CORRELATION STUDY ON CONSUMER PSYCHOLOGICAL
CHARACTERISTICS AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOR :
AN APPLICATION OF NON-PROMOTED STORE BRAND AND
PROMOTED NATIONAL BRAND PURCHASE :
A HYPOTHESIS TESTING STUDY IN BANGKOK JUNE-AUGUST 2003

By

LAKSAMEE PRASANNAKARN

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Business Administration

Graduate School of Business
Assumption University
Bangkok Thailand

November 2003

CORRELATION STUDY ON CONSUMER PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOR: AN APPLICATION OF NON-PROMOTED STORE BRAND AND PROMOTED NATIONAL BRAND PURCHASE: A HYPOTHESIS TESTING STUDY IN BANGKOK JUNE-AUGUST 2003

By

LAKSAMEE PRASANNAKARN

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Business Administration

Examination Committee :

1.	Dr. Pimporn Chandee	(Advisor)	
2.	Dr. Theerachote Pongtaveewould	(Member)	
3.	Dr. Chittipa Ngamkroeckjoti	(Member)	
4.	Dr. Ishwar C. Gupta	(Member)	
5.	Assoc. Prof. Poonsak Sangsunt	(MUA Representative)	

Examined on : 19 November 2003
Approved for Graduation on :

Graduate School of Business
Assumption University
Bangkok Thailand
November
2003

ABSTRACT

The store brand retail market has experienced exponential growth in several years. High penetration of store brand products in many countries, including Thailand, is an indicator that shows its success and forces national brand manufacturers to pay more interest to it. As it is known that store brands use a lower price, compared with national brands, as a key factor, in response to this, manufacturers offer their customers sales promotion in order to protect themselves from store brand encroachment.

The research objective of the study is to find out the relationship between influencing factors: consumer psychological characteristics and brand loyalty; and consumer behavior in terms of non-promoted store brand use; in-store and out-of-store national brand promotions use. In this study, the researcher has used questionnaire as the research instrument for collecting the primary data. There are 200 valid questionnaires in total. Questions were framed based on the research framework using different measurement scales for the purpose of analyzing data. Descriptive statistical tools have been used in order to analyze the demographic characteristics of the respondents. T-test has been used to test the hypothesis.

The results have revealed that there are differences in the consumer psychological characteristics of those who are likely to buy non-promoted store brands and those who are likely to buy in-store and out-of-store national brand promotions. Non-promoted store brand users are highly price conscious, not very quality conscious and not brand loyal. Users of out-of-store promotions are price conscious, variety seeking, shopping enjoyment and brand loyal but not impulsive buying whereas the last group, in-store promotion users, is price conscious, variety seeking, highly shopping enjoyment and impulsive buying but not brand loyal.

The results from this study are expected to be extremely helpful to marketers to put themselves; manufacturers and retailers, in a stronger position by using the consumer psychological characteristics to identify more likely new customers while still retaining their most loyal buyers.

As this research was conducted without focusing on specific group in terms of demographics such as level of income, education, sex, age or etc., further research should be done more specifically in these areas in order to find out much more appropriate and effective strategies used with these specific groups.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page No.

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

Chapter 1

Introduction

This chapter includes seven sections. Section one presents background of the study about branding, the impact of consumer psychological characteristics on consumers' buying behavior and branding strategy, store brands, national brands, branding perspectives and the retailing industry in Thailand. Section two and three describe statement of problem and research objectives. Scope, limitations and significant are placed in section four, five and six respectively and definition of terms is shown in the last section.

1.1 Background of the study: Branding Strategy

1.1.1 What is branding?

Aaker (1991) the most cited author in the area of branding defines a brand as follows:

A brand is a distinguished name and/or symbol such as logo intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods or services from those of competitors. A brand thus signals to the customer the source of the product, and protects both the customer and the producer from competitors who would attempt to provide products that appear to be identical.

The purpose of branding is to build the identity of the products and to many a brand gives confidence for the right choice. The identity is thought to convey a positive impression to the buyer and add value to the product, which in time may lead to brand loyalty. The brand gives an assurance to the buyer that the product is of a certain quality. Also, the main objective of the feature, like logo, trademark, packaging, color, etc. is primarily to sharpen the distinction between both directly competing brands and

1

other brands. The reason is that the customer has to be able to identify the product to create perception and beliefs that will make him/her prefer the product. It is not surprisingly, therefore that consumers are generally suspicious, at least initially about the quality of generic products. Thus the brand name has come to signify the quality of the products and can be often envisioned as something similar to a warranty, reducing the risk to the buyer.

Branding has been one of the most interesting topics for marketers for many decades. One factor contributing to the growing fascination with brands is the globalization of markets, clearly an ongoing trend. Levitt (1983) predicted that globalization will lead to fierce competition, resulting in standardization and homogeneity of products.

1.1.2 The impact of consumer psychological characteristics on consumers' buying behavior and branding strategy.

The impact of consumer psychological characteristics on consumer's buying behavior has been frequently investigated in marketing literature. In most studies, researchers find that consumer psychographics are important antecedents for explaining both patterns of consumer's buying behavior and consumer's perceptions of firm's marketing activities. Examples of such studies include: consumer psychological characteristics (e.g., price consciousness, quality consciousness, shopping enjoyment, variety seeking, impulsiveness, mavenism and brand loyalty); consumer's buyer behavior (Faber et al. 1995; Rook and Fisher 1995); consumer psychological and marketing efforts (e.g., branding strategy, advertising, products) (Chan & Misra, 1990; Fournier, 1998; Venkartraman, 1991). They also pointed out that the brand should be

2

built through techniques such as positioning and segmentation based on consumer psychological characteristics.

1.1.3 What is store brand?

For the past 50 years, manufacturers have been the principal creators and builders of branded consumer products. They have accomplished this through carefully evolved and perfected techniques for building brand equity. Categories expanded and declined based on the ability of manufacturers to continually understand and meet the emerging needs of consumers. The fortunes of individual manufacturers expanded and declined based on their ability to compete with other manufacturers by differentiating their brands in the minds of consumers. However, over the past 5 to 10 years, a completely new brand building process has begun to occur. As a result, the retail and consumer landscapes are rapidly changing such that a manufacturer's most formidable future competitor could be its own retail customer.

Store brand grocery items are products owned and branded by organizations whose primary economic commitment is distribution rather than production (Schutte, 1969). Occasionally, store brand owners sell their own brands to non-competing retailers or wholesalers or in markets in which they do not compete (e.g. Loblaws in Canada). The brand owner does not necessarily manufacture or process the products licensed; yet management frequently stipulates the required product characteristics or composition mix. Store brands are usually priced below industry leaders but are not always the cheapest alternatives available. Store brands are typically, but not always, identified by the name of the sponsoring retailer. With the rise of large, well-organized retail chains, store brands have emerged as a key weapon in the battle waged between manufacturers and retailers over channel control and consumer loyalty (Patti and Fisk

3

1982). These "store brands" can be contrasted with "generic" brands. Generics, unlike store brands, usually do not have a "brand name" associated with them. They are often packaged in plain "white label" packages with little or no information identifying the manufacturer. These brands were popular in the late 1970s and early 1980s. They appealed to the extremely price sensitive segment and are usually priced 20% lower than supermarket or supercenter store brand (Barbara, Santa; Dick, Alan; Jain, Arun and Richardson, Paul 1995).

Most store owned brands are not actually produced by the retailer. Manufacturers may elect to produce own-brand products for retailers in order to achieve scale economies in production and distribution, utilization of excess capacity, sales increase without marketing cost, as well as price discrimination because of image differentiation between national branded and store branded products. Originally, store brands were only produced when capacity allowed it. Increasingly, entire factories are dedicated to production of store brand products. Nevertheless, it appears that most own-brand suppliers are small regional players not coincidentally playing on the major manufacturers' field (Hoch, 1996).

The most obvious benefit to consumers afforded by store owned brands is lower prices. On average, these are 10-30 percent cheaper than national brands in grocery product classes. Lower shelf-prices for the consumer and better gross margins for the retailer clearly require a considerably lower supply price, compared with equivalent manufacturer brands. As discussed above, the power of large retailers to demand terms based on suppliers' marginal costs and tight product specification are main contributory factors. Similarly, lower advertising and promotion cost and quality differences contribute to the formation of a lower supply price for own-brand. In fact, own-brands tend not to receive any advertising support other than corporate where general benefits

4

associated with the retailer are promoted. This means that the retailer is able to charge a significantly lower price and often make a higher profit margin.

Consumer benefits, such as the availability of a low-price product, increases alternative choices. More importantly, consumers may prefer the guarantee offered by a familiar store name on a cheap product rather than the uncertainty and the risk of an unfamiliar minor national brand. It has been the minor brands that have disappeared from the market at the expense of own brands (McGoldrick, 1984).

1.1.4   What is national brand?

National brand (sometime called a manufacturer brand) is a brand owned and made by a manufacturer and sold to numerous distributors such as supermarkets, corner shops, even kiosks and vending machines (www.aim.be/faqs/faqs_main.html, 2003). Kotler defined it as brand owned by a manufacturer who advertises and sells them nationally. It is a national identity that has been proactively distilled, interpreted, internalized and projected internationally in order to gain international recognition. (www.allaboutbranding.com, 2002)

1.1.5   Branding situation of the industry

During the first half of the century, a number of stores successfully introduced product lines under their own names. But with the advent of television advertising, store branding lost credibility. By the mid-1950s, heavily advertised national brands became almost universally accepted as the best products to buy.

With the recession of the 1970s, the pendulum started swinging back. Food shoppers needed bargains, so retailers began to offer "generics." These lower-cost,

5

standard-quality products were often packaged in austere, "minimalist" wrappings that reflected the general retail climate.

During the economic upswing of the 1980s, shoppers began turning back to nationally advertised brands. In response, store-brand retailers began improving quality and expanding the variety of store brand products. To meet a growing taste for gourmet and specialty foods, some retailers even began to market "premium" store brand, like A&P's Master Choice. These innovative products sometimes surpass the quality and price of national brands

Store-brand products have made significant progress against national brands. In 1993, retailer-branded products accounted for about $30 billion in supermarket sales, an increase of 2 percent over 1992. In 1995, they claim 12 percent of all supermarket spending, at roughly $30 billion in sales (Mogelonsky, Marcia, 1995). Store brands actually are becoming category leaders for dozens of products found in supermarkets, drugstores, and retail outlets. Still, store-brand sales in 1993 represented only 7 percent of all household dollars spent in all outlets, meaning that store-brand products have a great potential for expansion. Sales of store brands in grocery outlets now exceed $48 billion; they form over 15% of supermarket sales and over 44% of grocery shoppers regularly buy store brand (Hoch, 1996; Sethuraman, 1995). Store brands have made significant inroads into the packaged goods market in the eighties and nineties. The average market share of store brands was up from 15.3% in 1988 to 20% in 1998 (Marketing News, 1995; Dunne & Narasimhan, 1999). In addition, in 1999, store brands can generate as much as 40% to 50% of sales in the United Kingdom and other major European countries.

Store brands have been more successful in Europe than in America, with some companies like Sainsbury's and Tesco achieving around 50% of sales through store

brand products. In terms of overall market penetration of store brand, Switzerland is ranked #1, England #2, and Belgium #3 (AC Nielsen Report, 1998). Europe faces heavy regulations and restrictions, largely due to limited space, when it comes to opening supermarkets or hypermarkets. In the face of heavy competition and limited growth options, store brands became an avenue for increasing profit margins.

For Asian countries, Retail business sales grew by 18% between 1990 and 1995, but the store brand grew by 176% over the same period (Wolf, 1999). It is the highest growth rate because the base of volume is very small but has high potential to consideration. They are a means for retailers to attract value conscious consumers away from national brands and build store loyalty and differentiation.

Today, even brands that have traditionally seemed unchallengeable, such as Coca-Cola, Pampers diapers, and a host of ready-to-eat cereals, now have to compete with store brands. Store brands are even outselling some national brands, according to the Private Label Manufacturers Association in New York City (Marketing News, 1995)

1.1.6 Branding perspectives: Manufacturers and retailers

The relationship between manufacturers and retailers can be characterized as both one of dependency and a struggle for channel control. This curious amalgam creates uneasy alliances between the parties as they need each other and yet simultaneously compete to maximize their share of channel profit. Manufacturers build their power through customer loyalty. Loyal consumers are more likely to pay full price for their favorite brands and look for them in any store they shop. If not found, they may shop elsewhere. If enough consumers act in this manner, retailers will be

compelled to carry the national brands and be vulnerable to terms not open to much negotiation.

In 2000, Bell et al. stated that a retailer can achieve differentiation through a large portfolio of store brand products. This strategy is likely to follow an umbrella branding format, wherein the retailer is developed into a brand, which then has some qualities transferred to the store brands carrying the same name. There also may be so called 'fighting brands', which may sell for low prices, but sometimes do not carry the name of the retailer. Consumers trust in brands, but brands are increasingly similar in their offerings; this may lead to more emphasis on service relationships. Manufacturers typically have little contact with consumers and are not in the business of the delivery of services, but retailers are. Retailers are clearly working to brand their stores. Retailers in England are offering a variety of services, such as gasoline, insurance, Internet service, and even cell phones and service. So far the offering in Thailand has been limited to food or nonfood items. Aside from some stores opening 24 hours, store brands are the newest offering among retailers in Thailand, giving consumers a new choice in terms of price and quality.

Retailers acquire power similarly through the strength of their appeal to consumers. In recent years, store brands have aided this end by building unique consumer interest in their stores. One consequence is that store brands now comprise 20% of all unit sales in the grocery channel in the United States. They also represent a large portion of the current growth in supermarket sales (Thompson, 1999) and occupy higher unit market share than the top national brands in 77 out of 250 categories (Kahn and McAlister, 1997; Quelch and Harding, 1996; Wellman, 1997). Some forecast that store brands might attract 40% or more of US supermarket sales (Denitto, 1993). Since

store brands typically carry a higher per unit margin than national brands, retailers have an additional incentive to extend their proprietary items.

A common response to store brands by manufacturers has been to increase promotional spending in attempts to halt the migration of value-conscious consumers. Price-related sales promotion activities have risen dramatically in importance (Bhasin et al. 1989). For example, in 1978, 42 percent of manufacturers' communications budget for consumer goods producers was allocated to major media advertising. By 1989, media advertising and consumer promotions, such as couponing, were equal, each at 25 percent. Trade promotions, such as slotting allowances and promotional monies, comprised 50 percent of marketing communication budgets (AC Nielsen Report, 1992). In 1992, more than 350 billion coupons were offered, up from 163.2 billion in 1984 ("Coupons Set Another Record" 1993), and 44 percent of supermarket chains and 41 percent of independent supermarkets participated in doubling or tripling coupons ("Merchandising: Which Promotions Did You Use in 1992?" 1993). Sales promotions in recent years have accounted for an overwhelming 74% of the total marketing budget of US packaged goods manufacturers, an increase of 9% in the past decade (Cox Direct, 1998; Ailawadi, Neslin and Gedenk, 2001). While evidence suggests that national brand promotions, such as coupons, are effective deterrents of store brand penetration (Sethuraman and Mittelstaedt, 1992; Blattberg and Wisniewski, 1989), other studies indicate that significant and frequent price promotions on national brands may erode brand loyalty (Gedenk and Neslin, 1999). If such erosion results, national brand counteroffensives to store brands may diminish brand loyalty.

1.1.7 Store brand situation of the retail in Thailand

At present, there are four foreign discount stores that play major role in store brand in Thailand. These are Big C, Makro, Carrefour and Tesco Lotus. Store brand has existed for 20 years in western countries and has been popular in the market. For example, Tesco Lotus' 40% of total sales come from store brand. For Thailand, store brand has potentiality to grow due to its cheaper price than those of national brands as well as improvement of packaging. Table 1.1 below outlines the ownership of superstores in Thailand.

Table 1.1: Top Superstores in Thailand and Share of Ownership

Store Name	% Thai	%Foreign
Big C	32 (Central)	68 (France)
Carrefour	20 (Central)	80 (France)
Makro	60 (CP)	40 (Netherlands)
Tesco Lotus	2 (CP)	98 (British)

Source: Shannon and Lockshin, 2002

1. Big C

Big C produces about 1,000 store brand products with "Leader Price" brand. It is expected to increase to 1,400 items, which grouped as dried food for 75%, fresh food 15% and non-food 10%. Furthermore, in 2002, Big C introduced the first "Leader Price" shop which sells only its own products and plans to reach 50 branches in 2004. They expect to increase store brand's revenue from 25% of the same type of products in 2001 (Manager Daily Newspaper, 2002).

2. Carrefour

Carrefour is France's discount store and currently has 400 products under its own store brands which are divided into three groups: "Carrefour" brand for grocery and canned food; "Harmony" brand for clothes and bedding accessories; and "First Line" for electrical appliances. Moreover, they planned to increase store brand items by 20%.

10

In 2001, store brand products could generate about Baht 700 million that is 5% of total sales volume (Manager Daily Newspaper, 2002).

3. Makro

Up to 2002, Makro has already launched about 1,000 store brand items half of which were food products and the rest were other consumer products. They represented 5% of total sales in each year. Some products were removed for not being able to satisfy customers' need meanwhile some were added at least 5-10% every year.

Makro has four store brands: "Aro" brand for kitchen items/appliances, furniture, fixing equipment and bulbs; "Histyle" for clothes; "Q-Biz" brand for stationery; and "Save Pack" for food products. In addition, Makro also introduced "Makro Office Center" which sells stationery and office equipment, including "Q-Biz" brand for more than 200 items (Manager Daily Newspaper, 2002).

4. Tesco Lotus

Tesco Lotus belongs to UK's discount store. Currently, Tesco Lotus has more than 500 store brand products representing 3% of total sales, under three names: "Super Save" for grocery products, focusing on A-level consumers with earning of Baht 20,000 or more per month; "Tesco" for health/beauty products, focusing on B-level consumers with earning of Baht 12,000-20,000 per month; and "Khumkha" (worthiness) for general grocery products and essentials e.g. rice, tissue paper and sugar, focusing on C-level consumers with earning below Baht 12,000 per month. Prices of the first two brand products are set 15-20% cheaper than comparable brand name goods while those of "Khumkha" brand products are another 20% cheaper than the other two.

Number of store brand items has gradually increased each year. They started with 180 items in the first year and went up to 500 in 2002, and expect to reach 800-900

11

items in the near future. Within five years, Tesco Lotus expects store brands' contribution to total sales to double to 6% from 3% in 2001.

Moreover, store brand products are also available at "Tesco Lotus Express" which is about 400 square meters at several hundred petrol stations nationwide. The three store brand products are distributed to each "Tesco Lotus Express" depending on customers' need in each community. This is another distribution channel to penetrate more market. Considering more than 10,000 customers per week in some branches, it shows high potential to achieve their target (Manager Daily Newspaper, 2002).

Table 1.2 Store Brands in Thailand from Manager Daily Newspaper, 2002

	Tesco Lotus	Big C	Carrefour	Makro
1. Number of store brand products/items	500 items	1,000 items	400 items	1,100 items
2. Plans to produce more products/items	Increase by 300-400 items	Increase to 1,400 items	Increase by 20%	Increase 5-10% every year
3. Brand name under store brand	- Tesco Lotus - Super Save - Khumkha	- Leader Price	- Carrefour - Harmony - First line	- Aro - Hi style - Q-Biz - Save pack
4. Store brand 's revenue	- 3% of total sales volume or about 1,200 Million baht	- 25% of sales volume in same type products	- 5% of total sales volume	- 5% of total sales volume
5. Sales target from store brand		- 120 million baht from leader price shop		
6.Related investment	- Put about 100 house brand items to penetrate more market in Tesco Lotus Express	- Introduced Leader Price shop, a new type store that would sell only house brand products	- No plan	- Opened Macro Office Center, stores that sell stationary and office equipment including Q-Biz brand
7.Current number of branches	- 41	- 33	- 17	- 20

(Source: Manager Daily Newspaper, 2002)

Moreover, all of them still have been continuing to expand their stores as follows:

- In 2001, Big C built five new stores: three in Bangkok, one in Phuket and one in Ubon Ratchathani. It also plans to open five new stores a year between 2002 and 2004, including a 20,000-square-metre outlet in the Ratchadamri area.

13

-   Cencar Co, the operator of Carrefour, opened four new stores in 2001 and plans to open nine more within the next two years. Makro opened one new store in Surin province in 2001. It had planned to open three at various locations.

-   Tesco Lotus wants 55 stores in place by 2004, building on the nine opened in 2001.

Regarding the movement of store brand product mentioned above, it is seen that it has rapidly moved. As the increasing of store brand in Thailand has shown the good trend of its penetration and directly competing with national brand, some national brand manufacturers are spending a lot of money on sales promotion in order to reduce the price gap in order to gain market share back from store brands, as well as protect themselves from store brand encroachment.

1.2   Statement of the problem

With regards to the discussion above, it could be anticipated that the previously rather uncontested manufacturer brand leaders are facing a new and rather serious competition from store brands. It is obviously that store brands have become a major force to reckon with in retail throughout the world today. Store brands account for about one fifth of total sales in the United States, one fourth in Canada and nearly one half in Europe (Hoch&Barnerji, 1993; Narishiman, 1999).

High penetration of store brand products in many countries is an indicator that shows its success and forces national brand manufacturers to pay more interest to it. One important basis for selling store brands is the price differential between store brands and national brands. It is believed that store brands gain sales by offering the brand at a price lower than that of the national brands. As a result, national brand

manufacturers are reducing the price gap by offering customers sales promotion in order to gain market share from store brands, as well as protect themselves from store brand encroachment (Ortega and Stern, 1993). Some researchers have believed that national brand promotions, especially coupon, are an effective way to combat the growth of store brands (e.g., Lal 1990; Quelch and Harding 1996). Therefore, now price sensitive consumers have two options. They can seek a national brand being marketed on deal. Alternatively, they can opt for a store brand that is typically priced below nonprice promoted nationally branded goods.

Nowadays, there is high competition between manufacturers and retailers in many countries. Given this situation, it would appear to be in retailers and manufacturers' interest to understand better what makes consumers buy store brands or national brand promotion, which would be considered as two types; in-store promotion and out-of-store promotion. The first type includes displays, in-store specials, and so forth that are encountered in the store and used opportunistically or passively, whereas the second type includes coupons, in-store flyers, and the like, which are actively considered before the consumer goes shopping (Bucklin and Lattin, 1991;Schneider and Currim, 1991).

In Thailand, after the new retail format, supercenters: Big C, Makro, Carrefour and Tesco Lotus established in the market, all of them are intent on expanding their branches and introducing store brands into the market through putting them on the shelf in their retail outlets and other business alliance shops by using lower price as a key weapon, which actually tends to go against national brand loyalty. Low quality store brands tend to lead price war due to emphasizing and intensifying consumer price sensitive. Many firms are moving from high/low pricing to everyday low pricing. Moreover, these superstores have made some strategic moves in building their store

brand business such as Tesco Lotus which has launched store branded products focusing on customer in each level of income and also introduced Tesco Lotus Express located at several hundred petrol stations nationwide to increase distribution channel. Thus, given this situation, in order to compete with competitors, both retailers and manufacturers should study factors related to store brand use and national brand promotion use and the two important factors of those are consumer psychological characteristics and brand loyalty which many researchers stated that the marketers should market products by positioning and segmentation based on consumer psychological characteristics.

Therefore, this study has focused on **"What is the relationship between consumer psychological characteristic and purchase behavior of non-promoted store brand/promoted national brand?"** and **"What is the relationship between brand loyalty and purchase behavior of non-promoted store brand/promoted national brand?"** We believe that understanding more about these relationship will provide both retailers and manufacturers with better insight regarding how they should target, market and position their own brands.

1.3   Research Objectives

1.   To study the relationships; between consumer psychological characteristics and non-promoted store brand use, between consumer psychological characteristics and in-store national brand promotion use, and between consumer psychological characteristics and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

2.   To study the relationships; between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use, between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use, and between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

1.4   Scope of the study

1.   In this study, the researcher has investigated the effect of consumer psychological characteristics and brand loyalty on store brand use, in-store national brand promotion use, and out-of-store national brand promotion use and promotions have been focused: display, coupon and feature.

2.   Respondents in this study can be both male and female who are aged 18 years old and above, live in Bangkok and have done shopping in any of these superstore; Big C, Tesco Lotus, Makro and Carrefour.

3.   This research has been conducted only in these branches; Ramkhamheng for Big C, Rama 4 for Tesco Lotus and Carrefour, Rama 2 for Makro, not including supermarket and department store in Bangkok area.

4.   In order to get result as a whole view of store brand and national brand promotion (point of purchase/display, coupon and feature), this study has not focused on any specific brand, but store brands in general.

1.5   Limitation of the study

1.   As this research has been conducted only in these branches; Ramkhamheng for Big C, Rama 4 for Tesco Lotus and Carrefour, Rama 2 for Makro, in Bangkok area, thus the results of this study cannot completely judge the relationship between consumers buying behavior and selected factors as a whole of country as well as those located in other areas of Thailand.

2.   This study is limited in terms of period of time, so the findings cannot be generalized for all times because respondents could always change their mind in each period of time or be influenced by other internal and external motivators.

3.   As the researcher has focused on some variables of consumer psychological characteristics: price consciousness, quality consciousness, shopping enjoyment, variety seeking, mavenism, impulsiveness and brand loyalty, this study has limitation of selected variables.

1.6   Significance of the study

When market competitiveness is at its peak in a tightened economy, this study is extremely helpful to marketers to put themselves; manufacturers and retailers, in a stronger position by using the consumer psychological characteristics to identify more likely new customers while still retaining their most loyal buyers. Retailers will benefit by knowing better how to expand sales of their higher-margin store brands, meanwhile national brand manufacturers will benefit by knowing better how to fight store brand growth. To understand such a link of these factors could be crucial for managers in targeting the most appropriate segment of their consumers.

1.7   Definition of terms

Price Consciousness: The degree to which the consumer focused exclusively on paying low price (Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer, 1993).

Quality Consciousness: An orientation characterized by the degree to which a consumer searches for the best quality in products (Shim and Soyeon, 1996).

Shopping Enjoyment: The pleasure one obtains in the shopping process (Beatty, Sharon E., 1998).

Variety Seeking: A means of obtaining stimulation in purchase behavior by alternating between familiar choice objects simply for a change of pace (Steenkamp and Baumgartmer, 1992).

Impulsiveness: An urge to buy and it tends to be spontaneous and without much reflection (Beatty, Sharon E., 1998).

Mavenism: Individuals who have information about different kinds of products, places to shop, and other facets of the buying, and initiate discussions with and respond to information requests from other consumers (Lawrence & Price).

Brand Loyalty: Tendency of consumer to purchase one brand repeatedly and to view competing brands as poor substitutes to their preferred brand (Kardes, 1999). **In this study the researcher measures consumer characteristics to be brand loyal in their buying behavior.**

Store Loyalty: Willingness to continue purchasing, to increase future purchases from same store, or to recommend the store to others (Sirohi, 1998).

Non-Promoted Store Brand Use (perception): Perception of people who buy non-promoted store brand (Kusum, Scott and Karen, 2001).

In-Store National Brand Promotion Use (perception): Perception of people who buy national brand because of in-store promotion (Kusum, Scott and Karen, 2001).

Out-of-Store National Brand Promotion Use (perception): Perception of people who buy national brand because of out-of-store promotion (Kusum, Scott and Karen, 2001).

National brand: Brand is owned by a manufacturer who advertises and sells them nationally (Kotler, 2000).

Store brand product, (also called private label or house brand): The only brand for which the retailer must take on all responsibility from development, sourcing, and warehousing to merchandising and marketing (Hoch and Dhar, 1997).

Retailer: A person, business, middleman or intermediate that sells goods and service to consumer (Gilbert, 1999).

Superstore: Increasing in size and have begun to sell a broader variety of merchandise, superstores are larger than supermarkets. Superstore are a combination of a supermarket and general merchandise discount store under one roof. They are typically 150,000 square feet (Levy and Weitz, 1996).

Supermarket: A self service food store offering groceries, meat and produce with annual sales over $ 2 million and size of under 20,000 square feet. The sale of nonfood item, such as health and beauty aids and general merchandise is limited (Levy and Weitz, 1996).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This chapter presents a review of the literature and research related to the study. It is organized into 2 sections. Section one is theories explaining about key words, such as branding, sales promotion, brand loyalty and consumer behavior. Section two discusses about previous studies that support the conceptual framework.

2.1   Theories related to the study

2.1.1   *Theories related to brand Strategy*

Brands, once thought the domain of packaged goods manufacturers, are now being recognized for importance beyond labels. With the proliferation of choices in most industries, branding becomes a key tool for differentiation.

According to Kotler (2000), branding is one of the most important factors influencing an item's success or failure in today's marketplace. A brand is the combination of name, words, symbols or design that identifies the product and its company and differentiates it from competition. Businesses use branding to market a new product, protect market position, broaden product offerings, and enter a new product category.

A company has four choices when it comes to brand strategy. It can introduce line extensions (existing brand names extended to new forms, sizes, and flavors of an existing product category), brand extensions (existing brand names extended to new product categories), multibrands (new brand names introduced in the same product category) or new brands (new brand names in new product categories).

-        Line extension.

Line extensions occur when a company introduces additional items in a given product category under the same brand name, such as new flavors, forms, colors, ingredients, or package sizes. A company might introduce line extensions as a low-cost, low risk way to introduce new products in order to meet consumer desires for variety, to utilize excess capacity or simply to command more shelf space from resellers. However, line extensions involve some risks. An overextended brand name might lose its specific meaning or heavily extended brands can cause consumer confusion or frustration.

- Brand Extension

A brand extension involves the use of a successful brand name to launch new or modified products in a new category. A brand extension gives a new product instant recognition and faster acceptance. It also saves the high advertising costs usually required to build a new brand name. At the same time, a brand extension may confuse the image of the main brand. If a brand extension fails, it may harm consumer attitudes toward the other products carrying the same brand name.

- Multibrands

Companies often introduce additional brands in the same category. Multibranding offers a way to establish different features and appeal to different buying motives. It also allows a company to lock up more reseller shelf space. Or the company may want to protect its major brand by setting up fighter brands. Finally, companies may develop separate brand names for different regions or countries, perhaps to suit different cultures or languages. A major drawback of multibranding is that each brand might obtain only a small market share, and nor may be very profitable.

- New Brands

A company may create a new brand name when it enters a new product category for which none of the company's current brand names are appropriate. As with multibranding, offering too many new brands can result in a company spreading its resources too thin. In some industries, such as consumer packaged goods, consumers and retailers have become concerned that there are already too many brands, with too few differences between them. Thus, some large consumer-product marketers are now pursuing megabrand strategies-weeding out weaker brands and focusing their marketing dollars only on brands that can achieve the number-one or-two market share positions in their categories.

2.1.2   Theories related to sales promotion[1]

It is defined as those marketing activities that add to the basic value of the product for a limited time period and, thus, directly stimulate consumer purchasing and sales force and dealer effectiveness (Burnett, 1988).

The specific objectives related to consumer sales promotions are: (1) to prompt trial by new users, (2) to introduce new or improved products, (3) to stimulate repeated use of the product, (4) to encourage more frequent purchase or multiple purchases, (5) to counter competitors' activities, (6) to encourage trade-up in size and/or cost, (7) to keep customers by providing an implied reward, and (8) to reinforce advertising and/or personal selling.

Primary differences between sales promotion and advertising, public relations and personal selling are illustrated in Table 2.1

---

[1] Sales promotion theories are discussed here because promotion is key motivating factor affecting buying of national brand in competition with store brand.

23

Table 2.1 Promotion Mix Elements

	Advertising	Sales Promotion	Public Relation	Personal Selling
Time frame	Long term	Short term	Long term	Short/long term
Primary appeal	Emotional	Rational	Emotional	Rational
Value added	Intangible	Tangible	Intangible	Tangible
Primary objective	Image/Brand position	Sale	Goodwill	Sale/Relationship
Contribution to Profitability	Moderate	High	Low	High

(Source : Burnett, 1988)

Five criteria are suggested. Sales promotion tends to operate on a short time frame. It employs a rational appeal, which provides tangible or real value, and it is intended to create and immediate sale and high contribution to profitability. These distinctions become somewhat blurred when they include the fact that sales promotion is often used jointly with other promotional techniques. For example, sales promotion that offers coupons, rebates, and contests are often delivered through an advertisement. Likewise, price deals are presented by member of the sales force and their success is, therefore, contingent on the abilities of those individuals. Even public relations may have partial responsibility for managing a contest or sweepstakes. However, the synergy and real strength take effects when sales promotion is combined with these other promotional elements is its real strength (Burnett, 1988).

Belch and Belch, 1990 defined sales promotion as "a direct inducement that offers an extra value or incentive for the product to the ultimate consumer with the

primary objective of creating an immediate sale". There are many several important aspects to sales promotion that should be kept in mind.

First, sales promotion involves some type of inducement that provides an extra incentive to buy. Promotional devices range from money-saving coupons and rebates in price-off programs to premiums, prizes, and product samples in value added campaigns. A promotional offer can be communicated through advertisement in conventional media, such as magazines, newspapers, radio, and TV, but it is more commonly delivery through alternative media, such as newspaper inserts, direct mail, point-of-purchase displays, or on the outside or inside of the package itself (Tamara B. B. & William A. R., 1994). Secondly, a sale promotion is essentially an acceleration tool that is designed to speed up the selling process and it is often used to maximize sales volume (Neslin, 1985 et al.). Finally, sales promotion activities are ones that can be targeted to different parties in the marketing channel (Belch and Belch, 1990).

According to Schneider and Currim, 1991; Bucklin and Lattin, 1991, sales promotion can be divided into 2 types as follows:

-        In-store promotion. This type includes displays, in-store specials, in-store coupon and so forth that are encountered in the store and used opportunistically or passively. They defined the sensitivity of a consumer's purchase decision to the availability of in-store displays as evidence of passive deal-proneness, which may be used to locate a display in the store.

In-store marketing has grown faster than any other marketing communications discipline over the last years. The rising influence of in-store marketing has particular significance for sales promotion professional. The store is a challenging one in which the only constant is continuous change brought about by demands from customers, manufactures and retailers. Fragmenting consumer audiences, changing relationships

between manufacturers and retailers, declining brand loyalty, and the rising costs and declining impact of mass media are the dynamics that have fueled in-store marketing's growth.

Tamara B. B. & William A. R. (1994) defined in-store promotion as programs that offer the consumer an immediate inducement or direct incentive to purchase any given product. Promotions are especially effective when the marketing objective is to gain trial, such as during new product launches. For already established products, promotions are used best as a short-term tactic.

-    Out-of-store promotion. This type includes coupons, in-store flyers, and the like, which are actively considered before the consumer goes shopping. Similarly, they defined the sensitivity of a consumer's purchase decision to the availability of coupons and features as evidence of active deal-proneness, to describe the active search outside the store environment necessary to locate these types of promotion.

Sales promotion consists of many tools and each of them has different characteristic. For example, coupons, samples, point-of-purchase displays, store features (ad in store flyer or local newspaper), premiums, sweepstake, contests etc. However, this study emphasizes only on the first four tool: coupons, point-of-purchase displays and store features.

-    *Coupons*

Coupons are legal certificates offered by manufacturers and retailers that grant specified savings on selected products when presented for redemption at the point of purchase.

Retailer-distributed coupons are used to generate store traffic or to tie in with a manufacturer's promotional tactics. Manufacturer-distributed coupons help meet a

variety of objectives: to encourage trial purchase of new products or by new users, to win back former users, to reinforce present users, to add interest to advertising, and to encourage retailers to stock up in the product. Coupons can be distributed to consumers through many ways such as newspapers, magazines or in store. In-store coupon generates brand switching, particularly on impulse items. It also offers saving to consumers who do not clip coupons, forget to bring them to the store, or do not receive them through traditional methods, such as direct mail. Plus, because it has higher and faster redemption rates, in-store couponing get stronger merchandising support from retailers (Tamara B.B. & William A. R., 1994).

- *Point-of-purchase (POP) promotions*

Manufacturers provide point-of-purchase (POP) displays free to the retailer in order to promote a particular brand or group of products. The varied forms of POP displays include special racks, display cartons, banners, signs, price cards, and mechanical product dispensers.

Product is the basic purpose of POP displays. In the grocery industry, where a consumer spends about three-tenths of a second viewing a product, anything that gives a product greater visibility is valuable. A recent, eye-catching POP was for Jell-O. The buyer received the cutout right at the point of sales. Visibility is even more important when consumers make a large percentage of their choices in the store. POP displays can spark the impulse to buy.

Beyond attracting attention to the product, POP displays also provide important decision information. Consumers already know some of this information, such as the product name, appearance of the product, and available sizes; they have seen or heard some of the information in ads before entering the store. Ads might also include additional information, such as special prices and premiums being offered. But other

information will be new to consumers and might spur an unplanned purchase. Examples of these motivators are a reduced price, new model, or free sample. Since most retailing is totally or partially self-service, displays play a big role in decision making (Burnett, 1993).

-       *Feature*

Features are advertisements by the retailer in the local media announcing the availability or price of a brand. Most features are free-standing inserts in the local newspapers. Some features may be mailed or distributed to households. Features generally indicate that a brand has a special lower price during a particular week in the store, although some may only indicate availability. Moreover, In-ad coupons most often appear in in-store fliers (Tellis, G. J. and Weiss D. L., 1995).

Relationship between the sales promotion and customer behavior

There is a relationship between regular price and promotion purchasing. The significant, positive correlation between regular price and promotion purchasing exists at the individual level. Over three-fourths of shoppers explained the promotion as a reason for visiting the store and also purchased one or more regular price items. Shoppers visiting the store for the promotion spent more money on regular price merchandise than on promoted merchandise (Mulhern and Padgett, 1995).

Many authors agree that sales promotion strategy is a tool for stimulating consumers' purchase activity. Mulhern and Padgett (1995) explain that when price sales promotion is applied to construction product, consumer would also purchase non-sales promotion item.

Purchases acceleration is more likely to exhibit in an increased purchase quantity than in shortened inter-purchase times. Coupons, local retailer advertising, and

price cuts can all increase quantity. Purchase acceleration of quantity is stronger among
heavy users than light users (Neslin et al., 1985).

2.1.3   Theories related to brand loyalty[1]

Brand loyalty is an important component of brand equity to the brand owner
(Aaker,1991). It is important for effective marketing plan and is the important concept
especially in the highly competitive situation (Peter & Olsen,1996).

Brand loyalty can be defined as regular (repeat) purchase of the brand based on
a favorable price and promotion-resistant attitude toward it. It is therefore an attitudinal
and behavioral concept (Rossiter, J.R. & Percy, L.,1987).

There are two ways to think of brand loyalty: brand loyalty as a behavioral and
brand loyalty as an attitude (Shenth, Mittal and Newman, 1999).

From Day's research (1969, cited in Assael, 1994), he found that brand loyalty
is comprised of both attitude and behavior and the consumer must have the positive
attitude toward a brand. Day added that there are many factors that make consumer
repeat his/her purchase such as there is no other products, discount price, or
convenience, if the consumer repeat his/her purchase because of these reasons, it is not
the real brand loyalty, but is a spurious loyalty because the consumer shows no
commitment to the brand.

- ### Behavioral brand loyalty[2]

In behavioral terms, brand loyalty is simply a customer's consistent repurchase

-----

[1]Relevance of Brand loyalty to this research: Brand loyalty increases the acceptance of higher price of national brand
so that they can compete with store brand

[21]Relevance of behavioral brand loyalty to this research: Store brands can provide opportunity for brand switching
from national brand to store brand because of price, rarely availability

of a brand. Every time a customer repurchases a product. If a customer buys the same brand of that product, we can consider him/her as a brand-loyalty customer for that product category. This consistent repurchase of the same brand is what we call behavioral brand loyalty (Sheth, Mittal and Newman, 1999).

Completely consistent repurchase of the same brand would show perfect behavioral brand loyalty, but in practice even brand-loyal customers may deviate from their regular brand by occasionally buying an alternative brand. To allow for imperfect consistency marketers have measured behavioral brand loyalty in the method of proportion of purchase.

- *Proportion of Purchase*

According to this method, four types of loyalty segments are identified as below:

1. **High national brand loyal:** This segment is highly loyal to one national brand. Over 90 percent of all purchases are devoted to this brand.

2. **National brand loyal:** Most purchases are devoted to one national brand, but degree of loyalty is not as high as 90 percent of all purchases.

3. **Private label loyal:** Customers in this segment are loyal to store brand. Since the store brand can be purchased only in one type of store, brand loyalty is linked to store loyalty. Further, since store brands are priced lower than national brands, this consumer is price sensitive and may switch to another brand given any price increase of the store brand.

4. **Last purchase loyal**: Consumers in this segment buy one brand on successive occasions, switch to another and buy that several times, switch to another (Assael, 1981).

- **Attitudinal Brand Loyalty**

Mowen (1993) proposed the problem in using behavioral brand loyalty that the real reason of purchasing any brand cannot be noticed; consumer might purchase because of convenience, or price. If a factor is changed, consumer might switch to purchase the other brand immediately. Moreover, marketing scholars have argued that in measuring brand loyalty, we should assess customer's attitude toward the brand. Only if the customer attitude for a brand is more favorable than for the competing brands should that customer be considered brand loyalty to that brand. This way of looking at brand loyalty-that is, a grater liking for the brand—can be termed attitudinal brand loyalty. This can be measured by asking customers to rank various brands in terms of how much they like or which brand they prefer the most. (Sheth, Mital and Newman, 1999)

- **Behavioral and Attitudinal Brand Loyalty**

Since there are some limitations in the previous two measurements, this measurement is developed to overcome those limitations. There are many markets proposing the concept in combining the behavioral and attitudinal together.

Jacoby proposed a new definition of brand loyalty: "Brand loyalty is the biased (i.e., nonrandom) behavioral response (i.e., purchase), expressed over time by some decision-making unit, with respect to one or more alternative brands out of a set of such brands, and is a function of psychological (decision-making, evaluative) processes." Another leading marketing scholar, George S. Day, currently a professor at the Wharton School, defined brand loyalty as "consisting of repeated purchases prompt by a strong internal disposition." The phase "internal disposition" refers to a favorable attitude. Thus, true loyalty incorporates both a behavior and attitude. (Jacob J.,1999).

2.1.4 Theories related to consumer behavior

"Consumer is the person who is willingness to purchase a product and has power to purchase so it creates the consumer behavior. Marketing management and advertising planning cannot do if consumer behavior is not clearly identified. Clearly identify consumer behavior means knowing about consumer psychological and reach to other factors that affect consumer in madding decision to purchase" (Seri W.,1992, P.108).

Consumer behavior refers to the behavior that consumers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs. The study of consumer behavior is the study of how individuals make decisions to spend their available resources (time, money, and effort) on consumption-related items. It includes the study of what they buy, why they buy it, when they buy it, where they buy it, how often they buy it, and how often they use it. (Leong G. S. and Leslie L. K., 1994)

It is also defined as the act of individuals directly involved in obtaining and using economic goods and services, including the decision processes that precede and determine these acts. (Engel.J.F.,1987)

Consumer behavior has been defined as the "acquisition, consumption and disposition of products, services, time and ideas by decision making units" (Jacoby 1975, 1976).

To understand about the consumer motivation and behavior is an important factor to the successful marketing operation. We need to clearly identify the consumer's need, attitude, and behavior to gather necessary information that needed in setting distribution channel, advertisement and promotion planning, and any other marketing

tools to correspond with our target market. So it is important to study the consumer

behavior before do any marketing management. (Piboon T.,1991, P.172-174)

Model of consumer behavior

Kotler (1994) had developed a model to explain the consumer behavior by based

on consumer behavior theory that is any behavior is caused from stimuli that is the

input in the consumer behavior process. The consumer behavior process gives the

definition it as "Black Box" that being under the influence of culture, social

psychological and any personal factors, and after receive the stimulus each person will

response to those stimulus in the form of purchase or not purchase.

According to Kotler stimulus create response so we can say this model is the

"Stimulus-Response Model"

Figure 2.1 Stimulus-Response Model

Stimulus		→	Black Box	→	Buyer Decision
Marketing	Others				Product Selection
Product	Economy				Brand Selection
Price	Technology				Seller Selection
Place	Politic				Purchase Time
Promotion	Culture				Purchasing

Buyer's Characteristics	Buyer's decision process
Culture factors	Problem perception
Social factors	Information seeking
Personal factors	Behavior identification
Psychological factors	Decision-Making
	Inside feeling

33

Stimulus: It consists of two factors, which are:

- _**Marketing stimulus:**_ The stimulus that the marketer can control by using marketing mix, which are:

    - Product stimulus: such as the product development in order to attract consumers.

    - Price stimulus: such as pricing in the attractive range.

    - Place stimulus: such as attractive decoration.

    - Promotion stimulus: such as periodical advertisement, coupon, feature, point-of-purchase, premium, etc.

- _**Other stimulus:**_ That is the stimulus outside organization that the marketer cannot control. It consists of economic stimulus, technological stimulus, political stimulus and cultural stimulus.

**Buyer's characteristics:** It consists of four factors as follows:

- _**Cultural factors:**_ Culture is a man-made factor and can be accepted by the later generation and transfer to the later generation. Culture is a determinant and control factor of human behavior in the society. Therefore, marketer has to be aware of cultural change, and use that change to plan marketing plan. Culture can be divided into primary culture, sub-culture, and social class.

- _**Social factors:**_ They include the factors that are concerned with human life. Consumer behavior is also influenced by such social factors as reference groups, family, and roles and statuses.

- _**Personal factors:**_ They consist of the buyer's age and stage in the life cycle, occupation, economic circumstances, lifestyle, and personality and self-concept.

- *Psychological factor:* A person's buying choices are influenced by four major psychological factors as motivation, perception, learning, and beliefs and attitudes.

Buyer's decision process: Kotler (2000) found that there are five steps for buyer decision process as below:

- *Problem Recognition*

The consumer decision-making process begins when a buyer recognizes a problem or has unsatisfied needs or desires (Skinner, 1994). An awareness that something is lacking is stimuli by internally felt physiological and psychological needs (Lewisor, 1994). Gilbert (1999) noted that retailers could affect this stage using good window displays, advertising and promotion, and stimulating in-store merchandise displays. The stimulation of demand is important given many shopping trips are simply to browse.

- *Information Search*

Once a problem has been recognized the consumer must engage in information search, where the consumer surveys his or her environment for appropriate data to make a reasonable decision. Beisel (1993) cited that once the consumer recognizes that a problem exists, a search is then begun to identify alternative solutions. In this information-gathering stage, the consumer has both internal and external sources from which to draw information that will aid in making a possible decision. Internal information include past experience, while external sources of information include friends, relatives, salespeople, advertisements and other sources. Lewisor (1994) mentions two types of information search; a low-level information search involves an increased awareness of readily available information. The consumer pays closer attention

to advertisement, store displays, sales pitches, and comments of others in an effort to gather additional information to supplement existing product knowledge. A high-level information search consists of a conscientious effort to seek out and gather new and supplementary information from new and existing sources. It involves actively talking with, reading from, and observing information sources.

- *Evaluation of Alternatives[1]*

After searching for alternatives, the consumer must take the time to evaluate each one and choose that which will best satisfy his or her needs (Wells and Prensky, 1996). Consumers use a variety of criteria in deciding which store to patronize and which product to buy, including selection, price, quality, service, value and convenience (Lewisor, 1994). Moreover, Mason and Mayer (1980) stated that consumers use store and product attributes to compare outlets and merchandise. The importance of each attribute varies among consumers. Management must, however, know which attribute consumers consider and the importance the consumer places on them.

- *Purchase Decision*

Well and Prensky (1996) stated that purchase is the heart of consumer behavior; it involves the exchange of something of value to the individual for a product that will satisfy his or her need. In executive a purchase intention, there are five purchase sub-decisions, which consumer may make up (product choice, brand choice, dealer choice, purchase timing, and purchase amount (Kotler,

---

[1]Relevance of consumer buying process at the evaluation stage to this research: Consumer evaluation is affected by brand image, price and promotion therefore this concept is applied to this study.

1997). In other word, consumer may answer the question of which product to buy, or may also form a purchase intention to buy the most preferred brand. Sometime consumer may have to choose which dealer or store there will go to purchase. In some case, they may decide whether to make an immediate purchase or to wait until some future date. Sometime they may have a question of what volume to be purchase. Once the brand has been selected, the consumer ends up with the transaction. This involves what is normally called "purchasing" the product (Lewisor, 1994).

- *Post purchase Behavior*

It is the step with which the person gathers after using information and experience. The outcome of this evaluation is satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction influence future purchase decisions. If the product meets his expectations, the consumer is satisfied, if it exceeds them, the consumer is highly satisfied, but if it falls short, the consumers dissatisfied. Consumers form their expectations on the basis of messages and claims sent out by the seller and other communication sources. The amount of dissatisfaction depends on the size of the difference between expectations and performance (Kotler, 1996).

From the explanation above, we can notice that in buying decision process consumers go through many steps. However, in low involvement purchase, consumers may skip or reverse some stages (Kotler, 1994). The decision under condition of low involvement, the consumer's decision is a learned response to environmental cues. Consumer may decide to buy something on impulse that is promoted as a "surprise special" in a store (Solomon, 1991).

2.2 Previous studies

2.2.1 *Price consciousness*

Perception of the price cue for some consumers can be characterized more narrowly as reflecting price consciousness. Although the term of price consciousness has been used by different researchers to refer to a variety of price-related cognition's (cf.Zei-thaml 1984), Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer (1993) use the term in a very narrow sense to refer to the degree to which the consumer focuses exclusively on paying low prices. This definition is also consistent with those employed by several researchers (e.g., Erickson and Johansson 1985; Liechtenstein, Bloch, and Black 1988; Monroe and Petroshius 1981; Tellis and Gaeth 1990).

One major factor in recent times in the management of frequently purchased consumer products has been the increased price sensitivity of shoppers. Recent surveys conducted by Progressive Grocer (see also Farris and Ailawadi, 1992 and Messinger and Narasimhan, 1995) have concluded that the state of economy in general, and consumers' personal economic situation in particular, have affected consumer lifestyles and shopping patterns in a major way. "Low prices" seem to be the most important attribute, behind cleanliness, in choosing stores-a major change, since price was only the fifth most important attribute in the last such survey. This change also seems to have been well understood in the supermarket industry, given the prevailing practices over the last ten years. According to Progressive Grocer, both manufacturers and retailers have been putting a continuous emphasis on prices and have moved away from advertising attributes like quality and value (Lal, R. and J M. Vs, 1998).

Moreover, in 1993, Lichtenstein, D. R., Ridgway, N. M, Netemeyer, and Richard G had conducted a research exploring how positive and negative price perceptions influencing shopping behaviors such as the search for low prices outside the

store, generic product purchases, price recall, and responsiveness to sales and coupons. Some 1,000 grocery store shoppers participated in the study and 582 usable surveys were returned through the mail. The results indicate that when price is viewed positively, consumers use price information as a signal of the quality and prestige status of the product. When consumers are prestige sensitive, they are very concerned about how others view them. Consumers who use price as an indicator of product quality use it as a global indicator without relying directly on the price per se. When consumers view price as the cash outlay that they must make for the product, they tend to be more value and price conscious, more responsive to sales and coupon opportunities, and try to keep up-to-date on marketplace prices.

Price Consciousness has been found to be a predictor of store brand purchase (Burger and Schott, 1972; Rothe and Lamont, 1973). There are some previous researches showing that a consumer's level of price-consciousness rises with lower incomes (Gabor and Granger, 1979; Lumpkin, Hawes, and Darden, 1986), and is higher among deal-prone consumers (Babakus and Tat, 1988) who believe less in price-quality associations (Lichtenstein, Bloch, and Black, 1988). Santa Barbara, 1997 has studied about determinants of store brand choice: a behavioral analysis and identified store brand shopper as a price-cautious but not promotion-sensitive consumer. Moreover, Li & Gallup, 1995 showed that for private consumption goods, Chinese are probably quite price conscious and pragmatic shoppers which is consistent with the research of Hiu, Alice S. Y., Siu, Noel Y. M., and Wang, Charlie C. L.so (2001) who studied an investigation of decision-making styles of consumers in China. They confirmed that Chinese are price conscious so they would choose local brand. This highlights the necessity of permanent low price for the store brand.

Sales promotions have constituted an increasing portion of the promotional budgets for packaged goods manufacturers in recent years. One survey found that packaged goods manufacturers' spending on consumer sales promotions now exceeds that spent on advertising and that firms average using more than eight different types of consumer sales promotion (Donnelley, 1994). As deal prone consumers are influenced by sales promotion or deals, there are many researchers studying characteristics of deal prone consumers. Blattberg and Neslin, 1990 define deal-proneness as the degree to which the consumer is influenced by sales promotion, in terms of behaviors such as purchase timing, brand choice, purchase quantity, category consumption, store choice, or search behavior. Deal-prone consumers are price conscious and more involved in purchasing and the media. The objective of deal-prone consumers is to save money (by buying the product at the lowest price) on each purchase occasion (Kumar and Leone, 1988). Moreover, Santa Barbara, 1988 noted that factors motivating the use of coupons include price consciousness and further showed that coupon users are more price conscious than non-users. Therefore, such consumers can be expected to engage actively in comparison of prices among competing brands.

Moreover, some researchers have studied about consumer response to promotion techniques. One recent research has examined the "domain specificity" of the deal proneness construct and concluded that the deal proneness construct is best conceptualized at a deal-type specific level (e.g., coupon proneness, rebate proneness) as opposed to being conceptualized at a general level (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, and Burton, 1995). Blattberg and Neslin, 1990 explained that consumer behavior is related to differing response sensitivities across types of promotions. For example, a correlate of display proneness is different from those of a proneness to coupons. A proneness toward products on display is positively associated with impulsiveness while for

coupon proneness (which demands out-of-store behavior to find and collect coupons), this relationship seems less likely. In addition to these, Kusum L. Aliawadi, Scott A. Neslin and Karen Gedenk (2001) stated that price savings, one of the economic benefits of using store brands and promotions, is relevant to consumers who are price conscious and perceive themselves as having financial constraints. They also found that both store brand use and national brand promotion use have positive relationship with price consciousness. That is because both of them offer price savings.

2.2.2 *Quality consciousness*

Shim, Soyeon and Kenneth C. Gehrt (1996) define quality consciousness as an orientation characterized by the degree to which a consumer searches for the best quality in products. Canabal (2002) showed that consumers who have high quality consciousness take the time to shop carefully for the very best quality or for the best value for their money. They have high standards and expectations for the products that they buy. Comparison-shopping is important for them.

There are many researchers studying quality perceptions of store brands. Sundel, Harvey H (1974) shows that store brand grocery items are judged inferior to national brands in terms of quality of ingredients, taste, texture, and aroma. Bellizzi, Joseph A., Harry F. Kruckeberg, John R. Hamilton and Warren S. Martin (1981) and Cunningham, Isabella C.M., Andrew P. Hardy and Giovanna Imperia (1982) indicate that consumers generally perceive store brands to be of lower quality than national brands. In 1987, a recent focus group study by the Private Label Manufacturers Association indicates that consumer acceptance of store brands depends more on product quality than price (Marketing News, 1987). Richardson, P.S., A.S. Dick, and A.K.Jain (1994) note that regardless of the product category or real ingredient differences manipulated,

41

ingredients disclosed to be of national manufacture received significantly more favorable quality assessment than ingredients disclosed to be of store brand origin. Moreover, Santa Barbara (1995) found significant differences in quality perceptions of store brands relative to national brands between the two groups. Subjects who are reluctant to buy store brands are significantly more inclined to believe that store brands offer lower quality, have less reliable ingredients and are of lower nutritional value.

Kusum L. A., Scott A. N. and Karen G. (2001) found that there is slightly relationship between quality consciousness and use of promotions for national brand because the consumer can obtain the quality that these brands deliver without being deal prone.

2.2.3 *Shopping enjoyment*

Shopping enjoyment reflects an incremental utility beyond the utility associated with obtaining lower prices (Beatty and Smith 1987; Doti and Sharir 1980; Kolodinsky 1990; Marmorstein, Grewal, and Fishe 1992). This variable is conceptualized as an individual difference variable. For example, Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) referred to individuals who enjoyed shopping as recreational shoppers. They found that these shoppers spent more time shopping and shopped longer after making a purchase. Westbrook and Black (1985) found that recreational shoppers obtained more gratification from the process of shopping than from the merchandise purchased. Thus, if a person enjoys the act of shopping generally, s/he is likely to browse longer and enjoy it more for any specific shopping occasion. Beatty, Sharon E. and Ferrell, M. Elizabeth (1998) define it as the pleasure one obtains in the shopping process. Some consumers enjoy shopping as a leisure activity or for recreation, deriving pleasure from

42

the activity (Westbrook and Black, 1985). Other consumers, who are apathetic or reluctant towards shopping, do not see many benefits from it. They may try to avoid it or attempt to minimize the time spent shopping (Westbrook and Black, 1985; Bloch et al., 1994).

Kolodinsky (1990) stated that consumers who enjoy shopping have been found to be heavier users of feature advertising and coupons, perhaps because they enjoy making use of marketing information. Moreover, K. L. Ailawadi, S. A. Neslin and Karen Gedenk (2001) found a positive relationship of shopping enjoyment with out-of-store promotion use, as well as with in-store promotion use. The in-store relationship is not as strong, but in-store promotions also provide marketing information that shopping enthusiasts will enjoy processing. There is no evidence that using store brands is related to the quest for shopping enjoyment. For example, Bellizzi and colleagues (1981) find that store brand buyers are not more likely to enjoy shopping than other consumers. Kusum L. A., Scott A. N.and Karen G. (2001) also support this finding. They stated that there is no relationship between store brand use and shopping enjoyment.

2.2.4 *Variety Seeking*

Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1992) define variety seeking as a means of obtaining stimulation in purchase behavior by alternating between familiar choice objects simply for a change of pace. It is the tendency of the individual to seek change or variety in choices over time, for purpose made within a product class. Variety seeking tendency can result in switch behavior even without a promotional incentive (Kahn and Barbara E, 1995).

There are many researchers studying the effects of variety seeking on purchase behavior in the presence of marketing mix variables such as promotions. Feinberg et al.

(1992), found that variety seeking flattens out the promotional response-"less preferred brands are helped and more preferred brands are hurt by variety seeking" (p. 234). At the same time, Kahn and Raju (1991) found that the gains by major brands from promotion come mainly from variety seekers, while the gains by minor brands from promotion come mainly from brand-loyal (inert) consumers. Raju (1980), McAlister and Pessemier (1982) and Teunter (2002) found that variety-seeking tendency, which is the desire among individuals to seek variety in their leisure patronage choices, has a positive influence on promotion proneness. Some researchers stated that is positively associated with promotion usage since deals encourage product trial (Montgomery, 1971 and Ailawadi, 2000).

Some researchers have investigated about what are the determinants of variety-seeking. For example, Read and Loewenstein (1995); Simonson (1990); Simonson and Winer (1992) found that one determinant of variety seeking behavior is the manner in which options are displayed on the shelf. It can have significant effects on variety seeking. Kahn and Isen (1993) found that offering a premium with a positive affect for grocery items leads to increased variety-seeking behavior among consumers. Kusum L. A., Scott A. N. and Karen G. (2001) found that variety-seeking and store brand use is positively related. Perhaps variety seekers use store brands for a change of pace.

2.2.5 *Impulsiveness*

Engel and Blackwell (1982) define an impulse as "a buying action undertaken without a problem previously having been consciously recognized or a buying intention formed prior to entering the store". Early marketing literature described impulse buying simply as unplanned purchasing (cf. Cobb and Hoyer, 1986). Impulse or unplanned purchasing is when one makes the decision to buy the item(s) while in the store

(Welles, 1986). Rook (1987) defined impulse buying as when "a consumer experiences a sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately." Beatty, Sharon E. and Ferrell, M. Elizabeth (1998) extend this definition slightly. Impulse buying is a sudden and immediate purchase with no pre-shopping intentions either to buy the specific product category or to fulfill a specific buying task. The behavior occurs after experiencing an urge to buy and it tends to be spontaneous and without a lot of reflection (i.e., it is "impulsive"). It does not include the purchase of a simple reminder item, which is an item that is simply out-of-stock at home.

There are some studies showing number of shoppers who buy on impulse. For example, The DuPont-Point of Purchase Advertising Institute's 1977 study in U.S.A. reported that 64.8% of all purchase decisions were made in-store, and Progressive Grocer reports that 46% of supermarket shoppers deviate frequently or almost always from their shopping lists. The preliminary results of a pilot study and a full-scale study, conducted by the Point-of-Purchase Advertising Institute Inc. (Fort Lee, New Jersey) in 1986, indicate that grocery shoppers are impulsive but will purchase necessities before turning to treats. The pilot study revealed that 81% of all purchases stemmed from in-store decisions. The research also indicated that brand decisions often are made at the point of purchase and that today's consumers may not be as loyal to brands as in the past. Consumers' adherence to staffs of life was evidenced by the fact that fresh milk, purchased by 33% of potential supermarket buyers, is the top item on shoppers' lists. Packaged bread, eggs, and chicken were the next most purchased items. Bristol (1993) noted that consumers make more than 60% of their buying decisions at the point of purchase. The Point of Purchase Advertising Institute's 1995 Consumer Buying Study indicates that in U.S.A. 74% of all brand purchase decisions in mass merchandisers were made in-store, up from 66% in 1986. In supermarkets, 70 percent of all decisions

were made in-store. Moreover, in 1998, it was also found that almost 2/3 of British shoppers wait until they are in the store before deciding what to buy. These results demonstrate the great marketing potential for in-store merchandising. Stores with smart merchandising, including special point-of-purchase displays enjoy 15%-20% higher average purchases per shopper (The Point of Purchase Advertising Institute (POPAI) and DuPont, 1984).

Some researches on impulse buying has focused on which promotions affect impulse buying. For example, Blattberg and Neslin (1990) found that a correlate of display proneness is different from those of a proneness to coupons. A proneness toward products on display is positively associated with impulsiveness while for coupon proneness (which demands out-of-store behavior to find and collect coupons), there is no relationship between each other. Bucklin, Randolph E. and Lattin, James M. (1991) stated that Shoppers who have planned their purchasing (made a decision before entering the store) do not process in-store information and show no response to point-of-purchase promotions. Consumers who have not planned their purchasing in a category (deciding at the point of purchase) will process in-store information and will be influenced strongly by promotions. Moreover, Kusum L. A., Scott A. N. and Karen G. (2001) note that impulsiveness is positively associated with in-store deal use but not with out-of-store deal use, because out-of-store deals require preparation before the shopping trip and for store brand use, they found no relationship.

2.2.6 *Mavenism*

Mavenism is the tendency to collect marketplace information with the intent of sharing it with others. As such, mavens obtain social returns from search behavior (Feick and Price 1987). Santa B., 1995 defined it as the degree to which consumers see

themselves as general providers of market information. In multiple studies, market mavenism has been found to be associated with earlier awareness of new products and brands, more frequent information provision, greater shopping enjoyment, greater coupon use, and greater information search (Feick and Price 1987; Higie, Feick, and Price 1987; Inman, McAlister, and Hoyer 1990; Price, Feick, and Guskey-Federouch 1988).

Characteristics of market maven

Market mavens are similar to other consumers who display a heightened market interest, including recreational shoppers, information seekers, and high purchase involvement consumers, but they differ from other interested shoppers in their breadth of product/market knowledge and the degree to which others seek their perceptions and advice on market-related questions (Santa B., 1995). The market maven always has, and shares with other consumers, a wide range of information about a variety of products, stores and other market phenomena (Feick and Price, 1987). Mavens are particularly attentive to media as a basis for their expertise. They are more likely to read direct mail and local advertising (Higie, Feick, and Price, 1987). They also perceive strong price-quality relationships (Lichenstein and Burton, 1990). Higie et al, 1987 noted that they are more likely to discuss retail store image attributes, and they are heavier readers of women's magazines and direct mail ads than the average consumer. In addition, mavens are heavier users of coupons, shopping lists, grocery budgets and grocery ads (Price, Feick, and Guskey-Federouch, 1988). Kusum L. A., Scott A. N., and Karen G. (2001) found that consumers who always use coupons are shopping maven. Mavens attach extra importance to both quality and price (Williams and Slama, 1995).

Moreover, a research has shown that market mavens are valuable in transmitting information about retailers. They talk significantly more than other shoppers about the

attributes of grocery stores, department stores and discount stores, with the attributes most often discussed including special sales, regular prices, product quality and product variety (Higie et al., 1987). The general influencing character of market mavens makes them particularly attractive promotional targets for retailers who carry many products and wish to convey information to the public about sales, low prices, product variety and other aspects of store operations in addition to information on specific products.

2.2.7 *Brand loyalty*

Consumers have varying degrees of loyalty to specific brands. Buyers can be divided into four groups according to brand loyalty status:

1. Hard-core loyal: consumers who buy one brand all the time.

2. Split loyal: consumers who have loyalty for two or three brands.

3. Shifting loyal: consumers who shift from one brand to another.

4. Switcher: consumers who show no loyalty to any brand.

This classification was adapted from George H. Brown, 1953

Some researchers study how brand loyalty associated with store brand products. For example, the recent gains made by private labels have often been linked to (lower) levels of brand loyalty. While brand loyalty can be product category-specific, some consumers have a propensity to be brand loyal across product categories, indicating a general tendency or consumer trait. Survey results show that in 1976, 76 percent of consumers considered themselves to be "brand loyal" compared with 23 percent in 1993 (Battle of the Brands, 1993). As loyalty to national brands decreases, consumers may switch from one national brand to another or from some specific national brand to a store brand. Moreover, brand loyal consumers display a stronger tendency to purchase the same brands they have always bought and, compared to those who are more likely

to seek variety, are less likely to switch to new and unfamiliar brands. Past researchers have suggested that consumers concerned with paying lower prices are less loyal toward specific brands (Blattberg and Neslin, 1990), and instead, tend to exhibit stronger variety seeking tendencies (Garretson and Burton, 1998). Generally, these consumers may be more concerned with the transactional utility associated with product purchases than with benefits associated with the repetitive purchase of any particular brand. Kusum L. A., Scott A. N. and Karen G. (2001) found that there is slightly negative relationship between store brand and brand loyalty. Moreover, Garretson, J. A., Fisher, D. , Burton, S. (2002) study how brand loyalty is associated with private label attitude and national brand promotion. They found that the relationship between brand loyalty and store brand attitude is significant and negative while the negative path from brand loyalty to national brand promotion attitude did not reach significance. Krishnamurthi and Raj (1991) offer a possible explanation for the insignificant path in their study that examined the relationship between brand loyalty and national brand promotion attitude. They found that brand loyal consumers are interested in price promotions for their preferred brands. Consumers anticipate promotions for their favorite brands and use these occasions to stockpile inventory. We conclude from this that many brand loyal consumers are less adverse toward promotions because of the price savings for brands they prefer. In contrast, Kusum L. A., Scott A. N. and Karen G. (2001) stated that out-of-store promotion users are brand loyalty. They seek out coupons and specials for their favorite brands while in-store promotion users are not.

Chapter 3

Conceptual Framework

This chapter focuses on the framework of the research. It consists of four sections. Section one; theoretical framework describes model that explores the effect of dependent variables on the independent variable in a logical and prescribed way. The conceptual framework is shown in section two which explains the independent, and dependent variables. The third section explains hypothesis that will be tested in this study. The last part, operationalization of variable translates all variables into action.

3.1 Theoretical Framework

Based on the different theoretical frameworks and studies explained in the previous chapter, there are many models that influence store brand use, in-store national brand promotion use and out-of-store national brand promotion use. According to the model proposed by Kotler (2000) as shown in Figure 2.1 and other theories, the researcher employed the theories and previous studies in order to develop the conceptual framework. For this study the *independent variables* are consumer psychological characteristics and brand loyalty, while the *dependent variables* are non-promoted store brand use, in-store national brand promotion use and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

3.2   Conceptual framework

According to Zikmund (1997), the conceptual framework is constructed to illustrate the relationship between dependent and independent variables. A dependent variable is a criterion or a variable that is to be predicted or explained. An independent variable is a variable that is expected to influence the dependent.

In this study, the conceptual framework explicates the relationship between influencing factors and consumer behavior in terms of non-promoted store brand use, in-store national brand promotion use and out-of-store national brand promotion use which is based on previous empirical research and theories providing evidence.

Figure 3.1 Conceptual framework

Independent Variables (X)   Dependent Variables (Y)
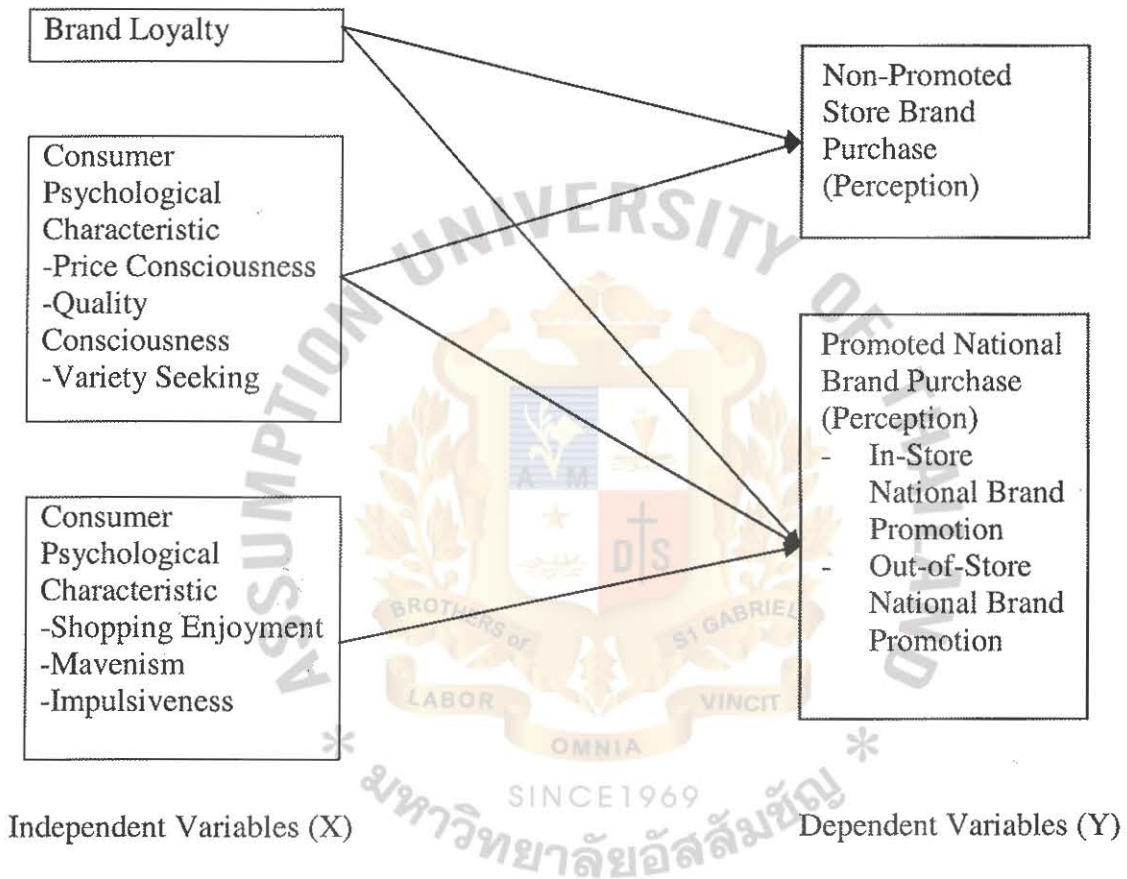
Explanation of selected variables

1.   **Price Consciousness**

      The degree to which the consumer focused exclusively on paying low price (Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer 1993).

2.   **Quality Consciousness**

      An orientation characterized by the degree to which a consumer searches for the best quality in products (Shim and Soyeon, 1996)

3. **Shopping Enjoyment**

The pleasure one obtains in the shopping process (Beatty, Sharon E. 1998).

4. **Variety Seeking**

A means of obtaining stimulation in purchase behavior by alternating between familiar choice objects simply for a change of pace (Steenkamp and Baumgartmer 1992).

5. **Mavenism**

Individuals who have information about many kinds of products, places to shop, and other facets of the market, and initiate disscussions with and respond to information requests from other consumers (Lawrence F. Feick and Linda L. Price, 1987).

6. **Impulsiveness**

An urge to buy and it tends to be spontaneous and without a lot of reflection (Beatty, Sharon E. 1998).

7. **Brand loyalty**

A tendency of consumer to purchase one brand repeatly and tends to view completing brands as poor substitutes to their preferred brand (Kardes, 1999).

8. **Non-Promoted Store Brand Use (perception)**

Perception of people who buy non-promoted store brand (Kusum L. A., Scott A. N. and Karen G., 2001).

9. **In-Store National Brand Promotion Use (perception)**

Perception of people who buy national brand because of in-store promotion (Kusum L. A., Scott A. N. and Karen G. (2001).

10. **Out-of-Store National Brand Promotion Use (perception)**

Perception of people who buy national brand because of out-of-store promotion (Kusum L. A., Scott A. N. and Karen G. (2001).

3.3 Hypothesis

Hypothesis statements are conjectural statements of the relationship between two or more variables that carry clear implication for testing the stated relations (Davis and Cosenza, 1993).

Based on the above conceptual framework of hypothesis testing model, the hypothesis statement is set forth as follows:

1) $H1_0$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.

$H1_a$: There is relationship between price consciousness and non-promote store brand use.

2) $H2_0$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.

$H2_a$: There is relationship between price consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.

3) $H3_0$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

H3a: There is relationship between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

53

4) $H4_0$: There is no relationship between quality consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.

$H4_a$: There is relationship between quality consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.

5) $H5_0$: There is no relationship between quality consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.

$H5_a$: There is relationship between quality consciousness and national brand promotion use.

6) $H6_0$: There is no relationship between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

$H6_a$: There is relationship between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

7) $H7_0$: There is no relationship between shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use.

$H7_a$: There is relationship between shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use.

8) $H8_0$: There is no relationship between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

$H8_a$: There is relationship between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

9) $H9_0$: There is no relationship between variety seeking and non-promoted store brand use.

   $H9_a$: There is relationship between variety seeking and non-promoted store brand use.

10) $H10_0$: There is no relationship between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use.

   $H10_a$: There is relationship between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use.

11) $H11_0$: There is no relationship between variety seeking and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

   $H11_a$: There is relationship between variety seeking and out-of-store national brand promotion use

12) $H12_0$: There is no relationship between impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use.

   $H12_a$: There is relationship between impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use.

13) $H13_0$: There is no relationship between impulsiveness and out-of- store national brand promotion use.

   $H13_a$: There is relationship between impulsiveness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

14) $H14_0$: There is no relationship between mavenism and in-store national brand promotion use.

$H14_a$: There is relationship between mavenism and in-store national brand promotion use.

15) $H15_0$: There is no relationship between mavenism and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

$H15_a$: There is relationship between mavenism and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

16) $H16_0$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use.

$H16_a$: There is relationship between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use.

17) $H17_0$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use.

$H17_a$: There is relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use.

18) $H18_0$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

$H18_a$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

56

3.4   Operationalization of variables

A concept is a bundle if meanings or characteristics associated with certain events, objects, conditions, situations, and the like (Cooper & Schindler, 1998). The concepts will be made operational in order to being measured. Operational definition is a definition stated in term of specific testing criteria or operations.

Table 3.1 Operationalization of Variables

Conceptual Label	Definition	Operationalization of Variable	Level of Measurement	No.
1. Price Consciousness	The degree to which the consumer focused exclusively on paying low price (Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer, 1993)	- Price as variable for buying - Price Comparison - To get best price for the product	Ordinal	Q. 12 Q.13 Q.14
2. Quality Consciousness	An orientation characteristized by the degree to which a consumer searches for the best quality in products(Shim, 1996)	- Higher price for high quality - Always best product - High quality as first rank	Ordinal	Q. 15 Q. 16 Q.17
3. Shopping Enjoyment	The pleasure one obtains in the shopping process (Beatty, Sharon E., 1998)	- Shopping as enjoyable experience - Shopping as learning experience	Ordinal	Q. 18 Q.19
4. Variety Seeking	A means of obtaining stimulation in purchase behavior by	- To change brand when getting tired - To buy different brand	Ordinal	Q. 20 Q. 21

	alternating between familiar choice objects simply for a change of pace (Steenkamp and Baumgartmer, 1992)	for variety		59
5.Impulsiveness	An urge to buy and it tends to be spontaneous and without a lot of refection (Beatty and Sharon E., 1998)	- To buy products on impulse - To make an unplanned purchase	Ordinal	Q. 22 Q.23
6. Mavenism	Individuals who have information about many kinds of products, places to shop, and other facets of the market, and initiate discussions with and respond to information requests from other consumers (Lawrence F. Feick & Linda L. Price).	- An expert in shopping - Recognized as a good source of shopping information - Giving people tips on shopping	Ordinal	Q. 24 Q.25 Q. 26

7. Brand Loyalty	Tendency of consumer to purchase one brand repeatly and to view completing brands as poor substitutes to their preferred brand (Kardes, 1999).	- Prefer one brand - To search for my favorite brand - Consistent purchase same brand	Ordinal	Q. 27 Q. 28 Q. 29
8. In-store National Brand Promotion (perception)	Perception of people who buy national brand because of in-store promotion	- Attracted by special promotion displays of national brands in the store	Ordinal	Q. 8
		- Use a coupon when seeing it on a package or in the store		Q. 9
		- Pick up and use the store flyers whenever the shopping		Q. 10
		- Take advantage of specials on national brands in the store		Q. 11
9. Out-of –store National Brand Promotion (perception)	Perception of people who buy national brand because of out-of-store promotion	- Clip coupons for national brands from newspaper and magazines	Ordinal	Q. 4

60

		- Take along coupons for national brand and use them whenever shopping		Q. 5
		- Scan store flyers for sales promotion before going shopping		Q. 6
		- Use store flyers to decide what to buy and where to shop		Q. 7
10. Non-Promoted Store Brand Use (perception)	Perception of people who buy non-promoted store brand	- Buy store brands	Ordinal	Q. 1
		- Look for store brands when go shopping		Q. 2
		- My shopping cart contains of store brands for several products		Q. 3

61

Chapter 4

Research Methodology

This chapter provides an overview of research methodology that is employed in this study and consists of six sections. The first section is research method used. The second section is research instrument or questionnaire. Third section is the sampling plan. Fourth section is collection of data and gathering procedures. The fifth section is pre-testing/test of reliability. The last one is data analysis and the statistical tools used to answer all statement of problems.

4.1   Research Method

In this research, **sample survey** will be used as a technique to gather primary data for analysis. Survey research is the research in which an interviewer interacts with respondents to obtain facts, opinions and attitudes (Mc D. and Gates, 1999).

Tull and Hawkins's (1987) defined survey research as the systematic gathering of information from respondents for the purpose of understanding and/or predicting some aspect of the behavior of the population of interest.

Moreover, the survey methods allow the collection of significant amounts of data in an economic and efficient manner on the one hand and they typically allow for much larger sample sizes on the other hand (Burns, 1995).

In this research, in order to describe information and analyze data, descriptive and inferential statistical methods are applied. Descriptive method is used to describe demographic profile of respondents. The inferential method is used to measure the relationship between dependent and independent variables to find the solution of research problem.

4.2 Research Instrument

Self-administered questionnaire is used in this study in order to gather information from samples. It is a questionnaire that is filled in by the respondent rather than an interviewer. It can be distributed to respondent in many ways such as insert in packages and magazines or locate questionnaire at points of purchase or high-traffic location (Zikmund, 1997).

Questionnaires are used to present questions and record answers in quantitative field research surveys. The main advantages of questionnaire are that it can be collected in a completed form within a short period of time, low cost (Cooper and Schildler, 1998). **The closed-formed questionnaire** has been developed on the basis of the proposed conceptual framework of this study. Closed-ended questions have been practiced to get quick response from the respondents. The questionnaire will be prepared in English and Thai versions and distributed to respondents because some respondents are not able to read and understand English. The questionnaire is composed of three parts as follows:

Part I: **Store brand use, in-store national brand promotion use and out-of-store promotion use** – The national brand promotion and store brand usage scales measure frequency of use and are anchored by "never and very often". There are 11 questions to measure the respondents' consumer behavior toward usage on store brand, in-store and out-of-store national brand promotions.

Part II: Psychographic Characteristics – This part will ask respondents to rate themselves at which level they are price conscious, quality conscious, shopping

enjoyment, variety seeking, impulsive, mavenism and brand loyal[1]. There are 27 questions with five- point Likert scales, where

| 1 = Strongly disagree | 2 = Disagree | 3 = Neutral |
| 4 = Agree | 5 = Strongly agree | |

Part III: Personal Data – This part consists of 5 questions, which include gender, age, occupation, education level, and monthly income of respondents.

4.3   Sampling Plan

Section 1 : Definition of target population

According to Cooper and Schindler (1998), population element is the individual subject on which the measurement is taken, hence population is the total collection of elements about which we wish to make some inferences. Target population is the specific, complete group relevant to the research project. The target population for this research is people who live in Bangkok, aged 18 years old and above, who have done shopping in any of these superstore; Big C, Tesco Lotus, Macro or Carrefour.

Section 2 : Sampling method

Non-probability sampling method is chosen to perform in the research because the probability of selecting required sample from population is not possible (Cooper and Schindler, 1998). It is a sample that relies on convenience/personal judgment

---

1. In this study, the researcher has measured the usage of store brands and the usage of promotions on national brands, not the feelings associated with them. Moreover, the scale in this research has been designed to assess a general usage level across product categories as usage also varies by product categories, especially for store brands (Sethuraman and Cole, 1997).

somewhere in the element selection process and therefore prohibits estimating the probability that any population element will be included in the sample (Churchill, 1979).

The researcher also uses **quota sampling** to show the proportion of the sample. McDaniel and Gates (2001) stated that quota samplings are typically selected in such a way that the demographic characteristics of interest to the researchers are represented in the sample in the same proportions as they are in the population. The researcher uses the quota sampling method is setting 50 samples for each store in order to get the total sample of respondents to be equal to 200 respondents. The samples of each store would be divided into the same proportion (25:25:25:25) of respondents.

Section 3 : Sampling Element

The sampling element is a single element or group of element subject to selection in a sample (Zikmund, 1997). In this research, the sampling unit is individual respondent.

Section 4 : Sampling Unit

It has been defined as the place where we can find the respondents. In this study, sampling unit is four supercenter according to these branches; Big C at Ramkhamheng, Carrefour and Tesco Lotus at Rama 4 and Macro at Rama 2.

Section 5 : Determining sample size

The size of the sample is dependent both on the size of the budget and the degree of confidence that the marketer wants to place in findings. The larger the sample, the more likely the response will reflect the total universe under study (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994).

Table of Sample Size are used (Anderson, 1996). These sample sizes have been determined based on experience and can serve as a rough guidelines, particularly when non-probability sampling techniques are used (Malhotra, 2000).

Table 4.1: Theoretical Sample Size for Different Size of Population when population is very large

Type of study	Minimum Size	Typical Range
Problem identification research (e.g.,market potential)	500	1,000-2,500
Problem solving research	**200**	300-500
Product tests	200	300-500
Test marketing studies	200	300-500
TV/radio/print advertising (per commercial or ad tested)	150	200-300

(Source : Naresh K. Malhotra, 2000)

From table, as the nature of this study is problem solving research, the sample size is 200 people, which are the minimum samples required for the study.

4.4   Collection of Data / Gathering Procedures

In this study, the data will be collected from primary as well as secondary sources as follows:

Primary data:

The primary data is data that is collected through the survey which consisted of personal interviews with 200 respondents who were intercepted at four supercenter according to these branches; Big C at Ramkhamheng, Tesco Lotus and Carrefour at Rama

4, Makro at Rama 2, at various time of day and on different days of the week by using the questionnaire. The questionnaires are collected from July to August 2003.

Secondary data collection:

The secondary data is taken from several sources included journals, newspapers, magazines, articles from academic textbooks via Internet and libraries sources related to the topic in order to apply them to the concept of the study.

4.5 Pre-testing and Test of reliability

Pre-testing of this research is done with the data collecting tool in order to test the reliability of the questionnaire by distributing copies of the questionnaire to the respondents at Big C , Carrefour, Macro and Tesco Lotus in Bangkok. The researcher conducted a pretest with 40 respondents. Mistakes were corrected and adjusted in terms of sequencing, wording and structuring so that communication between the researcher and the respondents were not biased.

The researcher pre-tested the reliability of the data before stepping into the process of data analysis. The term reliability is a generic term used to describe the degree of error associated with a measure. The technique used to the test was the Cronbach's Alpha Estimate. The reliabilities less than 0.6 are generally considered to be poor and a reliability estimate of 0.6 or over is acceptable (Sekaran, 1992). This technique tells us how highly accurate are the items in the questionnaire and their relationship. The Alpha Estimate was done by using the help of SPSS. The result is shown in the table as below.

Table 4.2 : Reliabilities of Constructs

Construct	Relevant Literature for Scale Items	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Price consciousness	Darden and Perreault (1976)	3	0.8816
Quality consciousness	Kusum L.Ailawadi, Scott A. Neslin and Karen (2001)	3	0.9573
Shopping enjoyment	Urbany, Dickson, Kalapurakal (1996)	2	0.8323
Mavenism	Feick and Price (1987); Urbany, Dickson, and Kalapurakal (1996)	3	0.8122
Impulsiveness	Narasimahan, Neslin, and Sen (1996)	2	0.7186
Variety seeking	Kusum L.Ailawadi, Scott A. Neslin and Karen Gedenk (2001)	2	0.7372
Brand loyalty	Kusum L.Ailawadi, Scott A. Neslin and Karen Gedenk (2001)	3	0.9349

Non-Promoted Store brand usage	Kusum L.Ailawadi, Scott A. Neslin and Karen Gedenk (2001)	3	0.9360
In-store national brand promotion usage	Kusum L.Ailawadi, Scott A. Neslin and Karen (2001)	4	0.7998
Out-of-store national brand promotion usage	Kusum L.Ailawadi, Scott A. Neslin and Karen (2001)	4	0.7071

4.6 Data Analysis

After the data have been collected, the researcher will use software of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), which is a widely used data analysis program to analyze the data. The form of data interpretation from these procedures will be presented in easily interpretable formats. All the statistical procedures are performed by computer software package to ensure accuracy and to minimize costs.

4.6.1 Statistics used for data analysis

1. Descriptive Statistics has been used in describing parameters personal data of the respondents.

2. The methods to be applied for testing hypothesis are t-test. In this research, the seven factors influencing the consumer behavior are measured by ordinal scale. The Spearman Rho will be applied to measure the relationships between seven factors and consumer behavior. The Spearman Rho is suitable for ordinal data (Green, 1997).

4.6.2 Decision rule for interpretation

The correlation coefficient, a statistical measure of association between two variables, ranges from $r = 1.0$ for a perfect positive correlation to $r = -1.0$ for a perfect negative correlation. No correlation is indicated by $r = o$. The correlation coefficient indicates the strength of the association of two variables and the direction of that association. Kinnear (1991) mentioned in general that if the value of r is bigger than 0.8, the relationship is a strong one, if the value of r is between 0.4 and 0.8, the relationship is a moderate to strong one, and if the value of r is less than 0.4, the relationship is a weak one.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION AND CRITICAL DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This chapter is proposed to focus on the data analysis and findings of this research study, which is collected the primary data from 200 questionnaires during 2 months, from July to August 2003 with target respondents. The data analyze presentation and interpretation of the finding consists of two sections. The first section is the descriptive statistics, which summarize the respondents' personal data and customer's shopping behavior. The second section is the inferential statistics of hypotheses testing, which study relationship between influencing factors and consumer behavior in terms of store brand use, in-store national brand promotion use and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

5.1   Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to describe or summarize information about a population or sample (Zigmund, 1997). It is a branch of statistics that provides researches with summary measures for data in their samples. In this study, descriptive statistics are used to summarize the respondents' characteristics which will be presented by frequency tables and percentages. For this part, respondents' characteristics include gender, age, occupation, education level, and monthly income.

Frequency Analysis

Part 1 Personal Data of Respondents

In this part, the researcher presents the respondents' personal data. The details are presented as follows:

Table 5.1.1: Respondents' Information classified by gender

Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	80	40.0	40.0	40.0
Female	120	60.0	60.0	100.0
Total	382	100.0	100.0	

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

Table 5.1.1 shows the gender of the respondents of this study. It is composed of 80 male respondents and 120 female respondents, representing 40.0% and 60.0%, respectively. Majority group are females among respondent.

Table 5.1.2: Respondents' Information classified by age

Age

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18-20 years old	8	4.0	4.0	4.0
21-30 years old	28	14.0	14.0	18.0
31-40 years old	72	36.0	36.0	54.0
More than 40 years old	92	46.0	46.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

Based on Table 5.1.2, the highest percentage of the respondents is the group, more than 40 years old, representing 46.0% and followed by those between 31-40 years old as 36.0%. The age group between 21-30 years old is represented by 14.0%, while the lowest percentage of them is between 18-20 years old as 8.0%.

Table 5.1.3: Respondents' Information classified by occupation

Occupation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Business owner	35	17.5	17.5	17.5
Government officer	30	15.0	15.0	32.5
State enterprise employee	19	9.5	9.5	42.0
Private company employee	79	39.5	39.5	81.5
Housewife	17	8.5	8.5	84.5
Student	12	6.0	6.0	96.0
Unemployed	2	1.0	1.0	97.0
Others	6	3.0	3.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

From Table 5.1.3, the highest percentage of the respondents' occupation is private company employee counting for 39.5%. The other group of the respondents is unemployed people as 1.0% whereas the remaining of them is business owner, government officer, state enterprise employee, housewife, student, and others representing 17.5%, 15.0%, 9.5%, 8.5%, 6.0% and 3.0%, respectively.

Table 5.1.4: Respondents' Information classified by education level

Education

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Below Bachelor's Degree	60	30.0	30.0	30.0
Bachelor's Degree	103	51.5	51.5	81.5
Higher than Bachelor's Degree	37	18.5	18.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.1.4 shows that the majority of respondents hold Bachelor's Degree, representing 51.5%. This is followed by 34.0% of respondents who have below Bachelor's Degree and higher than Bachelor's Degree of respondents are presented at 18.5%.

Table 5.1.5: Respondents' Information classified by monthly income

Monthly income

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 15,000 Baht	30	15.0	15.0	15.0
15,001-25,000 Baht	75	37.5	37.5	52.5
25,001-35,000 Baht	49	24.5	24.5	77.0
35,001 and above	46	23.0	23.0	100.0
Total	382	100.0	100.0	

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

Based on Table 5.1.5, the highest percentage (37.5%) are the respondents who receive the monthly income between 15,001-25,000 Baht whereas the following level of income between 25,001-35,000 Baht and more than 35,000 are represented by 24.5% and 23.0%. Moreover, the minority group of respondents who have an income per month less than 15,000 baht is represented by 15.0%.

5.2 Inferential Statistics of Hypotheses Testing

In this study, Inferential statistics of hypotheses testing as Spearman Samples t-test is used to find out the relationships (Zikmund, 1997) between selected factors and

store brand use, and in-store national brand promotion use, and out-of-store national brand promotion use (H1-H21). The results are shown in Table 5.2.1 – 5.2.21.

Hypothesis 1

$H1_0$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.

$H1_a$: There is a relationship between price consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.

Table 5.2.1: Correlation Samples T-Test between Price Consciousness and Non-Promoted Store Brand Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMSTOR1	SUMPRIC1
Spearman's rho	SUMSTOR1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.440**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMPRIC1	Correlation Coefficient	.440**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.1, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between price consciousness and non-promoted store brand use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between price consciousness and store brand use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H1_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between price consciousness and**

non-promoted store brand use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is positive correlation (.440) between these two factors.**

<u>Hypothesis 2</u>

$H2_0$:   There is no relationship between price consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.

$H2_a$:   There is a relationship between price consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.2: Correlation Samples T-Test between Price Consciousness and In-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMPRIC1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMPRIC1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.403**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	.403**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.2, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between price consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between price consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H2_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between price**

consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is positive correlation (.403) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 3

$H3_0$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

$H3_a$: There is a relationship between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.3: Correlation Samples T-Test between Price Consciousness and Out-of-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMPRIC1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMPRIC1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.377**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	.377**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.3, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H3_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship**

between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is positive correlation (.377) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 4

$H4_0$: There is no relationship between quality consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.

$H4_a$: There is a relationship between quality consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.

Table 5.2.4: Correlation Samples T-Test between Quality Consciousness and Non-Promoted Store Brand Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMSTOR1	SUMQUAL1
Spearman's rho	SUMSTOR1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.608**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMQUAL1	Correlation Coefficient	-.608**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.4, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between quality consciousness and non-promoted store brand use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between quality consciousness and store brand use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H4_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between quality consciousness**

and non-promoted store brand use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is negative correlation (-.608) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 5

H5$_0$:   There is no relationship between quality consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.

H5$_a$:   There is a relationship between quality consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.5: Correlation Samples T-Test between Quality Consciousness and In-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMQUAL1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMQUAL1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.167*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.018
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	-.167*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.018	.
		N	200	200

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.5, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between quality consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between quality consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .018, which is less than .05 (.018 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H5$_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between quality**

79

consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is negative correlation (-.167) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 6

$H6_0$:   There is no relationship between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

$H6_a$:   There is a relationship between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.6: Correlation Samples T-Test between Quality Consciousness and Out-of-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMQUAL1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMQUAL1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.002
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.980
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	-.002	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.980	.
		N	200	200

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.6, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is no statistically significant relationship between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .980, which is more than .05 (.980 > .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H6_0$) is failed to reject. **It means that there is no**

relationship between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis 7

H7$_0$: There is no relationship between shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use.

H7$_a$: There is a relationship between shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.7: Correlation Samples T-Test between Shopping Enjoyment and In-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMSHOP1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMSHOP1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.458**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	.458**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.7, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H7$_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between**

81

shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is positive correlation (.458) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 8

$H8_0$: There is no relationship between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

$H8_a$: There is a relationship between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.8: Correlation Samples T-Test between Shopping Enjoyment and Out-of-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMOUT1	SUMSHOP1
Spearman's rho	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.145*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.040
		N	200	200
	SUMSHOP1	Correlation Coefficient	.145*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.040	.
		N	200	200

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.8, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .04, which is less than .05 (.04 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H8_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship**

82

between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is positive correlation (.145) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 9

$H9_0$:   There is no relationship between variety seeking and non-promoted store brand use.

$H9_a$:   There is a relationship between variety seeking and non-promoted store brand use.

Table 5.2.9: Correlation Samples T-Test between Variety Seeking and Non-Promoted Store Brand Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMSTOR1	SUMVARI1
Spearman's rho	SUMSTOR1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.357**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMVARI1	Correlation Coefficient	-.357**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.9, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between variety seeking and non-promoted store brand use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between variety seeking and store brand use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H9_0$) is rejected. It means that there is relationship between variety seeking and non-promoted store brand

use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is negative correlation (-.357) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 10

$H10_0$: There is no relationship between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use.

$H10_a$: There is a relationship between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.10: Correlation Samples T-Test between Variety Seeking and In-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMVARI1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMVARI1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.407**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	.407**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.10, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H10_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between variety**

seeking and in-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance.
There is positive correlation (.407) between these two factors.

Hypothesis 11

$H11_0$: There is no relationship between variety seeking and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

$H11_a$: There is a relationship between variety seeking and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.11: Correlation Samples T-Test between Variety Seeking and Out-of-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMVARI1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMVARI1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.180*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.011
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	.180*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.
		N	200	200

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.11, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between variety seeking and out-of-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between variety seeking and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .180, which is less than .05 (.180 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H11_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between variety**

85

seeking and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is positive correlation (.180) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 12

$H12_0$: There is no relationship between impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use.

$H12_a$: There is a relationship between impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.12: Correlation Samples T-Test between Impulsiveness and In-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMIMPU1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMIMPU1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.530**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	.530**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.12, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H12_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between**

impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is positive correlation (.530) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 13

$H13_0$: There is no relationship between impulsiveness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

$H13_a$: There is a relationship between impulsiveness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.13: Correlation Samples T-Test between Impulsiveness and Out-of-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMIMPU1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMIMPU1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.402**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	-.402**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.13, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between impulsiveness and out-of-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between impulsiveness and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H13_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between**

impulsiveness and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of

significance. **There is negative correlation (-.402) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 14

$H14_0$: There is no relationship between mavenism and in-store national brand promotion
use.

$H14_a$: There is a relationship between mavenism and in-store national brand promotion
use.

**Table 5.2.14: Correlation Samples T-Test between Mavenism and In-Store National
Brand Promotion Use.**

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMMAVE1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMMAVE1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.201**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.004
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	-.201**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.14, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed

samples test analysis to test the relationship between mavenism and in-store national

brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant

relationship between mavenism and in-store national brand promotion use at the two-

tailed significance of .004, which is less than .05 (.004 < .05). Therefore, the null

hypothesis ($H14_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between mavenism**

and in-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is**

negative correlation (-.201) between these two factors.

Hypothesis 15

H15$_0$: There is no relationship between mavenism and out-of-store national brand
promotion use.

H15$_a$: There is a relationship between mavenism and out-of-store national brand
promotion use.

Table 5.2.15: Correlation Samples T-Test between Mavenism and Out-of-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMMAVE1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMMAVE1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.737**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	.737**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.15, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed
samples test analysis to test the relationship between mavenism and out-of-store
national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant
relationship between mavenism and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the
two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null
hypothesis (H15$_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between mavenism**

89

and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the 0.05 level of significance.
There is positive correlation (.737) between these two factors.

Hypothesis 16

H16$_0$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use.

H16$_a$: There is a relationship between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use.

Table 5.2.16: Correlation Samples T-Test between Brand Loyalty and Non-Promoted Store Brand Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMSTOR1	SUMBRAN1
Spearman's rho	SUMSTOR1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.499**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMBRAN1	Correlation Coefficient	-.499**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.16, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between brand loyalty and store brand use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H16$_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use** at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is negative correlation (-.499) between these two factors.**

Hypothesis 17

H17$_0$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use.

H17$_a$: There is a relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.17: Correlation Samples T-Test between Brand Loyalty and In-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMBRAN1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMBRAN1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.509**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	-.509**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.17, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H17$_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use** at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is negative correlation (-.509) between these two factors.**

91

Hypothesis 18

H18$_0$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

H18$_a$: There is a relationship between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use.

Table 5.2.18: Correlation Samples T-Test between Shopping Enjoyment and Out-of-Store National Brand Promotion Use.

Correlation Samples Test

Correlations

			SUMBRAN1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMBRAN1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.398**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	.398**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Source: Survey data gathered from July, 2003 to August, 2003

As presented in Table 5.2.18, the null hypothesis is tested by using two-tailed samples test analysis to test the relationship between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use. The result indicates that there is statistically significant relationship between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use at the two-tailed significance of .000, which is less than .05 (.000 < .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H18$_0$) is rejected. **It means that there is relationship between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use** at the 0.05 level of significance. **There is positive correlation (.398) between these two factors.**

Table 5.3: Summary of Hypothesis Testing Result

Hypothesis	Statistical Testing	Correlation Coefficient	Analysis Result
$H_0 1$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.440 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 1$
$H_0 2$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.403 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 2$
$H_0 3$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.377 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 3$
$H_0 4$: There is no relationship between quality consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.608 negative correlation	Reject $H_0 4$
$H_0 5$: There is no relationship between quality consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.167 negative correlation	Reject $H_0 5$
$H_0 6$: There is no relationship between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.002	Fail to reject $H_0 6$
$H_0 7$: There is no relationship between shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.458 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 7$

H_08 : There is no relationship between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.145 positive correlation	Reject H_08
H_09 : There is no relationship between variety seeking and non-promoted store brand use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.357 negative correlation	Reject H_09
H_010 : There is no relationship between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.407 positive correlation	Reject H_010
H_011 : There is no relationship between variety seeking and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.180 positive correlation	Reject H_011
H_012 : There is no relationship between impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.530 positive correlation	Reject H_012
H_013 : There is no relationship between impulsiveness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.402 negative correlation	Reject H_013
H_014 : There is no relationship between mavenism and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.201 negative correlation	Reject H_014
H_015 : There is no relationship between mavenism and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.737 positive correlation	Reject H_015

$H_0 16$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.499 negative correlation	Reject $H_0 16$
$H_0 17$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.509 negative correlation	Reject $H_0 17$
$H_0 18$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.398 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 18$

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides the summary, conclusion of the research results along with the recommendations for this study. It comprises of four sections. The first section is the summary of the results of descriptive analysis and research hypothesis testing. The second section will include the conclusion of the research study. For the third section discusses the implications and recommendations. For the last section are the suggestions for further research.

6.1 Summary of Findings

This study is aimed to find out the relationship between influencing factors and consumer behavior in terms of non-promoted store brand use, in-store and out-of-store national brand promotion use from any of four Supercenters' customers; Tesco Lotus, Big C, Carrefour and Makro. Each hypothesis was analyzed by using Spearman samples t-test to determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between these factors or not as presented in Tables 5.2.1- 5.2.18. Moreover, this study includes personal data which the results of the study is described and explained as follows:

Table 6.1 : Summary Table for descriptive analysis (personal data)

Demographic	Group with the highest percentage
Gender	Female (60%)
Age	More than 40 years old (46.0%)
Occupation	Private company employee (39.5%)
Education	Bachelor's degree (51.1%)
Monthly income	15,001-25,000 baht (37.5%)

With regard to the 200 samples of data collected from the survey of Tesco Lotus, Big C, Carrefour and Makro's customers in Bangkok province. Most of them are female (60.0%), with an age more than 40 years old (46.0%). Furthermore, most of them are private company employee (39.5%), holding a Bachelor's degree (51.5%) and received the monthly income between 15,001 to 25,000 baht (24.5%) (see Table 5.1.1-5.1.5).

The analysis result of the first hypothesis has indicated that there is a positive relationship between price consciousness and non-promoted store brand use (see Table 5.2.1).

The second hypothesis testing shows that there is a positive relationship between price consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use (see Table 5.2.2).

The result of the third hypothesis testing indicates that there is a positive relationship between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use (see Table 5.2.3).

The result of the forth hypothesis testing indicates that there is a negative relationship between quality consciousness and non-promoted store brand use (see Table 5.2.4).

The result of the fifth hypothesis testing indicates that there is a negative relationship between quality consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use (see Table 5.2.5).

The sixth hypothesis testing shows that there is no relationship between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use (see Table 5.2.6).

The seventh hypothesis testing shows that there is a positive relationship between shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use (see Table 5.2.7).

The result of the eighth hypothesis testing indicates that there is a positive relationship between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use (see Table 5.2.8).

The result of the ninth hypothesis testing indicates that there is a negative relationship between variety seeking and non-promoted store brand use(see Table 5.2.9).

The result of the tenth hypothesis testing indicates that there is a positive relationship between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use (see Table 5.2.10).

The result of the eleventh hypothesis testing result indicates that there is a positive relationship between variety seeking and out-of-store national brand promotion use (see Table 5.2.11).

The result of the twelfth hypothesis testing result indicates that there is a positive relationship between impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use (see Table 5.2.12)

The result of the thirteenth hypothesis testing result indicates that there is a negative relationship between impulsiveness and out-of-store national brand promotion use (see Table 5.2.13).

The result of the fourteenth hypothesis testing result indicates that there is a negative relationship between mavenism and in-store national brand promotion use (Table 5.2.14).

The result of the fifth hypothesis testing result indicates that there is a positive relationship between mavenism and out-of-store national brand promotion use (Table 5.2.15).

The result of the sixteenth hypothesis testing result indicates that there is a negative relationship between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use (Table 5.2.16).

The result of the seventeenth hypothesis testing result indicates that there is a negative relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use (Table 5.2.17).

The result of the eighteenth hypothesis testing result indicates that there is a positive relationship between brand loyalty and out-store national brand promotion use (Table 5.2.18).

6.2 Conclusion of the research study

As it has been stated in chapter 1, there are two main objectives of this study. The conclusion which supports each objective is described as follows:

According to the *first objective* of this study is to study the relationship between consumer psychological characteristics and consumer behavior in terms of non-promoted store brand use, in-store national brand promotion use and out-of-store national brand promotion use. The elements in consumer psychological characteristics include price consciousness, quality consciousness, shopping enjoyment, variety seeking, impulsiveness, mavenism and brand loyalty. In this study Correlation Samples T-test is used to determine the relationship between these related factors and consumer behavior.

Table 6.2 : Summary of Hypothesis Testing Result

Hypothesis	Statistical Testing	Correlation Coefficient	Analysis Result
$H_0 1$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.440 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 1$
$H_0 2$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.403 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 2$
$H_0 3$: There is no relationship between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.377 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 3$
$H_0 4$: There is no relationship between quality consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.608 negative correlation	Reject $H_0 4$
$H_0 5$: There is no relationship between quality consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.167 negative correlation	Reject $H_0 5$
$H_0 6$: There is no relationship between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.002	Fail to reject $H_0 6$
$H_0 7$: There is no relationship between shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.458 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 7$

$H_0 8$: There is no relationship between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.145 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 8$
$H_0 9$: There is no relationship between variety seeking and non-promoted store brand use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.357 negative correlation	Reject $H_0 9$
$H_0 10$: There is no relationship between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.407 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 10$
$H_0 11$: There is no relationship between variety seeking and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.180 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 11$
$H_0 12$: There is no relationship between impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.530 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 12$
$H_0 13$: There is no relationship between impulsiveness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.402 negative correlation	Reject $H_0 13$
$H_0 14$: There is no relationship between mavenism and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.201 negative correlation	Reject $H_0 14$
$H_0 15$: There is no relationship between mavenism and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.737 positive correlation	Reject $H_0 15$

H_016 : There is no relationship between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.499 negative correlation	Reject H_016
H_017 : There is no relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	-.509 negative correlation	Reject H_017
H_018 : There is no relationship between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Spearman Samples T-Test	.398 positive correlation	Reject H_018

It can be concluded that all three groups; non-promoted store brand user, in-store national brand promotion user, and out-of-store national brand promotion user, are highly price conscious. This analysis result is consistent with the previous studies of many researchers such as Burger and Schott (1972), Rothe and Lamont (1973), and Santa Barbara (1977) who studied about determinants of store brand choice and found that price consciousness is a predictor of store brand purchase. Moreover, this result is supported by the literature of Santa Barbara (1988), and Blattberg and Neslin (1990) who quoted that consumers influenced by sales promotion are price conscious. This finding can be explained that the typical low price of a store brand compared with the existing national brands may convert some price conscious shoppers meanwhile competitive price promotions by the national brand can have an adverse effect on store brand sales or force the store brand competitor to retaliate with further price promotion. For quality consciousness, store brand user is found to be not quality conscious, as well as in-store national brand promotion user but the in-store relationship is not as strong, whereas no relationship found between out-of-store promotion user and quality

consciousness. This result is consistent with the previous studies of many researchers such as Barbara (1995) who conducted research about correlates of store brand proneness. In case of out-of-store promotion, it is not surprisingly because most consumers believe they can obtain the quality that these brands deliver without being deal prone. But for in-store promotion, maybe this can be explained that some customers consider products sold under in-store promotion programs as lower quality than those sold at full price and this may harm brand image afterwards. For shopping enjoyment, in-store national brand promotion user is found to be shopping enjoyment as well as out-of-store national brand promotion user but the out-of-store relationship is not as strong as in-store relationship. This analysis result is consistent with the previous studies of Kolodinsky (1990) who stated that recreational shopper tends to be heavier users of feature advertising and coupons. They also enjoy making use of marketing information which is provided by promotions through many ways such as POP displays or store flyers. Montgomery (1971) also pointed that people who inherently enjoy shopping, i.e. who are willing to spend time and effort going from store to store, looking at widow displays, examining brands are like to be more deal prone than people who are not willing to spend much time and effort to shopping. Moreover, Kusum L. A., Scott A. N. and Karen G. (2001) who studied the characteristics of deal prone and people who prefer store brand also found the result in the same way. For variety seeking, the result of both in-store and out-of-store national brand promotions are similar to those in shopping enjoyment. Both in-store and out-of-store promotion users are found to be variety seeking but in-store promotion has stronger relationship, whereas negative relationship is found between store brand user and variety seeking. This analysis result is consistent with the previous studies of Montgomery (1971) who noted that variety seeking is positively associated with sales promotion users because

deals encourage product trial. Moreover, Simonson (1990) and Read and Loewenstein (1995) stated that the manner in which options are displayed on the shelf can have significant effects on variety seeking. They also found that variety seekers are less apt to use store brands because regular use of store brands does not provide variety. In addition to these, the study of Kusum L. A., Scott A. N. and Karen G. (2001) also supports this result with the similar finding. For impulsiveness, it can be concluded that this factor is positively associated with in-store deal use but not with out-of-store deal use. This analysis result is consistent with the previous studies of The Point of Purchase Advertising Institute who found that in U.S.A. 74% of all brand purchase decisions in mass merchandisers were made in-store, up from 66% in 1986. In supermarket 70% of all decisions were made in-store in 1995. Moreover, Bucklin, Randolph E. and Lattin, James M. (1991) noted that consumers who have not planned their purchasing in a category will process in-store information and will be influenced strongly by promotions. This result shows the great marketing potential for in-store merchandising. But for out-of-store promotion, it is different because out-of-store deals require preparation before the shopping trip. For mavenism, out-of-store national brand promotion user is found to be mavenism, but in-store national brand promotion user is not. There are many previous researchers supporting this result such as Higie, Feick, and Price (1987) and Price, Feick, and Guskey-Federouch (1988). All of them found that as mavens are particularly attentive to media as a basis for their expertise, they are more likely to read direct mail and local advertising and are heavier users of coupons. Meanwhile, they are not apt to use in-store promotions, which require less effort and therefore are less reflective of individual shopping expertise.

In the conclusion of the first objective, store brand users are highly price conscious but not very quality conscious and not variety seeker. Users of out-of-store

promotions are price conscious, variety seeking, and shopping enjoyment but not impulsive buying. The last group, in-store promotion users, is price conscious, variety seeking, high shopping enjoyment and impulsive buying.

For the second objective, to study the relationship between brand loyalty and consumer behavior in terms of non-promoted store brand use, in-store national brand promotion use and out-of-store national brand promotion use. Store brand user is found to be not brand loyal, as well as in-store national brand promotion user, whereas out-of-store national brand promotion user is strongly brand loyal. The result is supported by the literature of Bawa and Shoemaker (1987), Webster (1965) and Kusum L. Aliawadi, Scott A. Nesliin and Karen Gedenk (2001) who quoted that in-store deals often require the consumer to switch brands. However, brand-loyal consumers can seek out coupons and specials for their favorite brands. Thus, out-of-store deal use is positively related to national brand loyalty. Moreover, Garretson, Judith A., Fisher, Dan., Burton, Scot (2002) pointed that the store brand user is not brand loyalty and is likely to switch to new and unfamiliar brands.

6.3 Implications and Recommendations of the study

According to high competition in the retailing industry, it is necessary for marketers to understand the relationship between consumer buying behavior and influencing factors; psychological consumer characteristics and brand loyalty. These two relationships are the important ones the successful marketers pay attention on in order to adapt their marketing plan or strategy. Moreover, it would appear that it is in management's best interest to understand distinguishing characteristics of the non-promoted store brand and promoted national brand buyer. Appropriate marketing programmes based on differential purchase behavior as well as distinctive personal

characteristics should be developed to compete effectively in one or both market sectors.

Table 6.3 : Table of Recommendations

Hypothesis	Conclusion	Recommendation
$H_0 1$ Rejected	There is a positive correlation between price consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.	This means EDLP program is effective for price conscious consumers. However, retailer should not focus on price too much since low price may lead to low quality in customers' perception. However, they can send their customers a massage telling that they offer quality store products at value price. To be the leader in this market, they should make an effective marketing communication.
$H_0 2$ Rejected	There is a positive correlation between price consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.	However, manufacturers should not focus on price too much as they have marketing and advertising expenses whereas retailers do not and also have much lower delivery cost, they should not launch price promotion too frequently.
$H_0 3$ Rejected	There is a positive correlation between price consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	

H_04 Rejected	There is a negative correlation between quality consciousness and non-promoted store brand use.	In order to capture more market share, retailers should attempt to source store brand alternatives as close as possible to the quality of the leading national brand since high quality encourages the customer to try other store brand products and also help to create good brand image as well meanwhile, according to this finding, manufacturers should hold superior quality and abandon attempts to attract price-conscious consumers and to focus exclusively on their core quality conscious consumers. This focus allows price increase, especially when combined with quality improvements.
H_05 Rejected	There is a negative correlation between quality consciousness and in-store national brand promotion use.	As slightly negative relationship between in-store national brand promotion usage and quality consciousness is found, maybe this means in-store promotion weaken some customers' perception of superior quality and this may harm brand image afterwards. Otherwise, in order to get higher sales volume and also to keep good brand image, the manufacturers need to build clear understanding to their customers of why they provide those beneficial promotion programs to customers.
H_06	There is no correlation	This finding shows that customers still believe in

Failed to rejected	between quality consciousness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	quality of national brand products even though they're sold under promotion programs. Otherwise, manufacturers should hold and develop their superior quality in order to create trust in brand.
$H_0 7$ Rejected	There is a positive correlation between shopping enjoyment and in-store national brand promotion use.	As the result shows that shopping enjoyment is positively related to national brand promotion usage, especially with in-store promotion, manufacturers can attract recreational shoppers by creating and developing shopping environment and promotion programs that give the customer an emotional reason to buy their products. To achieve this, in-store promotion objectives may have to be positioned as reward, surprise and pamper. Many promotional tools
$H_0 8$ Rejected	There is a positive correlation between shopping enjoyment and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	can be applied to provide fun and exciting experience to customers such as coupons on package, coupons in store flyers or in newspaper or even in-store promotion like giving customer's birthday gift, providing information about products and POP display.
$H_0 9$ Rejected	There is a negative correlation between variety seeking and non-	Retailers should focus on non-variety seeking buyers.

		promoted store brand use.	
$H_0 10$ Rejected	There is a positive correlation between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use.	It is important for manufacturers to continuously monitor consumer's preference not only to improve current products but also to develop new and innovative products to fit customers' lifestyles so that national manufactures can serve needs of customers who seek variety in choices over time.
$H_0 11$ Rejected	There is a positive correlation between variety seeking and in-store national brand promotion use.	
$H_0 12$ Rejected	There is a positive correlation between impulsiveness and in-store national brand promotion use.	Manufacturers should spend money for POP display which is positioned right where the customer is ready to make an impulsive, unplanned purchase. Designed to attract the customer eye by means of colour, illumination and/or movement, a well designed and positioned POP display will not only help manufacturers capture sales volume from retailers but also from other national brand manufacturers. Moreover, special and in-store coupon offers are also effective tool used for inviting customer to buy impulsively.

$H_0 13$ Rejected	There is a negative correlation between impulsiveness and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Give competitive and informative advertisement and promotion to change impulsive customers' attitude.
$H_0 14$ Rejected	There is a negative correlation between mavenism and in-store national brand promotion use.	Manufacturers should target advertisement and in-store promotion to non mavens.
$H_0 15$ Rejected	There is a positive correlation between mavenism and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Manufacturers should direct out-of-store national brand promotion to mavens.
$H_0 16$ Rejected	There is a negative correlation between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use.	This implies that non-promoted store brand entry results in brand switching, drawing buyers away from the national brands. Otherwise, one of the most important task for manufacturers is to build brand loyalty in their customers' mind, do more to distinguish their position and try to create their brand image as a premium-tier national brand as the literature on asymmetric and neighborhood price effects indeed confirms that while premium-tier national brands are relatively

		insulted from store brands, consumer of lower priced national brands are more likely to switch to store brands (Blattberg and Wisniewski,1989; Sethureman, 1999).
$H_0 17$ Rejected	There is a negative correlation between brand loyalty and in-store national brand promotion use.	Manufacturers should spend money for POP display which is positioned right where the customer is ready to make an impulsive, unplanned purchase. Designed to attract the customer eye by means of colour, illumination and/or movement, a well designed and positioned POP display will not only help manufacturers capture sales volume from retailers but also from other national brand manufacturers. Moreover, special and in-store coupon offers are also effective tool used for inviting customer to buy impulsively.
$H_0 18$ Rejected	There is a positive correlation between brand loyalty and out-of-store national brand promotion use.	Direct out-of-store national brand promotion to brand loyal consumers.

For price consciousness, although the result shows that both of non-promoted store brand and national brand promotion users are price conscious, both retailers and manufacturers should not focus on price too much. On the manufacturers' side, as they

have marketing and advertising expenses but retailers do not have to spend money for these costs and retailers also have much lower delivery cost, the manufacturers should not launch price promotion too frequently. On the retailers' side, they should be careful because low price may lead to low quality in customers' perception however they can make effective marketing communication by sending their customers a massage telling that they offer quality store products at value price. For quality consciousness, the finding indicates that there is an inverse relationship between non-promoted store brand usage and quality consciousness. This means those who concern quality is not likely to buy store brand. Otherwise, if retailers wants to capture more market share, they should attempt to source store brand alternatives as close as possible to the quality of the leading national brand since high quality encourages the customer to try other store brand products and also help to create good brand image as well, meanwhile manufacturers should hold superior quality and abandon attempts to attract price-conscious consumers and to focus exclusively on their core quality conscious consumers. This focus allows price increase, especially when combined with quality improvements. Product improvement and repositioning away from the store brands are likely to be another effective way to compete with retailers. However, to create fighting brand is another method which has been done in many companies. Moreover, as slightly negative relationship between in-store national brand promotion usage and quality consciousness is found, maybe this means in-store promotion weaken some customers' perception of superior quality and this may harm brand image afterwards. Otherwise, in order to get higher sales volume and also to keep good brand image, the manufacturers need to build clear understanding to their customers of why they provide those beneficial promotion programs to customers. Moreover, as the result shows that shopping enjoyment is positively related to national brand promotion usage, especially

with in-store promotion, manufacturers can attract recreational shoppers by creating and developing shopping environment and promotion programs that give the customer an emotional reason to buy their products. To achieve this, in-store promotion objectives may have to be positioned as reward, surprise and pamper. Many promotional tools can be applied to provide fun and exciting experience to customers such as coupons on package, coupons in store flyers or in newspaper or even in-store promotion like giving customer's birthday gift, providing information about products and POP display. In addition to these, it is important to continuously monitor consumer's preference not only to improve current products but also to develop new and innovative products to fit customers' lifestyles so that national manufactures can serve needs of customers who seek variety in choices over time. Moreover, as negative relationship between brand loyalty and non-promoted store brand use is shown, this means that store brand entry results in brand switching, drawing buyers away from the national brands. Otherwise, one of the most important task for manufacturers is to build brand loyalty in their customers' mind, do more to distinguish their position and try to create their brand image as a premium-tier national brand as the literature on asymmetric and neighborhood price effects indeed confirms that while premium-tier national brands are relatively insulted from store brands, consumer of lower priced national brands are more likely to switch to store brands (Blattberg and Wisniewski,1989; Sethureman, 1999). As the finding also shows reverse relationship between brand loyalty and in-store national promotion use and strong positive relationship between impulsiveness and in-store national promotion use, manufacturers should spend money for POP display which is positioned right where the customer is ready to make an impulsive, unplanned purchase. Designed to attract the customer eye by means of colour, illumination and/or movement, a well designed and positioned POP display will not

only help manufacturers capture sales volume from retailers but also from other national brand manufacturers. Moreover, special and in-store coupon offers are also effective tool used for inviting customer to buy impulsively.

6.4 Further Research

For those who would like to further investigate in the research area of non-promoted store brand and manufacturer promoted brand competition, the research presents a number of interesting propositions for the further research below.

This research was conducted without focusing on specific group in terms of demographics such as level of income, education, sex, age or etc., so further research should be done more specifically in these areas in order to find out much more appropriate and effective strategies used with these specific groups.

As this research studies only some determinants of consumer psychological characteristics, it could be recommended to study further in more specific factors both in terms of consumer psychological characteristics and consumer demographics.

Moreover, future investigations concerning whether national brand promotions and store brands attract the same consumers may offer benefit to both manufacturers and retailers because they do, there is a tug-of-war between manufacturers and retailers for the same market segment, whereas if not, the partitioning of market segments could reduce competition between them. It is also hoped that future research will address the effectiveness of different promotion and techniques in changing the perceptions of quality delivered by store brands.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aaker, D. A. (1991). Managing brand equity: capitalizing on the value of a brand name, New York: The Free Press.

AC Nielsen Report (1998). "International Private Label Retailing – Indicators and Trends" NTC Publications LTD. Henley-on- Thames.

Ailawadi, K. L. et al (2001). "Pursuing the Value Conscious Consumers: Store Brands Versus National Brand Promotions". Journal of Marketing, 65(1): pp.71-89.

Andre, G. and Granger, C.W.J. (1979). "On the Price Consciousness of Consumers," Management Decision, 17 (8): p.551.

Babakus, E. and Tat, P. (1988). "Coupon Redemption: A Motivational Perspective." Journal of Consumer Marketing, 5 (2, Spring): pp.37-43.

Barbara, S. et al (1995). "Correlates of store brand proneness: Some empirical observations", The Journal of Product and Brand Management, Vol. 4:15.

Beatty, S. E. and Ferrell, M. E.(1998). "Impulse buying: modeling its precursors", Journal of Retailing ; v. 74 no2 (Summer 1998) pp. 169-91

Ibid and Smith, S. (1987). "External Search Effort: An Investigation Across Several Product Categories," Journal of Consumer Research, 14 (June): pp.83-95.

Beisel, J. L. (1993). Contemporary retailing, Edition 2, New York: Macmillan

Belch, G. E. and Belch, M. A. (1990). Introduction to advertising and promotion management, Boston: Irwin.

Bell, D. et al (2000). "Customer Loyalty & Private Label Products." Oxford Institute of Retail Management (OXIRM), sponsored by KPMG (March 2000). p. 3

Bellenger, D. N. and Korgaonkar, P.K. (1980). "Profiling the Recreational Shopper," Journal of Retailing, 56 (Fall): pp.77-82.

Bellizzi, J. A. et al (1981). "Consumer Perceptions of National, Private, and Generic Brands," Journal of Retailing, 57(Winter): pp.56-70.

Blattberg, R. C. and Neslin, S. A. (1990). Sales Promotion: Concepts, Methods, and Strategies, 1st ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Ibid and Wisniewski, K. J. (1989). "Price-induced patterns of competition". Marketing Science, 18(4), pp.81-100.

Bloch, P. H. et al (1994). "The Shopping Mall as Consumer Habitat," Journal of Retailing, 70 (1): pp.23-42.

Block, T. B. et al (1994). The Dartnell sales promotion handbook, Edition 1, Chicago: Dartnell Corprattion

Bucklin, R. E. and Lattin, J. M. (1991). "A Two-State Model of Purchase Incidence and Brand Choice" Marketing Science; Providence; Winter 1991; Sub Title: the marketing journal of TIMS/ORSA Volume: 10 Issue: 1

Burger, P. C. and Schott, B. (1972). "Can Private Brand Buyers be identified?" Journal of Marketing Research, 9 (May): pp.219-222.

Burnett, J. J. (1988). Promotion management: a strategic approach, St. Paul: West.

Canabal (2002). "Decision making styles of young South Indian consumers: an exploratory study", College Student Journal; v. 36 no1 (Mar. 2002) pp. 12-19

Churchill, G. A. (1996). Basic marketing research, Edition 3, Fort Worth: Dryden Pr.

Cobb, C. J. and Hoyer, D. W. (1986). "Planned Versus Impulse Purchase Behavior," Journal of Retailing, 62 (Winter): pp.384-409.

Cox Direct (1998). 20th annual survey of promotional practices. Largo, FL: Cox Direct.

Cunningham, I. C.M. et al (1982). "Generic Brands Versus National Brands and Store Brands," Journal of Advertising Research, 22(October/November): pp.25-32.

Denitto, E. (1993). "No end to march of private label", Advertising Age, 11 (November 1), pp.5-6.

Donnelley Marketing. (1994). 16th Annual Survey of Promotional Practices. Stamford, CT: Donnelley Marketing.

Dunne, D. and Narasimhan, C. (1999). "The New Appeal of Private Labels". Harvard Business Review, 77(3), pp.41-52.

Economist (1994). "The Mall, the Merrier." August 27, 1994. Vol. 332, Issue 7878, p.59

Engel, J. F., and Blackwell, R. D. (1978). Consumer behavior, Hinsdale, IL: Dryden Pr.

Garretson, J. A., & Burton, S. (1998). An examination of the economic, shopping-related, and psychological profiles of highly coupon and sale prone consumers. In D. Grewal & C. Pechmann (Eds.), Marketing theory and applications-proceedings of the AMA winter educators' conference (pp.9, 36-37). Chicago: American Marketing Association.

Gedenk, K. and Neslin, S. A. (1999). "The role of retail promotion in determining future brand loyalty: Its effect on purchase event feedback". Journal of Retailing, 75(4), pp.433-459.

Farris, P. and Kusum, A. (1992). "Retail Power: Monster or Mouse?" Journal of Retailing, 68(4), pp.351-369.

Feeny, A. et al (1996). "Retailing in Thailand." International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management, Vol. 24 (8), pp.38-44.

Gilbert, D. (1999), Retail marketing management, Edition 1, Harlow: Financial Times

Higie, R. A. et al(1987). "Types and Amount of Word-of-Mouth Communications About Retailers," Journal of Retailing, 63 (Fall), pp.260-78.

Hoch, S.J. (1996). "How should national brands think about private labels?, " Sloan Management Review, Vol. 37 No. 2, pp. 89-102

Inman, J. J. et al (1990). "Promotion Signal: Proxy for a Price Cut?" Journal of Consumer Research, 17 (June), pp.74-81.

Jitpleecheep, S. (2002, March 25). "Discount stores see rapid growth in Bangkok", Mid-Year Economic Review 2002. Retrieved August 29, 2002, from http://www.siamfuture.com/ThaiNews/ThNewsTxt.asp?tid=1208

Kahn, B. E. and Schmittlein, C. D. (1992). "The Relationship Between Purchases Made on Promotion and Shopping Trip Behavior," Journal of Retailing, 68(Fall): pp.294-315.

Ibid and Isen, M. A. (1993). "The Influence of Positive Affect on Variety Seeking Among Safe, Enjoyable Products," Journal of Consumer Research, 20 (September): pp.257-270.

Ibid (1995). "Consumer Variety-seeking Among Goods and Services: An Integrative Review," Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 2 (3): pp.139-148.

Ibid and McAlister, L. (1997). Grocery revolution: The new focus on the consumer. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Kawula, J. M., POPAI/DuPont Study, "What Shoppers want marketing communications", New York; Sep 1984; Volume: 9 Issue: 9 UMI Publication No: 00253113

Kolodinsky, J. (1990). "Time as a Direct Source of Utility: The Case of Price Information Search for Groceries," Journal of Consumer Affairs , 2 (Summer), pp.89-109.

Kotler, P. (1997). Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation, and Control, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Ibid (2000). Marketing management, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall International.

Ibid and Armstrong, G.(1996). Principles of marketing, Edition 7, London: Prentice-Hall International

Krishnmaurthi, L. and Raj, S. P. (1991). "An empirical analysis of the relationship between brand loyalty and consumer price elasticity". Marketing Science, 10(2), pp.172-183.

Kumar, V. and Leone, R. (1988). "Measuring the Effect of Retail Store Promotions on Brand and Store Substitution." Journal of Marketing Research, 25 (May): pp.178-85.

Lal, R. (1990). Manufacturer Trade Deals and Retail Price Promotions, Journal of Marketing Research, 27(4), pp.428-444.

Lattin, J. M. and Bucklin, E. R. (August, 1989). "Reference Effects of Price and Promotion on Brand Choice Behavior," Journal of Marketing Research, 26: pp.299-310.

Li, D. and Gallup, M. A. (1995). "In Search of the Chinese Consumer," Chinese Business Review, 22(Sep/Oct), pp.19-23.

Lichtenstein, D. R. et al (1993). "Price perceptions and consumer shopping behavior: A field study", Journal of Marketing Research, 30(May), pp.234-45.

Ibid and Peter H. Bloch (1988). "Correlates of Price Acceptability," Journal of Consumer Research, 15 (2), September. pp.243-252

Ibid and Netemeyer, G. R. (1995). "Assessing the Domain Specificity of Deal Proneness: A Field Study," Journal of Consumer Research, 22(December): pp.314-326.

Lumpkin, J. R. et al (1986). "Shopping Patterns of the Rural Consumer: Exploring the Relationship Between Shopping Orientations and Outshopping," Journal of Business Research, 14 (1), February. pp.63-82.

Marketing News. "Quality Creates Consumer Loyalty for Private Labels" Chicago; Apr 20, 1987 Volume: 21 Issue: 8

Marketing News. (1995). "Price, Quality Important for Private Labels Goods", Marketing News, January 2: 24.

Mason, J. B. and Mayer, M. L. (1987). Modern retailing: theory and practice, Edition 4, Plano, TX: Business

McDaniel, C. and Gates, R. (2001). Marketing research essentials, Edition 3, Cincinnati, OH: South-Western

McGoldrick, P.J. (1984). "Grocery generics - an extension of the private label concept", European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 18 No. 1, pp. 5-24.

McAlister, L and Pessemier, E. (1982). "Variety-Seeking Behavior: An Interdisplinary Review," Journal of Consumer Research, 9(December): pp.311-322

Messinger, P. R., and Narasimhan, C. (1995). "Has Power Shifted in the Grocery Channel?" Marketing Science, 14(2), pp.189-223.

Mogelonsky, M. (1995). "When Stores Become Brands". American Demographics, 17 (2), pp.32-38.

Montgomery, D. B. (1971), "Consumer Characteristics Associated with Dealing: An Empirical Example," Journal of Marketing Research, 8 (February), pp.118-120

Price, L. L. et al (1988). "Couponing Behaviors of the Market Maven: Profile of a Super Couponer," Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 15

Progressive Grocer. (1987). "54th Annual Report of the Grocery Industry". Stamford, CT: MacLean Hunter Media, Inc., April.

Quelch, J. and Harding, D. (1996). "Brands versus private labels: Fighting to win", Harvard Business Review, 74(1), pp.99-111.

Raju, P.S. (1980). "Optimum Stimulation Level: Its Relationship to Personality, Demographics, and Exploratory Behavior," Journal of Consumer Research, 7 (December): pp.272-282.

Read, D. and Loewenstein, G. (1995). "Diversification Bias: Explaining the Discrepancy in Variety Seeking Between Combined and Separated Choices," Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied, 1: pp.34-49.

Richardson, P. S. et al (1994). "Extrinsic and Intrinsic Cue Effects on Perceptions of Store Brand Quality," Journal of Marketing, 58(October): pp.28-36.

Rossiter, J. R. (1987), "Advertising and promotion management", New York: McGraw-Hill

Rothe, J. T. and Lamont, M. L. (1973). "Purchase Behavior and Brand Choice Determinants," Journal of Retailing, 49 (3): pp.19-33.

Rungnirattisai, S. (2002, May 24). "Tesco's new house brands seek lower in income buyers" Mid-Year Economic Review 2002. Retrieved August 29, 2002, from http://www.siamfuture.com/ThaiNews/ThNewsTxt.asp?tid=1286

Schiffman, L. G. and Kanuk, L. L. (1994), Consumer behavior, London: Prentice-Hall International

Schutte, T.R. (1969). "The semantics of branding", Journal of Marketing, Vol. 3, April, pp. 5-11.

Sethuraman, R. and Mittelstaedt, J. (1992). "Coupons and private labels: A cross-category analysis of grocery products," Psychology & Marketing, 9(6), pp.487-500.

Ibid and Raju, J. S and Dhar, S (1995) "The Introduction and Performance of Store Brands", Management Science", 41(6), pp.957-978.

Ibid and Cole, C. (1997), "Why Do Consumers Pay More for National Brands Than for Store Brands?" Marketing Science Institute Working Paper pp.97-126. Cambridge, MA: Marketing Science Institute.

Ibid, V. Srinivsan and Kim, D. (1999), "Asymmetric and Neighborhood Cross Price Effects: Some Empirical Generalizations," Marketing Science, 18(1), pp.23-41.

Shannon, R. and Lockshin, L.(2002), "Private Label Brands in Thailand – Enough Face to Survive or Thrive"

Shim, S. and Gehrt, C. K. (1996). "Hispanic and Native American Adolescents: An Exploratory Study of Their Approach to Shopping," Journal of Retailing, 72, 3:pp.307-324.

Simonson, I. (1990). "The Effect of Purchase Quantity and Timing on Variety-seeking Behavior," Journal of Marketing Research, 27 (May): pp.150-162.

Ibid and Winer, S. R. (1992). "The Influence of Purchase Quantity and Display Format on Consumer Preference for Variety," Journal of Consumer Research, 19 (June): pp.133-138.

Skinner, S. J. (1994). Marketing, Edition 2, Boston: Houghton Mifflin

Steenkamp et al (1992). "The Role of Optimum Stimulation Level in Exploratory Consumer Research," Journal of Consumer Research, 19(December): pp.434-448.

Sundel, H. H. (1974). "An Experimental Analysis of Consumer Attitudes Towards Grocery Products Under Manufacturer's Brands, Nationally Distributed Private Brands, and Locally Distributed Private Brands". Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Saint Louis University, St. Louis, Missouri.

Thompson, S. (1999). "The new private enterprise". Brandweek, May 3, pp.36-48.

Tull, D. S. and Hawkins, Del I. (1987), Marketing research: measurement and method : a text with cases, Edition 4, New York : Macmillan

Wells, W. and Prensky, D. (1996). Consumer behavior, Edition 1, New York: J. Wiley

Wellman, D. (1997). "Souping up private label." Supermarket Business, 52(October), pp.13-20.

Westbrook, R. A. and Black, C. W. (1985). "A Motivation-Based Shopper Typology," Journal of Retailing, 61 (Spring): pp.78-103.

Wigglesworth, E.F. and Brotan, J. (1966). "Retailing Trends in Thailand." <u>Journal of</u> <u>Retailing</u>, Summer 1996. pp. 41-51.

http://www.allaboutbranding.com

http://www. aim.be/faqs/faqs_main.html

http://www.bigc.co.th/en/profile Retrieved May 25, 2002.

http://www.siamfuture.com/RetailBusCenter/RetailersCenter/Superstore/Superstore.asp

Retrieved August 29, 2002

http://www.tescolotus.com Retrieved May 25, 2002.

Appendix A

Questionnaire

The questionnaire is a part of research project conducted for graduating with Master's Degree in Business Administration from The Assumtion University, Bangkok, Thailand. The researcher is conducting research on the topic "A comparative study of uses of store brand and national brand promotions" that is related to your shopping behavior. The researcher seeks your cooperation by providing responses to questionnaire included in the queationnaire. Your responses will be kept completely confidential.

Shopping behavior is defined as the activities directly involved in obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services of shoppers (Engel, Miniard, and Blackwell 1993).

Thank You

Miss Luksamee P.

Please give your opinion about following statement by following scale

1 = Strongly disagree   2 = Disagree   3 = Neutral   4 = Agree   5 = Strongly agree

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Store Brand Usage Scale					
1. I buy store brands					
2. I look for store brands when I go shopping					
3. My shopping carts contain store brands for several products.					
Out-of-Store National Brand Promotion Usage Scale					
4. I clip coupons for national brands from newspapers and magazines.					
5. I take along coupons for national brands and use them when I go shopping.					
6. I scan store flyers for sales on national brands before going shopping					
7. I use store flyers to decide what to buy and where to shop.					
In-Store National Brand Promotion Usage Scale.					
8. I am influenced by special displays of national brands in the store					

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
9. I use a coupon if I see it on a package or in the store.					
10. I pick up and use the store flyer when I am shopping in the store					
11. I take advantage of specials on national brands in the store.					
Psychographic Characteristics					
Price Consciousness					
12. I compare prices of at least a few brands before I choose one					
13. I find myself checking the prices even for small items					
14. It is important to me to get the best price for the products I buy					
Quality Consciousness					
15. I will not give up high quality for a lower					
16. I always buy the best					
17. It is important to me to buy high-quality products					
Shopping Enjoyment					
18. Shopping is enjoyable experience					
19. Shopping is learning experience					
Variety Seeking					
20. If I use the same brands over and over again, I get tired of them					
21. I buy different brands to get some variety					
Impulsiveness					
22. I often find myself buying products on impulse in the grocery store					
23. I often make an unplanned purchase when the urge strikes me					

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Mavenism					
24. I am somewhat of an expert when it comes to shopping					
25. People think of me as a good source of shopping information					
26. I enjoy giving people tips on shopping					
Brand Loyalty					
27. I prefer one brand of most products I buy					
28. I am willing to make an effort to search for my favorite brand					
29. Usually, I care a lot about which particular grocery brand I buy					

Personal Data

1. Gender

    Male   Female

2. Age

    18- 20 years old   21-30 years old

    31-40 years old   More than 40 years old

3. Occupation

    Business owner

    Government officer

    State enterprise employee

    Private company employee

    Housewife

    Student

    Unemployed

4. Education Level

    Below Bachelor's Degree

    Bachelor's Degree

    Higher than Bachelor's Degree

5. Monthly Income

    Less than 15,000 Baht   15,001-25,000 Baht

    25,001-35,000 Baht   35,001 and above

แบบสอบถาม

แบบสอบถามนี้เป็นส่วนของวิทยานิพนธ์ของนักศึกษาปริญญาโท มหาวิทยาลัยอัสสัมชัญ เพื่อศึกษาความ
สัมพันธ์ระหว่างลักษณะนิสัยของผู้บริโภค และพฤติกรรมผู้บริโภคในการซื้อสินค้าเฮ้าส์แบรนด์ และสินค้า เน
ชั่นแนลแบรนด์ภายใต้กิจกรรมส่งเสริมการขาย ข้อมูลที่ได้จากแบบสอบถามจะใช้เพื่อประโยชน์ทางการ
ศึกษาเท่านั้น ขอขอบคุณมากที่ให้ความร่วมมือ

ลักษมี ประสันนาการ

กรุณาให้ความเห็นเกี่ยวกับประโยคข้างล่างตามสเกลต่อไปนี้

1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง   2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย   3 = เฉยๆ   4 = เห็นด้วย   5 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	เห็นด้วย	เฉยๆ	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่าง
1. ฉันซื้อสินค้าเฮ้าส์แบรนด์					
2. ฉันมองหาสินค้าเฮ้าส์แบรนด์เมื่อฉันไปชอปปิ้ง					
3. รถเข็นฉันมีสินค้าหลายอย่างที่เป็นสินค้าเฮ้าส์แบรนด์					
4. ฉันตัดคูปองส่งเสริมการขายสำหรับสินค้าเนชั่นแนลแบรนด์จากหนังสือพิมพ์และนิตยสาร					
5. เมื่อฉันไปชอปปิ้งฉันจะนำคูปองส่งเสริมการขายสำหรับสินค้าเนชั่นแนลแบรนด์ไปใช้ด้วย					
6. ฉันตรวจสอบรายการลดราคาของสินค้าเนชั่นแนลแบรนด์จากแผ่นพับก่อนไปชอปปิ้ง					
7. ฉันใช้ข้อมูลในแผ่นพับในการตัดสินใจว่าจะซื้ออะไร และซื้อที่ไหน					

	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	เห็นด้วย	เฉยๆ	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่าง
8. ซุ้มแสดงสินค้าของสินค้าเนชั่นแนลแบรนด์ที่จัดขึ้นเพื่อส่งเสริมการขาย มีอิทธิพลต่อการเลือกซื้อสินค้า					
9. ถ้าฉันเห็นคูปองส่งเสริมการขายบนบรรจุภัณฑ์ ฉันจะตัดสินใจซื้อ					
10. เมื่อฉันกำลังชอปปิ้งในห้าง ฉันจะหยิบแผ่นพับเพื่อเป็นข้อมูลในการเลือกซื้อ					
11. ฉันจะรับข้อเสนอพิเศษของรายการส่งเสริมการขายภายในห้างของสินค้าเนชั่นแนลแบรนด์					
12. ก่อนจะซื้อของ ฉันจะเทียบราคาสินค้าอย่างน้อย 2-3 ยี่ห้อ					
13. ฉันมักจะตรวจสอบราคาสินค้าเสมอ แม้กระทั่งสินค้าชิ้นเล็ก ๆ					
14. สำหรับการซื้อของ การได้ราคาที่ดีที่สุด เป็นสิ่งสำคัญต่อฉัน					
15. ฉันไม่ละทิ้งสินค้าที่มีคุณภาพสูง เพื่อราคาที่ต่ำกว่า					
16. ฉันซื้อสินค้าที่ดีที่สุดเสมอ					
17. การซื้อสินค้าที่มีคุณภาพสูงเป็นสิ่งจำเป็นสำหรับฉัน					
18. การชอปปิ้งเป็นประสบการณ์ที่สนุกสนาน					
19. การชอปปิ้งเป็นประสบการณ์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการเรียนรู้					
20. ฉันจะรู้สึกเบื่อ ถ้าฉันใช้สินค้ายี่ห้อเดิมซ้ำกันหลาย ๆ ครั้ง					

	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	เห็นด้วย	เฉยๆ	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่าง
21. ฉันซื้อสินค้าหลาย ๆ ยี่ห้อ เพื่อให้เกิดความหลากหลาย					
22. ฉันมักจะพบว่าตัวเองซื้อสินค้าโดยไม่มีการวางแผนล่วงหน้า					
23. ฉันมักจะตัดสินใจซื้อสินค้าอย่างกระทันหันเมื่อมีสิ่งมากระตุ้น					
24. ฉันกลายเป็นคนเชี่ยวชาญเมื่อเวลาแห่งการ ชอปปิ้ง มาถึง					
25. คนอื่นมองว่าฉันเป็นแหล่งข้อมูลที่ดีสำหรับการชอปปิ้ง					
26. ฉันสนุกกับการให้เคล็ดลับในการชอปปิ้งกับคนอื่น					
27. ฉันมักจะซื้อสินค้ายี่ห้อเดิม					
28. ฉันเต็มใจที่จะพยายามค้นหายี่ห้อที่ฉันชอบ					
29. ฉันให้ความสนใจมากเกี่ยวกับยี่ห้อที่ฉันจะซื้อ					

ข้อมูลส่วนตัว

1. เพศ

       ชาย   หญิง

2. อายุ

       18 -20 ปี   21-30 ปี

       31-40 ปี   มากกว่า 40 ปี

3. อาชีพ

       ธุรกิจส่วนตัว

       รับราชการ

       พนักงานรัฐวิสาหกิจ

       พนักงานบริษัทเอกชน

       แม่บ้าน

       นักเรียน/นักศึกษา

       ไม่ได้ทำงาน

       อื่นๆ

4. ระดับการศึกษา

       ต่ำกว่าปริญญาตรี

       ปริญญาตรี

       สูงกว่าปริญญาตรี

5. รายได้ต่อเดือน

       น้อยกว่า 15,000 บาท   15,001-25,000 บาท

       25,001-35,000 บาท   มากกว่า 35,001 บาท

Appendix B

Reliability

****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

—

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1. STORE1   I buy store brands
2. STORE2   I look for store brands when I go shopping
3. STORE3   My shopping cart contains store brands for several products.

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   40.0   N of Items = 3

Alpha =   .9360

Reliability

****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

—

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1. OUTSTORE1   I clip coupons for national brands from newspapers and magazines.
2. OUTSTORE2   I take along coupons for national brands and use them when I go shopping.
3. OUTSTORE3   I scan store flyers for sales on national brands before going shopping
4. OUTSTORE4   I use store flyers to decide what to buy and where to shop.

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   40.0   N of Items = 4

Alpha =   .7071

Reliability

****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis *****

1

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1. INSTORE1   I am influenced by special displays of national brands in the store.
2. INSTORE2   I use a coupon if I see it on a package or in the store.
3. INSTORE3   I pick up and use the store flyer when I am shopping in the store
4. INSTORE4   I take advantage of specials on national brands in the store.

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   40.0   N of Items = 4

Alpha =   .7998

Reliability
****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

—

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1. PRICE1   I compare prices of at least a few brands before I choose one
2. PRICE2   I find myself checking the prices even for small items
3. PRICE3   It is important to me to get the best price for the products I buy

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   40.0   N of Items = 3

Alpha =   .8816

Reliability
****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

~

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1. QUALITY1   I will not give up high quality for a lower price
2. QUALITY2   I always buy the best

3.   QUALITY3   It is important to me to buy high-quality products

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   40.0   N of Items = 3

Alpha =   .9573

Reliability
****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

—

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1.   SHOPPI1   Shopping is enjoyable experience
2.   SHOPPI2   Shopping is learning experience

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   40.0   N of Items = 2

Alpha =   .8323

Reliability
****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

—

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1.   VARIETY1   If I use the same brands over and over again, I get tired of them
2.   VARIETY2   I buy different brands to get some variety

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   40.0   N of Items = 2
Alpha =   .7372

3

Reliability

****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

—

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

1.	IMPULSE1	I often find myself buying products on impulse in the grocery store
2.	IMPULSE2	I often make an unplanned purchase when the urge strikes me

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   40.0   N of Items = 2

Alpha =   .7186

Reliability

****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

—

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

1.	MAVEN1	I am somewhat of an expert when it comes to shopping
2.	MAVEN2	People think of me as a good source of shopping information
3.	MAVEN3	I enjoy giving people tips on shopping

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   40.0   N of Items = 3

Alpha =   .8122

Reliability

****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

1. BRAND1   I prefer one brand of most products I buy
2. BRAND2   I am willing to make an effort to search for my favorite brand
3. BRAND3   Usually, I care a lot about which particular grocery brand I buy

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   40.0   N of Items = 3

Alpha =   .9349

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMSTOR1	SUMPRIC1
Spearman's rho	SUMSTOR1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.440**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMPRIC1	Correlation Coefficient	.440**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMPRIC1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMPRIC1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.403**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	.403**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMPRIC1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMPRIC1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.377**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	.377**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMSTOR1	SUMQUAL1
Spearman's rho	SUMSTOR1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.608**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMQUAL1	Correlation Coefficient	-.608**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMQUAL1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMQUAL1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.167*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.018
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	-.167*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.018	.
		N	200	200

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMQUAL1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMQUAL1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.002
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.980
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	-.002	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.980	.
		N	200	200

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMOUT1	SUMSHOP1
Spearman's rho	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.145*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.040
		N	200	200
	SUMSHOP1	Correlation Coefficient	.145*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.040	.
		N	200	200

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMSHOP1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMSHOP1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.458**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	.458**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMSTOR1	SUMVARI1
Spearman's rho	SUMSTOR1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.357**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMVARI1	Correlation Coefficient	-.357**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMVARI1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMVARI1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.407**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	.407**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMVARI1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMVARI1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.180*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.011
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	.180*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.
		N	200	200

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMIMPU1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMIMPU1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.530**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	.530**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMIMPU1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMIMPU1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.402**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	-.402**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMMAVE1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMMAVE1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.201**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.004
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	-.201**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMMAVE1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMMAVE1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.737**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	.737**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMSTOR1	SUMBRAN1
Spearman's rho	SUMSTOR1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.499**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMBRAN1	Correlation Coefficient	-.499**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMBRAN1	SUMINST1
Spearman's rho	SUMBRAN1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.509**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMINST1	Correlation Coefficient	-.509**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations

			SUMBRAN1	SUMOUT1
Spearman's rho	SUMBRAN1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.398**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	200	200
	SUMOUT1	Correlation Coefficient	.398**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	200	200

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

Frequencies

Statistics

Gender

N	Valid	200
	Missing	0
Mode		2.00

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	80	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Female	120	60.0	60.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

Frequencies

Statistics

Age

N	Valid	200
	Missing	0
Mode		4.00

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-20 years old	8	4.0	4.0	4.0
	21-30 years old	28	14.0	14.0	18.0
	31-40 years old	72	36.0	36.0	54.0
	More than 40 years old	92	46.0	46.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

Frequencies

Statistics

Education Level

N	Valid	200
	Missing	0
Mode		2.00

Education Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below Bachelor's Degree	60	30.0	30.0	30.0
	Bachelor's Degree	103	51.5	51.5	81.5
	Higher than Bachelor's Degree	37	18.5	18.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

Frequencies

Statistics

Occupation

N	Valid	200
	Missing	0
Mode		4.00

Occupation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Business Owner	35	17.5	17.5	17.5
	Goverment Officer	30	15.0	15.0	32.5
	State enterprise employee	19	9.5	9.5	42.0
	Private company employee	79	39.5	39.5	81.5
	Housewife	17	8.5	8.5	90.0
	Student	12	6.0	6.0	96.0
	Unemployed	2	1.0	1.0	97.0
	others	6	3.0	3.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

Frequencies

Statistics

Monthly Income

N	Valid	200
	Missing	0
Mode		2.00

Monthly Income

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 15,000 baht	30	15.0	15.0	15.0
	15,001-25,000 baht	75	37.5	37.5	52.5
	25,001-35,000 baht	49	24.5	24.5	77.0
	35,001 and above	46	23.0	23.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	