behavior and Table 4.27 shows the results of the regression model. As it can be seen at Table 4.18, the results indicated that the regression model was statistically significant (F=140,513; p<0,01). The three factors of the theory of planned behavior explained 66,8% of purchase intention (see Table 4.26). According to the results that shown at Table 4.27, there is statistically significant relationship between purchase intention and all of the factors of the theory of planned behavior. Each of them has p value as less than 0,01. The regression coefficients indicated that attitude (β=0,520; p<0,01) and perceived behavioral control (β=0,512; p<0,01) influenced purchase intention stronger than subjective norm (β=0,375; p<0,01) (see Table 4.17).

Table 4.26. *Summary statistics of the theory of planned behavior*

Model	**R**	**R square**	**Adjusted R square**	**Std. error of the estimate**
1	0,820	0,673	0,668	0,59253

Table 4.27. *Regression results on the theory of planned behavior*

Dependent variable				
Purchase intention				
Factors	**Std. β**	**t**	**Sig.**	**F**
Attitude	0,520	13,019	0,000**	140,513
Subjective norm	0,375	9,375	0,000**	
Perceived behavioral control	0,512	12,913	0,000**	

*Note: *p<0,05; **p<0,01*

4.7. Online Shopping Intention of Respondents Based on Their Shopping Orientations

In this chapter, online shopping intention of respondents was examined based on their shopping orientations. Firstly, factor analysis was conducted, and then internal consistency reliability of shopping orientation was tested. Secondly, the relationship between previous online shopping experience and shopping orientations or respondents were examined. Thirdly, the effect of demographic factors (age, educational background, and income) on the factors of shopping orientation were examined. In the end, correlation and regression analysis were conducted to test the factors of shopping orientation whether they explained the online purchase intention of older consumers.

4.7.1. Factor analysis of shopping orientation

As mentioned broadly before, factor analysis provides the researcher an easier understanding and interpreting of the interrelationship among several variables (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 262). In order to do this, factor analysis assumes these variables as related and reduces the dimensions (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 262).

Before conducting the factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy was carried out. The minimum satisfying KMO test value is accepted as 0,70 (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 266). As it can be seen at Table 4.28, KMO test value measured as 0,895. Additionally, Bartlett's test of sphericity was performed afterwards. According to Table 4.19, Bartlett's test of sphericity was found significant ($p<0,05$). The result of KMO test indicated that sample size is adequate to perform factor analysis. Bartlett's test of sphericity also indicated that the correlation matrix was not equivalent to the unit matrix. In other words, the data of shopping orientation is well suited to conduct a factor analysis. The findings of the factor analysis of shopping orientation are given in Table 4.28.

While determining the factors, eigenvalue was considered as greater than "1" (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 272). As it is shown at Table 4.28, the factor analysis of shopping orientation produced 5 factors with eigenvalues greater than "1". The questionnaire was constituted after reviewing the literature and it was expected to produce 2 factors, which are hedonic shopping orientation and utilitarian shopping orientation, with eigenvalues greater than "1". As it can be seen at Table 4.28, hedonic shopping

orientation divided into 3 factors, and utilitarian shopping orientation divided into 2 factors.

Table 4.28. *Factor analysis of shopping orientation before the items extracted*

Items			Components				
	Mean	**Std. deviation**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Eigenvalue			7,804	2,294	1,582	1,131	1,064
Variance Explained (%)			35,473	10,427	7,192	5,142	4,836
KMO Test	0,895						
Bartlett Test	X^2=2127,416 df=231 Sig.=0,000						
Factor 1							
"I continue to shop, not because I had to but because I want to."	3,07	1,139	0,637				
"I have good time because I was able to act on the "spur of the moment."	2,68	1,046	0,685				
"While shopping, I'm able to forget my problems."	2,74	1,065	0,528				
"I can fantasize during shopping trip."	2,39	0,970	0,686				
"When shopping, I often have fun."	2,82	1,043	0,732				
"When shopping, I am usually looking for entertainment."	2,75	1,004	0,700				
"I like to kill time by shopping."	2,24	0,952	0,510				
"When shopping, I like to browse around."	3,18	1,218	0,586				
Factor 2							
"Shopping is truly a joy for me."	3,08	1,041		0,641			
"Compared to other things I could have done; the time spent shopping was truly enjoyable."	2,73	1,007		0,626			
"Shopping is an escape for me."	2,23	0,831		0,689			
"I enjoy being immersed in exciting new products."	2,38	0,964		0,663			

Table 4.28. *Factor analysis of shopping orientation before the items extracted (continued)*

Items			Components				
	Mean	**Std. deviation**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Factor 3							
"The shopping trip is not a very nice time out."	2,93	1,100			0,639		
"When shopping, I try to get it over with as soon as possible." [R]	2,53	1,101			0,786		
"When shopping, I act as deliberately and goal-focused as possible."	2,11	0,774			0,725		
"When shopping, I mainly carry out what I have planned." [R]	2,14	0,794			0,580		
Factor 4							
"I think that I am successful in shopping."	3,66	0,906				0,882	
"I feel really smart about shopping."	3,57	0,880				0,903	
Factor 5							
"During the shopping trip, I felt the excitement of the hunt."	2,19	0,960					0,706
"While shopping, I felt a sense of adventure."	2,24	0,877					0,527

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
Note. R: reversed item

The items of the questionnaire were selected after reviewing literature comprehensively. Consequently, the items of the questionnaire evaluated much more aspects of hedonic and utilitarian shopping orientations than the intended aspects of shopping orientations, which were discussed in the literature review and methodology chapters. By this reason, in order to understand older consumers' shopping orientations in general, the factor analysis was conducted again with the selected items.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity was conducted again. As it can be seen at Table 4.29, KMO test value was measured as 0,846 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was found significant ($p<0,05$). KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated that sampling size was adequate and the data is suitable to conduct the factor analysis.

According to Table 4.20, the factor analysis of shopping orientation produced 3 factors with eigenvalues greater than "1". Normally, it was expected to be emerged 2 factors from factor analysis, which are hedonic shopping orientation and utilitarian shopping orientation. But as it is shown in Table 4.29, utilitarian shopping orientation divided into 2 factors. One of them measured utilitarian shopping orientation and the other one measured smart shopping orientation. Given the fact that, being as one of the sub-dimensions of utilitarian shopping orientation, smart shopping orientation may be worth to investigate in terms of online shopping and its influence on online purchase intention. Thus, smart shopping orientation was decided to be the third factor of shopping orientations.

Table 4.29 shows the results of factor analysis of shopping orientations after the items extracted.

Table 4.29. *Factor analysis of shopping orientations after the items extracted*

Items			**Components**		
	Mean	**Std. deviation**	**1**	**2**	**3**
Eigenvalue			5,075	1,694	1,068
Variance Explained (%)			39,037	13,030	8,216
KMO Test	0,846				
Bartlett Test	X^2=1108,343 df=78 Sig.=0,000				
Factor 1: Hedonic shopping orientation					
"Shopping is truly a joy for me."	3,08	1,041	0,751		
"Compared to other things I could have done; the time spent shopping was truly enjoyable."	2,73	1,007	0,718		
"During the shopping trip, I felt the excitement of the hunt."	2,19	0,960	0,602		
"Shopping is an escape for me."	2,23	0,831	0,635		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.29. *Factor analysis of shopping orientations after the items extracted (continued)*

"I enjoy being immersed in exciting new products."	2,38	0,964	0,749		
"I enjoy the shopping trip for its own sake, not just for the items I may purchase."	2,75	1,068	0,701		
"I continue to shop, not because I had to but because I want to."	3,07	1,139	0,550		
"While shopping, I'm able to forget my problems."	2,74	1,065	0,754		
"While shopping, I felt a sense of adventure."	2,24	0,877	0,690		
Factor 2: Utilitarian shopping orientation					
"The shopping trip is not a very nice time out."	2,93	1,090		0,718	
"When shopping, I act as deliberately and goal-focused as possible."	2,11	0,774		0,808	
Factor 3: Smart shopping orientation					
"I think that I am successful in shopping."	3,66	0,906			0,913
"I feel really smart about shopping."	3,57	0,880			0,898

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
Note. R: reversed item

Factor 1 is Hedonic Shopping Orientation, which refers to the older consumers' feelings like having fun and enjoyment, heighten their moods while shopping in the offline environments. The eigenvalue is 5,075 and the factor explains 39,037% of the total variance. All of the factor loadings are above 0,55.

Factor 2 is Utilitarian Shopping Orientation, which refers to the older consumers' desires to maximize the utility of products/services or all of the shopping process while shopping in the offline environments. The eigenvalue is 1,694 and the factor explains 13,020% of the total variance. All of the factor loadings are above 0,60.

Factor 3 is Smart Shopping Orientation, which refers to the older consumers' inner thoughts like being smart and successful while shopping in the offline environments. The eigenvalue is 1,068 and the factor explains 8,216% of the total variance. All of the factor loadings are above 0,60.

4.7.2. Internal consistency reliability of shopping orientation

As mentioned before, internal consistency reliability is and approach to measure the internal reliability of the research instrument (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 123). It is usually measured with Cronbach's alpha (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 123).

Internal consistency reliability of was measured with Cronbach's alpha. As it can be seen at Table 4.30, Cronbach's alpha value of shopping orientation is 0,870. George and Mallery (2003) stated that the scale is respectable when the Cronbach's alpha values are between 0,70 – 0,90 (as cited in Kilic, 2016, p. 48). The Cronbach's alpha value shows that shopping orientation scale is reliable.

Table 4.30. *Internal consistency reliability of shopping orientation*

	Mean	**Std. deviation**	**Cronbach's alpha**
Shopping orientation	2,7201	0,59378	0,870

4.7.3. The relationship between online shopping experience and shopping orientations

T-test was conducted in order to understand the difference between online shoppers and non-online shoppers in terms of their shopping orientation. Using t-test to identify the differences were appropriate because, it helps the researcher to compare only two independent groups (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 180). In this research, the independent samples t-test were conducted with a 0,05 critical level of significance. The results of the t-test are shown at Table 4.31.

Table 4.31. *The relationship between online shoppers and non-online shoppers within the factors of shopping orientation*

		Mean	**Std. deviation**	**t-value**	**Sig (2-tailed)**
Hedonic shopping orientation	Older consumers who shopped online	2,6481	0,68664	1,432	0,154
	Older consumers who did not shop online	2,5117	0,69060		
Utilitarian shopping orientation	Older consumers who shopped online	2,5802	0,69398	1,127	0,261
	Older consumers who did not shop online	2,4612	0,82453		

Table 4.31. *The relationship between online shoppers and non-online shoppers within the factors of shopping orientation (continued)*

		Mean	Std. deviation	t-value	Sig (2-tailed)
Smart shopping orientation	Older consumers who shopped online	3,6840	0,69804	1,024	0,230
	Older consumers who did not shop online	3,5437	0,96788		

*Note: *p<0,05; **p<0,01*

According to the results from Table 4.31, there is no significant difference statistically (p>0,05) between online shoppers (Mean 2,6481; Std. deviation 0,68664) and non-online shoppers (Mean 2,5117; Std. deviation 0,69060) in terms of hedonic shopping orientation.

Utilitarian shopping orientation was also analyzed with t-test to determine if there is difference between online shoppers and non-online shoppers or not. The results show that there is no significant difference statistically (p>0,05) between online shoppers (Mean 2,5802; Std. deviation 0,69398) and non-online shoppers (Mean 2,4612; Std. deviation 0,82453).

Also, smart shopping orientation doesn't differ within the two groups of older consumers. The results indicate that there is no significant difference statistically (p>0,05) between online shoppers (Mean 3,6840; Std. deviation 0,69804) and non-online shoppers (Mean 3,5437; Std. deviation 0,96788).

In summary, there is no significant difference statistically between online shoppers and non-online shoppers in terms of all of the shopping orientation factors. Online shoppers and non-online shoppers do not differ in terms of hedonic, utilitarian, and smart shopping orientations.

4.7.4. Demographic characteristics and factors of shopping orientation affecting online purchasing decisions of respondents

In order to determine and to identify the influence of age, educational background, and income on shopping orientation factors, one-way ANOVA was conducted. It was appropriate to use for determining and identifying the influence of demographic

characteristics on shopping orientation factors, because one-way ANOVA enables the researcher to compare more than two sample sizes (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 197). The results of one-way ANOVA were discussed at following chapters.

4.7.4.1. The effect of age on the factors of shopping orientation of respondents

The effect of age on the factors of shopping orientation of respondents, one- way ANOVA was conducted. The results are shown at Table 4.32. The results indicate that there is no significant difference statistically between age groups in terms of hedonic shopping orientation (p>0,05). Also, there is no significant difference statistically between age groups in terms of utilitarian shopping orientation (p>0,05). Smart shopping orientation (p<0,05) was the only shopping orientation factor that was influenced by age groups.

To identify which age groups were differed in terms of smart shopping orientation, a post-hoc analysis was conducted. The homogeneity of variances test indicated that variances of smart shopping orientation were not homogenous between age groups. Thus, for the post-hoc analysis, Games-Howell was used. The results indicated that there is significant difference between 60 – 64-year-old respondents and 65 and more year-old respondents in terms of smart shopping orientation.

Table 4.32. *One-way ANOVA results of the effect of age on the factors of shopping orientation*

Factors	**Age (years)**	**Frequency**	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**	**F**	**Sig.**	**Post-hoc**
Hedonic shopping orientation	55-59	79	2,5899	0,69385	0,579	0,561	-
	60-64	75	2,5200	0,69516			
	65+	55	2,6509	0,68391			
Utilitarian shopping orientation	55-59	79	2,5570	0,74673	0,143	0,867	-
	60-64	75	2,5067	0,84826			
	65+	55	2,4909	0,66312			
Smart shopping orientation	55-59	79	3,7025	0,78685	4,662	0,010*	2-3
	60-64	75	3,3867	0,88750			
	65+	55	3,8000	0,80277			

*Note: *p<0,05; **p<0,01*

4.7.4.2. The effect of educational background on the factors of shopping orientation of respondents

In order to determine the effect of educational background on the factors of shopping orientation, one-way ANOVA was conducted. The results of one-way ANOVA are given at Table 4.24. According to Table 4.33, there is no significant difference statistically between hedonic shopping orientation (p>0,05) and educational background. In addition to that, there is no significant difference statistically between utilitarian shopping orientation (p>0,05) and educational backgrounds. Smart shopping orientation is not an exception either. Smart shopping orientation (p>0,05) does not differ by educational backgrounds.

Table 4.33. *One-way ANOVA results of the effect of educational background on the factors of shopping orientation*

Factors	**Educational background**	**Frequency**	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**	**F**	**Sig.**	**Post-hoc**
Hedonic shopping orientation	≤secondary school	32	2,7563	0,80959	1,033	0,379	-
	high school	47	2,5574	0,67847			
	associate degree	36	2,6250	0,58621			
	undergraduate≥	94	2,5160	0,68882			
Utilitarian shopping orientation	≤secondary school	32	2,5938	0,93703	0,434	0,729	-
	high school	47	2,4468	0,68552			
	associate degree	36	2,6111	0,46462			
	undergraduate≥	94	2,5000	0,82631			
Smart shopping orientation	≤secondary school	32	3,5156	1,02772	2,227	0,086	-
	high school	47	3,7234	0,82626			
	associate degree	36	3,8750	0,69050			
	undergraduate≥	94	3,4947	0,81812			

*Note: *p<0,05; **p<0,01*

4.7.4.3. The effect of income on the factors of shopping orientation of the respondents

In order to determine the effect of average income on the factors of shopping orientation, one-way ANOVA was conducted (see Table 4.34). According to the results, there is no significant difference statistically between average income and hedonic shopping orientation (p>0,05). Average income of the respondents does not affect utilitarian shopping orientation (p>0,05). Smart shopping orientation (p>0,05) is not affected by average income of the respondents, also.

Table 4.34. *One-way ANOVA results of the effect of income on the factors of shopping orientation*

Factors	Average income	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation	F	Sig.	Post-hoc
Hedonic shopping orientation	<3000TL	99	2,6202	0,70883	0,866	0,422	-
	3000TL-4999TL	76	2,5921	0,66428			
	≥5000TL	34	2,4412	0,69549			
Utilitarian shopping orientation	<3000TL	99	2,5152	0,81270	0,221	0,802	-
	3000TL-4999TL	76	2,5592	0,63228			
	≥5000TL	34	2,4559	0,88221			
Smart shopping orientation	<3000TL	99	3,6212	0,86334	0,049	0,952	-
	3000TL-4999TL	76	3,6250	0,80881			
	≥5000TL	34	3,5735	0,88019			

*Note: *p<0,05; **p<0,01*

4.7.5. Correlation analysis

As mentioned before, correlation analysis is a prior condition of the regression analysis. It shows the relationship and the dependence between two variables (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 226). To determine the possible complication before conducting the regression analysis, correlation analysis must be conducted.

According to Altunışık et al. (2010, p. 226), correlation coefficient value ranges between "-1" to "+1" and shows the strength of the relationship between two variables. If correlation coefficient value is measured "0", it means that there is no correlation

between these two variables and there is no noticeable relationship between them (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 226).

Hedonic shopping orientation, utilitarian shopping orientation, and smart shopping orientation were recognized as independent variables. Intention was recognized as dependent variable. Table 4.35 shows the means and standard deviations of the variables and Table 4.36 shows Pearson correlations.

Table 4.35. *Means and standard deviations of shopping orientations and online purchase intention (n=209)*

Factors	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**
Hedonic shopping orientation	2,5809	0,69033
Utilitarian shopping orientation	2,5215	0,76162
Smart shopping orientation	3,6148	0,84280
Intention	3,0502	1,02838

According to Table 4.35, smart shopping orientation factor had a higher score (Mean 3,6148) than other factors. Intention (Mean 3,0502) had the second highest score among them. Hedonic shopping orientation (Mean 2,5809) and utilitarian shopping orientation (2,5215) had nearly close scores.

Table 4.36. *Pearson correlations of shopping orientations and online purchase intention (n=209)*

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**
Factor 1. Hedonic shopping orientation	1,000			
Factor 2. Utilitarian shopping orientation	0,367**	1,000		
Factor 3. Smart shopping orientation	0,357**	0,050	1,000	
Factor 4. Intention	0,184**	0,075	0,179**	1,000

*** Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed).*

The correlation analysis shows that hedonic shopping orientation, smart shopping orientation, and intention were correlated significantly (a range between 0,357 – 0,179) (see Table 4.36). Utilitarian shopping orientation (R=0,367) was correlated only with hedonic shopping orientation and it had the highest correlation among other factors. According to Table 4.36, Smart shopping orientation (R=0,357) was correlated with

hedonic shopping orientation, also. Intention was correlated with hedonic shopping orientation (R=0,184) and smart shopping orientation (R=0,179).

In other words, as the results indicated that hedonic shopping orientation, smart shopping orientation, and intention were correlated significantly. But the results show that the correlation among these variables cannot be regarded as strong. In consequence of the correlation coefficient values were not close to "-1" or "+1", ranging between 0,357 – 0,179), the correlation among these variables cannot be regarded as strong.

4.7.6. Regression analysis

As mentioned before, multiple regression analysis provides the researcher to understand the relationship between one dependent variable and several independent variables (Hair Jr. et al., 1995, p. 13). By this reason, multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between purchase intention and shopping orientation of older consumers. Purchase intention was regarded as the dependent variable; hedonic shopping orientation, utilitarian shopping orientation, and smart shopping orientation were regarded as the independent variables.

Table 4.37 shows the summary statistics of the older consumers' shopping orientation and Table 4.38 shows the results of the regression model. As it can be seen at Table 4.38, the results indicated that the regression model was statistically significant ($F=3,692$; $p<0,05$). The three factors of the shopping orientations explained 3,7% of purchase intention (see Table 4.37). According to the results of regression analysis, there is statistically significant relationship between purchase intention and hedonic shopping orientation ($p<0,05$) (see Table 4.38). Also, there is statistically significant relationship between purchase intention and utilitarian shopping orientation ($p<0,05$). The results indicated that there is no statistically significant relationship between purchase intention and smart shopping orientation ($p>0,05$). The regression coefficients indicated that hedonic shopping orientation ($\beta=0,151$; $p<0,05$) and utilitarian shopping orientation ($\beta=0,163$; $p<0,05$) influenced purchase intention (see Table 4.38).

Table 4.37. *Summary statistics of the older consumers' shopping orientation*

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate
1	0,226	0,051	0,037	1,00897

Table 4.38. *Regression results on the effect of older consumers' shopping orientation on online purchase intention*

Dependent variable				
Purchase intention				
Factors	Std. β	t	Sig.	F
Hedonic shopping orientation	0,151	2,222	0,027*	3,692*
Utilitarian shopping orientation	0,163	2,396	0,017*	
Smart shopping orientation	0,043	0,631	0,529	

*Note: *p<0,05; **p<0,01*

4.8. Testing the Research Model

In the previous chapters of data and analyses, the relationship between purchase intention and the factors of the theory of planned behavior; and the relationship between purchase intention and the factors of the shopping orientation were examined separately. In this chapter, the suggested research model in the methodology was examined. In order to analyze the influence of attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, hedonic shopping orientation, and utilitarian shopping orientation on older consumers' online purchase intention, a regression analysis was conducted. Smart shopping orientation was not included the research model in the methodology chapter, however the relationship between purchase intention and smart shopping orientation was tested because utilitarian sopping orientation was emerged two factors in the factor analysis, which were utilitarian shopping orientation and smart shopping orientation. The results indicated that there is no relationship between purchase intention and smart shopping orientation. Thus, its questionnaire items were extracted. Only the selected items of utilitarian shopping orientation factor were included the research model. The data and analysis of the research model was discussed below.

4.8.1. Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis was conducted again with the factors, which are attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, hedonic shopping orientation, and utilitarian shopping orientation, in order to determine possible complications before the regression analysis.

Attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, hedonic shopping orientation, and utilitarian shopping orientation were recognized as

independent variables. Intention was recognized as dependent variable. Table 4.39 shows the means and standard deviations of the variables and Table 4.40 shows Pearson correlations.

Table 4.39. *Means and standard deviations of the research model (n=209)*

Factors	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**
Attitude	3,1938	0,85348
Subjective norm	3,0268	0,82768
Perceived behavioral control	3,0670	1,11494
Hedonic shopping orientation	2,5809	0,69033
Utilitarian shopping orientation	2,5215	0,76162
Intention	3,0502	1,02838

According to Table 4.39, attitude had the highest score (mean 3,1938) among the other factors. Perceived behavioral control (mean 3,0670) and intention (mean 3,0502) had approximate averages. Subjective norm (mean 3,0268) followed attitude toward online shopping, perceived behavioral control, and intention. Hedonic shopping orientation had higher score (mean 2,5809) than utilitarian shopping orientation (mean 2,5215). Utilitarian shopping orientation (mean 2,5215) had the lowest score among them.

Table 4.40. *Pearson correlations of the research model (n=209)*

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Factor 1. Attitude	1,000					
Factor 2. Subjective norm	0,645**	1,000				
Factor 3. Perceived behavioral control	0,580**	0,554**	1,000			
Factor 4. Hedonic shopping orientation	0,244**	0,280**	0,170*	1,000		
Factor 5. Utilitarian shopping orientation	0,019	0,011	0,046	0,367**	1,000	
Factor 6. Intention	0,730**	0,672**	0,697**	0,184**	0,075	1,000

** Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed)*
*** Correlation is significant at the 0,05 level (2-tailed)*

The correlation analysis shows that attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, hedonic shopping orientation, and intention are correlated significantly (a range between 0,730 – 0,170) (see Table 4.40). According to

Table 4.40, intention (R=0,730) had the highest correlation coefficient and had the strongest correlation with attitude. The other factors, subjective norm (R=0,672) and perceived behavioral control (R=0,697), were highly correlated with intention. The correlation between subjective norm (R=0,645) and attitude was also adequate. Perceived behavioral control was also correlated with attitude (R=0,580) and subjective norm (R=0,554). Hedonic shopping orientation was correlated with perceived behavioral control (R=0,280), attitude toward online shopping (R=0,244), intention (R=0,184), and subjective norm (R=0,170) respectively. Utilitarian shopping orientation (R=0,367) was correlated with only hedonic shopping orientation.

In summary, intention was highly correlated with all of the factors of the theory of planned behavior (strongest with attitude with R=0,730). The correlation between intention and hedonic shopping orientation was the weakest.

4.8.2. Regression analysis

In order to test the research model, a regression analysis was conducted. Attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, hedonic shopping orientation, and utilitarian shopping orientation were regarded as the independent variables. Purchase intention was regarded as the dependent variable. Table 4.32 shows the summary statistics of the research model and Table 4.33 shows the regression analysis of the research model.

According to Table 4.42, the results indicated that the regression model was statistically significant (F=84,142; p<0,01). Also, according to Table 4.41, all of the factors of the theory of planned behavior explained 66,7% of purchase intention. Attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control had p value as less than 0,01. The regression coefficients indicated that attitude (β=0,527; p<0,01) and perceived behavioral control (β=0,516; p<0,01) influenced purchase intention stronger than subjective norm (β=0,387; p<0,01) (see Table 4.33).

Regression results indicated that hedonic shopping orientation (p>0,05) and utilitarian shopping orientation (p>0,05) did not influence the purchase intention. The regression coefficients of hedonic shopping orientation (β=-0,040; p>0,05) and utilitarian shopping orientation (β=-0,018; p>0,05) indicated that there is negative relationship between purchase intention and them. These two factors did not contribute to the research model.

Table 4.41. *Summary statistics of the research model*

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate
1	0,821	0,675	0,667	0,59387

Table 4.42. *Regression results on the research model*

Dependent variable				
Purchase intention				
Factors	**Std. β**	**t**	**Sig.**	**F**
Attitude	0,527	12,954	0,000**	84,142**
Subjective norm	0,387	9,252	0,000**	
Perceived behavioral control	0,516	12,536	0,000**	
Hedonic shopping orientation	-0,040	-0,959	0,339	
Utilitarian shopping orientation	-0,018	-0,434	0,665	

*Note: *p<0,05; **p<0,01*

5. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1. Discussion and Conclusion

As the world population is aging, older consumer will be a larger market segment in the offline and online shopping environments. Therefore, this research attempted to reveal older consumers' shopping orientation in the context of the theory of planned behavior, firstly. Secondly, it attempted to reveal the relationship between older consumers' shopping orientation and online purchase intention.

When the demographic profiles of the respondents evaluated, the results indicated that the respondents consisted of both female and male respondents with the size of generally balanced. The respondents are mostly 54 – 59 and 60 – 64 years old and most of the respondents are married, retiree, and living with a spouse/with a spouse and children. Additionally, nearly half of the respondents earn less than 3000TL average income on the monthly basis.

The respondents were asked which products or services they purchased online. The respondents spend their money on mostly clothing (33%), then respectively shoes/bags/accessories (29%), foods and cleaning supplies (15%), electronics (13%), bus/flight ticket (13%), furniture/home decoration items (13%), small home appliances (12%), and cosmetics/personal care products (11%).

The results indicated that there is no significant relationship between gender and online shopping experience. Both, half of the female and male respondents shopped online before. Kuoppamäki et al. (2017) found that there is no significant relationship between female and male respondents in terms of online shopping. The result of this research is compatible with the findings of Kuoppamäki et al. (2017).

Also, the results showed that there is no significant relationship between online shopping experience and attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and online purchase intention. Additionally, the results showed that there is no significant difference between consumers with and without online shopping experience in terms of shopping orientations.

The relationship between self-rated skills and online purchase intention was examined as well. The results indicated that there is significant difference among respondents, who rated their computer skills as bad, average, and good statistically. Interestingly, the difference between the respondents with bad and good self-rated

computer skills ($p<0,05$) differentiate less than the respondents with bad and average ($p<0,01$), and average and good ($p<0,01$) self-rated computer skills in terms of online purchase intention. When the relationship between self-rated smart phone skills and online purchase intention examined, the results showed that the respondents who rated their smart phone skills as bad and good; and average and good differentiate in terms of online purchase intention. The relationship between self-rated computer/smart phone skills and online purchase intention was investigated. The results revealed that both self-rated skills of the respondents and online purchase intention were correlated. While the relationship between self-rated computer skills and intention ($R=0,427$) is stronger than the relationship between self-rated smart phone skills and intention ($R=0,355$); self-rated smart phone skills (mean 3,7959) had a higher score than self-rated computer skills (mean 3,0861). The respondents may see their smart phone skills better than their computer skills but when it comes to online purchase intention, their computer skills have more influence than their smart phone skills.

Additionally, the relationship between average Internet usage time per week and online purchase intention was examined. The results showed that there is significant difference between the respondents who spend time online less than average and more than average in terms of online purchase intention ($p<0,01$). The respondents who spend time online less than average and average also differentiate in terms online purchase intention ($p<0,05$). There is no significant difference between the respondents who spend time online average and more than average in terms of online purchase intention. In addition, the results indicated that there is significant relationship between average Internet usage time per week and online purchase intention ($R=0,365$).

The relationship between demographic variables and the sub-constructs of the theory of planned behavior was examined as well. The results showed that there is no significant difference among age groups in terms of attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and online purchase intention statistically. Older consumers' attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and online purchase intention did not differ in terms of age. Although, the results indicated that there is no significant difference statistically among age groups in terms of perceived behavioral control; the means of perceived behavioral control of the respondents were declined among age groups. The oldest age group (65-year old or more)

sees themselves less incapable and self-confident (mean 2,8545) in comparison to 55 – 59 (mean 3,2785) and 60 – 64 (mean 3,000) age groups. The youngest group (55 – 59-year old) is more confident in their skills and themselves in terms of online shopping. A bigger sample size may give more significant statistical results. Additionally, the results indicated that there is no significant difference among age groups in terms of hedonic and utilitarian shopping orientation. Smart shopping orientation differentiate between 60 – 64-year old respondents and 65-year old or more respondents.

The results showed that there is no significant difference among older consumer group with different educational backgrounds in terms of attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, and online purchase intention. However, Kuoppamäki et al. (2017) stated that education is the strongest predictor of purchasing online and found that older adults with a graduate diploma tend to purchase online more than others. Besides, the findings of this research indicated that perceived behavioral control of older consumers varies by educational background. The respondents with secondary degree or less and with associate degree differentiate in terms of perceived behavioral control. Additionally, the perceived behavioral control of the respondent differentiates between the respondent with secondary school or less degree and with undergraduate degree or more. Thus, the results of the research are partially compatible with the findings of Kuoppamäki et al. (2017). Because, while perceived behavioral control is affected by educational background, online purchase intention is not affected by it. Older adults with higher education may be more confident while using computer/smartphone for purchasing online than others. It can be said that there is difference between less and more educated older consumers in terms of perceived behavioral control. Also, the results indicate that there is no significant difference among older consumers with different educational backgrounds in terms of shopping orientations.

Additionally, older consumers attitude toward online shopping and subjective norm does not vary among income levels. However, perceived behavioral control and online purchase intention differentiate among income levels. The respondents who earn less than 3000TL and between 3000TL – 4999TL differentiate in terms of perceived behavioral control. Also, the respondents who earn less than 3000TL and more than 5000TL differentiate in terms of perceived behavioral control. The results showed that there is no significant difference between respondents who earn between 3000TL – 4999

TL and more than 5000TL. The average income of the respondents affects perceived behavioral control due to ownership of computer/smart phone. Older consumers with higher income may own a computer/smart phone more likely than older consumers with lesser income. Also, older consumers with higher income may tend to purchase online more than older consumers with less income. Purchase intention differentiated between the respondents who earn less than 3000TL and more than 5000TL; and also, who earn between 3000TL – 4999 TL and more than 5000TL. According to the results, there is no significant difference among older consumers with different income levels in terms of shopping orientations. The shopping orientations of older consumers are not affected by average income.

Öztürk et al. (2012) stated that even though demographic characteristics, especially educational background and income level, are seen as the indicators for accepting and using new technologies; it does not affect older consumers' acceptance of technology as thought as before. Only, older consumers who have no interest in technological devices and Internet shared same characteristics (e.g. lesser educational background and low-income level). Thus, as the results of this study provides only an insight of older consumers' shopping orientations and online purchase intentions within the context of the theory of planned behavior; the effect and magnitude of demographic characteristics may vary from the previous studies.

According to findings, older consumers' online purchase intention is explained by older consumers' attitude toward online shopping, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. Similar to the findings of Lim et al. (2011), attitude and subjective norm affected online purchase intention, but this research revealed that perceived behavioral control has an influence on online purchase intention. However, Lim et al. (2011) did not investigated older consumers, who had previous online experience, by this reason the results may vary. Lian and Yen (2014) investigated older consumers' online purchase intention and found that social influence, which can be regarded as subjective norm, has an influence on online purchase intention. Also, each sub-construct of the theory of planned behavior affected online purchase intention with different magnitudes which was stated by Ajzen (1991).

Additionally, hedonic shopping orientation and utilitarian shopping orientation affected older consumers' online purchase intention merely (R=0,037). The results

indicated that there is no relationship between smart shopping orientation and older consumers' online purchase intention. The results may be seen compatible with the findings of Brown et al. (2001), because the results indicated that the influence of hedonic and utilitarian shopping orientations on online purchase intention is very small. Brown et al. (2001) found that fundamental shopping orientations, which consist recreational and economic shoppers here, have no influence on online purchase intention. The older consumers' online purchase intention may differ from the adult consumers.

While the sub-constructs of the theory of planned behavior (attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control) explained older consumers' online purchase intention; older consumers' shopping orientation (in here, hedonic and utilitarian shopping orientation) did not explain older consumers' online shopping intention. According to the results, the sub-constructs of the theory of planned behavior heavily influenced online purchase intention, both with or without the shopping orientations. On the other hand, the shopping orientations of older consumers alone influenced merely online purchase intention. Thus, it is expected to see this outcome when the sub-constructs and shopping orientation were examined together in order to explain online purchase intention.

5.2. Suggestions

This research can be useful both academia and practitioners and suggest new ideas to understand older consumers market segment.

First of all, the research sample consisted of 209 older consumers, who are 55 years old or older, who have the basic skills to use a computer/smart phone. For the future studies, researchers may use a higher sample size to understand older consumers in Turkey. Additionally, the number of respondents, who are 65 years old or older are less than the other age groups due to lack of older consumers with the basic knowledge for using a computer/smart phone. For better understanding of older consumers in Turkey, for the future studies, researchers may use a higher sample size and may focus on much older age groups like older baby boomers (i.e. who were born between 1955 – 1946). Also, according to the demographic characteristics of the respondents, most of the respondents have at least undergraduate degree. By this reason, older consumers with lesser educational background may be investigated in the future studies.

The respondents of this research stated they purchased mostly products online. By this reason, the researchers may investigate the types of services that older consumers

purchased online. These services may be tour package, hotel reservations, online appointment for medical clinics. Also, future researches may investigate the relationship between physical wellness and online consumption of older consumers.

Older consumers relationship with technology is also an interesting research topic. For the future studies, the relationship between older consumers and technology may be investigated within the context of technology readiness and technology acceptance model.

According to the results of the research, marketing specialist may offer different products or services to older consumers with hedonic and utilitarian shopping orientations. Also, given the fact that older consumers' perceived behavioral control and their online purchase intention varied by educational background and average income on monthly basis in this research, marketing specialists may use different marketing strategies for older consumers with different educational background and average income.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Questionnaire (Turkish)

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu anket formu Türkiye'de yaşayan 55 yaş ve üstü tüketicilerin internet aracılığı ile alışveriş yapmaya yönelik düşüncelerini belirlemek için hazırlanmıştır.

Anket formu dört bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölümde bilgisayar, akıllı telefon ve internet kullanımınızı belirlemeye yönelik sorular bulunmaktadır. İkinci bölümde alışveriş ile ilgili his ve düşüncelerinizi; üçüncü bölümde ise internet aracılığı ile alışveriş hakkındaki his ve düşüncelerinizi ölçmeye dair ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Dördüncü ve son bölüm ise sizi daha iyi tanımak için oluşturulmuştur.

Vereceğiniz samimi cevaplar yüksek lisans tezim için yaptığım araştırmaya veri sağlayacaktır ve toplu bir şekilde değerlendirilecektir. Araştırmama destek verdiğiniz için teşekkür ederim.

Seran Yüksel

Anadolu Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
İşletme Yönetimi Bölümü
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

BİRİNCİ BÖLÜM

1. Kendinize ait ya da evinizde her an kullanabileceğiniz bir bilgisayar var mı?
   ( ) Evet ( ) Hayır

2. Bilgisayar kullanma becerinizin hangi seviyede olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
   ( ) Çok zayıf ( ) Zayıf ( ) Orta ( ) İyi
   ( ) Çok iyi

3. Akıllı telefonunuz (internete bağlanabildiğiniz bir telefonunuz) var mı?
   ( ) Evet ( ) Hayır

4. Akıllı telefonunuz varsa, akıllı telefon kullanma becerinizin hangi seviyede olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
   ( ) Çok zayıf ( ) Zayıf ( ) Orta ( ) İyi
   ( ) Çok iyi

5. Sürekli olarak internet erişiminiz var mı? (Evinizde internet bağlantısı varsa, akıllı telefonunuz için internet paketi kullanıyorsanız ya da her ikisine birden sahipseniz 'evet' cevabını işaretleyiniz.)
   ( ) Evet ( ) Hayır

6. İnterneti ne kadar süredir aktif olarak kullanıyorsunuz?
   ( ) 1 yıldan az ( ) 1 – 2 yıl ( ) 3 – 4 yıl ( ) 5 – 6 yıl
   ( ) 7 yıldan fazla

7. İnterneti hangi sıklıkla kullanırsınız?
   ( ) Her gün ( ) Haftada birkaç defa
   ( ) Haftada bir defa ( ) Ayda bir defa

8. Haftada ortalama kaç saat internet kullanırsınız?
   ( ) 1 – 5 saat ( ) 6 – 10 saat ( ) 11 – 15 saat
   ( ) 16 – 20 saat ( ) 21 saatten fazla

9. Başkalarından yardım, destek alarak (çocuklar, torunlar vb.) bugüne dek hiç internetten alışveriş yaptınız mı?
   ( ) Evet ( ) Hayır

10. Bugüne kadar internet üzerinden kendi başınıza bilgisayarınız veya akıllı telefonunuz ile alışveriş yaptınız mı?
    ( ) Evet ( ) Hayır

11. Yukarıdaki soruya cevabınız evet ise internetten ne kadar süredir alışveriş yapıyorsunuz?
    ( ) 1 yıldan az ( ) 1 – 2 yıl ( ) 3 – 4 yıl
    ( ) 5 – 6 yıl ( ) 7 yıldan fazla

12. Bugüne kadar kendi başınıza ya da yardım alarak internetten alışveriş yaptıysanız aldığınız ürünlerden örnek verebilir misiniz?
    ……

İKİNCİ BÖLÜM

Aşağıdaki ifadeler sizin alışveriş ile ilgili hisleriniz ve düşünceleriniz hakkında bilgi edinmeye yöneliktir. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere hangi ölçüde katıldığınızı veya katılmadığınızı işaretleyiniz.

	1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	**2** Katılmıyorum	**3** Ne katılıyorum / Ne katılmıyorum	**4** Katılıyorum	**5** Kesinlikle katılıyorum
Alışveriş benim için gerçekten bir zevktir.	1	2	3	4	5
Yapabileceğim diğer şeylerle karşılaştırıldığında alışverişe harcanan zaman benim için gerçekten zevklidir.	1	2	3	4	5

	1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	**2** Katılmıyorum	**3** Ne katılıyorum / Ne katılmıyorum	**4** Katılıyorum	**5** Kesinlikle katılıyorum
Alışveriş esnasında ava çıkmış bir avcının heyecanını hissederim	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş benim için bir kaçıştır.	1	2	3	4	5
Heyecan verici yeni ürünlere kendimi kaptırmaktan zevk alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışverişten sadece satın alabileceğim ürünler nedeniyle değil, alışverişin kendisinden zevk alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş yapmaya yapmam gerektiği için değil istediğim için devam ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş yaparken önceden hazırlık yapmadan hareket ettiğim için iyi zaman geçiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş yaparken problemlerimi unuturum.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş yaparken bir macera duygusu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş benim için çok hoş bir zaman geçirme değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş sırasında çok fazla hayal kurabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş yaparken sıklıkla eğlenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışverişi mümkün olduğunca en kısa sürede halletmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş yaparken mümkün olduğunca tasarlayarak ve hedef odaklı davranıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş yaparken genellikle eğlenmeyi beklerim.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş yaparak zaman öldürmekten hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş yaparken dolaşmaktan hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş konusunda başarılı olduğumu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş konusunda kendimi akıllı hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
Çabuk biten mağaza ziyareti iyidir.	1	2	3	4	5

ÜÇÜNCÜ BÖLÜM

Aşağıdaki ifadeler sizin internetten alışveriş yapma hakkındaki hislerinizi ve düşüncelerinizi öğrenmeye ilişkindir. Bu bölümü cevaplamak için daha önce internetten alışveriş yapmanız gerekmemektedir. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere hangi ölçüde katıldığınızı veya katılmadığınızı işaretleyiniz.

	1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	**2** Katılmıyorum	**3** Ne katılıyorum/ Ne katılmıyorum	**4** Katılıyorum	**5** Kesinlikle katılıyorum
İnternet alışverişinin iyi bir şey olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
İnternetten alışveriş yapmayı düşünmüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
İnternet alışverişinin bu günlerde olmazsa olmaz olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
İnternet alışverişinin tüketiciler için yararlı olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
İnternet alışverişi hakkında olumlu bir görüşe sahibim.	1	2	3	4	5
İnternetten alışveriş yapmak iyi bir fikirdir.	1	2	3	4	5
İnternetten alışveriş yapmanın hoş olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Üzerimde etkisi olan insanlar benim internetten alışveriş yapmam gerektiğini düşünürler.	1	2	3	4	5
Benim için önemli olan insanlar beni internetten alışveriş yapmam için cesaretlendirirler.	1	2	3	4	5
Ailem internetten alışveriş yapabileceğimi düşünür.	1	2	3	4	5
Arkadaşlarım internetten alışveriş yapabileceğimi düşünürler.	1	2	3	4	5
Tanıdıklarım internetten alışveriş yapmanın iyi bir fikir olduğunu düşünürler.	1	2	3	4	5
Alışveriş için internet kullanmak konusunda kendime güvenimin tam olduğunu düşünüyorum	1	2	3	4	5

	1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	**2** Katılmıyorum	**3** Ne katılıyorum/	**4** Katılıyorum	**5** Kesinlikle katılıyorum
Önümüzdeki 6 ay içerisinde interneti alışveriş için kullanma niyetim var.	1	2	3	4	5
Önümüzdeki 6 ay içerisinde interneti alışveriş için kullanmayı umuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Önümüzdeki 6 ay içerisinde internetten alışveriş yapmayı istiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

DÖRDÜNCÜ BÖLÜM

Sizi tanıyabilir miyiz?

1. Cinsiyetiniz:
   ( ) Kadın ( ) Erkek

2. Yaşınız:
   ( ) 55 – 59 ( )60 – 64 ( ) 65 – 69 ( ) 70 ve üstü

3. Medeni haliniz:
   ( ) Bekar ( ) Evli ( ) Dul

4. Eğitim durumunuz:
   ( ) İlkokul ( ) Ortaokul ( ) Lise
   ( ) Önlisans ( ) Lisans ( ) Yüksek Lisans
   ( ) Doktora

5. İş durumunuz:
   ( ) Çalışıyor ( ) Çalışmıyor ( ) Emekli

6. Aylık ortalama geliriniz:
   ( ) 2000 TL'den daha az ( ) 2000TL – 2999 TL
   ( ) 3000TL – 3999 TL ( ) 4000 TL – 4999TL
   ( ) 5000 TL – 5999 TL ( ) 6000TL – 6999TL
   ( ) 7000 TL – 7999 TL ( ) 8000 TL ve daha fazla

7. Aile büyüklüğünüz:
   ( ) Kendi başıma yaşıyorum. ( ) Eşim ile birlikte yaşıyorum.
   ( ) Eşim ve çocuklarım ile yaşıyorum. ( ) Çocuklarım ile yaşıyorum.
   ( ) Diğer (Lütfen açıklayınız.):……...