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SALES PROMOTIONS EFFECTS ON BRAND LOYALTY

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SALES PROMOTIONS EFFECTS ON BRAND LOYALTY

By
Marifé Méndez

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship
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A Dissertation
entitled


SALES PROMOTIONS EFFECTS ON BRAND LOYALTY

By


Marifé Méndez

We hereby certify that this Dissertation submitted by Marifé Méndez conforms to acceptable standards, and as such is fully adequate in scope and quality. It is therefore approved as the fulfillment of the Dissertation requirements for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration.


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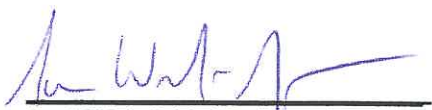
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CERTIFICATION STATEMENT

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ABSTRACT

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by

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In this dissertation the field of promotion marketing was examined by studying the impact of sale promotions on brand loyalty. More specifically, for products with different levels of involvement, the study assessed how effective different nonmonetary and monetary promotions are at retaining brand loyalty.

Two research questions were posed: (a) Will the effect of nonmonetary and monetary promotions on brand loyalty vary according to the extent of hedonism or utilitarian benefits for low and high involvement products? (b) Will the preference for nonmonetary or monetary promotions on brand loyalty have a greater or lesser effect for low and high involvement products? It was theorized that the effect of nonmonetary and monetary promotions on brand loyalty would vary according to the extent of hedonism or utilitarian benefits for low and high involvement products (H1_a and H2_a). The second set of hypotheses (H2_a and H2_b) posited that preference for nonmonetary promotions would have a greater on brand loyalty for both high and low involvement products.

A questionnaire consisting of 36 questions provided the data that was collected from 114 subjects. Two product categories were chosen for the study: deodorant (high involvement) and laundry detergent (low involvement). For each product category, regression was used to explore the relationship between the indirect variables and the dependent variable — brand loyalty. The results did not show support for any of the hypotheses; yet, they offer valuable information on sales promotions.

Five important findings are discussed:

1. Monetary promotions are perceived to provide more utilitarian benefits.
2. Nonmonetary promotions seem to provide more utilitarian benefits than hedonic benefits.
3. “Preference for Gifts,” a nonmonetary promotion, could affect negatively brand loyalty.
4. “Buy 2 get 20% off,” a monetary promotion, could have a positive impact on brand loyalty.
5. Involvement has a positive relationship with brand loyalty.

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I conclude with some words from a famous Catalán Spanish singer and writer, Joan Manuel Serrat, which helped me become centered in this journey. “*Caminante no hay camino, se hace camino al andar.*” What these words mean to me is that in life we have to keep walking, even when we cannot find a road ahead for us to continue, because sometimes it is up to us to build the road along the way.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Why do people buy what they buy? To what extent do environmental forces influence the thought process? Numerous variables have been proposed to describe the relationship between sales promotions and consumer buying behavior. The consumption process appears to begin with an external stimulus that strikes the consumer's information processing (Teunter, 2002).

Sales promotions, such as coupons, rebates, premiums, and samples, typically are viewed as temporary incentives that stimulate the sales of a product or service. There are different ways to classify sales promotions; the most basic is to classify them between trade promotions and consumer promotions.

Consumer promotions are directed at the consumer and are designed to induce them to purchase the marketer's brand. Trade promotions are designed to motivate distributors and retailers to carry a product and make an extra effort to push it to their customers (Belch & Belch, 2008). Most marketing programs include both trade and consumer promotions. The difference between one and the other relies primarily on who is targeted in the marketing channel: the consumer or the retailer.

Consumer promotions can be considered as pull promotions in that they directly entice the consumer to purchase the product, thereby pulling the brand through the channel. Trade promotions can be considered as push promotions in that they provide incentives for the retailer to offer special deals and push the product through the channel. (Raghubir, Inman, & Grande, 2004, p. 24)

While manufacturers care most about their brand performance, the retailers are interested in individual brands that will offer higher profit margins and are more effective at driving store performance or attracting and retaining high-value customers.

Manufacturers' tools include brand advertising, public relations, sales force incentives, and consumer and trade promotions (Ailawadi, Beauchamp, Donthu, Gauri, & Shankar, 2009).

Consumer sales promotions take many forms; they can be classified as nonmonetary and monetary promotions. Monetary promotions refer to monetary incentives, such as coupons, rebates, and discounts, while nonmonetary promotions refer to samples, premiums, displays, sweepstakes, and contests. The latter are less likely to be compared with the original price of the product and be perceived as a separate gain or reward for a purchase.

Some studies imply that consumers respond to sales promotions because of the positive benefits they provide (Chandon, Wansink, & Laurent, 2000; Luk & Yip, 2008). A common classification of customers' benefits is to distinguish between utilitarian and hedonic benefits. Both nonmonetary and monetary promotions provide consumers with an array of utilitarian and hedonic benefits (Luk & Yip, 2008).

Utilitarian benefits are primarily instrumental, functional, and cognitive; they provide customer value by being a means to an end. Hedonic benefits are non-instrumental, experiential, and affective; they are appreciated for their own sake, without further regard to their practical purposes. (Chandon et al., 2000, p. 66)

Purpose of the Study

Despite the fact that promotion marketing has become the most predominant strategy in marketing of consumer packed goods, accounting for almost a quarter of the marketing budget of consumer product companies (Raghubir et al., 2004), relatively less research attention has been given to the investigation of the consequences of sales promotions for brand preference after promotions have ended (DelVecchio, Henard, & Freling, 2006). Also, as stated by Álvarez-Alvárez and Vázquez-Casielles (2005), there is a lack of research on nonmonetary promotions, as most research emphasizes exclusively on behavioral responses to price promotions and their utilitarian benefits.

Research Problem and Sub-problems

Given such limitations, a need for new empirical studies to evaluate the relationship between sales promotions and brand loyalty exists. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to establish the impact of different types of nonmonetary and monetary promotions on brand loyalty and its relationship to product involvement. The following sub-problems are identified:

1. Will the effect of nonmonetary and monetary promotions on brand loyalty vary according to the extent of hedonism or utilitarian benefits for low and high involvement products?
2. Will the preference for monetary or nonmonetary promotions have a greater or lesser effect on brand loyalty for low and high involvement products?

Background and Justification

The sales promotion industry has evolved tremendously within the past 30 years. “Traditional pull marketing involving advertising directly to consumers has given way to

more targeted consumer promotions” (Messinger & Narasimhan, 1995, p. 202). The 5th Annual State of the Promotion Industry, presented by the Promotion Marketing Association (PMA) on June 2003, confirmed the new trend:

The year 2001 and 2002 changed the pace of marketing history, including promotion. In 2001 advertising experienced its greatest decline (-6.5%) since the 1930's. Estimated promotion expenditures for 2001, while still in the “plus column” reflect the slowest rate of growth (+2%) since this report was developed in 1975. Historically, there may be a tendency to blame 2001 declines on the tragedies of “9/11”, but in fact advertising was already down approximately 6% in the first half of 2001, and cut backs in promotion also had become apparent by mid-year. The advertising and promotion industry reversed their status in 2002, though promotion growth (+5%) was approximately twice that of advertising (+2.3%). (p. 5)

In 2005, the Trade Promotion report showed that between 1997 and 2004, promotion accounted for 75% of marketing expenditures for U.S. packaged goods manufacturers, while roughly 25% went to advertising.

Among the possible reasons for the increase in the use of sales promotions are lack of product differentiation and little growth in primary demand for many consumer products (Papatla & Krishnamurthi, 1996). These two situations make it difficult for advertising to influence consumers. According to Kahn and McAlister (1997), it has become almost impossible to build brand awareness and brand loyalty solely with advertising. On the other hand, promotions are better influencers because they bring the

product to the attention of the consumer much more effectively than advertising (Papatla & Krishnamurthi, 1996).

Parallel to the increasing interest of marketers on integrating different types of sales promotions to their marketing plans, there also has been a higher demand for studies in the field of promotion marketing. Still, the focus on the type of studies needed was not clear. Chandon (1995) stated, “scholars are not certain whether we must study sales promotions separately, as it is currently the case for price promotions, or if it makes sense to speak of sales promotions as a whole” (p. 420).

Most sales promotion research studies put too much emphasis on monetary promotions (Bawa & Shoemaker, 1987; Blattberg, Eppen, & Lieberman, 1981; Blattberg & Neslin, 1990; Diamond, 1990; Diamond & Campbell, 1989; Dickson & Sawyer, 1990; Hunt & Keaveney, 1994; Irons, Little, & Klein, 1983). Luk and Yip (2008) conducted an empirical study that tested the effect of brand trust dimensions, brand reliability, and brand intentions through the moderation effects of monetary sales promotions. They concluded, “ideally, nonmonetary sale promotions should be considered. This approach enables the researchers to investigate whether monetary or nonmonetary promotions will have greater moderation impact on the following antecedents of brand loyalty: brand trust and brand buying behavior” (Luk & Yip, 2008, p. 462). It was not until the late 1990s that studies on promotion marketing started to pay attention to nonmonetary sales promotions (Hardesty & Bearden, 2003; Liao, 2006; Palazón-Vidal & Delgado-Ballester, 2005; Teunter, 2002).

In addition to the scarce research on nonmonetary sales promotions, many studies share other limitations. For example, Diamond and Johnson (1990) discussed a tendency

for sales promotions research to be hindered by the absence of a theoretical approach. They criticized what they termed “the very narrow categorization” of promotions that only dealt with a single type of promotion, such as couponing, and went on to say that “behavioral theorists have tended to either confine empirical work in this area to one type of promotion at a time or select promotions theoretically” (Diamond & Johnson, 1990, p. 494).

Finally there are conflicting results over the long-term effects of consumer sales promotions (Teunter, 2002; Tietje, 1999). This, in part, can be attributed to the fact that most research is on monetary promotions. For example, Palazón-Vidal and Delgado-Ballester (2005) stated that monetary promotions are less effective in building brand knowledge because of their emphasis on only one brand association—price. Luk and Yip (2008) concluded, “the buying behavior of less committed consumers is mainly promotion driven” (p. 456) and are mostly driven by economic incentives.

Still, there is new empirical research that shows promotion activities have indirect effects on brand loyalty through customer satisfaction, which in turn has direct effects on brand loyalty (Li-xin & Shou-Lian, 2010). Nevertheless, most researchers claim that sales promotions yield negative effects, including price sensitivity (Chandon et al., 2000; Neslin, 2002), brand switching, and lower repeat purchase rates (Gupta, 1998). The limitations of previous research and inconsistent findings reveal there is a need for new empirical research that includes both nonmonetary and monetary promotions and their impact on long-term effects, such as brand loyalty.

Definition of Terms

Brand loyalty—The dictionary of the American Marketing Association (2011) available at their website provides two definitions. The first definition is based on a consumer behavior perspective; that is, the degree to which a consumer consistently purchases the same brand within a product class. The other definition is based on a sales promotion perspective. “The situation in which a consumer generally buys the same manufacturer-originated product or service repeatedly over time rather than buying from multiple suppliers within the category” (American Marketing Association, 2011)

Consumer involvement—depends on the degree of personal relevance that the product holds for the consumer. It is usually classified between high or low. High involvement purchases are those that are very important to the consumer and are usually associated to high levels of perceived risk. On the other hand, low-involvement purchases are not very important to the consumer, hold little relevance, and have little perceived risk (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009).

Contests—a promotion whereby consumers compete for prizes or money on the basis of skill or ability. Winners are determined by judging the entries or ascertaining which entry comes closest to some predetermined criteria (Belch & Belch, 2008).

Hedonic benefit—are noninstrumental, experiential, and affective; they are appreciated for their own sake, without further regard to their practical purpose (Chandon et al., 2000). “Resulting from sensations derived from the experience of using products” (Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003, p. 310).

Monetary promotions—refer to monetary incentives, such as coupons, rebates, and discounts (Chandon et al., 2000).

Nonmonetary promotions—refer to samples, premiums, displays, sweepstakes, and contests (Chandon et al., 2000).

Premiums—an offer of an item of merchandise or service, either free or at a low price, that is used as an extra incentive for purchasers (Belch & Belch, 2008).

Product involvement—commonly defined as a consumer’s enduring perception of the importance of the product category based on the consumer’s inherent needs, values, and interests (e.g., De Wulf, Odekerken-Schröder, & Lacobucci, 2001; Mittal, 1995).

Purchase decision—The act of purchasing encompasses a series of decisions: whether to buy or not, when to buy, what to buy, where to buy, and how to pay. Often, purchases are fully planned in the sense that there is intention to purchase both product and brand. However, many purchases are not fully planned (so-called unplanned purchases), in which case the purchase intention is not consciously articulated (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 2005).

Even though a purchase decision may have been made, not all purchase intentions are fulfilled. This is the case when the consumer aborts the process and decides not to buy (Kotler & Keller, 2011)

Sampling—“consists of offering prospects the opportunity to try a product before making a buying decision” (Duncan, 2004, p. 471).

Sweepstakes—“a form of sales promotions that offers prizes based on a chance drawing of entrants’ names” (Duncan, 2004, p. 473). Winners are determined purely by chance. Sweepstakes cannot require a proof of purchase as a condition for entry (Belch & Belch, 2008).

Utilitarian benefits—“derived from functions performed by products” (Voss et al., 2003, p. 310). Are primarily instrumental, functional, and cognitive; they provide customer value by being a means to an end (Chandon et al., 2000)

Delimitations

The population of the proposed study will be narrowed to consumers in Puerto Rico. Although the results from this study could provide a valuable contribution to cross-national marketing studies by comparing how Puerto Ricans differ from other cultural groups, the proposed study will not discuss such implications.

Brand loyalty—the dependent variable of the proposed study—is a multidimensional construct, meaning that it is composed of different variables, such as trust, reliance, and satisfaction. The antecedents of brand loyalty will not be detailed in this study, as it will focus exclusively on the relationship between different types of sales promotions and brand loyalty.

The categories of products chosen for the study are limited to products that are easily found at any grocery store, pharmacy, or discount store. Also, the two product categories chosen are considered to be very basic products that should be available in almost any household.

Although this study evaluates the relationship between nonmonetary and monetary promotions with brand loyalty, it is important to differentiate that this study will not be including long-term sales promotions. These types of promotions, that is, loyalty programs, frequent flyer miles, and so forth, can be considered both nonmonetary and monetary and, as such, need to be treated differently.

Assumptions

Closely related to the topic of brand loyalty is consumer involvement. The level of involvement has to do with the degree of personal relevance that a product purchase has to the consumer. According to Nkwocha, Bao, Johnson, and Brotspies (2005), involvement results from the interaction of individuals with products. Schiffman and Kanuk (2009) provided the following example: “an automobile and a dandruff shampoo both may represent high-involvement purchases; the automobile because of high perceived financial risk, the shampoo because of high perceived social risk” (p. 184). It is assumed that the product categories chosen for the study represent different levels of consumer involvement.

With regards to the methodology of this study, it is assumed that instruments used for brand loyalty, involvement, and utilitarian/hedonic benefits of sales promotions are reliable measures of the variables of this study. It is also assumed that respondents answered all questions honestly. Finally, it is assumed that the statistical methods of analysis chosen were appropriate.

Significance of the Study

Extensive literature searches revealed little research exists in the area of nonmonetary sales promotions and brand loyalty. This research is of significance to the domain of marketing, as it extends the knowledge base that currently exists in the field of promotion marketing; in specific, the knowledge between different types of sales promotions, brand loyalty, and involvement.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. Chapter I presents an overview of the research problem that includes background and justification, definition of key terms related to the study, delimitations, assumptions, and the significance of the study. Chapter II is the theoretical context of the dissertation that links the proposed study with previous research literature in this area. The review includes literature of behavioral learning theories, sales promotion studies, and brand loyalty. Chapter II concludes with the hypotheses that will be tested. Chapter III describes the research methodology. It includes a description of the population, sampling design and method, instruments, and methods of analysis that will be utilized. Chapter IV presents the results of the study, and Chapter V presents the conclusions and implications for practitioners.

Chapter II

Review of Literature

Introduction

This chapter begins with a description of behavioral learning theory, followed by a review of the literature pertaining to consumer sales promotions and brand loyalty. Because little research exists in the area of nonmonetary sales promotions effects on brand loyalty, extensive literature searches revealed primarily older studies. These are nevertheless reviewed, cited, and supplemented with more current investigations.

Theoretical Basis: Behavioral Learning Theory

Many sales promotion studies have been classified as consumer research or consumer behavior studies. The main emphasis has been on the identification of frequent and infrequent users of promotions (Chandon, 1995). Theory-oriented research has used the perceived risk theory, the economic theory, attribution theory, and psychographics as base theories to identify the possible reasoning behind the level of frequency (usage) of sales promotions. The proposed research applies theoretical concepts from behavior learning theory in an effort to explain purchase behavior, the relationship between different types of sales promotions, and brand loyalty. How different types of sales promotions relate differently to brand loyalty will be investigated.

The term *behaviorism* is rooted in several disciplines—psychology, philosophy, and biology. According to behaviorists, learning can be defined as a relatively permanent change in behavior brought about as a result of experience or practice; thus learning is the result of the application of consequences (Huitt & Hummel, 2006). Behaviorism offers a comprehensive view of learning, and thus, an explanation for behavior. “One of the

central ideas of behaviorism is that people are essentially biological organisms, and like other biological organisms, innately capable of responding to the environment in which they live” (Slife & Williams, 1995, p. 25).

Behaviorism consists primarily of three elements: stimuli, responses, and reinforcements. The stimulus is a quality that influences an action or response. The reinforcement is a way of making the connection between the stimuli and the response conditioned. When the conditioned behavior is no longer reinforced, extinction occurs instead (Pavlov, 1927).

The most relevant types of behavioral learning theories include

- contiguity theory,
- classical or respondent conditioning theory, and
- operant or instrumental conditioning theory.

Contiguity Theory

Contiguity theory is based on the work of Guthrie (1930, 1935). It proposes that any stimulus and response connected in time and/or space will tend to be associated (Huitt & Hummel, 1999). The following are the principles of this theory:

- In order for conditioning to occur, the organism must actively respond (i.e., do things).
- Since learning involves the conditioning of specific movements, instruction must present very specific tasks.
- Exposure to many variations in stimulus patterns is desirable in order to produce a generalized response.

- The last response in a learning situation should be correct since it is the one that will be associated.

According to Guthrie (1930, 1935), in contiguity theory, rewards or punishment play no significant role in learning since they occur after the association between stimulus and response has been made. Since sales promotions are primarily based on rewarding the customer for their purchase, this theory will not be discussed in depth.

Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning was the first type of learning to be discovered and studied within the behaviorist tradition (Huitt & Humel, 1999). The major theorist in the development of classical conditioning is Ivan Pavlov. While studying systems of dogs, Pavlov, became intrigued with his observation that dogs deprived of food began to salivate when one of his assistants walked into the room. It was then when he established the laws of classical conditioning (Huitt & Hummel, 1997).

“In classical conditioning, behavior is influenced by a stimulus that occurs prior to the behavior and elicits it in a manner that has the appearance of being a reflex” (Teunter, 2002, p. 27). The general model of the theory is comprised of stimulus (S) and response (R). An unconditioned/natural stimulus (US) is repeatedly paired with neutral stimulus (NS): As a result of this pairing, the neutral stimulus (NS) is transformed into a conditioned stimulus (CS), which eventually elicits or causes a conditioned response (CR) (see Figure 1).

UC	⊙	UR
UC + NS	⊙	UR
CS	⊙	CR

Figure 1. Classical conditioning.

Operant Conditioning

Operant conditioning is the study of the impact of consequences on behavior. Engel et al. (2005) defined operant conditioning as a form of learning in which the consequences of a behavior affect the frequency or probability of the behavior being performed again. The major theorists for the development of operant conditioning are Edward Thorndike, John Watson, and B. F. Skinner (Huitt & Hummel, 1997). The basic distinction between classical conditioning and operant conditioning is the difference in sequence. “Operant conditioning is based on the premise that behavior is a function of its consequences. Unlike Pavlov, who took a stimulus-response (S-R) approach, Skinner took a response-stimulus (R-S) approach” (Hensen & Rosqvist, 2005, p. 403).

The basic claim of operant conditioning is that reinforced behaviors are more likely to persist than nonreinforced behaviors. The reinforcer can be anything that occurs after the behavior that has the ability to change the likelihood of it occurring again.

Three factors influence conditioning: contiguity, frequency, and reinforcement. Contiguity simply means that both actions happen almost at the same time: being exposed to the stimulus and acting on it. Frequency refers to the regularity in which stimuli and responses occur. Reinforcement is a way to make the conditioning stronger. “Most behaviors are learned, because no matter the reason for the initial occurrence, they are followed by reinforcement. What this means is that behaviors are controlled by their

consequences” (Slife & Williams, 1995, p. 27). This probably is why most behaviorists believe that behaviors are controlled by environmental events, and not by one’s own will.

Marketers can use sales promotions to stimulate the purchase of the product or to provide additional benefits of purchasing the brand. On the other hand, the consumer might take advantage of the promotion and move on, or the consumer can believe the promotion is sort of a reward for purchasing the brand. “The goal is to use promotions to build up purchase frequency, but to this in a way so as to mitigate the extinction effect. When the promotion is gone, we want the behavior to continue” (Teunter, 2002, p. 29). Therefore, the ideal is to establish a relationship with the consumer, so that the behavior of purchasing the brands remains even when there are no promotions.

Behavior Modification Perspective (BMP)

Nord and Peter’s (1980), Behavior Modification Perspective (BMP) study, represents one of the most complete studies investigating the applicability of behavioral learning to marketing. According to the researchers, the basic difference between BMP and the psychological perspectives that dominate the marketing literature is that BMP focuses on the manipulation of environmental factors that influence behavior. Thus, a primary benefit of BMP is that it encourages a systematic analysis of purchase and purchase-related behaviors. Also, it indicates specific techniques for modifying and controlling these behaviors based on the manipulation of the external factors. For example, a marketer can enhance the utility of a product through appropriate manipulation of price, distribution, and promotional variables (Rothschild & Gaidis, 1981).

Behavioral learning can be used as a behavior modification technique. “If the product is pleasing, the probability of repeat behavior will increase” (Rothschild & Gaidis, 1981, p. 70). The concept is behaviors that are positively reinforced are more likely to recur than nonreinforced behavior. “Since the key to successful marketing is closely tied to repeat purchase behavior, the notion of providing positive reinforcement for desired behavior is crucial, therefore, positive reinforcement must be the ultimate goal of the marketer” (Rothschild & Gaidis, 1981, p. 71).

Behavioural Perspective Model (BPM)

Gordon R. Foxall’s (1990) theoretical research is concerned with the philosophy of economic psychology, specifically the explanation of consumer choice, which led to the formulation of the Behavioural Perspective Model (BPM) of consumer choice. The purpose of the BPM is to explore the possibility of a behavior analytical approach to consumer behavior and to ascertain the nature and status of the account it provides (Foxall, 1990).

The BPM of purchase and consumption presents a neo-Skinnerian explanation of consumer behavior, in terms of the scope of the setting in which it occurs; meaning, it predicts behavior from the reinforcing consequences it has previously produced in the context of a setting (Foxall & Freenley, 2000).

Although, BPM retains the fundamental assumptions of operant behaviorism (a) that the frequency with which behavior is performed is a function of the consequences of such behavior in the past, and (b) that determinants of behavior must be sought in the environment. BPM incorporates modifications to radical behaviorism by incorporating

logical critiques based on empirical investigation of human operant performance (Foxall, 1993).

In the first critique, Foxall (1993) argues that the principles of behavior analysis most effectively explain, control, and predict behavior in closed settings. The BPM proposes a continuum of closed-open behavior settings along with which behavior can be ascribed with differential empirical certainty and objectivity to environmental control. “Second, the model assumes on the basis of recent experimental investigations of human operant behavior, that reinforcement has an informational as well as an hedonic influence on rate of responding” (Foxall, 1993, p. 502). Thirdly, the BPM recognizes the importance of rule-governed as well as contingency-based behavior, which means that the rate at which behavior is emitted is influenced by verbal descriptions of the contingencies in operation as well as by direct exposure to the contingencies themselves (Foxall, 1993).

In conclusion, BPM is presented as a contemporary paradigm for a behavior analysis of consumer psychology. Like Skinner’s operant conditioning, it specifies behaviorally antecedent stimulus but elaborates the simpler concepts of discriminative stimuli (Foxall & Schrezenmaier, 2003).

Behavioral Learning and Marketing

Behavioral learning is rooted in the work of Skinner (1953). It posits that rewarded behavior is more likely to persist; however, it depends on how it is reinforced. According to Rothschild and Gaidis (1981), one of the greatest values of behavioral learning may be in the development of promotional strategies. Promotions can serve as such rewards and enhance subsequent purchasing. Therefore, the relationship between the

behavioral learning paradigm and marketing can be explained through three basic components: shaping, extinction, and reinforcement schedule.

Shaping occurs when an incentive (stimulus) is used to induce (shape) the desired behavior. Extinction generally occurs when the reward is removed, leading to the extinction of the desired behavior, and reinforcement schedules refer to the timing (immediate vs. delayed) and continuation (continuous or intermittent) of the reinforcement.

For marketers, shaping represents the highest potential in deriving new behaviors, as behaviors cannot be rewarded unless they first occur. A large body of behavioral research demonstrates that the manner in which a deal is framed (how the deal is communicated to the consumer) influences the perception of the deal value, purchase intent, and search intent (Ailawadi et al., 2009). Therefore, marketers use deals to shape consumers' behaviors.

Rothschild and Gaidis (1981) provided an example on how sales promotions can be used as shaping stimulus. In the example, potential customers are given a free sample of a product. Inside the product sample is a coupon offering a large discount, to be used in a future purchase. The shaping continues at the point of purchase (store). Products at retail stores will also carry coupons for future purchases, inside the package of the product. Although both products (samples and products available for sale) offer a discount coupon for a future purchase, the difference between the two relies on the amount of the discount. The second discount is smaller. The goal is to shape the behavior of the consumer through various stages.

Behavioral learning theory suggests that reinforcements should be immediate after the behavior, and although in theory it works better that way, in reality that does not always have to be the case; for example, when a consumer collects proofs-of-purchase and then mails them to the manufacturer for a premium. If the premium arrives in a reasonable amount of time (about four weeks) and it has the qualities of a good premium, it will likely lead to future purchases of the product, therefore shaping still occurs.

Shaping takes a lot of strategic reasoning. If reinforcement happens too slowly, the delay will inhibit learning. If the fadeout of the reinforcement is not done properly, the removal of the incentive may lead to extinction of the purchase behavior. For behavioral learning to work effectively, the marketer must be in control of the situation.

Rothschild and Gaidis (1981) forewarn of a very common mistake: the tendency to overuse promotional discount tools for shaping purposes. The result of this practice may jeopardize future purchases by becoming contingent upon the presence of a promotional tool, also known as promotion elasticity.

In a later study about behavioral learning and the promotions effect on brand loyalty, Rothschild (1987) stated that consumers become loyal to brands that are reinforcing to them. Also in the same study, he explained how monetary sales promotions are ruining brand loyalty and used behavioral learning to explain why.

A consumer learns to try Brand X for 50 cents off its normal price; the deal reinforces the behavior and, therefore, the consumer learns to repeat the behavior. There are two options in this learning process:

1. If Brand X has its own unique benefits, then it is likely that Brand X will be repurchased.

2. However, if Brand X is not very different from Brand Y, then the consumer learns that using a deal is reinforcing. Yet, since X and Y are so similar, the deal offered by any of the two brands outweighs the benefit advantage held by either brand. The outcome is that consumers learn to look for deals.

Figure 2 shows Rothschild's (1987) behavioral view of the promotions model.

The model shows how a coupon can become the conditioning stimulus in the purchasing of a product. First, the presence of the coupon leads to the response of awareness and eventually to purchasing the product with the coupon. This is followed by a cost/benefit relationship that is rewarded with additional coupon usage, which in turn produces more brand loyalty (BL) contingent to the availability of coupons.

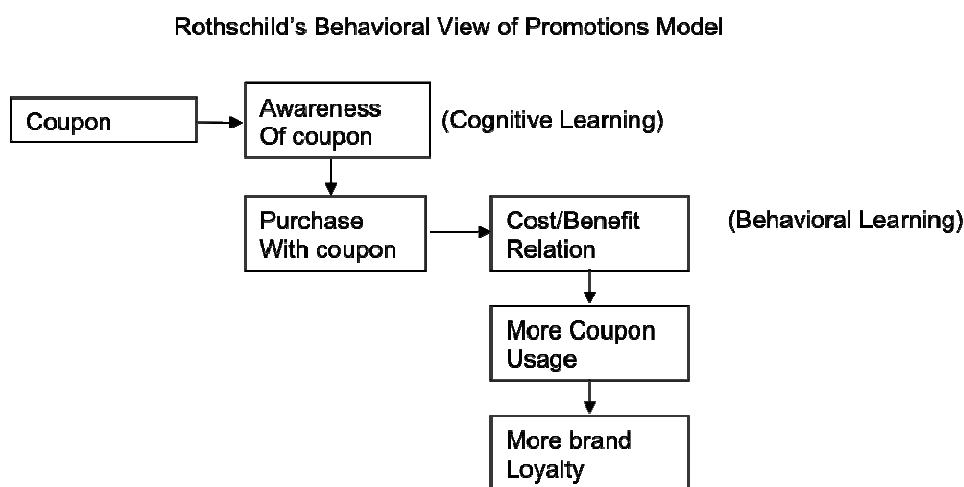


Figure 2. A behavioral view of promotions. Adapted from “A Behavioral View of Promotions Effects on Brand Loyalty,” by M. L. Rothschild, 1987, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 14, p. 119.

New Research on Sales Promotions

Most early research studies on sales promotions concentrated on the effects of sales promotions on sales and profits, the effects of promotions on purchase behavior

during the promotional period, and the effects of a promotional purchase on subsequent choice behavior.

The studies on behavioral shaping, or operant conditioning, by Rothschild and Gaidis (1981), Peter and Nord (1982), and Rothschild (1987), represent an important research stream in promotion marketing. Research thereafter made reference to these but began a different stream.

The new research had more emphasis on the role of reference price and the long-term effects of monetary promotions; unfortunately the vast majority shares the same limitation. Research was devoted almost in its entirety to the utilization of coupons and price reductions (monetary promotions) exclusively. About the latter, Liao (2006) stated, “most of the past sales promotion research has focused on monetary promotion and its sales impact, the differential role of sales promotion entailed in nonmonetary promotions to assist long-term brand-related effects has been unfortunately ignored” (p. 196).

Reference Price

We can consider the reference price as a subjective price level with which the consumer compares the prices observed at the moment of purchase. That is, when consumer plans to buy a product, he or she will judge prices comparatively in order to determine whether the price is acceptable or not. (Alvárez-Alvárez & Vázquez-Casielles, 2005, p. 55)

One of the first studies about reference price and sales promotions is Diamond and Campbell’s 1989 study. They suggested that not all sale promotions will behave in the same way with regards to their long-term influence to reference price. “We hypothesize that some types of promotions affect reference price more than others. By

choosing the proper promotions, one might provide short-term purchase incentives without destroying the positive feelings toward the brand over time” (Diamond & Campbell, 1989, p. 241).

Being temporary, sales promotions induce consumers to think about future prices, not only past or current price (Chandon, 1995). Hunt and Keaveney (1994) were more specific in the use of nonmonetary promotions:

If the value of the price promotion does not exceed the cost of obtaining the price deal, or if the price promotion does not lower the effective purchase price to a level below the consumer’s internal reference price, the consumer will experience dissatisfaction. (p. 527)

Therefore, the price observed at the moment of purchase is a fundamental variable. Consumers perceive a gain when the reference price is higher than the observed price, and perceive a loss when the reference price is lower than the observed price (Alvárez-Alvárez & Vázquez-Casielles, 2005).

Perceived Value of Nonmonetary and Monetary Promotions

Diamond and Johnson (1990) and Campbell and Diamond (1990) related reference price to sales promotions through the terms *gains* and *reduced loss*. According to the researchers, some promotions add value to the product (such as premiums, bonus packs, samples, and sweepstakes), while others (such as discounts) merely reduce the cost. Therefore, attitudes such as *perceived gain* or *reduced loss* experienced by the consumer as result of engaging in sales promotion activities might also have an effect on reference price.

Over a decade later, Liao (2006) made reference to these terms as well. According to Liao, monetary promotions rewards can be perceived as savings or loss reduction. On the other hand, for promotions in units other than money (e.g., samples, premiums), the benefits are more difficult to be integrated into the price reference. These promotions are then framed as gains. Promotions framed as gains have the benefit of being segregated from the reference price, whereas promotions framed as reduced loss are seen as merely reducing the purchase price.

Simonson, Carmon, and O'Curry (1994) suggested that a new product feature or promotion could decrease a brand's overall choice probability, if the segment of consumers perceived it as providing little value or no value when compared to other options. Several possible explanations were provided: The most common was based on inferences about value and quality. "Consumers might mistakenly believe that they are paying for the unneeded feature, and therefore conclude that the product offers no value" (Simonson et al., 1994, p. 24). Another popular explanation was based on the attitude of others. Some consumers find it particularly difficult to justify choices with unneeded features.

To be effective, a promotion must first be noticed, but it must not arouse suspicion. For example, if a camera with a regular price of \$200 was 75% off, it would create suspicion. The consumer might think there is something wrong with that model. On the contrary, if the offer consists of a free \$100 lens with the purchase of the camera, the perception is different. Nonmonetary promotions not only have a larger, noticeable difference, they also have a wider range of acceptability than monetary promotions (Campbell & Diamond, 1990).

The Benefit Congruency of Sales Promotions

Consumer sales promotions also have been classified by their effect at a cognitive and emotional level; that is, utilitarian or hedonic.

Monetary promotions (e.g., coupons, rebates) primarily are related to utilitarian benefits, which have a functional and cognitive nature.

Utilitarian benefits are primarily instrumental, functional, and cognitive; they provide customer value by being a means to an end. Hedonic benefits are non-instrumental, experiential, and affective; they are appreciated for their own sake, without further regard to their practical purposes. (Chandon et al., 2000, p. 66)

Most researchers have suggested that monetary savings is the only consumer benefit of sales promotions. Chandon et al.'s (2000) study, "A Benefit Congruency Framework of Sales Promotion Effectiveness," is the first known study to examine the importance of benefit congruency between type of product and type of sales promotion. "The existence of multiple types of consumer benefits provides a stepping stone for a benefit congruency framework, which argues that sales promotion's effectiveness is determined by the congruency between its benefits and those of the promoted product" (Chandon et al., 2000, p. 65). The idea is that promotions compatible with the promoted product, based on the benefits they provide, have a greater impact on the demand of the product.

Hedonic and utilitarian benefits. According to Chandon et al. (2000), nonmonetary promotions provide more hedonic benefits and fewer utilitarian benefits than monetary promotions. To better illustrate their findings, Chandon et al. presented a

benefit matrix of sales promotions, mapping promotional tools along dimensions of utilitarian and hedonic benefits (see Figure 3).



Figure 3. Sales promotions benefit matrix. Adapted from “A Benefit Congruency Framework of Sales Promotion Effectiveness,” by P. Chandon, B. Wansink, and G. Laurent, 2000, *Journal of Marketing*, 64, p. 71.

Among the most important findings of Chandon et al. (2000) are

- sales promotions can provide consumers with an array of hedonic and utilitarian benefits beyond monetary savings;
- nonmonetary promotions provide more hedonic benefits and fewer utilitarian benefits than monetary promotions; and
- for high-equity brands, sales promotions are most effective when they provide benefits congruent with those provided by the product being promoted.

Raghubir et al. (2004) built on Chandon et al.’s (2000) research by incorporating additional utilitarian benefits (referred to as economic benefits) and affective benefits (including additional hedonic benefits and negative affective benefits). Their model

suggests there are three different routes through which promotions work: the economic, the informative, and the affective route. These three different constructs have “primary effects and interactive effects on consumers’ deal evaluations, purchase intentions, and sales” (Raghubir et al., 2004, p. 31).

Liao (2006) agreed with Raghubir et al.’s (2004) findings and added, “sales promotions are capable of reducing price and opportunity cost of trial, proving reasons to buy, and presenting cues for purchase at the same time” (p. 197). According to Voss et al. (2003), previous research suggests that products/brands that are highly valued on hedonic dimensions rather than utilitarian dimensions are better able to charge a price premium or engage in sales promotions. “Thus measures of these two dimensions may serve as input into pricing and sales promotions decisions” (Voss et al, 2003, p. 310).

Palazón-Vidal and Delgado-Ballester (2005) also adopted a consumer-based approach to study the effect of sales promotions at a cognitive and emotional level (based on multiple hedonic and utilitarian benefits). Contrary to Chandon et al. (2000), Palazón-Vidal and Delgado-Ballester stated nonmonetary promotions are more flexible in pairing with either utilitarian or hedonic products. “The results show that monetary incentives are more effective for utilitarian products while nonmonetary promotions are equally effective for both utilitarian and hedonic products” (Palazón-Vidal & Delgado-Ballester, 2005, p. 198).

Liao’s (2006) supported the findings of Palazón-Vidal and Delgado-Ballester (2005) that nonmonetary promotions are more flexible in pairing with either utilitarian or hedonic products. Liao also supported Chandon et al.’s (2000) findings that not all sales promotional tools are equally effective to all product categories.

Although agreeing with findings from Chandon et al. (2000), Liao (2006) counter argued Chandon et al. more often than not. “Their study fails to examine types of nonmonetary promotions across different incentive dimension which provide customers with a mixture of both utilitarian and hedonic benefits” (Liao, 2006, p. 198). For example, a sweepstakes in which Product X offers a year’s worth supply of Product X not only provides game-like hedonic pleasure, but also brings some computable economic savings to consumers. To that respect, Liao (2006) criticized the match pattern between nonmonetary promotions and hedonic products exclusively, and went on to say, “it is unachievable to identify pure utilitarian product and hedonic product in consumer real purchase situation” (p. 202).

Luk and Yip (2008) discussed how sales promotions can moderate the relationship between brand trust and purchase behavior. The researchers tested the effect of two brand trust dimensions—brand reliability and brand intentions—on consumers’ spending in individual brands. “Their findings show that brand trust effect could be significantly moderated by monetary sales promotions in a way that brand reliability would play no role if the consumer’s buying behavior was strongly affected by monetary sales promotions” (Luk & Yip, 2008, p. 452).

Also, Luk and Yip (2008) showed that promotion elastic consumers (more prone to deals) usually place more emphasis on utilitarian benefits when making a choice decision and are more receptive to monetary promotions and less to emotional and hedonic benefits. In contrast, promotion inelastic consumers (less prone to deals) give more weight to emotional and hedonic benefits and most likely do not respond actively to monetary sales promotions that are high in utilitarian benefits.

As previously discussed, Chandon et al. (2000) introduced the benefit congruency framework of sales promotions, which argued that a sales promotion's effectiveness is determined by the utilitarian or hedonic nature of the benefits it delivers and the congruence these benefits have with the promoted products. Palazón-Vidal and Delgado Ballester (2005) and Liao (2006) supported Chandon et al. (2000) in that not all sales promotional tools are equally effective to all product categories; however, they differ on which type of promotions pair better with either utilitarian or hedonic products. Based on the previous literature, the following research question and hypotheses are posited.

Research Question 1: Will the effect of nonmonetary and monetary promotions on brand loyalty vary according to the extent of hedonism or utilitarian benefits for low and high involvement products?

H1_a: The extent of hedonism for nonmonetary promotions will have a greater effect than the extent of hedonism for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for high involvement products.

H1_b: The extent of hedonism for nonmonetary promotions will have a smaller effect than the extent of hedonism for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for low involvement products.

Effects of Sales Promotions on Buying Behavior

Alvárez-Alvárez and Vázquez-Casielles's (2005) study took a closer look into consumers' buying behavior. They analyzed a series of fundamental variables on the brand choice process: price, reference price, losses and gains, loyalty, and promotions. Special attention was given to the influence sales promotions had on this process. Results

suggested consumers will take into account whether or not a promotion exists, as well as price information, prior to making a purchase decision.

Gedenk and Neslin (1999) found that the promotional status of the previous purchase can differentially influence brand choice, through purchase event feedback. They also provided a very useful example to help identify this issue.

If after buying a brand on promotion the consumers is asked: *Did you buy this brand because you like the brand, or because of the promotion?* and the answer is because of the promotion, then the promotion has provided a negative purchase feedback. (Gedenk & Neslin, 1999, p. 435)

Bridges, Briesch, and Yin (2006) built on the work of Gedenk and Neslin (1999) by examining how various promotions affect consumer response to subsequent marketing mix activities. In the study, the authors make reference to previous streams in theoretical and empirical research studies that support moderating effects of prior brand purchases on consumer response to promotions. They identified two streams: *usage dominance* and *promotion enhancement*.

The usage dominance concept suggests that, after purchase and use of a brand, consumers become less responsive to promotional activities for that brand because their direct experience dominates external information. What this implies is that consumers who are more focused on their personal experience are less responsive to marketing mix activities for the most recently purchased brand and, consequently, are more likely to repurchase the brand after a promotion has ended (Bridges et al., 2006).

On the other hand, promotion enhancement indicates that promotions reduce subsequent brand loyalty due to the increased sensitivity to marketing mix activities for

all brands in the category. In other words, promotion enhancement implies a reduced likelihood to buy previously purchased brands, simultaneously with an increase in the impact of promotional activities for all brands in the category (Bridges et al., 2006).

Potential Negative Effects of Sales Promotions on Brand Loyalty

Some of the potential negative effects of sales promotions that have been mentioned are an increase in price sensitivity, a decrease in brand loyalty, and brand equity erosion. Hunt and Keaveney (1994) suggested that not all price promotion activities are viewed positively: “price promotion satisfaction or dissatisfaction will become associated with brand image, if the consumer attributes the cause of the satisfaction or dissatisfaction to the brand” (p. 16). Yoo, Donthu, and Lee (2000) argued that frequent use of price promotions causes consumers to infer lower product quality. Hence, frequent use of price promotions, such as price deals, is related to low brand equity. The reason for low brand equity is that price promotions lead consumers to think primarily about the deals and not about the utility provided by the brand.

Popular belief was that promotions were mostly reinforcing purchasing on a deal rather than purchasing the brand. “Heavy coupon user’s loyalty is to the next coupon, not the product or the brand” (Diamond, 1992, p. 467). Blattberg and Neslin (1989) postulated that the large increase in promotional elasticity (consumers prone to deals) is due to: a) brand switching by consumers, b) inventory behavior (stockpiling), and c) transaction utility effects (sense of gain). It was estimated that approximately 80% of this increase was due to brand switchers. “Nearly half of coupon redemptions are by new customers However, this increase may be temporary as brand switchers may be deal loyal and will follow the next deal that comes along” (Raghubir et al., 2004, p. 25).

Bridges et al. (2006) stated that prior usage of a brand and prior promotional activities can both play roles in driving consumer promotional sensitivities. However, “results indicate that prior promotional purchases influence choice more than prior brand usage does” (Bridges et al, 2006, p. 295). According to Luk and Yip (2008), the buying behavior of less-committed consumers is mainly promotion-driven. This group is comprised of the so-called brand switchers: consumers who process the brand’s promotions as information to discriminate among acceptable brands and ultimately develop the habit of purchasing on promotion (Luk & Yip, 2008, p. 456).

Potential Positive Effects of Sales Promotions on Brand Loyalty

Oliver (1977) defined brand loyalty as a “deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product or service consistently in the future, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior” (p. 392). This definition extended prior conceptualizations beyond the mere behavioral conceptualizations that primarily rely on the frequency of the purchase, by incorporating both behavioral and attitudinal dimensions of loyalty.

According to Dick and Basu (1994), brand loyalty consists of a consumer’s commitment to repurchase or otherwise continue using the brand and can be demonstrated by repeated buying of a product or service or other positive behaviors, such as word of mouth advocacy. Oliver (1999) posits that three conditions must exist for true loyalty:

- (1) The brand information held by the consumer (i.e. the consumer’s beliefs) must point to the focal brand as being superior to what is known of competitive offerings;
- (2) the consumer’s degree of liking must be higher than that for other

offerings, so that a clear affective preference exists for the focal brand; and (3) the consumer must intend to buy the focal brand, as opposed to the alternative brands, when a purchase decision arises. (p. 30)

Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán (2005) support Oliver's (1999) brand loyalty definition by recognizing that brand loyalty does not exclusively focus on repeated purchases but on the internal dispositions or attitudes towards the brand. Palazón-Vidal and Delgado-Ballester (2005) confirmed a positive relationship between sales promotions and brand loyalty. The results showed that nonmonetary promotions are more customer franchise building (brand loyalty) as far as they enhance a greater number and more favorable associations than monetary promotions. "Based on the results obtained, sales promotions can be used to build brand knowledge because the individuals exposed to promotion stimuli evoked a greater number and more favorable associations" (Palazón-Vidal & Delgado-Ballester, 2005, p. 198)

Closely related to brand loyalty is brand equity. "Brand loyalty makes consumers purchase a brand routinely and resist switching to another brand. Hence, to the extent that consumers are loyal to the brand, brand equity will increase" (Yoo et al., 2000, p. 197). Aaker (1991) defined brand equity as a multidimensional concept composed of brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, and other proprietary brand assets. Viewed as a relational market-based asset, brand equity may be expressed as a function of a brand-consumer relationship (Ambler, 1997).

Keller (1998) described brand equity as the differential effect brand knowledge has on consumer response to the marketing of the brand. In other words, brand equity represents a variety of associations linked to a brand. These associations represent the

personal meaning about a brand. Krishnan (1996) showed brands with high equity are characterized by having a great number of associations and more positive and unique associations.

According to Palazón-Vidal and Delgado Ballester (2005), nonmonetary promotions, such as premiums, take the focus away from the price. “When promotion experience is linked to enjoyment kind of feelings, thoughts, and benefits, more favorable and positive brand associations are linked to the brand” (Palazón-Vidal & Delgado Ballester, 2005, p. 184). This idea is consistent with Yoo et al.’s (2000) findings about brand associations being positively related to brand loyalty.

Controversy Over Long-term Effects

There has been debate on whether sales promotions can enhance or undermine brand preference beyond the time they are offered (Luk & Yip, 2008). For many years, marketers believed advertising was the primary tool, if not the only one, for brand building. Promotions were thought primarily to immediate sales bumps or short-term goals. “It is generally assumed that enhancing a product with features that do not negatively affect other attributes, such as offering a free premium or sweepstakes, can only help short term sales” (Simonson et al., 1994, p. 23).

According to Gedenk and Neslin (1999), experimental evidence gathered supports that promotions can be reinforcing if consumers have well-developed attitudes toward the brand, and this will be especially true when nonmonetary promotions are used. “Non-price promotions are even more effective because they enhance rather than hurt repeat purchasing. So even though they are not quite as effective in the short term, their stronger long-term effects enable them to generate more sales” (Gedenk & Neslin, 1999, p. 449).

In the same direction, the PMA/Northwestern University 2002 study, *Promotion, Brand Building and Corporate Performance Research*, showed promotions could enhance a consumer's brand experience and lead to a stronger consumer relationship. Van Heerde and Neslin (2008) also found similar results on positive long-term effects of sales promotions. "Promotions may also affect long-term consumer behavior" (van Heerde & Neslin, 2008, p. 132).

Palazón-Vidal and Delgado-Ballester (2005) agreed with previous studies in that monetary promotions are less effective in building brand knowledge because of their emphasis on only one brand association (price). In other words, they lead consumers to think primarily about deals and not about the brand. "Since price discounts have traditionally been the dominant form of consumer promotion, consumers are aware of and often expect price deals and therefore simply lowering prices is often problematic" (Hardesty & Bearden, 2003, p. 17).

Darke and Chung (2005) performed a study to examine the advantages and disadvantages of discounts compared to other promotional strategies such as every-day-low-prices (EDLP) and free gift promotions. The study showed that free gift offers maintained quality perceptions of the brand. EDLP were less effective in this respect. In addition, free gifts provided a useful alternative for conveying value to consumers.

Bawa and Shoemaker (2004) performed a study about the effects of free samples and brand sales. Their study presented a model of how a free sample promotion is expected to affect various components of incremental sales and possibly brand loyalty. Their findings support previous research (e.g., Seetharaman, 2004; Villas-Boas, 2004) that free samples can play an important role in creating brand loyalty. They found that

free samples could be highly effective in increasing sales over a long period due to greater retention of customers after trial, a larger potential for acceleration of purchases, and higher purchase probability among those who would not have tried the brand without a free sample.

A major finding of our study is that for some products the effects of free sample promotions can persist for at least 52 weeks. In contrast, the effects of other consumer promotions such as coupons tend to last for no more than 12 weeks. (Bawa & Shoemaker, 2004, p. 360)

DeIVecchio et al. (2006) conducted a meta-analysis to evaluate the results of previously published research that links the use of sales promotion to indicators of post-promotion brand preference. A total of 51 studies were integrated. Their findings suggest that on average, sales promotions do not statistically affect postpromotion brand preference. “However, depending upon characteristic of the sales promotion and the promoted product, promotions can either increase or decrease preference for a brand” (DeIVecchio et al., 2006, p. 203).

Based on the previously mentioned literature on reference price, buying behavior, potential negative effects, and potential positive effects of sales promotions, the need exists for examination of the relationship of nonmonetary and monetary promotions, product type, and their respective influences on brand loyalty.

Research Question 2: Will the preference for monetary or nonmonetary promotions have a greater or lesser effect on brand loyalty for low and high involvement products?

H2_a: Preference for nonmonetary promotions will have a greater effect than preference for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for high involvement products.

H2_b: Preference for nonmonetary promotions will have a smaller effect than preference for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for low involvement products.

Summary

Throughout this chapter relevant empirical research has been reviewed on the topics of behavioral learning and its influence on marketing. Also in this chapter, studies on nonmonetary and monetary promotions, reference price, brand loyalty, hedonic and utilitarian effects, and the benefit congruency of promotions were discussed. The literature review was then used to justify and posit the research questions and hypotheses included in this chapter. By answering these questions, this dissertation aims to provide clarity on the relationship of sales promotions, both nonmonetary and monetary, and brand loyalty. Chapter III will present the methodology for this study.

Chapter III

Methodology

In this chapter, the research design and quantitative research methodology used to study the relationship between the use of different sales promotion strategies and brand loyalty are described.

Research Design

The design of this study is a quasi-experimental quantitative design. As defined by Babbie (2010), “quasi experiments are non-rigorous inquiries somewhat resembling controlled experiments but lacking key elements such as pre-and post testing, and/or control groups” (p. 371). This design is appropriate when the researcher controls when measurements are taken and on whom they are taken (Malhotra, 2009), as is the case of this study.

Research Setting

Data collection took place in Puerto Rico. The island of Puerto Rico is located between the Caribbean Sea and the North Atlantic Ocean, east of the Dominican Republic or about 1,000 miles southeast of Miami, Florida (CIA, 2011). The total area of Puerto Rico is about 13,790 square kilometers. The maximum length from east to west is 110 miles, with a maximum width from north to south of 40 miles. Comparatively, Puerto Rico is approximately three times the size of Rhode Island (CIA, 2011).

Population

As of 2011, the estimated population of Puerto Rico is 3,989,133. With an average of 429 people per square kilometer, Puerto Rico is far more densely populated than any of the 50 states of the U.S. (CIA, 2011). There is a high degree of urbanization,

with the capital, San Juan, and its suburbs accounting for around one third of the population (EIU ViewsWire, 2008). Data from the 2010 census of Puerto Rico shows the five most populous places are San Juan, with a population of 381,931; Bayamón, with a population of 185,996; Carolina, with a population of 157,832; Ponce, with a population of 132,502; and Caguas, with a population of 82,243 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011).

Although economic performance is closely tied to the U.S. business cycle, the economy has been in recession since 2006, owing to the fiscal crisis. Still, Puerto Rico has been described as one of the hottest new retail and shopping center markets in Latin America. “Retailers’ sales per square foot are very high, consistently higher than their stateside counterparts; the island enjoys a solid and sophisticated culture of consumerism, with savvy consumers and people willing to shop and spend” (Ryan, 2011, p. 17).

According to the Chamber of Food Industry Distribution of Puerto Rico’s 2010 “Consumer Radiography” study, the average person in charge of household food purchases is a woman, which was 80% of those surveyed. Furthermore, she purchases food for a family of two or three people—an average of 2.8 individuals.

Sample

One hundred twenty-four subjects were interviewed among the principal cities of Puerto Rico, concentrating in San Juan where the main population is. The selected areas for this study are comprised of the Metro Area (San Juan, Guaynabo, Carolina, and Bayamon), Caguas, Ponce, and Mayaguez. These areas have been chosen, as they are among the top ranked in wholesale trade and retail trade (sales), according to the Puerto Rico Geographic Area Statistics published by the U.S. Department of Commerce (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006).

Inclusion criteria. Two different consumer product categories were chosen for this study: laundry detergent and deodorant. In order to participate in the study, the subjects must have purchased both product categories within the past 3 months of the interview. Also, the participant must have met the criterion of being the person in charge of the grocery shopping for the household.

Sampling method. Quota sample, a nonrandom sample method often used in market research (Krathwohl, 2009), was used for the study. This type of nonprobability sampling is useful when relevant control characteristics, such as sex, age, and household size, are identified to ensure the composition of the sample is the same as the composition of the population with respect to the characteristics of interest (Malhotra, 2009).

Based on this information, a group of interviewers went door to door in the selected cities looking for subjects at their residences (homes and apartments) who met all requirements (quota and inclusion criteria) for the chosen population. The quota criteria were based on gender, household size, and city. At least 70% of the sample was to be comprised of women, at least 25% was to be single households, and close to 70% was to be from the metro area.

Protection of Subjects

The subjects' identity was not revealed, and the research involved no greater than minimal risk: For this reason the Institutional Review Board (IRB) allowed a waiver of a signed consent document to participate in the study. Nevertheless, an introductory paragraph containing an accurate explanation of the purpose of the study, risks or benefits, confidentiality, and decision to participate voluntarily was included in the questionnaire used, and it was read to participants prior to participation.

Data Collection

A team of three interviewers was established. All of them received the certification of the CITI training prior to the study. Each interviewer received a compensation of \$10 per fully completed questionnaire. In addition to the CITI training, all interviewers were required to take a 60-minute training offered by the author of this study. Training included a full description of the research study, specifics on quota sample, safety guidelines involving home visits, protection of subjects, and appropriate handling of questionnaires.

Interviewers went door to door looking specifically for the type of people needed to fill their quotas. The process started with a greeting followed by the written introduction included in the questionnaire. Once participants agreed to participate in the study, the interviewer followed with the questions pertaining to the necessary quota sample and mandatory inclusion criteria of the study. Data was collected during a 3-week period.

The categories chosen for the research study were laundry detergent and deodorant. These product categories were chosen for two reasons. It was assumed that these categories represented different levels of consumer involvement and brand loyalty. Laundry detergent represents an example of low consumer involvement, as there is little perceived risk or little relevance associated with the purchase of the product. On the other hand, it was assumed that deodorant represented an example of high involvement due to high-perceived social risks associated with personal appearance. Therefore, it was believed that deodorant, a highly differentiated product category, would reflect higher

levels of brand loyalty when compared to laundry detergent, a much less differentiated product category.

Survey Instruments

The questionnaire was originally prepared in English and then translated into Spanish for appropriate administration. A professional translator from Puerto Rico certified that the document was a true and accurate translation of the original English version and that words used in the translation were specifically chosen bearing in mind the intended audience of the study—Puerto Ricans. In addition, to ensure clarity a pilot study of the questionnaire with five respondents was administered to check for understanding, layout, and order of the questionnaire.

The survey is divided into five parts (see Appendix). The first part of the questionnaire consists of six prequalification questions based on mandatory inclusion criteria and quota sample. The first three questions represent the mandatory inclusion criteria to participate in the study. Questions 4–6 are demographic questions related to specific quota criteria needed. Question 7, age, is a demographic question nonrelated to the quota criteria.

The second part of the questionnaire (Questions 8–10) includes a modified three-item version of the Purchase Decision Involvement Scale (PDI) by Mittal (1989). This scale was used in a pre-test to select the two product categories chosen for the study (see Appendix). A total of 13 respondents participated in the pre-test. The PDI also was included in the final questionnaire to reconfirm the level of purchase involvement of the two product categories chosen.

The third part of the questionnaire measured brand loyalty (Questions 11–18) of the product categories chosen. The brand loyalty scale used in this study was designed and tested to capture the overall commitment of being loyal to a specific brand (Yoo et al., 2000). Originally, the scale was composed of five items, but after performing a Cronbach's alpha test to measure the reliability of the coefficients, two items did not meet the 0.70 cutoff level of reliability, so they were eliminated. In addition, the scale composite reliability and the average variance extracted for each construct were quite satisfactory. According to Yoo et al. (2000), the composite reliability (ρ_c), an internal consistency reliability measure as evidence of convergent validity computed from LISREL solutions, for brand loyalty was 0.90. The average variance extracted for the brand loyalty constructs was 0.75, exceeding the acceptable level of 0.50. For the purpose of this study, a brand loyalty score was calculated with an estimated minimum score of 6 and a maximum score of 30.

The first two questions of the brand loyalty set asked subjects to identify the specific brand that was last purchased for both product categories of the study. Questions 10–15 contained two sets of three items, one per product category. All items were measured using 5-point Likert-type scales, with anchors of 1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*, the same way it was originally tested by Yoo et al. (2000).

The fourth part of the questionnaire (Questions 16–27) measured the extent to which different types of nonmonetary and monetary promotion influenced participants of this study to purchase a specific brand (same brand reported in brand loyalty scale). Participants rated six different forms of nonmonetary and monetary promotions on a scale from 1–5, the degree to which each stimulates the purchase of each product category (1

being very unlikely and 5 being very likely). A final score was calculated for each group of promotions per product category, with a minimum score of 3 and a maximum score of 15.

The fifth and final part of the questionnaire used Voss et al.'s (2003) scale on hedonic and utilitarian dimensions to generalize consumers' attitudes (Questions 28–33). One of the advantages of this scale is its ability to measure hedonic and utilitarian dimensions toward different product categories and different brands within categories.

The first dimension, hedonic, results from sensations derived from the experience of using products. The second dimension, utilitarian, results from functions performed by products. The hedonic/utilitarian (HED/UT) scale includes ten semantic differential response items, five of which refer to the hedonic dimension and five of which refer to the utilitarian dimension of consumer attitudes. (Voss et al., 2003, p. 310)

The authors conducted six studies to establish the unidimensionality, reliability, and validity of the two HED/UT subscales. They also replicated the scale's reliability and validity with several samples at separate geographic locations and across a wide variety of stimuli. "The scale demonstrated solid performance in several psychometric tests and in multiple test of criterion and discriminant validity" (Voss et al., 2003, p. 318).

Each subject was asked to indicate which adjective/word from a provided list best described a type of promotion. Each dimension (utilitarian and hedonic) is composed of 10 semantic differential responses that represent the opposite of one another. Therefore, subjects could only choose one or the other. A HED/UT score was determined for each attitude dimension, with a minimum estimated score of 0 and a maximum score of 10.

Methods of Analysis

Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the first part of the questionnaire as it pertains to demographics. The second part of the research tested Hypotheses 1 and 2 via multiple regressions, one for laundry detergent and another for deodorant. The following regression model was run for each product:

$$BL = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Hm + \beta_2 Hnm + \beta_3 Pm + \beta_4 Pnm$$

Dependent variable: Brand loyalty (BL)

Independent variables:

- Hedonism for monetary promotions (Hm)
- Hedonism for nonmonetary promotions (Hnm)
- Preference for monetary promotions (Pm)
- Preference for nonmonetary promotions (Pnm)

The following are the hypotheses tested:

H1_a: The extent of hedonism for nonmonetary promotions will have a greater effect than the extent of hedonism for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for high involvement products.

H1_b: The extent of hedonism for nonmonetary promotions will have a smaller effect than the extent of hedonism for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for low involvement products.

H2_a: Preference for nonmonetary promotions will have a greater effect than preference for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for high involvement products.

H2_b: Preference for nonmonetary promotions will have a smaller effect than preference for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for low involvement products.

H1_a: $\beta_2 > \beta_1$ on deodorant regression

H1_b: $\beta_2 < \beta_1$ on laundry detergent regression

H2_a: $\beta_4 > \beta_3$ on deodorant regression

H2_b: $\beta_4 < \beta_3$ on laundry detergent regression

An F-test was used to establish differences in the regression coefficients. The data analysis was performed on NCSS statistical software.

Chapter IV

Analysis and Presentation of Findings

Introduction

The research findings, in terms of the hypotheses presented in Chapter III, are discussed in this chapter. Specifically, analysis of the data is presented focusing on each hypothesis, and a detailed discussion of the tests conducted. Data was analyzed using NCSS statistical software.

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics for this study consists of demographic data on gender, area of residence, household size, and age. Table 1 illustrates the results for the 114 subjects of this study.

Table 1

Demographics of the Sample

		N = 114	%
Gender	Female	83	72.80
	Male	31	27.19
Area of Residence	Metro	78	68.42
	Caguas	13	11.40
	South	12	10.52
	West	11	9.64
Household size	Singles	31	27.19
	Two	35	30.70
	Three	29	25.43
	Four	10	8.77
	Five plus	9	7.89
Age	20–29	14	12.28
	30–39	52	45.61
	40–49	19	16.16
	50+	29	25.44

Hypothesis Testing

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Hedonism, Preference, Brand Loyalty, and Involvement

Variable	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
Hedonism for Monetary Promotions	12.92	2.71	6	19
Hedonism for Nonmonetary Promotions	14.30	2.33	8	20
Preference for Monetary Promotions Laundry Detergent	11.60	3.14	3	15
Preference for Nonmonetary Promotions Laundry Detergent	11.37	3.47	3	15
Preference for Monetary Promotions Deodorant	12.72	2.63	3	15
Preference for Nonmonetary Promotions Deodorant	12.04	3.28	3	15
Brand Loyalty Laundry Detergent	10.69	4.12	3	15
Brand Loyalty Deodorant	12.94	2.75	3	15
Involvement for Laundry Detergent	16.50	5.20	3	21
Involvement for Deodorant	18.79	3.36	3	21

Note. N = 114.

Table 2 provides descriptive information for each of the variables. Findings show levels of preference for monetary promotions and nonmonetary promotions for deodorant are higher than those for laundry detergent. Also, brand loyalty is higher for deodorant than for laundry detergent. While the difference in brand loyalty is smaller than expected, it is in the anticipated direction and it is statistically significant ($p < 0.0001$ using both the paired t-test and the Wilcoxon tests). Finally, the level of involvement for deodorant represents the highest mean of all variables.

Table 3

*Descriptive Statistics for Preferred Type of Sales Promotion for Deodorant and Laundry**Detergent*

Variable	Preference for Deodorant				Preference for Laundry Detergent			
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
Preference for Coupon	4.46	0.99	1	5	4.20	1.18	1	5
Preference for Store Special	4.43	0.95	1	5	4.06	1.26	1	5
Preference for Buy 2 get 20% off	3.82	1.37	1	5	3.33	1.50	1	5
Preference for Free Sample	4.39	0.97	1	5	4.07	1.15	1	5
Preference for Free Gift	4.20	1.21	1	5	3.96	1.32	1	5
Preference for Chance to Win a Prize	3.45	1.64	1	5	3.33	1.58	1	5

Note. N = 114.

In Table 3, a comparison of the preference for the specific type of sales promotion for each of the categories of the study (deodorant and laundry detergent) is presented. In both product categories, there seems to be a consensus for the most preferred and least preferred type of sales promotion. “Coupon” is the most preferred and “Chance to Win a Prize” is the least preferred type of sales promotion. Also, there seems to be a higher preference for monetary promotions over nonmonetary promotions.

Table 4

Correlation Coefficients for Variables in the Study

	BLL	PML	PNML	HM	HNM	BLD	PMD	PNMD	HM	HNM
BLL	1									
PML	0.02	1								
PNML	0.15	0.53**	1							
HM	-0.08	-0.21**	0.05	1						
HNM	-0.08	-0.14	-0.11	0.32**	1					
IL	0.67**	-0.01	0.1	-0.06	-0.04					
BLD						1				
PMD						0.18*	1			
PNMD						0.07	0.59**	1		
HM						-0.01	-0.26**	-0.01	1	
HNM						-0.02	-0.20**	-0.18*	0.32**	1
ID						0.37**	0.07	0.04	0.07	0.09

Note. Significant levels for the correlation coefficients are based on a double-sided T-Test. BLL = Brand Loyalty for Laundry Detergent; PML = Preference for Monetary Promotions Laundry Detergent; PNML = Preference for Nonmonetary Promotions for Laundry Detergent; HM = Hedonism for Monetary Promotions; HNM = Hedonism for Nonmonetary Promotions; BLD = Brand Loyalty for Deodorant; PMD = Preference for Monetary Promotions Deodorant; PNMD = Preference for Nonmonetary Promotions Deodorant.

p*-value < .10. *p*-value < .05.

In Table 4, the correlation coefficients for the variables in the study are presented. This table is revealing in several ways. First, only one of the coefficients of the original independent variables of the model, preference for monetary promotions deodorant (PMD), shows a significant relationship with brand loyalty (BL), the dependent variable in the study.

Second, the significant negative correlation between the preference for monetary promotions (PMD, PML) and hedonism (HM) for both products is noted. As hedonistic and utilitarian benefits are opposite poles of the same scale, this implies that monetary promotions are perceived to offer utilitarian benefits. This finding is consistent with findings from previous studies (Chandon et al., 2000; Palazón-Vidal & Delgado-Ballester, 2005).

Third, there is a significant negative correlation between the variables, preference for nonmonetary promotions deodorant (PNMD) and preference for monetary promotions deodorant (PMD), and hedonism for deodorant. This represents another interesting finding of this study, as results suggest that both PMD and PNMD are associated more to utilitarian benefits. If one compares these results to previous studies (Chandon et al., 2000; Palazón-Vidal & Delgado-Ballester, 2005), a relationship between preference for monetary promotions and utilitarian benefits would be expected. However, a relationship between nonmonetary promotions for deodorant (PNMD) and utilitarian benefits would not be expected (see Table 4). As hedonistic and utilitarian benefits are opposite poles of the same scale, this implies that some nonmonetary promotions are perceived to offer more utilitarian benefits than hedonic benefits.

Lastly, there is a significant positive correlation between brand loyalty (BL) and involvement for both products (IL, ID). This finding also is consistent with findings from previous studies. For example, Douglas (2011) suggested that involvement is a critical antecedent to brand loyalty, while Joseph and Sivakumaran (2009) found that high levels of involvement could lead to brand equity. According to Aaker (1991), brand equity is a multidimensional concept, and brand loyalty is one of the main components.

To test the hypotheses of this study, multiple regressions were performed between the independent variables, (a) hedonism for monetary promotions; (b) hedonism for nonmonetary promotions; (c) preference for monetary promotions; and (d) preference for nonmonetary promotions, as predictors of the dependent variable (brand loyalty).

Table 5 presents a comparison between the two product categories analyzed in this study.

Table 5

Regressions with Control Variables

Independent Variable	Brand Loyalty Laundry Detergent Model			Brand Loyalty Deodorant Model		
	Regression Coefficient b(i)	T-Value to test H0: B(i) = 0	Prob. Level	Regression Coefficient b(i)	T-Value to test H0: B(i) = 0	Prob. Level
Intercept	11.26	2.84	0.01	9.13	3.19	0.00
Age	0.02	0.71	0.48	0.01	0.41	0.68
Gender	-0.27	-0.27	0.79	0.41	0.62	0.53
Household of two or more	0.59	0.61	0.55	0.27	0.42	0.68
Hedonism Monetary Promotions	-0.18	-1.12	0.27	0.04	0.33	0.74
Hedonism Nonmonetary Promotions	-0.03	-0.17	0.87	0.02	0.17	0.86
Preference for Monetary Promotions	-0.19	-1.20	0.23	0.21	1.61	0.11
Preference for Nonmonetary Promotions	0.27	1.92	0.06	-0.03	-0.27	0.79
R²	0.0505			0.0392		

The results for both product categories show there is no relationship between the independent variables or the control variables (age, gender, and household composition) and brand loyalty (the dependent variable of the study) at a 5% significance level.

Additional regressions were performed to include the independent variable of involvement. With involvement as part of the model, the results are quite different. Involvement is significant in both models.

Table 6

Regressions with Involvement Variable

Independent Variable	Brand Loyalty Laundry Detergent Model			Brand Loyalty Deodorant Model		
	Regression Coefficient b(i)	T-Value to test H0: B(i) = 0	Prob Level	Regression Coefficient b(i)	T-Value to test H0:B(i) = 0	Prob Level
Intercept	-0.13	-0.04	0.97	5.15	1.81	0.07
Age	0.03	1.20	0.23	0.00	0.10	0.92
Gender	1.08	1.45	0.15	0.74	1.20	0.23
Household of two or more	0.89	1.24	0.22	0.08	0.13	0.90
Hedonism Monetary Promotions	-0.09	-0.79	0.43	0.02	0.18	0.86
Hedonism Nonmonetary Promotions	0.01	0.04	0.96	-0.03	-0.25	0.81
Involvement	0.54	9.36	0.00	0.31	4.09	0.00
Preference for Monetary Promotions	-0.08	-0.66	0.51	0.18	1.41	0.16
Preference for Nonmonetary Promotions	0.17	1.58	0.12	-0.03	-0.34	0.73
R²	0.4822			0.171		

A comparison between the original model and the new model including involvement shows a significant increase in R^2 . The R^2 of the model laundry detergent increases from 0.0505 to 0.4822 when involvement is added and from 0.0392 to 0.171 for deodorant. The next step was to replace the preference for categories of promotion type (monetary or nonmonetary) with preferences for specific forms of promotion in the model. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Regression of All Items in the Study

Independent Variable	Brand Loyalty Laundry Detergent Model		Brand Loyalty Deodorant Model	
	Regression		Regression	
	Coefficient b(i)	Prob. Level	Coefficient b(i)	Prob. Level
Intercept	0.58	0.86	6.40	0.04
Age	0.03	0.24	0.00	0.95
Gender	1.21	0.13	0.67	0.29
Household of two or more	-0.24	0.40	0.26	0.25
Hedonism for coupon	-0.31	0.25	-0.26	0.25
Hedonism for free gift	0.06	0.84	-0.20	0.46
Hedonism for buy two get 20% off	0.85	0.26	-0.04	0.95
Hedonism for a chance to win a prize	-0.11	0.68	0.00	0.99
Hedonism for free sample	-0.01	0.98	0.13	0.63
Hedonism for store special	0.15	0.59	-0.03	0.91
Involvement	0.55	0.00	0.30	0.00
Preference for buy two get 20% off	-0.35	0.22	0.46	0.06
Preference for coupon	0.14	0.69	0.09	0.78
Preference for free gift	0.47	0.17	-0.68	0.04
Preference for a chance to win a prize	0.38	0.20	0.30	0.17
Preference for free sample	-0.34	0.38	0.05	0.89
Preference for store special	-0.05	0.89	0.14	0.73
	R^2	0.5042	R^2	0.2359

Like previous regression results in the study, the model for brand loyalty laundry detergent only shows a significant relationship between involvement and brand loyalty. Interestingly, the model for brand loyalty deodorant shows more than one significant relationship besides involvement, namely, preference for “Buy 2 get 20% off” and preference for a “Free Gift.” This finding means that preference for “Buy 2 and get 20%” increases brand loyalty, while preference for a “Free Gift” decreases brand loyalty.

Summary of Hypotheses

Table 8 provides a summary of the hypotheses tested in this study along with statistical tests used and results for each of them.

Table 8

Summary of Hypotheses and Test Results

	Hypothesis	Statistical Test	Results
H1 _a :	The extent of hedonism for nonmonetary promotions will have a greater effect than the extent of hedonism for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for high involvement products.	Multiple Regression	Not supported
H1 _b :	The extent of hedonism for nonmonetary promotions will have a smaller effect than the extent of hedonism for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for low involvement products.	Multiple Regression	Not supported
H2 _a :	Preference for nonmonetary promotions will have a greater effect than preference for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for high involvement products.	Multiple Regression	Not supported
H2 _b :	Preference for nonmonetary promotions will have a smaller effect than preference for monetary promotions on brand loyalty for low involvement products.	Multiple Regression	Not supported

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the research, while Chapter V will summarize and discuss these results.

Chapter V

Summary and Conclusions

In this chapter, the research findings are summarized and discussed, and the conclusions are drawn.

Summary of the Study

Restatement of the problem. The purpose of this research was to assess how effective different promotions were at retaining consumers for subsequent brand purchases. For this purpose, a questionnaire consisting of 36 questions provided the data that was collected from 114 subjects.

The following sub-problems were identified:

1. Will the effect for nonmonetary and monetary promotions on brand loyalty vary according to the extent of hedonism or utilitarian benefits for low and high involvement products?
2. Will the preference for nonmonetary or monetary promotions on brand loyalty have a greater or lesser effect for low and high involvement products?

Review of the Findings

As previously notes, most recent studies have examined the convenience of using monetary promotions and its sales impact. The study of different types of nonmonetary promotions and their capability of creating preference for a product, based on the type of benefits they offer, have been examined, but with less interest. This study, like Chandon et al. (2000), Palazón-Vidal and Delgado Ballester (2005), and Raghurir et al. (2004), adopted a consumer-based approach to consider how sales promotions also can have an effect on a cognitive and emotional level that could later influence brand loyalty.

For the first set of hypotheses (H1_a and H1_b), it was theorized that the effect of nonmonetary and monetary promotions on brand loyalty were going to vary according to the extent of hedonism or utilitarian benefits for low and high involvement products. The second set of hypotheses (H2_a and H2_b), examined the effect between preference for different types of promotions (nonmonetary and monetary) and brand loyalty for high and low involvement products. Sets of regressions were performed to explore the relationships between the indirect variables and the dependent variable—brand loyalty. The results showed that none of the hypotheses were supported.

Preferences for neither type of sales promotion, nor the extent of perceived hedonic/utilitarian benefits of sales promotions, seem to impact brand loyalty for high/low involvement products the way it was expected. Although this finding was not anticipated, it offers valuable information about sales promotions.

The primary proposition of Hypotheses H1_a and H2_a dealt with the extent of perceived hedonic/utilitarian benefits of sales promotions and its impact on brand loyalty. Results obtained show that monetary promotions are perceived to offer more utilitarian benefits than hedonic. This finding is consistent with results from Chandon et al. (2000) and Palazón-Vidal and Delgado-Ballester (2005).

While monetary promotions are perceived to have more utilitarian associations, nonmonetary promotions are perceived to have more hedonic associations (see Table 4). This, on the other hand, contradicts Chandon et al. (2000) but supports Palazón-Vidal and Delgado-Ballester (2005) and Liao (2006) in that nonmonetary promotions are more flexible to pair with either hedonic or utilitarian benefits. It also is consistent with Liao's findings in that sometimes it is unachievable to identify pure utilitarian and hedonic

products in consumer real purchase situations.

Related to Hypotheses H2_a and H2_b, preference for type of promotion and brand loyalty results showed that “Buy 2 and get 20% off” for deodorant, a high involvement product, increases brand loyalty. This is one of the most significant findings to emerge from this study, as the assumption was that preference for nonmonetary promotions would have a stronger effect on brand loyalty for high involvement products. However, in this case, a monetary promotion is positively related to brand loyalty.

Besides “Buy 2 and get 20% off,” involvement was the other independent variable to positively impact brand loyalty on both models: deodorant and laundry detergent. The wider body of literature suggests that product involvement is a critical antecedent to brand loyalty, especially for high involvement products (Douglas, 2011). The present study confirms previous findings and contributes additional evidence suggesting that involvement can be a critical antecedent of brand loyalty even for low involvement products. Therefore, it could be argued that perhaps it is the relationship between the perceived benefits of sales promotions and the type of involvement that could not be supported.

Another unexpected finding that was statistically significant in the model for deodorant, and perhaps the most striking result to emerge from the data of this study, is that preference for “Gifts,” a nonmonetary promotion, decreased brand loyalty (see Table 4). Although the current study is based on previous studies that have provided evidence that sales promotions do have a positive impact on brand loyalty (Chandon et al., 2000; Liao, 2006; Palazón-Vidal & Delgado-Ballester, 2005), in this study, findings reveal that “Free Gifts,” a nonmonetary promotion, could affect brand loyalty negatively.

It also can be argued that the unexpected findings of this study illustrate the disagreement about the potential impact of sales promotions on brand loyalty in extant literature. Papatla's and Krishnamurthi's (1996) analysis proposed that promotions could have both a negative and positive dynamic effect. On the other hand, there are several studies that have shown a negative or neutral impact on brand loyalty (Blattberg & Neslin, 1989; Bridges et al., 2006; Diamond, 1992; Gedenk & Neslin, 1999; Simonson et al., 1994; Yoo et al., 2000).

For instance, Bridges et al. (2006) argued that promotion enhancement reduces brand loyalty due to the increased sensitivity to marketing mix activities for all brands in the category; therefore, it implies a reduced likelihood to buy previously purchased brands on promotions. Similarly, Gedenk and Neslin (1999) stated that the promotional status of previous purchases could differentially influence brand choice. They provided a very useful tool to measure promotional status by asking consumers after buying a brand on promotion, *Did you buy this brand because you like the brand, or because of the promotion?* If the answer is because of the promotion, then the promotion has provided negative purchase feedback. Perhaps Gedenk's and Neslin's findings can be used as an explanation as to why, in this study, preference for "Gifts" is negatively associated to brand loyalty, as it could be argued that consumers are engaging in this type of purchase because they are more interested in the free gift than the product itself.

Limitations of the Study

The findings in this report are subject to at least four limitations. First, these data apply only to the population of Puerto Rico, which is in its sixth straight year of a recession (Moody's Investor Services, 2012). Economic factors are a major influence on

how people spend their money and how they make purchasing decisions that can help them stretch their dollars.

Second, the current investigation was limited to two products: laundry detergent and deodorant. Both product categories can easily be found at any grocery store, pharmacy, or discount store. Plus, the two product categories chosen were considered to be very basic products that should be available in almost any household. This could be a limitation to the study because it excludes other types of products that could better represent different levels of involvement.

Also related to the product selection, it was assumed that the two product categories chosen for the study were to represent different levels of consumer involvement. However, the results from the study showed the difference in the level of involvement between the two products was not as significant as anticipated. The mean score for level of involvement was 16.5 for laundry detergent and 18.8 for deodorant, out of a minimum score of 3 and a maximum score of 21.

Translation of the scales from English to Spanish also can be considered a limitation of the study, especially for the perceived benefits of promotions (hedonic/utilitarian) scale. Although the adjectives used to describe the perceived benefits were correctly translated into Spanish, some of the meanings of the scale may have been lost in the translation, and, to many participants, the comparison of the adjectives could have been confusing.

Finally, the total sample of participants in the study was 114. With a relatively small sample size, caution must be applied, as the findings might not be transferable to the general population of Puerto Rico.

Implications and Recommendations for Future Studies

The findings of this study have a number of important implications for future research. The first involves the relationship between involvement and brand loyalty. In all regressions, involvement showed a very strong relationship with brand loyalty, the dependent variable, with p values $< .01$ for both laundry products and deodorant.

Belch and Belch (2008) classified sales promotions into consumer franchise building (CFB) and nonfranchise building (non-CFB). CFB contributes to the development and reinforcement of brand identity by communicating distinctive brand attributes, while non-CFB promotions try to generate immediate sales or shorten the buying decision. Joseph and Sivakumaran (2009) found that high levels of involvement combined with high levels of deal proneness and non-CFB promotion could lead to brand equity.

The concept of involvement has been extensively used as a moderating or explanatory variable in consumer behavior (Dholakia, 1997, 1998). According to Solomon (2004), many sales promotions are designed to increase product involvement. This study could not establish that a congruency between hedonic/utilitarian benefits, type of promotion, and brand loyalty is needed for sales promotions to influence brand loyalty. Therefore, it would be interesting to assess in future studies the effect of different monetary/nonmonetary sales promotions on product involvement and brand loyalty.

The findings of Chandon et al. (2000), Liao (2006), and Palazón-Vidal and Delgado-Ballester (2005) confirm that not all sales promotional tools are equally effective for all product categories. Similarly, DelVecchio et al.'s (2006) findings concluded that depending upon characteristics of the sales promotions and the promoted product,

promotions could either increase or decrease preference for a brand. If the debate whether sales promotions can positively influence brand loyalty or not is to be moved forward, a better understanding of the impact of nonmonetary and monetary promotions on brand loyalty needs to be developed. Also, future research should expand the number of product categories to be included in the study, to ideally three for each level of involvement, to have a wider spectrum for comparison.

Conclusion

The theoretical foundation of this dissertation is behavioral learning. According to behaviorists, learning is the result of the application of consequences (Huitt & Hummel, 2006). The basic claim of operant conditioning is that reinforced behaviors are more likely to persist than nonreinforced behaviors. According to Rothschild (1987), consumers become loyal to brands that are reinforcing to them. This study suggests that sales promotions can either reinforce or reduce the behavior of brand loyalty.

The findings for deodorant suggest that “Buy two get 20% off” (a monetary promotion) served as reinforcement to build brand loyalty. It makes sense that buying an additional product of the same brand in order to receive a 20% discount shows some sort of commitment to the brand. Still, the most important fact about this finding is that monetary promotions can enhance brand loyalty, contrary to findings of previous studies (Diamond, 1992; Yoo et al., 2000).

On the other hand, the findings also showed that “Free Gift” (a nonmonetary promotion) for deodorant could affect brand loyalty negatively. In Chapter IV, Table 3 showed the most preferred types of promotions, and preference for a “Free Gift” was the second favorite form of nonmonetary promotion among participants. Therefore, it could

be implied that because consumers prefer this type of promotion, their behavior might be prone to it as a reward to buy any brand.

There must be other external factors that are influencing this shift in behaviors. The economy must be a major influence. Puerto Rico's economy mirrors the U.S. economy, which currently is in a recession that has been going on for a few years. Consumer habits and behaviors have been influenced by a need to stretch the dollar. A new study in Puerto Rico, "Eating In," directed by the research council of the Chamber of Food Marketing, Industry & Distribution (MIDA by its Spanish acronym) (as cited in Santiago, 2012) has concluded that the recession has changed consumers' food-purchasing habits. Industry consultant, Peter Larkin (as cited in Santiago, 2012), added,

"The economy drives what happens in the industry, and it still is weak," he said.

"This situation has changed food consumers' buying habits, and retailers have to adapt and revise their strategies. What will be interesting, when the economy improves, is to see if customers stick to their new buying habits or return to their previous ones. Understanding this shift will be of utmost importance to retailers in the future." (para. 15)

Sales promotions serve as a last minute influencer up until the point of purchase, and results show some promotions can positively influence brand loyalty, while others do not. Joseph and Sivakumaran (2009) stated, "it is the characteristics of the market and the marketing actions taken by the company that decide whether promotions will contribute to building brand equity, and not just the promotion, as believed earlier" (p. 823). From a marketer perspective, the good news is that this study shows there is still loyalty to certain brands and that sales promotions can contribute to the on-going success of

marketing efforts if there is an appropriate understanding of the consumer and the market.

Summarizing, this dissertation has investigated the field of promotion marketing and adds knowledge to a growing body of literature on sales promotions and brand loyalty. This study validates previous findings from previous studies, while at the same time raises new questions about sales promotions and its relationship with brand loyalty. Also, this study has gone some way towards enhancing one's understanding of product involvement and brand loyalty.

Five important findings were discussed:

1. Monetary promotions are perceived to provide more utilitarian benefits.
2. Nonmonetary promotions seem to provide more utilitarian benefits than hedonic benefits.
3. "Preference for Gifts," a nonmonetary promotion, could affect negatively brand loyalty.
4. "Buy 2 get 20% off," a monetary promotion, could have a positive impact on brand loyalty.
5. Involvement has a positive relationship with brand loyalty.

Appendix

Questionnaire

Questionnaire

Introduction and consent agreement for the study

Hi! My name is XXX. I am conducting a survey as part of a dissertation requirement for a doctorate degree at Nova Southeastern University in Ft. Lauderdale, Florida. I want to ask for your help to participate in a brief survey. The subject of the study is purchasing habits. There are no foreseeable risks associated to the study, and probably the main discomfort is just the time it will take to complete the questionnaire, which I anticipate will be less than 15 minutes. This research is of great significance to academia as it extends the knowledge base that currently exists in the field. All information collected will remain confidential, neither names, nor any information that can personally link you to the study will be collected. Still, all data will be coded to safeguard anonymity. Again, the completion of the survey should not take more than 15 minutes, your participation is completely voluntarily and you may discontinue at any time.

Questionnaire

1. Are you the person in charge of purchasing groceries for the household?
Yes ___ No ___
2. Have you purchased laundry detergent within the past 3 months?
Yes ___ No ___
3. Have you purchased deodorant for the past 3 months?
Yes ___ No ___

Demographics:

4. Gender:
___ Female ___ Male
5. City/Town:
Metro Area (San Juan, Carolina, Bayamon, Guaynabo) _____
Caguas area _____
South area (Ponce) _____
West area (Mayaguez) _____
6. Household size
1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5+ _____

7. Age _____

Product category involvement

8. In selecting the many types of brands of available in the market, would you say:

I would not care at all as to which one I buy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I would care a great deal as to which one I buy
Laundry detergent								Laundry detergent
Deodorant								Deodorant

9. Do you think that the various types brands of Are all very alike:

All are very alike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	All are very different
Laundry detergent								Laundry detergent
Deodorant								Deodorant

10. How important is it for you to make the right brand choice for:

Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely important
Laundry detergent								Laundry detergent
Deodorant								Deodorant

Brand Loyalty

11. What is the brand of the most recent laundry detergent you have purchased?

12. What is the brand of the most recent deodorant you have purchased?

Brand Loyalty – Laundry detergent (based on the last brand purchased)

Using a scale from 1 to 5, for which 1= *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neutral*, 4= *agree*, and 5= *strongly agree*. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about the brand.

13. I consider myself to be loyal to _____ brand of laundry detergent.

___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

14. _____ would be my first choice laundry detergent.

___1 ___ 2 ___3 ___4 ___ 5

15. I will not buy other brands if _____ laundry detergent is available at the store.

___1 ___ 2 ___3 ___4 ___ 5

Brand Loyalty – Deodorant (based on the last brand purchased)

Using a scale from 1 to 5, for which 1= *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neutral*, 4= *agree*, and 5= *strongly agree*. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about the brand.

16. I consider myself to be loyal to _____ deodorant.

___1 ___ 2 ___3 ___4 ___ 5

17. _____ would be my first choice of deodorant.

___1 ___ 2 ___3 ___4 ___ 5

18. I will not buy other brands if _____ deodorant is available at the store.

___1 ___ 2 ___3 ___4 ___ 5

Preferred form of promotion

Using a scale from 1 to 5, for which 1 = *very unlikely*, 2 = *somewhat unlikely*, 3 = *neither/neutral*, 4=*somewhat likely* and 5 = *very likely*.

Indicate the extent to which each of the following types of promotion will influence you to purchase _____ brand of laundry detergent.

19. \$1.00 off coupon

___1 ___ 2 ___3 ___4 ___ 5

20. "Store special - Save 75 cents on the purchase of _____ laundry detergent"
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5
21. "Buy 2 _____ laundry detergent and save 20%"
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5
22. "Free prize with the purchase of _____ coking oil"
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5
23. "Try a free sample of _____ laundry detergent"
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5
24. "Fill this form for a chance to win a free vacation" ___
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

Using a scale from 1 to 5, for which 1 = *very unlikely*, 2 = *somewhat unlikely*, 3 = *neither/neutral*, 4=*somewhat likely* and 5 = *very likely*.

Please, Indicate the extent to which each of the following types of promotion will influence you to purchase _____ brand of deodorant.

25. \$1.00 off coupon
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5
26. "Store special - Save 75 cents on the purchase _____ deodorant"
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5
27. "Buy 2 of units of _____ deodorant and save 20%"
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5
28. "Free prize with the purchase of _____ deodorant"
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5
29. "Try a free sample _____ deodorant"
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5
30. "Fill this form for a chance to win a free vacation"
 ___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

Hedonic and Utilitarian Dimensions

For each type of promotion, please indicate which of the adjectives/words best describes the type of promotion. This section applies to any type of product, any type of brand. Choose only one answer per line.

31. \$1.00 off coupon

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Helpful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unhelpful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Effective	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/>
Functional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Not functional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necessary	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unnecessary	<input type="checkbox"/>
Practical	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unpractical	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not fun	<input type="checkbox"/>	Fun	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dull	<input type="checkbox"/>	Exciting	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>	Thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unenjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>

32. Store special - Save 75 cents on the purchase of the product.

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Helpful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unhelpful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Effective	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/>
Functional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Not functional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necessary	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unnecessary	<input type="checkbox"/>
Practical	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unpractical	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not fun	<input type="checkbox"/>	Fun	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dull	<input type="checkbox"/>	Exciting	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>	Thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unenjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>

33. Buy two and save 20%

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Helpful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unhelpful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Effective	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/>
Functional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Not functional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necessary	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unnecessary	<input type="checkbox"/>
Practical	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unpractical	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not fun	<input type="checkbox"/>	Fun	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dull	<input type="checkbox"/>	Exciting	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>	Thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unenjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>

34. Buy the product and get a free gift

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Helpful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unhelpful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Effective	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/>
Functional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Not functional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necessary	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unnecessary	<input type="checkbox"/>
Practical	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unpractical	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not fun	<input type="checkbox"/>	Fun	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dull	<input type="checkbox"/>	Exciting	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>	Thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unenjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>

35. Try a free sample

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Helpful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unhelpful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Effective	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/>
Functional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Not functional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necessary	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unnecessary	<input type="checkbox"/>
Practical	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unpractical	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not fun	<input type="checkbox"/>	Fun	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dull	<input type="checkbox"/>	Exciting	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>	Thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unenjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>

36. With the purchase of the product, you can fill this form for an opportunity to win a free major prize

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Helpful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unhelpful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Effective	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/>
Functional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Not functional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necessary	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unnecessary	<input type="checkbox"/>
Practical	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unpractical	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not fun	<input type="checkbox"/>	Fun	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dull	<input type="checkbox"/>	Exciting	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>	Delightful	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>	Thrilling	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unenjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>

Questionnaire – Spanish version
Introducción y consentimiento para el estudio

¡Saludos! Mi nombre es _____. Solicito me ayude con su participación en una breve encuesta sobre hábitos de compra. El estudio es parte de los requisitos de la tesis doctoral de Marifé Méndez para la universidad Nova Southeastern en el estado de Florida. No existen riesgos previsibles relacionados con el estudio. Probablemente, la molestia principal será el tiempo que le tomará contestar el cuestionario, que no debe tomarle ni 15 minutos. Este estudio es de gran importancia en el ámbito educacional, ya que ampliará el cúmulo de conocimientos que tenemos al presente en este campo. Toda la información recopilada será confidencial; no se pide el nombre ni ningún otro dato que pueda vincularle con el estudio. Aún así, todos los datos se codificarán con el fin de proteger su anonimato. Permítame reiterarle que la encuesta no le tomará más de 15 minutos, que su participación es completamente voluntaria y que puede suspender la encuesta en cualquier momento.

Cuestionario

1. ¿Es usted el que se encarga de hacer la compra en su casa?
 Sí ___ No ___
2. ¿Ha comprado jabón de lavar ropa en los últimos 3 meses?
 Sí ___ No ___
3. ¿Ha comprado desodorante en los últimos 3 meses?
 Sí ___ No ___

Datos demográficos:

4. Género:
 ___ Femenino ___ Masculino
5. Residencia:
 Área Metro (San Juan, Carolina, Bayamón, Guaynabo) _____
 Área Caguas (Caguas, Aguas Buenas, Gurabo, San Lorenzo, Cayey) _____
 Área sur (Ponce, Guayama, Juana Díaz) _____
 Área oeste _____
6. Tamaño de la unidad familiar
 1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5+ _____
7. Año en que nació _____

Compromiso con la categoría de los productos

8. Al seleccionar de entre las muchas marcas de jabón de lavar ropa y desodorante disponibles en el mercado, ¿qué diría usted de la marca que selecciona?

Compro cualquiera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Selecciono con cuidado
Jabón de lavar ropa								Jabón de lavar ropa
Desodorante								Desodorante

9. ¿Cree que las distintas marcas de jabón de lavar y desodorantes se parecen mucho?

Todas se parecen mucho	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Todas son muy diferentes
Jabón de lavar ropa								Jabón de lavar ropa
Desodorante								Desodorante

10. ¿Cuán importante es para usted escoger la marca correcta de jabón de lavar y desodorante?

No tiene importancia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sumamente importante
Jabón de lavar ropa								Jabón de lavar ropa
Desodorante								Desodorante

Lealtad a marcas

11. ¿Cuál es la marca del último jabón de lavar ropa que compró?

12. ¿Cuál es la marca del último desodorante que compró?

Lealtad a marcas – jabón de lavar ropa (conteste según la última marca que compró)

En una escala del 1 al 5, en que 1= *totalmente en desacuerdo*, 2 = *en desacuerdo*, 3 = *neutral*, 4= *de acuerdo* y 5= *totalmente de acuerdo*, indique cuán conforme está con las siguientes aseveraciones sobre la

marca. 



13. Me considero leal a la marca de jabón de lavar ropa _____.

___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

14. _____ sería mi primera selección entre los jabones de lavar ropa.

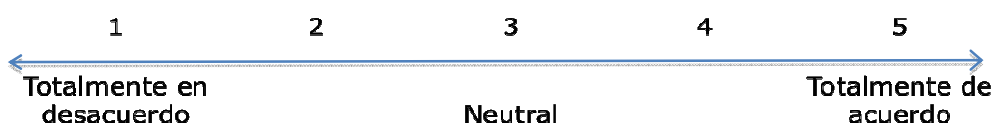
___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

15. No compro otra marca, si la tienda tiene el jabón de lavar ropa _____.

___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

Lealtad a marcas – desodorante (conteste según la última marca que compró)

En una escala del 1 al 5, en que 1= *totalmente en desacuerdo*, 2 = *en desacuerdo*, 3 = *neutral*, 4= *de acuerdo* y 5= *totalmente de acuerdo*, indique cuán conforme está con las siguientes aseveraciones sobre la marca.



16. Me considero leal al desodorante _____.

___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

17. _____ sería mi primera selección entre los desodorantes.

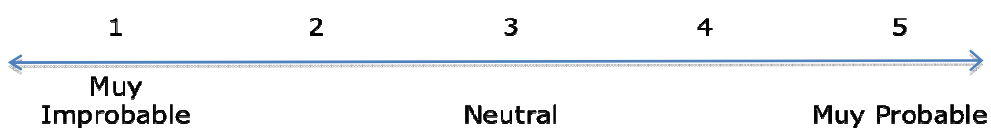
___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

18. No compro otra marca, si la tienda tiene el desodorante _____.

___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

Promoción preferida (conteste según la última marca que compró)

En una escala del 1 al 5, en la que 1 = *muy improbable*, 2 = *un tanto improbable*, 3 = *ninguno o neutral*, 4= *un tanto probable* y 5 = *muy probable*, indique en qué medida cada uno de los siguientes tipos de promoción le motivarían a comprar el jabón de lavar ropa _____.



19. Cupón de descuento de \$1.00 en el jabón de lavar ropa _____.

___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

20. “Especial del gerente – Ahorre 75 centavos en la compra de _____ jabón de lavar

___1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5

21. “Compre 2 jabones de lavar ropa _____ y ahorre 20%”

___1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5

22. “Artículo gratis con la compra del jabón de lavar ropa _____”

___1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5

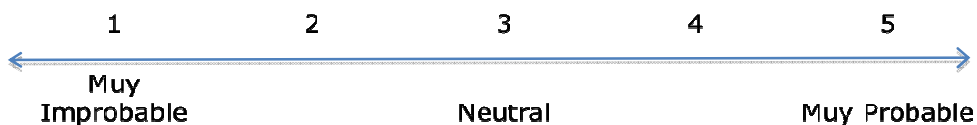
23. “Muestra gratis del jabón de lavar ropa _____”

___1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5

24. “Con la compra de _____ llene este cupón y podría ganar un gran premio”

___1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5

En una escala del 1 al 5, en la que 1 = *muy improbable*, 2 = *un tanto improbable*, 3 = *ninguno o neutral*, 4 = *un tanto probable* y 5 = *muy probable*, indique en qué medida cada uno de los siguientes tipos de promoción le motivarían a comprar el desodorante marca _____.



25. Cupón de descuento de \$1.00 en la compra del desodorante _____

___1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5

26. “Especial del gerente – Ahorre 75 centavos en la compra del desodorante _____”

___1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5

27. “Compre 2 unidades del desodorante _____ y ahorre 20%”

___1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5

28. “Artículo gratis con la compra del desodorante _____”

___1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5

29. “Muestra gratis del desodorante _____”

___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

30. “Llene este cupón y podría ganar un gran premio”

___1 ___2 ___3 ___4 ___5

Dimensiones de satisfacción y utilidad

Indique las palabras que describan mejor cada tipo de promoción. En esta sección **no importa la marca del producto** (desodorante o jabón de lavar ropa). **Seleccione una sola palabra por cada línea.**

31. Cupón de \$1.00 de descuento

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Útil	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco útil	<input type="checkbox"/>
Eficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>
Funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necesario	<input type="checkbox"/>	Innecesario	<input type="checkbox"/>
Práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>
Aburrido	<input type="checkbox"/>	Divertido	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poco interesante	<input type="checkbox"/>	Excitante	<input type="checkbox"/>
Desagradable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agradable	<input type="checkbox"/>
Común	<input type="checkbox"/>	Novedoso	<input type="checkbox"/>
Placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>	No placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>

32. Especial del gerente – Ahorre 75 centavos en la compra

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Útil	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco útil	<input type="checkbox"/>
Eficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>
Funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necesario	<input type="checkbox"/>	Innecesario	<input type="checkbox"/>
Práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>
Aburrido	<input type="checkbox"/>	Divertido	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poco interesante	<input type="checkbox"/>	Excitante	<input type="checkbox"/>
Desagradable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agradable	<input type="checkbox"/>
Común	<input type="checkbox"/>	Novedoso	<input type="checkbox"/>
Placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>	No placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>

33. Compre dos y ahorre 20% en la compra del producto

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Útil	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco útil	<input type="checkbox"/>
Eficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>
Funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necesario	<input type="checkbox"/>	Innecesario	<input type="checkbox"/>
Práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>
Aburrido	<input type="checkbox"/>	Divertido	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poco interesante	<input type="checkbox"/>	Excitante	<input type="checkbox"/>
Desagradable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agradable	<input type="checkbox"/>
Común	<input type="checkbox"/>	Novedoso	<input type="checkbox"/>
Placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>	No placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>

34. Artículo gratis con la compra del producto

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Útil	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco útil	<input type="checkbox"/>
Eficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>
Funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necesario	<input type="checkbox"/>	Innecesario	<input type="checkbox"/>
Práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>
Aburrido	<input type="checkbox"/>	Divertido	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poco interesante	<input type="checkbox"/>	Excitante	<input type="checkbox"/>
Desagradable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agradable	<input type="checkbox"/>
Común	<input type="checkbox"/>	Novedoso	<input type="checkbox"/>
Placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>	No placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>

35. Muestra gratis del producto

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Útil	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco útil	<input type="checkbox"/>
Eficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>
Funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necesario	<input type="checkbox"/>	Innecesario	<input type="checkbox"/>
Práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>
Aburrido	<input type="checkbox"/>	Divertido	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poco interesante	<input type="checkbox"/>	Excitante	<input type="checkbox"/>
Desagradable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agradable	<input type="checkbox"/>
Común	<input type="checkbox"/>	Novedoso	<input type="checkbox"/>
Placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>	No placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>

36. Con la compra del producto podrá llenar este cupón para participar en el sorteo de un gran premio, completamente gratis.

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Útil	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco útil	<input type="checkbox"/>
Eficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ineficaz	<input type="checkbox"/>
Funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco funcional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Necesario	<input type="checkbox"/>	Innecesario	<input type="checkbox"/>
Práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poco práctico	<input type="checkbox"/>
Aburrido	<input type="checkbox"/>	Divertido	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poco interesante	<input type="checkbox"/>	Excitante	<input type="checkbox"/>
Desagradable	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agradable	<input type="checkbox"/>
Común	<input type="checkbox"/>	Novedoso	<input type="checkbox"/>
Placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>	No placentero	<input type="checkbox"/>

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