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**The Effects of Acculturation On Consumer Interests Toward
Sales Promotion Techniques: An Empirical Study of French
and English Canadians**

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In
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Of
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ABSTRACT

The Effects of Acculturation On Consumer Interests Toward Sales Promotion Techniques: An Empirical Study of French and English Canadians

Nadia Zgolli

This study investigated how the Fishbein-Ajzen model applies to the deal proneness construct. A cognitive-attitude-behavior multidimensional model is conceptualized to integrate all aspects of sales promotion responsiveness. The impact of several moderators such as lifestyles, demographics and acculturation dimension are integrated to the model and tested in the empirical research. This study also distinguishes among different types of deals and examines the differences between French and English Canadian consumers in terms of their responsiveness to each type of deals. The result reveals that several differences in terms of lifestyles and demographics exist between the two cultures. Several managerial implications are highlighted for future improvement in promotional strategies.

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Any shortcomings are mine.

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INTRODUCTION

Sales promotions have constituted an increasing proportion of the promotional budgets in recent years. Donnelley's survey (1994) found that packaged goods manufacturers' spending on consumer sales promotions now exceeds the amount spent on advertising and that firms are using on average more than eight different types of consumer sales promotion. Because of this trend, considerable research has been directed to study the sales promotion mechanism in an attempt to identify and understand the deal-prone consumer. Nevertheless, findings pertaining to sales promotion context have somewhat failed to clarify correlates of deal proneness due to their inability to consider deals from the consumer's perspective (Shimp and Kavas, 1984), to the use of single product categories for the assessment of deal proneness (Henderson, 1987), the failure to treat deal proneness as a latent construct (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer & Burton, 1990) that may be domain specific (1990), and the lack of distinction made among the attitudinal and behavioral constructs when measuring the deal proneness concept.

Furthermore, results of prior research done in that matter indicate that demographics yield a much less clearer portrait of the deal prone consumer than do other variables. According to Blattberg and Neslin (1990, p. 77), "the deal prone literature has yielded some important definitive results, but they are far from completely understood. The challenge for researchers is to identify better those consumers who possess that trait".

In addition, one potentially important relationship that has not been adequately explored is the effect of a consumer's ethnic background on his or her response to deals. The research in this area is limited to only one dimension of deal proneness that is

response to coupons. The consensus here is that ethnic consumers are not coupon prone (Kaufman and Hernandez, 1990) and that coupon redemption levels among them are well below that of the general population.

Using the sample of French and English Canadians as an empirical research, this study emphasizes on how these two groups that dominate the Quebec market show different patterns in terms of consumer deals interests.

Along with acculturation, we focus on how lifestyle variables influence the responsiveness to deals and examine the main characteristics of each ethnic group in a promotional context.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The purpose of my thesis is to determine the process followed by French and English Canadian consumers in their usage of sales promotion techniques for grocery shopping. It aims at identifying the various factors that influence the consumer's decision to use promotions. A conceptual model drawn from the Fishbein-Ajzen (1975) Attitude Model is hypothesized for the Canadian market. A cognitive-attitude-behavior multidimensional model is conceptualized to integrate all aspects of how and why consumers use sales promotion. In other words, it specifies the linkage between consumers' beliefs and attitude and behavior.

Furthermore, the study attempts to examine the influence of acculturation level, lifestyles and demographic variables on the deal usage process.

The primary questions guiding this research are:

- 1- Does consumers' responsiveness to deals follow a Fishbein-Ajzen pattern (Cognitive-attitudinal-behavioral pattern)?
- 2- Is Deal Proneness concept best conceptualized as a generalized level (single construct that encompasses the various types of deals), or as a deal-specific level?
- 3- How do lifestyle variables affect the process by which consumers respond to sales promotion?
- 4- What is the impact of demographics on deal proneness and usage?
- 5- How does acculturation affect deal attitudinal and behavioral linkage?

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 1: SALES PROMOTION DEFINITION

1- Definition of sales promotion

Sales promotion has been defined as a “direct inducement that offers an extra value or incentive for the product to the sales force, distributors or the ultimate consumer with the primary objective of creating an immediate sale” (Schultz and Robinson, 1982).

In fact, sales promotion is a term often used to encompass all promotional activities other than advertising, personal selling, or public relations. Blattberg and Neslin (1990) summarize the various definitions offered by several authors (Kotler, 1988; Webster, 1981; Davis, 1981), and develop the following definition of sales promotion: “Sales promotion is an action-focused marketing event whose purpose is to have a direct impact on the behavior of the firm’s customers”.

Several important aspects of sales promotion should be highlighted to complete the definition mentioned above. First, sales promotion involves some type of inducement that provides an extra incentive to buy (Robinson and Schultz, 1982) that represents the key element in a promotional program. According to Strang (1983), this incentive is additional to the basic benefits provided by the brand and temporarily changes its perceived price or value.

A second point regarding sales promotion is that it is primarily an acceleration tool designed to speed up the selling process and maximize sales volume (Neslin, Quelch and Henderson, 1984). By offering an extra incentive, sales promotion techniques can motivate consumers to buy a larger quantity of a brand or shorten the interpurchase time

of the trade or the consumers by inducing them to take more immediate action.

Finally, sales promotion can be targeted to consumers or marketing intermediaries. Consumers are clearly the ultimate target of all promotions but the immediate target depends on whose behavior the manufacturer wants to influence directly (Blattberg and Neslin, 1990). The authors state that often a sales promotion technique can influence both the trade (marketing intermediaries such as retailers and distributors of the manufacturer who are customers of the manufacturer but resell the products to consumers or to other trade entities) and consumers simultaneously.

Since the objective of the present research is to investigate the impact of ethnicity on consumer sales promotion, we will focus only on sales promotion aimed at consumers. We will discuss in the next section these various types in detail and point out the principal distinctions among them.

2- Types of consumer-oriented sales promotion

Different authors have identified different categories of consumer-oriented sales promotion. But according to the International Chamber of Commerce's (ICC) International Code of Sales Promotion Practices, consumer-oriented sales promotion encompasses the following techniques:

1- Sampling: by definition, "sampling includes any method used to deliver an actual- or trial-size product to consumers" (Shimp, 1993, p. 491). According to this author, marketers can offer samples in different ways: (1) by direct mail, either alone or in

cooperation with other brands; (2) through flat samples included in print media; (3) through door to door by special distribution crews; (4) in or on the package of another product that offers as the sample carrier; (5) at high traffic locations such as shopping centers, movie theaters, or special events; (6) and in store, where demonstrator samples are available for trial.

Sampling is generally considered the most effective way of generating trial, though it is the most expensive. As a sales promotion technique, sampling is often used to introduce a new product or brand to the market (Belch and Belch, 1995).

2-Couponing: “ A coupon is a promotional device that provides cent-offs savings to consumers upon redeeming the coupon” (Shimp, 1993, p. 496). Coupons are delivered through a variety of modes that differ in their ultimate objective. Coupons can be disseminated to consumers through newspapers and magazines, direct mail and packages. Distribution through newspaper free-standing inserts (FSIs) is by far the most popular method for delivering coupons to consumers. In the United States, FSIs accounted for over 80% of all coupons distributed in 1991 (Hume and Strnad, 1991). In the eighties, only 15% of coupons were distributed by FSI and nearly 75% were distributed through newspapers and magazines as run-of-paper coupons (ROPs) (PMAA, 1982).

The latter means that the advertisement carrying the coupon is part of the regular newspaper/magazine pages and not a separate section or insert. This change in trend is due to the superiority of FSIs in capturing the consumer’s attention and in overcoming the competitive clutter.

In Canada, the distribution of coupons was tremendous during the 1980’s and early 1990’s. According to NCH Promotional Services, Canada’s foremost coupon

clearing organization, 15.3 billion coupons were distributed in Canada in 1994, 78% of them were retailer in-ads (RIA's) which are coupons included in retailer specific circulars. Of the coupons redeemed, the average face value in 1994 was about \$0.68.

U.S. coupon distribution trends have been much more pronounced than Canada's. Coupon distribution in the USA has increased from 181 billion coupons in 1984 to 310 billion in 1994, a 71% increase in just a decade. While the bulk of coupon activity has traditionally been made among grocery products, the distribution of coupons for health products and cosmetics has increased by 270% in the last 10 years.

3- Premiums: A premium is an offer of merchandise or service either free or at a low price that is used as an extra incentive for buyers (Belch et al, 1995, p. 494). Several forms of premium offers, serving different purposes exist. The three major types of offers are free-in-the-mail premiums, in- and on-pack premiums, and self-liquidating premiums.

4- Price-off: It is a reduction in a brand's regular price. Price-off reductions are offered right on the package. Typically, price-offs range from 10 to 25 percent of the regular price, with the reduction coming out of the manufacturer's profit margin, not the retailer's. According to Blair and Landon (1981), the major reason for marketers to use the price-off reductions is that this type of deal usually presents a readily apparent value to shoppers, especially when they have a reference price point for the brand, therefore they can recognize the value of the discount. Finally, The Federal Trade Commission has regulations regarding the conditions that price-off labels must meet and the frequency and timing of their use.

5- Bonus Packs: These are extra quantities of a product that a company offers to consumers at the regular price by providing larger containers or extra units. Bonus packs result in a lower cost per unit for consumers and provide extra value, as well as more product for the amount of money paid. Several reasons for using bonus packs exist. First, they represent a direct way for marketers to reward existing consumers without getting them involved in more complicated types of sales promotion. In addition, they offer an extra value to consumers that is readily clear, and therefore can be effective in loading current users and thereby, removing them from the market and making them less susceptible to a competitor's promotional effort.

6- Refunds and Rebates: "They refer to the practice in which manufacturers give cash discounts or reimbursements to consumers who submit proofs of purchase" (Shimp, 1995, p. 520). Typically, a refund refers to cash reimbursement for packaged goods, whereas a rebate more often refers to reimbursements for durable goods. These two sales promotion techniques provide users a delayed rather than an immediate value since the consumer has to wait to receive the reimbursement. This delayed reward decreases the interest of consumers in such techniques. Indeed, consumers often think that manufacturers only use these practices when their products are not selling well (Tat, Cunningham and Babakus, 1988).

7- Contests and Sweepstakes: They offer consumers the chance to win cash, merchandise or travel prizes. However there are differences between the two practices. A contest is a promotion where consumers compete for prizes or money on the basis of skills or ability. Contests usually offer a purchase incentive by requiring a proof of purchase to enter or an entry form provided by the dealer or in the advertisement.

In a sweepstakes, winners are determined purely by chance. Accordingly, proofs for purchase cannot be asked for as a condition for entry. Generally, sweepstakes have much more appeal and generate greater response because they require less effort, are relatively inexpensive, and are able to accomplish a variety of marketing objectives (Jagoda, 1984). However, the effectiveness and appeal of sweepstakes is generally limited if the sweepstakes is offered alone. Its usage has to be tied-in with advertising, point-of-purchase displays, and other promotional tools to produce significant results.

8- Event Sponsorship: Another type of consumer-oriented promotion that has become popular in recent years is event sponsorship, in which a company develops sponsorship relations with a particular event. Usually sports receive two-thirds of the event sponsorship budget (4.2 \$ billion budget spent by 4,500 companies in 1994) (Shimp, 1993, p. 494).

CHAPTER 2: Sales Promotion Process: Psychological Models of Response to Sales Promotion

Sales promotion sets in motion a complex interaction of management decisions and consumer behavior. Marketers have to understand and figure out not only how but why consumers use sales promotion techniques. The consumer behavior domain offers a rich collection of theories that shed light on this issue. The purpose of this section is to describe some of these theories and to examine how they apply to the domain of sales promotion.

1- Attribution Theory:

“Attribution theory is concerned with all aspects of causal inferences: how people arrive at causal inferences, what sort of inferences they make and what the consequences of these inferences are” (Folkes, 1988). In other words, it specifies how consumers explain the causes of events. These explanations are referred to as attributions and result directly in attitude change rather than in behavioral change.

Recent attribution research has examined consumers’ causal inferences for a variety of outcomes. A commonly studied issue examines attributions for product purchase or selection. These studies attempt to manipulate consumers’ beliefs so that they attribute selection either to liking for the product or to situational incentives, such as the consumer chose it to impress someone else or because they had a chance to redeem a coupon or use another sales promotion’ means (Scott and Yalch, 1980; Tybout and Scott ,1983).

Mizerski et al. (1979) distinguishes among three types of attribution theories: self-perception theory, object perception and person perception. These three theories differ in terms of the object about which the attribution is made. In this research, we will only focus on the self-perception theory (the why-did-I-buy question) because of its frequent usage in the promotions context.

According to Bem (1972), who first developed this theory, people form their attitudes by observing their past behavior and inferring dispositions or attitudes consistent with those actions. To the extent that individuals attribute their behavior to internal causes such as their own beliefs or predispositions to behave as they did, such behavior is used as a basis for deciding their subsequent behaviors. However, if there is a plausible external cause for a behavior, individuals will be less likely to conclude that their own beliefs were the cause and, thus, the probability that the behavior in question will continue is diminished (Sawyer and Dickson, 1983). In fact, self-perception theory is most readily applicable to repeat purchasing after a promotion. One of the pioneers in this area is Scott (1976), who applied self-perception theory to the situation in which a small purchase is induced in the hope that it will enhance the likelihood of subsequent purchase. More specifically, she used an experimental design with newspapers' subscriptions to investigate the effects of trials and incentives on repeat purchase. She predicted that those who took advantage of a trial subscription of the newspaper offered to them, would be more likely to become regular subscribers. The trial in that case, would be attributed to positive feelings about the newspaper. She also predicted that those who were offered larger incentives to try the newspaper would be less likely to become regular subscribers, as larger incentives increase the possibility of trial being

attributed to the incentives rather than to the positive feelings about the newspaper. Scott's study did not confirm the first hypothesis and partially confirmed the second, thus raising some questions about the adequacy of self-perception theory to explain responsiveness to deals.

Dodson et al. (1978) also applied self-perception theory, but in a different manner, since they focused on deal retraction and hypothesized that both the monetary value of the deal and the effort to redeem the deal would determine the attribution made to a deal purchase, and hence, to the behavior when the deal is retracted. For instance, a deal requiring considerable effort to redeem but having low monetary value is likely to lead to higher repeat purchase. There is higher probability of the effort being attributed to liking for the brand as opposed to the monetary value. The authors found that purchase of a preferred brand when media-distributed coupons were used, had a negative impact on the likelihood of repeat purchase on the brand. The authors also suggested another explanation to this result, by stating that when individuals buy on deal (with moderate effort to redeem and substantial economic value), they will attribute their brand selection to the deal. Consequently, self-perception theory predicts that when the deal is retracted, people who had switched brands to take advantage of the deal will have less motivation to repurchase the brand than if no deal had been offered. Moreover, consumers who had purchased the brand prior to the deal would attribute the brand purchase to the deal and would be less likely to be brand loyal when the deal was retracted than if no deal had been offered.

In general, self-perception theory seems to be quite effective in explaining the effects of deals and deal retraction on repeat purchase behavior, however it does not

provide an explanation about how these effects occur.

Research (Scott and Yalch, 1980) attempted to clarify this issue in a consumer context, through a direct test of the hypothesis-testing proposition representing the cognitive process underlying self-perception based inferences. The authors used a 2 (availability of coupon) \times 2 (opportunity to visualize the product prior to testing) \times 3 (quality of the objective taste of the drink) crossed experimental design.

The examination condition, which represented the treatment condition, would encourage the subjects to make some reflections about the reasons for their choice of the drink to taste. The researchers predicted that subjects given a coupon and encouraged to think about the choice they made, would attribute the causes to external factors and thus would not be as receptive to the drink's taste compared to those not given a coupon. On the other hand, when subjects were not encouraged to explain the reason for their choices, the coupon would serve as a positive reinforcement.

As predicted, in the examination condition, offer of an incentive yielded lower taste evaluation than if no incentive were offered. However, when subjects were in the no-examination condition, provision of an incentive resulted in higher taste evaluation than if no incentive was provided. Furthermore, the authors wanted to make sure that subjects did actually make the attributions that are hypothesized to cause the results. Therefore, they directed a survey and found that "rewarded subjects who examined the product before tasting it would report the most external attributions" (Scott and Yalch, 1980, p.37). This was likely to provide evidence on the validity that indeed subjects made attributions as to why they undertook certain behaviors.

Other studies resorted to the “taste-test” methodology to explore the drawbacks of the self-perception theory. As an example, Tybout and Scott (1983) found that availability of well-defined internal knowledge mediates attitude formation.

In the experiment, the authors manipulated the order in which subjects either tasted the brand or received information on other people’s taste evaluations of the brand, under the assumption that those tasting the brand first, would develop more well-formed internal knowledge about the brand. Results confirmed this assumption, since the subjects, who tried the drink first formed more positive attitudes toward the brand when an incentive was present than when an incentive was absent. Moreover, subjects, who received others’ taste evaluation first, formed less favorable attitudes toward the brand when an incentive was present than when it was absent.

To sum up, we can assert that, taken together these experiments show strong evidence that promotions can have either a positive or a negative effect on brand evaluation. Negative effects occur when the internal knowledge of a consumer encourages him/her to attribute brand selection to promotion, whereas positive effects take place when the consumer does not attribute his/her choice to the promotion. Another evidence shown by these studies is that the salience of an individual’s own behavior is a necessary condition for attributional analysis to occur.

2- Price Perception Theory:

The major interest of price perception theories has been the identification of the relationship between objective price and consumers’ judgments of the price. In a sales

promotion context, we know that many techniques involve price reduction. Therefore, the process by which consumers perceive prices becomes problematic in determining the adequate size and presentation of price discounts. In this research, we will briefly review some of the theories of price perception and report some findings in the sales promotion body of research.

Weber's law suggests that buyers' reactions to a specific price depend on the characteristics of the set of comparison prices to which they are exposed. Generally, this law implies that as a base price of an item increases, consumers will become less sensitive to a given absolute decrease in price through sales promotion. Dickson (1983) tested the Weber's Law for gasoline prices, and found it not descriptive of sales response to changing prices at different levels for gasoline. In addition, according to Blattberg and Neslin (1990, p. 41), this law is more applicable in the pricing context than in the promotion context.

In 1964, Helson developed another theory that is relevant in the price perception area. It suggests that perceptions of new stimuli are developed relative to an "adaptation level". The latter is determined by prior and current stimuli which, an individual has been exposed to. It thus, changes over time as an individual is exposed to new stimuli. The implication of this theory in a pricing context is that, consumers will adapt to new price levels and will consequently not resist price increases as much as might be expected, particularly if the increases are frequent and small (Sawyer and Dickson, 1984).

In a more recent research directed by Folkes and Wheat (1995), the type of promotion significantly affected consumers' price perception. The study compared price perceptions for rebates, coupons and sales. Offering a product with a rebate resulted in higher

perceptions as measured by the most one would pay, expected price, fair price and reasonable price. This difference is explained from a Mental Accounting perspective.

The price perception theory has also been used by Monroe (1973) and Winer (1986) to explain the lower post promotion repeat rates. These two authors agree on the fact that a lower price undermines the “consumer’s adaptation level” or reference price perception of what the brand should cost. As a result, a subsequently observed regular price seems higher and the brand is less likely to be purchased.

In the same line of reasoning, Cheong (1993) studied the effects of the most common sales promotion technique, namely cents-off coupon, on five selected market response variables: price perception of the brand, repeat purchases, total amount spent during store visit, total number of items purchased, and consumer surplus. Part of the findings of Cheong is that coupon purchases influenced price perception of the brand more than consumer surplus, which was defined as the difference between the reservation price and the price actually paid. The former referred to the highest price that the consumer would be willing to pay for the brand. However, the author failed to explain whether the magnitude of the reduction offered by the coupon is taken into consideration by shoppers in their price perceptions’ formation.

It is widely accepted that price expectations are a function of the consumers’ past experience with price and readily available price information. Some coupon advertising, such as FSIs or magazine coupons, just state the savings in terms of cents-off. R.I.A’s, on the other hand, usually state the price to be paid as a result of the coupon usage. Consequently, price perception may vary according to the coupon vehicle, or the manner in which the discount is formulated.

Another research, in agreement with Cheong's study is the one done by Kalwani, Yim, Rinne and Sugita (1990) on price expectation. This study proposes that consumers form expectations of prices and use them in formulating their response to retail pricing. Their findings reveal that consumer reaction depends not only on retail price, but also on the comparison they make with the reservation price. In other words, consumers use the price they expect to pay for a brand on a given purchase occasion as reference in forming price judgments.

Their study showed that consumers tended to use the last few purchase prices as a reference, as well as readily available information from the environment. This information included RIA's in circulars as well as other advertising information. The authors warned that frequent price reductions tend to lower the consumer's expectation of the brand's price. This could be explained by the fact that in spite of the awareness of the consumer about the promotional price paid for the brand, he/she gets accustomed to paying the lower price. In that case, the promotional price becomes the reference price.

Cheong's study (1993) indeed is a special application of this promotional pricing result to the coupon technique. The results showed that coupon usage itself had also yielded lower perception of price among consumers who had employed them to make a purchase.

Given this body of past research, it seems logical to posit that even though the consumer knows that the price he is paying is special or promotional, his/her perception of the brand's price is lowered.

Finally, the study conducted by Dickson and Sawyer (1986) is noteworthy, since it is unique in showing the evidence of point-of-purchase perceptions. Indeed, the researchers conducted a broad price-perception study at the point of purchase, in which more than 800 supermarket shoppers were asked within seconds of selecting an item and placing it in their shopping baskets. This study is unique in that it explored new issues of price awareness and also uncovered interesting findings regarding perceptions of price promotions. The main findings of this study can be summarized as follow:

- Among consumers who purchased an item on price promotion, 49.1% were conscious that it was on promotion, 27.2% thought it was at its usual price, and 23.1% were not sure. We notice that less than half of those who purchased on promotion knew they had bought on promotion. This raises the challenge that only a minority of consumers goes through the process of forming reference prices and assimilating/contrasting a new price (Dickson and Sawyer, 1986).
- Among those aware that they had bought on promotion, 56.2% could not guess the amount of the price reduction, 28.9% guessed wrong and only 12.9% could actually remember the amount of the reduction. However, 50% were able to report exactly the amount paid per item, without looking at their basket. This could be summarized by saying that consumers were aware of the final price and aware that they had bought on promotion, but just ignored the amount of the reduction.

Interestingly, there was a tendency for consumers to understate the amount of the price reduction, yet also understate the price they paid. According to the authors, these results imply that if consumers had internal reference prices, they were lower than the

true regular prices. They attribute this result to the frequency of promotions that could have lowered the average reference price.

Research also provides salience of the “discounting of discount” by consumers (Gupta and Cooper, 1989), implying that consumers have perceptions of the regular price and sale price. This result complements the finding of Krishna, Currim and Shoemaker (1991), who in their study on consumer perception of promotional activities, found that the proportion of product-class buyers having an opinion on sale price of a specific brand-size ranged from 43.3% to 69.9% of the total sample size. Buyers appeared to be able to distinguish between a large and a small price discount for certain brand sizes. In addition, across the nine brand-sizes of the product used in the experiment, one third of the buyers had a reasonably accurate opinion on the regular price of a specific brand-size. These buyers were able to contrast the sale price with the perceived regular price to evaluate the “goodness” of a specific price deal.

3- The Perceived Risk:

As identified by Cunningham (1966), there are two components of risk the consumer faces in purchasing a new product: uncertainty about how the brand will perform and the consequences of poor performance. Accordingly, consumers may reduce risk either by reducing uncertainty or reducing the consequences of an incorrect choice.

According to Assael (1987), there are four main types of risk that could be relevant to sales promotion usage for an untried brand: financial risk, performance risk, psychological risk and social risk.

Financial risk is the risk that in making a purchase one may have not spent money wisely, or even lose one's money if the product purchased fails. Financial risk tends to be a function of the cost of a product relative to the disposable income of the buyer. It is larger the more money is involved in the purchase and the longer the consumer will have to live with the decision.

Performance risk is the risk that the product is technically complex or involving health and safety. For instance, the author provides the example of a consumer who might be reticent to switch brands of deodorant if there is a perceived risk that the new brand might not combat body odor, in which case there is also a psychological risk involved.

Psychological risk is the risk that the product choice might not conform to his or her self-image. Finally, social risk is the risk that a purchase may not meet the standards of an important reference group. Each of these types of risk will be mediated by the consumer's ability to bear risk.

Academically, there have been several attempts to test the perceived risk in a sales promotion context. Roselius (1971) surveyed consumers regarding their opinions on the best ways to reduce risk. In his study, he only employed free samples as promotion tool. Consumers reported that in order to reduce financial risk, they tried to buy major well-known brands and be loyal to the brand one has been satisfied with. Some of the limitations of this early study is that it occurred before the real explosion in use of sales promotion. Furthermore, the author relied on self-report, which might not be the optimal tool for consumers to report the way they reduce risk. However, in light of this early result, we can underline the importance of brand image and brand loyalty in risk

reduction.

A later study conducted by Shoemaker and Shoaf (1975) rendered evidence that consumers buy a smaller size when trying a new brand than when repurchasing the brand. This result is consistent with the idea that buying a smaller size is a risk reduction mechanism. However, the same authors reported that free samples distributed prior to purchase did not decrease the tendency for the first purchase to be a smaller size than subsequent purchases. This result disconfirmed the hypothesis previously mentioned. This could be explained by the fact that the sample may have been too small to allow consumers to taste or try all the attributes, and thus, the first actual purchase will still be of a smaller size.

After this study, few other studies have attempted to study the effect of perceived risk on behavior in a sales promotion context. On the other hand, many researchers tried to assess the effect of deals on perceived quality and image of the product or brand promoted.

4- The Perceived Quality:

It is widely known that price is an important indicator of the level of quality for consumers. According to several authors, (Berkman & Gilson, 1986; Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton, 1990; Low and Lichtenstein, 1993), the perceived quality-price relationship is related to the compelling desire to minimize perceived risk.

Early research on the effect of promotion (Dodson et al, 1978) draws on self-perception theory to suggest that a brand's evaluation is lowered when that brand is promoted, because consumers attribute their purchase to the promotion rather than to the

intrinsic quality of the brand. Examining Chicago Tribune panel data, they showed that the aggregate probability of repurchasing a brand decreased after it was promoted.

Doob et al. (1969) applied dissonance theory to predict a negative effect of promotion on product or brand evaluation. Their findings reveal that consumers need not retain so high an evaluation of a brand selected with a promotional incentive because there is less dissonance to resolve. Consistent with this result, Guadagni and Little (1983) found that an independent variable, suggesting whether or not the last purchase of a certain brand was on promotion, carries a negative coefficient in predicting the probability of choosing that brand in the current time period.

After a deep review of these findings, Neslin and Shoemaker (1989) claimed that those results could be caused by the manner in which data were aggregated. The authors indeed suggested the possibility to observe a decrease in aggregate repurchase probability due to promotion even-if the individual level repurchase probabilities were unchanged. Though their evidence does not directly test the hypothesis of a negative effect for promotion, it does provide an alternative explanation for observed results. To fill this gap, the authors expanded their work by directly testing the hypothesis of a negative effect for promotion and by performing that test on the brand evaluation construct. After initial measurement of shoppers' evaluation, brands in test categories were promoted for 3 months. At the end of the promotion manipulation period, brand evaluations were remeasured. The hypothesis that overall evaluation of promoted brands would decrease was rejected, confirming the results of both previous studies.

A more recent study done by Davis, Inman and McAlister (1992) built on Neslin and Shoemaker work (1989) by providing a more basic test of Dodson et al. (1978).

Rather than examining repurchase probabilities, they looked directly at brand evaluation. The null hypothesis of the pioneering work done by Dodson et al (1978), who asserted that promotion would lower brand evaluation was tested in a shopping environment. After an initial assessment of brand evaluations, test categories were promoted regularly while control categories were never promoted. Three months later brand evaluations were remeasured, and the results disconfirmed the null hypothesis of a negative effect of promotion on brand evaluation and perceived quality. Consistent with Neslin and Shoemaker conjuncture, results showed that promotions provided a strong influence at the point of choice. However, there was no evidence that the memory of the promotion lingers to drive down brand evaluations.

Concomitant with this reasoning, Lichtenstein and Low (1993) attempted to expand these findings and to investigate the joint effect of sales promotion (or double deal) on consumer attitudes, and more specifically, they focused on brand image and perceived quality. They examined the effect of advertised reference price and free premium with purchase on consumer attitudes. The study manipulated three levels of advertised reference price and three levels of free premium value in a retail advertisement. The results revealed that the effect of a free premium on consumer attitudes depends on the level of the advertised reference price. Counter to the authors' expectations, at low levels of advertised reference price, consumers' brand image and perceived quality were more favorable when the value of free premium was high. At a high level of advertised reference price, consumers' brand image and perceived quality were less favorable when the value of the free premium is low, than when it is high. At a medium level of advertised reference price, consumers' product attitudes were similar

across free premium values.

5- Other Models of Response to Sales Promotions:

According to Blattberg, Buesin, Peacock and Sen (1978), four categories of cost affect the household inventory decision associated with deal proneness. Transaction cost is “the opportunity cost of the time required to buy an item once the consumer is actually in the store plus the opportunity cost of travel time required to get to and from the store where the purchase on deal takes place” (p. 371). Storage cost represents interest on the capital required to maintain a given level of inventory plus the cost of the required space. Stockout cost reflects the foregone utility of not consuming an item that is not in stock at the time it is demanded, and finally observed price per item is the final component of cost. After having defined the various types of costs involved in the purchase on deal decision process, the authors formulated a mathematical model to quantify it. Then, they attempted to identify the variables that really applied to these categories of costs in the deal proneness segments. According to this model, they posited that the households that were more likely to be deal prone were: homeowners, car owners, households with no children below 6 years old and without working wives.

In the same line of reasoning, Blattberg, Eppen and Lieberman (1981) developed a model, which analyzed how consumers and retailers purchased in a product category. They assumed in their model that the consumer would minimize holding cost and the retailer would maximize profits that depend upon the consumer behavior. The authors classified consumers into two types: a high holding costs segment and a low-holding cost segment. The researchers added that the retailers would offer a promotion if the low-

holding consumer stockpiles and holds inventory rather than the retailer, otherwise it is not economically advantageous for the retailer to promote. In the latter case, retailers would prefer to charge consumers a high price and not pass the savings on to the consumer because they are more efficient in holding the inventory.

Blattberg et al. (1981) did attempt to test the model and compared its implications to an alternative model, which assumed that promotions were used to induce trial for a product or a brand. The empirical results showed that consumers did stockpile products. Analyzing four product categories, consumers were found to stockpile in one of two ways: purchase a greater quantity on deal, and purchase before they normally would if no deal is offered.

Another explanation to the sales promotion usage has been offered through the price discrimination. Two variables allow discriminating between consumer segments: time and inventory carrying costs. Narasimhan (1984) developed a model to explain how coupons (one of the most used techniques of sales promotion) affected the quantity bought. The theory behind his model assumes that the consumer is required to devote time to using coupons. The higher the consumer wage rate, the greater time used to redeem coupons. Narasimhan uses many of the demographic concepts to develop his conceptual model of the consumer. He follows a utility approach and assumes that consumers face three constraints: a time constraint, an income constraint and the quantity of product X purchased must exceed the quantity of product X bought with coupons.

Based on his model, Narasimhan derived several implications. The first one pertains to time. Indeed, he reported that as the wage rate and opportunity cost of time decrease, coupon usage increases, and that higher-priced brands will offer larger coupon

savings. He also showed in his model a difference in price responsiveness between coupon users and noncoupon users, with regard to their price elasticities. In fact, he showed that coupon users were more price elastic, and thus concluded that couponing was used to price discriminate.

Schindler (1984) conducted a very interesting study to investigate the psychological mechanisms behind the greater responsiveness to coupons vis-à-vis other types of sales promotions, such as price reduction. As a first step, he developed a game played by subjects in a lab experiment, that simulated certain aspects of supermarket shopping. The author divided two variations of the basic game in order to test the relative importance of several possible psychological mechanisms behind the coupon effect. Mechanisms, which involved the ability of coupons to enhance the awareness of consumers of a low price or to communicate the existence of a “regular” price, received only limited support in the data. Rather, the results indicated that a more important cause of the coupon cause effect is the coupon’s ability to provide the consumer with a choice about whether or not to get a discount. When getting a discount by virtue of a personal decision, a consumer can take the credit for getting the discount and feel like a “smart shopper”. Hence, the cents-off coupon seems to enhance the perceived value of a price promotion by additionally giving the consumer a feeling of pride in having realized an interesting saving. In light of this result, the author concluded that the “price choice mechanism which holds that winning a discount and being a smart shopper enhance the subjective value of the discount, may be the most important of the three mechanisms studies” (p. 51), and which are supposed to account for the coupon effect. The mechanisms studied are respectively: attention/awareness mechanism, which assumes

that a coupon draws the consumer's attention to the price reduction.

The second mechanism consists of the discount information mechanism, and hypothesizes that a coupon conveys information about the price reduction from a "regular" price. Finally, the last mechanism is the price choice mechanism, which implies that the judgment process in the decision of whether or not to redeem a coupon may directly influence the judgment process in the major decision of whether or not to purchase the brand.

A very recent study undertaken by Gönül and Srinivasan (1996) investigated the premise that consumers may anticipate future promotions and adjust accordingly. For that purpose, the two researchers developed a structural model of households who make purchase decisions to minimize their expenditure over a finite period. They assume in their model that "a rational consumer minimizes the present discounted value of a cost of a purchase where cost in a single period consists of purchase price, inventory holding costs, gains from coupons and stockout costs" (1996, p. 262). Their findings were consistent with their expectations, since their analysis of a panel data in the disposable diaper product category, provided insights on the beliefs held by consumers about future coupons. These beliefs were likely to impact the purchase decision of households in that product class. These expectations differ conditional on current coupon availability. In other words, when consumers expected coupon to be highly available in a certain period of time, their consumption was likely to defer purchase until the next period as long as their inventory for this period was sufficient. Another noteworthy result was relative to the stockout cost of the product. The authors found a high stockout cost for the diapers that increased as the consumption increased. These stockout costs included

transportation, cost and value of time spent to obtain the product. However, the researchers attributed this result to the nature of the product used in their methodology and therefore remained cautious as for the interpretability of this finding.

In a final stage, the authors observed that the purchase probability declined with higher inventory levels, and that at any level of inventory, the probability of purchase was higher when a coupon was available.

Finally, and concordant with what has just been reported, in a very recent study conducted by Dhar and Hoch (1996), the authors compared the effectiveness of in-store coupons and straight off-the-shell price discounts (bonus buys) in generating incremental sales and profits for the retailer. In five field studies, they found that, on average, in-store coupons lead to a 35% greater increase in the promoted brand's sales than bonus buys offering the same level of discount.

Collectively, the key findings obtained from these different studies agree on the price discrimination that characterizes some of the sales promotion techniques vis-à-vis other techniques. More precisely, coupons constitute the most price discriminating technique due to many factors that are not within the scope of the present study.

CHAPTER 3: Consumer Response to Sales Promotion (Behavior)

Nowadays, in the consumer goods markets, sales promotion techniques have become the key influences in many product categories because they constitute a mechanism to bring the product to the attention of the consumers. Promotions are also designed to influence behavior, which is immediately observable, unlike advertising which is often considered to affect attitudes, the antecedent of behavior. Many authors agree that the literature on sales promotion can be organized into three major categories: the effects of 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.

In this research, we will focus on the last two categories above mentioned, and we will uncover the evolution of prior studies dealing with that area of research.

In this section, we will start by reviewing the main findings of the two last categories according to their chronological evolution to clarify the contribution of each study to the existing literature.

1- Effects of Sales Promotion on Purchase Behavior

Apparently the first researcher, who investigated the effects of promotions on purchase behavior was Shoemaker (1979), who empirically identified the purchase acceleration due to sales promotion. He compared promotion to nonpromotion purchases for three product categories, in terms of both quantity bought and elapsed time from the

previous purchase. While he did not assess the statistical significance of his results, his findings suggested that promotions were more apt to be associated with increased quantity than with shorter interpurchase time.

Two years later, Blattberg et al. (1981) directed a study to explain the dealing of storable products based on the idea of transferring inventory carrying costs from the retailer to the consumer. However, as evidence of this relationship, they conducted an analysis of the consumer response to deals similar to Shoemaker's. For four product classes, they found statistically significant evidence of purchase acceleration in terms of both larger quantities and shorter interpurchase times. They also found that the degree of purchase acceleration differed by product class and by package size.

Raju and Hastak (1983) examined the effect of deal's magnitude on one other variable of the purchase behavior due to promotions. More specifically, they focused on the pre-trial effects of cents-off coupons, which represent the most popular sales promotion technique. The authors tested those effects in an experimental setting. Their results showed that at the aggregate level, coupons did have an influence on behavioral intention to try the brand. At the individual level however, they seemed to function as an effective distracting element by inhibiting negative thoughts that might arise about the brand. Furthermore, they found that the likelihood of trying the brand and positive deal related thoughts increased with the magnitude of the deal. The authors concluded that deals did indeed affect positively the likelihood of trial due to the economic incentive.

One year later, Neslin, Quelch and Henderson (1984) expanded this empirical line of inquiry by developing an analytical framework for studying purchase acceleration. They assumed promotion to have a positive effect on quantity and a negative effect on

interpurchase time. They also hypothesized interpurchase time on its own to be positively related to purchase quantity. The authors estimated their model for two product classes, and in different consumer segments. Moreover, many promotion tools were used in their experiment. The main findings concern purchase quantity that was accelerated by both price and nonprice promotions. Coupons, temporary price cuts, and featured price cuts were all associated with higher purchase quantity. However, the hypothesis regarding interpurchase time was not confirmed, since the authors found that time was not accelerated by promotions. More specifically, coupons, feature advertising and temporary price cuts were not associated with decreased interpurchase time. Another result pertained to the loyalty of consumers. In fact, loyal and non loyal purchases were different in terms of acceleration of quantity, but not in terms of acceleration of interpurchase time. The researchers explained this result by claiming that accelerators might not only be those stocking up on their favorite brands. Finally, the purchase acceleration was found to be stronger among heavy users of the product class than among light users, which was quite logical.

Litvack et al. (1985) designed an experiment related to the purchase acceleration mechanism. They investigated the effects of a price cut on sales of “stock-up” versus “non-stock up” items. They defined stock-up items as “any nonperishable good in a unit size that is consumed frequently by a purchaser’s household” (p.10). In their experiment, the authors shared the 72 product categories into stock-up versus non-stock-up products, and observed the sales of both groups of products before, during and after a price cut. The researchers found that the sales of stock-up products were significantly more price-sensitive than were those of non-stock up products. Interestingly, the authors

did not observe the post-promotion decrease in sales for the stock-up items that would be expected if the sales of stock-up items had been accelerated. The authors attributed this result to the short promotion period used in their experiment.

Building on these various studies, Gupta (1988) attempted to answer the question pertaining to the impact of sales promotions on when, what and how much to buy, which in turn determines the overall sales of a brand. There are two main assumptions to Gupta's model. First, consumers made choices in a particular situation: they first decide when to buy, and then decide how much and which brand. Second, the author hypothesized that the brand choice and quantity decisions were independent. He developed three models to capture each variable. He used the multinomial logit model based on behavioral theory of utility to quantify the brand choice model. Then, he employed the Erlang-2 distribution for interpurchase time, and a simple regression model to quantify the purchase quantity as a linear function of exogenous variables. He then, used an IRI (Information Resources, Inc.) panel data for coffee to calibrate and validate the models. His results revealed that of the total sales increase due to promotions, only 14% or less was accounted for by purchase time acceleration, and less than 2% by stockpiling. Brand switching caused the remaining 84%. He concluded by saying that "promotional sales due to purchase time acceleration and stockpiling cannot be considered as true incremental sales because at least some of these consumers would have purchased the promoted brand in the future anyway" (p. 352). He reported that this finding could be attributable to the nature of the product category tested, and that stockpiling and purchase acceleration could represent much more important factors in other product categories, such as canned food or paper towels.

The same author in association with Bucklin (1992) conducted another study in relationship with this issue, in which they hypothesized the existence of different segments in the population, with some segments being more price sensitive and/or more responsive to sales promotions than other segments. They assumed the difference to lie in more than one dimension, namely brand choice and category purchase.

Using a latent class approach, Bucklin and Gupta identified four such segments in the liquid detergent category (high/low response on the brand choice dimension combined with high/low response on the category choice dimension). Their results confirmed their hypothesis that there are segments that differ in promotion response.

In summary, there is good deal of empirical support for the acceleration effect of sales promotions. It should be noted, however, that the specific findings are tied to the range of data and categories investigated. In fact we noticed that mostly, all the empirical findings reported in this section are for consumer packaged goods that are frequently promoted. Therefore, one has to be cautious in generalizing these findings to other product classes.

2- Effect of Sales Promotion on Subsequent Choice Behavior

In this section we are going to examine the prior findings pertaining to the effects of basic mechanisms by which promotion affects sales. As in the previous section, we will follow a chronological order to review the various studies that dealt with the effects on sales promotion on subsequent choice behavior.

According to Neslin and Blattberg (1990, p. 119), there are two relevant theories that address the promotion usage repeat purchase effect, namely the operant conditioning and the attribution theory. Operant conditioning considers promotions as a recompense that allows the consumer to learn to continue buying the product. It is viewed as a reinforcement needed by consumers to sustain their behavior. The attribution theory as we saw in a previous section, regards the causal inferences consumers make when they buy a product. These two theories have been in contradiction, which led researchers to focus more on that issue in their studies.

Shoemaker and Shoaf (1977) were among the first researchers to examine the promotion usage effect on repeat purchases. They conducted an analysis of repeat rates following purchases made on deal by reviewing the first two purchases in a sequence and then observing the probability of buying the same brand on the next purchase situation. The authors found that deal purchases caused a decrease in the consumer's probability of repurchasing the brand. Nevertheless, Neslin and Shoemaker (1989) suggested another explanation to this result. Indeed, they reported that the individual purchase probability does not change, but the promotion temporarily attracts a large number of consumers with low nonpromotion purchase probability for the brand. The aggregate repeat rates following promotion purchases are then decreased by these low purchase probability households, who repurchase at their usual low probability. The key explanation presented by the two authors to clarify this result is that the promotion attracts a disproportionately large number of low-probability purchasers.

Dodson et al. (1978), in an earlier study, also looked at the impact of deals on another sales promotion mechanism, that is brand switching. Their analysis of panel data for two

consumer packaged goods revealed that media-distributed coupons and cents-off deals induced brand switching and yielded less loyalty when retracted than if no deal was offered. In contrast, package coupons stimulated brand loyalty, which was maintained when they were retracted. The researchers explained this finding through economic and self-perception theories. They indeed propose that the former predicts the effects of deals on brand switching in situations where the salient cue on which a brand decision is made is based on an economic variable. However, when this economic cue is confounded by the presence of noneconomic cues (such as an individual's previous behavior) self-perception theory offers an explanation for the effects that takes place.

On the other hand, Bawa and Shoemaker (1987) tested four hypotheses on the effect of a coupon purchase on the couponed brand's repurchase probability. Hypothesizing about post-promotional choice behavior, they posited that the largest increase in the purchase probability of a couponed brand is among new triers of households that are infrequent users or nonusers of the brand. Bawa and Shoemaker found a significant increase in the purchase probability among nonusers of a promoted brand who bought the brand on promotion. However, there was no significant change in the probability of purchase of the brand users. In other terms, the authors found some evidence of positive effects only for new consumers.

Another study conducted by Lattin and Bucklin (1989, p. 308) evaluated the net effect of the "positive reinforcement of previous purchase behavior" and "negative effects of past promotional purchase and exposure", and found a small, but significant, positive change in purchase probability following a promotional purchase. Lattin and Bucklin arrived at this conclusion without separating promotional purchasers into current users

and nonusers, unlike Bawa and Shoemaker (1987). Therefore, their result implies that promotion may have positive effects for both retained and attracted consumers.

In other words, the average postdeal purchase probability is higher than the predeal purchase probability for both users and nonusers.

The same Latin, in association with two other authors Ortemeyer and Montgomery (1991) examined the mediating effect of preferences. They hypothesized that prior promotional purchases have a strong negative effect when the consumer does not prefer the brand and little or no impact when the consumer has a strong preference for the brand. The latter hypothesis was confirmed by the parameter estimates of their model for the coffee category. Moreover, though not statistically significant, these estimates suggested that “there may be a positive impact of lagged promotional purchase at high levels of brand preferences” (p. 182). To the extent that an infrequent user or nonuser can be considered as a consumer with little or no preference for a brand, these results propose that the effect of prior promotional purchases may be opposite to those reported by Bawa and Shoemaker (1987).

Taken together these last studies indicate the positive effect of promotional purchases on subsequent or repeat purchases.

Another stream of research however, concludes differently. For instance, one of the first studies conducted by Dodson et al. (1978) found that the average repeat purchase rate after a purchase made on promotion is lower than the average repeat purchase rate after a purchase made on a regular price. On the basis of such results, the authors hypothesized a reduced brand loyalty of the consumers once the deals are retracted. Guadagni and Little (1983) reached the same conclusions based on the parameter

estimates of their choice model. According to their results, consumers who switch to a particular brand have a higher likelihood of rebuying that brand if they switched voluntarily than if they did so in response to a promotion.

The negative effects of promotions were explained by Dodson and al. (1978) based on the self-attribution theory, which postulates that consumers look for arguments and explanations for their own actions. Another explanation suggested by Neslin and Shoemaker (1989, p. 205) as we saw previously, is based on statistical aggregation. In other words, “a promotion is likely to attract many consumers who have a very low probability of buying the brand under non-promotion circumstances”.

Another study conducted by Kahn and Louie's (1990) examined the effects of promotional purchases on brand choice probabilities over a longer period than just the next purchase occasion. The authors proposed that the effects of promotional purchases depend on the natural brand switching patterns of consumers and the promotional environment of the product category. The first is employed to classify consumers into switchers (“those who have a tendency to switch away from the brand they purchased last”) and last-purchase loyal (“those who have a tendency to purchase the brand bought on the last purchase occasion”) (p. 281). Khan and Louie hypothesized that switchers are less likely to react negatively to prior promotional purchases than last purchase loyals. When overall promotional activity is high, that is when many brands are promoted equally or simultaneously, however, the negative effects of promotional purchases on future sales for last purchase loyals should be significantly reduced. The authors could confirm the hypotheses they stated in a lab experiment.

Two years later, Grover and Srinivasan (1992) attempted to determine the multiple effects of retail promotions on brand loyal and brand switching segments of consumers. They used a Bayesian approach to segment the market based on the IRI ground coffee data. The authors modeled the purchase quantity at the product category level because they assumed that the brand's promotional activity tended to have an effect on that brand's own sales and also on the sales of other brands in that category. According to the authors, these lagged effects are caused by consumers' purchase acceleration and stockpiling and their effects on the households' inventories. Their findings were very interesting since they pertained to the effects of past promotion to diminish over time. The authors rendered evidence on the long effect of past promotions that last longer for loyal segments than for switching ones. Obviously, that result reveals that brand loyal consumers have a tendency to accelerate their purchases and stockpile over a longer period of time than do consumers in switching segments. The latter expresses a weaker need to do so because there is always one brand in the product category that is on promotion.

The authors concluded their analysis by stating that different loyal segments tend also to respond to different promotional variables (e.g., coupon vs. feature) and that significant differences in lagged effects of promotion exist among the different loyal segments.

A recent research done by Papatla and Krishnamurthi (1996) aimed at offering a choice model that provides an estimate of the dynamic effects of promotions on loyalty to the brand and consumers' sensitivity to the price of the brand and measures whether promotional purchases reinforce or reduce subsequent response to similar promotions. The authors developed a model to track consumer's choices over time and assumed that a

consumer is likely to derive a certain utility from each brand usage and to make his brand choice based on the notion of utility maximization. In this model, several variables were accounted for, namely: price, interaction among three promotional variables: features, displays and price-cuts, and finally brand loyalty. To test this conceptual model, they analysed a household scanner panel data from the liquid detergent category. Their findings were consistent with prior results on brand loyalty for the low-involvement products, in that they found that increased purchases using coupons eroded brand loyalty and increased price sensitivity. Further, their evidence supported the notion that promotion could result in positive and negative dynamic effects. The negative effect consisted in the decreased brand loyalty for the brand on promotion, and also in the increased price sensitivity due to purchases made with coupons. These two potential effects of coupons have already been cited by other sources, such as Blattberg and Neslin, (1990). The results also indicated that prior purchases made on display and feature promotions, as well as the purchases made on interaction among the price cuts and displays or features enhanced subsequent response to such promotions. As for prior research, these results need to be interpreted cautiously because of the lack of generalizability due to the nature of product used in the analysis.

Finally, a later study that dealt with that matter and that builds on the prior results about the long term impact of sales promotion, is the one conducted by Mela, Gupta and Lehmann (1997). In this study, the authors investigated the long-term effects of promotion and advertising on consumers' brand choice behavior. The purpose of their study was to see whether consumers' responses to marketing-mix variables such as price, changed over a long period of time, and to examine whether the changes if they did exist,

were related to the manufacturers' advertising and retailers' promotions. The authors hypothesized that in the long run, non-price advertising was likely to decrease price sensitivity for consumers. They also expected the long-term effect of advertising on consumers' price sensitivity to be stronger for nonloyal consumers than for relatively loyal (and less price sensitive) ones.

With regard to promotions, the three researchers, based on previous results related to that issue, expected that over the long run, price-oriented promotions would make consumers more price sensitive by stressing price cues or signals. For non-price-oriented promotions, the opposite effect was expected, that is they would have a similar effect as advertising.

To test the ten hypotheses they stated, the authors employed the multinomial logit model to assess the effect of weekly (short run) price and promotion activities on consumers' brand choice response. In the second stage of analysis, they used the segment-level logit model by maximum likelihood to capture the impact of quarterly marketing variables on quarterly sensitivity. The data used for that purpose reported information for 8 years and 3 months of purchases for a common consumer good. The general finding reached after having analyzed these data confirmed the numerous hypotheses stated about advertising and promotions. In fact, the authors found that consumers tended to become more price and promotion sensitive over time because of reduced advertising and increased promotions. In addition, both loyal and nonloyal segments became more price sensitive over the long-term.

In fact, an increased usage of such types of promotions was found to train and form people to search for deals in the shopping stores, especially in the case of nonloyal

segments. As for the non-price promotions, the results were as hypothesized, in that they had different effects for loyal and nonloyal consumers. For the loyal segment, the non-price promotions had the same impact as advertising, that is they made them less sensitive to price. However, they had a different impact on the nonloyal consumers since they made them even more price sensitive. In other words, the non-price promotions reduced the price-sensitivity of loyal segments of consumers but dramatically enhanced the price sensitivity of nonloyal consumers. On the other hand, the effects of advertising were positive, in that this marketing-mix variable was found to help the brand, by making nonloyal consumers less sensitive to the price. In the long run, it also helped in reducing the size of the nonloyal segment. According to the researchers, their results are consistent with the notion that in the long-term, “advertising has “good” effects and promotions have “bad” effects on consumer brand choice behavior” (p. 258).

In summary, we can assert that previous research on post-promotional purchase effects has:

- dealt primarily with one type of promotional vehicle, namely coupons;
- mostly examined the impact on repeat-purchase probabilities and found evidence of both positive and negative effects;
- indicated that coupon promotions can have a negative impact; such impact however, may occur only in the case of loyal consumers, especially when the promotional activity is not very high.

CHAPTER 4: MODERATORS

1- The Deal Prone Consumer

From managerial and academic perspectives, a tremendous effort has been made to determine and understand the “deal-prone” consumer. According to Neslin and Blattberg (1990) two complementary streams of research focus on that issue. The first stream identifies the deal-prone consumer in terms of demographics, psychographics, behavioral and personality characteristics. On the other hand, the second stream of research blends the deal-proneness construct into a market segmentation design based on a consumer decision making process. In this study, we will emphasize more on the former because our primary objective is to investigate the sales promotion usage from a consumer perspective. However at the end of the section, we will review some of the findings pertaining to the second stream of research.

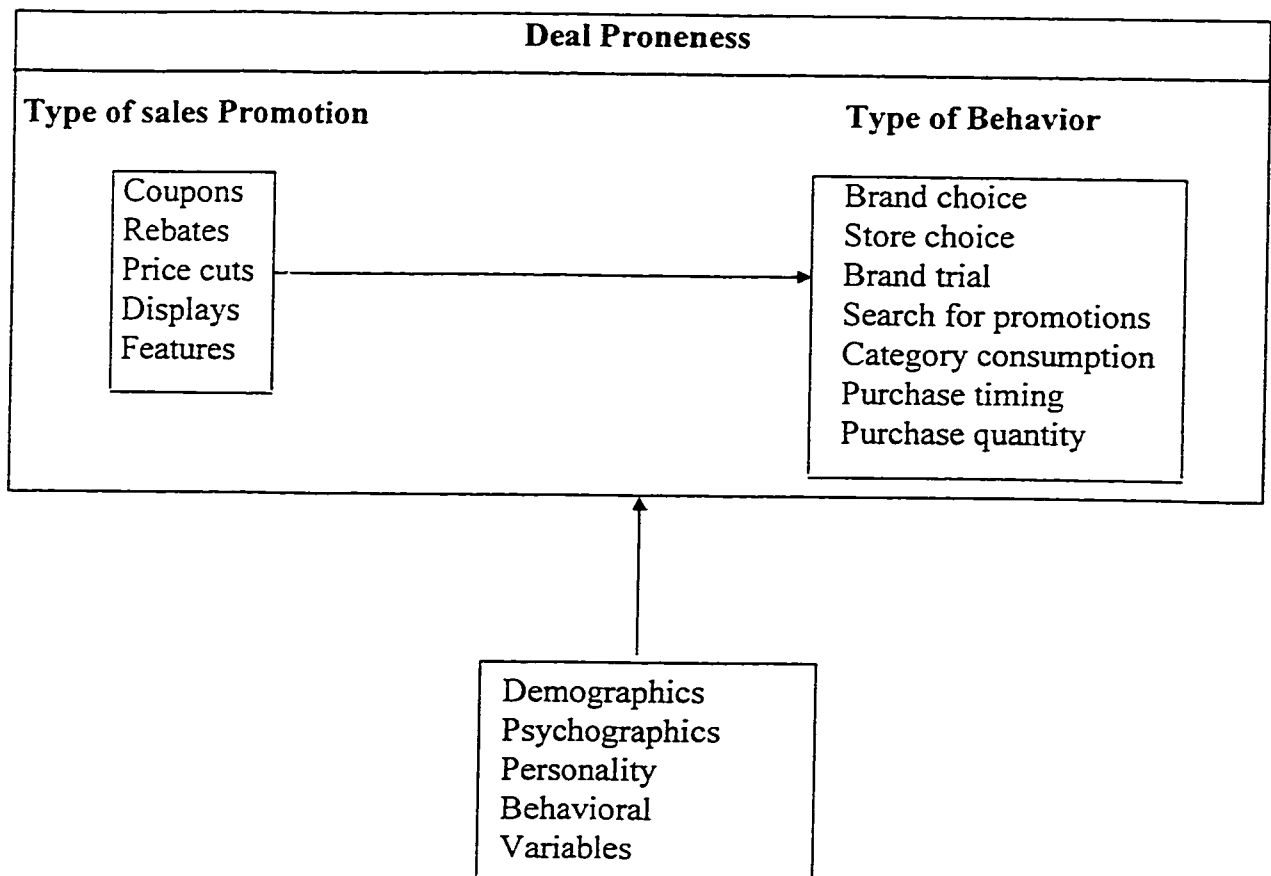
The huge amount of literature that has dealt with the deal-proneness issue derives its motivation from both managerial and theoretical concerns. The targeting of consumer deals, as well as the understanding of the consumer behavior would be improved by the knowledge of the consumers’ characteristics that automatically relate to deal purchasing in a product market.

First, it seems necessary to provide a clear and accurate definition of the deal proneness construct before we move to the summary of the major findings in that area.

Blattberg and Neslin (1990) suggest the following definition: “deal-proneness is the

degree to which the consumer is influenced by sales promotion, in terms of behaviors such as purchase timing, brand choice, purchase quantity, category consumption, store choice, or search behavior” (p. 66). From this definition, we can capture the multidimensionality of the consumer deal-proneness trait, since we see that all consumers do not react in the same way to sales promotions. A less scientific definition offered by the economist Thaler (1983) suggests that deal prone individuals are likely to be those who buy something because it is on deal, only to have it lie around the house and never be used. Blattberg and al. (1990) developed a model that characterizes the deal-prone consumer. In this model, we can see the causal relationship between the type of sales promotion and the type of behavior. The consumer demographics, psychographics, personality and behavioral variables mediate this relationship. In fact, the authors built their model (see figure below) based on the previous findings in that area, but did not test it empirically.

Figure 1: Characterizing the Deal-Prone Consumer(Blattberg & Neslin, 1990, p.67)



Webster (1975) was one of the pioneers in that area. He analyzed the relationship between a family's deal proneness index and 11 socioeconomic and 34 purchasing characteristics. The deal proneness index reflected a family's propensity to deal more or less than expected in a product class. The author found that brand loyalty (percentage of purchases concentrated on the favorite brand) was negatively related to deal proneness. Of the socioeconomic variables, only age of housewife related significantly to deal proneness. One of the weaknesses related to this first study lies in its methodological approach. Typically a large number of explanatory variables was regressed against the proportion of purchases made on deal in a search for statistical significance.

Indeed, Webster ran 200 regressions with various combinations of 45 explanatory variables. According to later critics, this approach is open to serious question since one is not able to determine whether significant relationships reflect a valid relationship or a spurious one that has arisen by chance. In fact, the major critics to that study were the absence of a theory to reveal which variables affected deal proneness.

On that matter, another early study was conducted by Montgomery (1971), in which there was an inadequate specification of explanatory variables. The researcher added “presence of children” as an independent variable in a regression model, but was unable to predict whether this presence of children should or should not enhance deal proneness. In fact, Montgomery’s mistake consisted in the confusion he made between two variables, namely the age of children, which has an impact on the time availability of their parents, and the presence of children. This methodological error led him to conclude that the presence of children was not related to deal proneness.

Montgomery’s work (1971) was one of the few that took into consideration the personality traits of the households in his sample. Indeed, this author considered such variables as venturesomeness, gregariousness, opinion leadership, interest to question related to health, raising of children and buying food, and media exposure, namely magazines, day time television and evening time television. The findings confirmed some of the effects of the personality traits on the deal-proneness, in that venturesomeness, gregariousness and media exposure of housewives were in direct relationship with dealing activity. However, opinion leadership, interest, and the presence of children were not related to the dealing activity.

Frank et al. (1972) summarized the findings of these two previous works by stating: “the results of cross-sectional studies, almost without exception, indicate that there is at best, only a modest degree of association between demographic, socioeconomic, and/or personality characteristics, and selected aspects of household purchasing behavior, such as total consumption, brand loyalty, and deal proneness” (p. 124).

A later study (Blattberg et al., 1978) attempted to fill this gap. As we saw in the prior section, these authors modeled the household as an inventory management unit, in that it attempts to satisfy its own demand for a minimal cost. The dynamic probabilistic models developed, took into account several types of costs, such as transaction costs of time needed to buy as well as transportation, inspace, stockout costs representing the disutility of not having the product at hand, etc. The models assumed that all brands of a particular product class would generate the same utility to consumers and that the consumers only would buy one brand from a product class. The authors hypothesized that homeowners and car owners would be more deal prone because of the low storage and transportation costs they undergo.

Then, they hypothesized that households with no children below the age of 6, or without working wives should be more deal prone because they are more available and have lower transaction time of costs. They also stated a hypothesis about the households' income, which would be negatively related to deal proneness, because of the higher opportunity cost of time of higher income families. All these hypotheses were confirmed after an analysis of panel data for five frequently purchased products, except the one that concerns the presence of children under 6. According to this study, “the

household resource variables, car and home ownership, were the strongest predictors of deal proneness” (p. 377).

Two years later, Hackleman and Duker (1980) conducted a study, in which they expected a positive correlation between heavy usage of a brand and deal proneness. More precisely, the hypothesis tested suggested a monotonic relationship between usage rates and deal proneness. Therefore, the researchers applied a curvilinear model to 6205 observations, describing 204,000 purchase records. As expected, the results illustrated the positive relationship between deal proneness and heavy usage. Light users of the product were found to be lower deal prone, whereas the heavy users were higher deal prone. These logical results contradict the finding of Webster (1965).

In the same year, Teel, Williams and Bearden (1980) performed an exploratory study in which they used self-report measures for a sample of female shoppers, to measure the influence of sales promotions coupons on their trial of new grocery products. They used demographic, psychographic and behavioral variables in their questionnaire to characterize this sample. Their findings reported that the coupon-susceptible consumer is different from the never-influenced consumer, in that she tends to be younger with a higher income, but responsible of a larger family and, therefore more preoccupied by optimizing her expenditures on grocery products. This consumer tends to enjoy and perceive coupons as an important help in realizing good savings.

Other than these studies, there are other works that have suggested or tested theories of deal proneness. For instance, Henderson (1985) tried to model the coupon redemption decision, which according to her involved a three-stage process, and found a result consistent with that found in Hackleman and Duker’s work. In fact, for the coffee

category, she found that the light and heavy users showed a different orientation toward coupon value. The former were more selective in redeeming high value coupons than the latter.

Price, Feick, and Guskey-Federouche (1987) included another personality trait in the study of coupon proneness, that is the “market maven” . The authors defined the market mavens as the people who possess information about the market products, places to shop, and who provide other consumers with market information. These consumers are characterized by their expertise, in that they plan their shopping trips, budget their expenses and are heavy users of coupons. They are also likely to be very dynamic in offering coupons to others. The results of this work indicated that this type of extra-consumers was likely to engage in “smart shoppers” behaviors. Interviews with some of these market mavens suggested that they viewed grocery shopping as a challenge in which they aimed at obtaining the most for the least.

Bawa and Shoemaker (1987) uncovered a different aspect of the coupon-prone consumer that is his/her demographic traits. Their examination of a panel data showed that households that were relatively coupon prone tended to be somewhat younger, larger in size, higher income, more educated and more likely to live in an urban area than non-coupon-prone households. Coupon-prone households were more likely to have a more educated husband and a somewhat more educated wife.

This finding supported Narasimhan (1984) finding about wife’s education. According to the authors, it also supported the assumption in the model they developed, that better educated households seek more variety, have lower substitution costs and thus make greater use of coupon. Furthermore, in this segment, the households were less

likely to have a working wife and young children present, which contradicts the Blattberg et al. result.

In terms of purchase behavior, coupon-prone households were found as being less brand and store loyal than their non coupon prone counterparts. In light of these results, the researchers ended up by making a classification for the different segments of coupon-prone consumers. The first segment was labeled the “activist” shoppers, and consisted of those who were above average users of coupons in most product classes and low in both brand and store loyalty. They were more likely to have a better education, to live in urban areas, and to have a higher income. These activist shoppers used a larger number of coupons, were willing to go shopping in different stores and to look for several different brands for most product classes.

The other major segment consisted of the “routinized shoppers” , who represented consumers who did not respond well to coupons (light users) and who were highly loyal to a store or to a brand. This segment is characterized by its older age, its lower education, and its non-urban location. Moreover, the households in this segment had a lower income and fewer members in their nuclear family. They were more likely to have working wives and children under six.

Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) addressed the coupon proneness issue by including the value consciousness psychological construct. According to them, previous findings have considered demographic variables as antecedents of coupon or deal proneness, whereas these variables are better described as moderators of the relationship between coupon proneness and coupon redemption behavior. Therefore, they conceptualized and measured the coupon proneness at a psychological level and treated

this concept as one that influences coupon-responsive behavior rather than an “isomorphic with the behavior” (p. 54). In this work, a distinct definition of both constructs value consciousness and coupon proneness was provided based on acquisition-transaction utility theory. The authors defined coupon proneness as one dimension of deal proneness. It is “an increased propensity to respond to a purchase offer because the coupon form of the purchase offer positively affects purchase evaluations” (p. 56). On the other hand, value consciousness was defined as a concern for paying low prices, subject to some quality constraint. From a methodological perspective, the authors in this study attempted to correct for the lack of theoretical orientation and the lack of a conceptual definition of the coupon proneness construct. They first showed the distinctiveness of the coupon proneness and value consciousness constructs that both underlie coupon redemption behavior, and second, by developing a multi-item measure of the constructs to overcome the contamination of prior findings by the usage of a single-item measure. The results supported the distinctiveness that exists between value consciousness and coupon proneness, and also were consistent with the utility-theory-based proposition that coupon redemption behavior is underlined by both coupon proneness and value consciousness.

A later study done by Currim and Schneider (1991) drew on studies of general promotion usage to hypothesize two dimensions of deal-proneness, namely active versus passive. They then developed measures of the consumers’ sensitivity toward three types of sales promotion, namely: feature, display, and coupon-proneness. The authors sought to comprehend the effects of non-monetary oriented promotions. Hence, they defined the sensitivity of a consumer’s purchase decision to the availability of coupons and features

as evidence of active deal proneness, to better show the active search that occurs outside the store environment, that these types of promotions require. On the other hand, they defined the sensitivity of a consumer to in-store displays as a description of the passive deal-proneness, due to the passive nature of search that this promotion requires. Their findings were consistent with their expectations, in that they indicated that the households tested in that study only manifested a general pattern toward one type of deal proneness or the other. Another interesting result demonstrated that passive deal prone households were less likely to perform occasional active deal-proneness than were active deal prone households. The latter were more mercurial, in that they had a tendency to add more brands to the choice set in the presence of a deal.

Finally, a study conducted by Mittal (1994) aimed at presenting a set of explanatory variables to capture the psychology of coupon-use behaviors. In his model, the author regrouped demographic variables, namely income, education, female employment, and household size, as well as two nondemographic variables, namely life style and self-perception traits (busyness, financial wellness, and pride in homemaking). The author reviewed also some of the consumer shopping traits, such as brand loyalty, store loyalty and comparison-shopping. In his model the author hypothesized that the demographic traits would have an impact on self-perceptions that promote some of the shopping-related traits, which then affect the way consumers perceive the costs and benefits of using coupons. After having launched a survey for female shoppers, the author found that coupon redemption behavior and demographics were not linked in any way. However, the effect of consumer shopping traits did have a significant effect in explaining the coupon redemption. For instance, the comparison shoppers were reported

to be twice more likely to redeem coupons than their non-comparison counterparts.

In general, the literature on deal proneness has dealt with four explanatory variables, namely the consumer's demographics, psychographics, behavioral and personality traits. According to Neslin and Blattberg (1990), demographic, behavioral and psychographic variables can define appropriately the deal-consumer profile that will be useful for managers when building their targeting strategies. However, personality traits are more theoretical and are less helpful from a managerial perspective.

To conclude, we can say that the literature that dealt with the deal proneness concept has yielded some crucial findings, yet there is a misunderstanding and inconsistencies among variables related to the effects of sales promotion on purchase behavior.

In the next section, we will examine the effects of other moderators on the relationship between sales promotions and the behavioral variables. These moderators primarily pertain to the characteristics of the deals, such as face value, deal frequency, time at which the savings are received, etc.

2- Other Moderators

Many attributes are related to the effectiveness of sales promotion. Many deal characteristics play a crucial role in the consumer purchase decision. Prior literature has attempted to identify some of these criteria, but many of them have been limited to the case of the cents-off coupons. In this section, we will review some of the most pertinent studies that dealt with that issue.

Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1992) sought the manner in which the deal proneness construct was best conceptualized. They hypothesized three levels. The first level referred to the generalized level, that is a single construct that would encompass the different types of deals. The second level concerned the deal specific level, such as the coupon proneness, the rebate proneness, the sales proneness,... and finally an intermediate level, such as price vs. non price deal proneness, active vs. passive deal proneness, in which active proneness was related the sensitivity to features and coupons, and the passive deal proneness meant the sensitivity to in-store displays. The confirmatory factor analysis performed in the analysis failed to provide evidence of discriminant validity between the active and passive models and the price-nonprice model hypothesized in the beginning of the study. However, the results strongly supported treating deal proneness as a domain specific level. As such, these findings are consistent with those of Neslin et al. (1990), who called for “broad studies that consider several types of deal proneness with respect to several types of promotions” (p. 82).

Shneider and Currim (1991) also highlighted the fact that several types of promotions or types of deal proneness may explain several different promotional behaviors. Henderson (1987) contended that an undifferentiated view of deal proneness seemed inconsistent with evidence that showed that sensitivities to promotions may differ across consumers and types of promotions. She found in a later work that for one of the product categories she investigated (coffee), consumers were more sensitive to advertised sales when not using coupons. Consequently, she named these consumers as exhibiting “coupon primacy”. This type of consumers was less likely to respond to other

promotions, presumably because of a strong commitment to coupon, which thereby suggested a domain-specific conceptualization of deal-proneness.

Furthermore, Krishna (1991) uncovers another characteristic of deals that might affect the consumer's responsiveness to promotions. In fact, she assumes that perception of deal frequency may affect consumer price perception and deal responsiveness. She sought to determine whether the frequency and/or regularity of price deals for a brand influenced the accuracy of perception of deal frequency for the brand, and introduced any systematic bias in consumer perceptions of deal frequency. The results that emerged from this study revealed that the price that consumers were willing to pay for a particular brand was more highly correlated with perceived deal frequency than with actual deal frequency. The findings also indicated that if a brand promoted regularly and more frequently (vs. less frequently), recall accuracy for deal frequency for that brand would be higher. In addition, subjects in that study tended to underestimate high deal frequency of a brand when the deal frequency for the other brands in the product class was high. Therefore, the author concluded by saying that the random dealing pattern for a particular brand would lead to a lower accuracy of the perception of deal frequency and an underestimation of deal frequency for a certain product category.

The same author Krishna in association with Currim and Shoemaker (1991) reconducted another empirical work in which they investigated several aspects of consumer perception of deal frequency and deal prices. This time, they developed a conceptual model that was aiming at capturing the interactions among consumers and retailers or manufacturers as retail price promotions were implemented, and also to assess the level of consumers' knowledge about dealing activities. Three of the measures they

employed in their model measured the consumer's interest in deals, namely usage of store flyers, concern for sales and usage of coupons. We see therefore, that in this work an attempt has been made to discern among the various types of promotions as well as to investigate the impact of their frequency on the final deal interest.

The first finding reported by the analysis pertained to the characteristics of buyers who had an opinion about deal frequency. They tended to be younger, to have larger families, read the weekly fliers of promoted products, purchase the package size more frequently and were loyal to their preferred brand. The next result concerned the characteristics of consumers who were accurate in their perceptions about deal frequency. These consumers were more concerned about purchasing grocery products on sale, were older and had higher income. This finding supports prior findings related to that issue (Teel et al. 1980; Blattberg et al., 1978), in that higher income people are reported to be more deal prone. Again and consistent with the results reported by Krishna (1991), subjects tended to overestimate the deal frequency for products and brands that were promoted frequently and to underestimate the deal frequency for brands that were rarely promoted.

Diamond and Campbell (1990) underlined the importance of distinguishing between nonmonetary (premiums and free extra products) and monetary promotions (discounts and rebates). Their classification matches with the recommendations of Lichtenstein et al. (1995) to consider different types of sales promotions distinctively. According to both authors, the theory behind the classification they made lies in the different impacts of various techniques on consumers attitudes. For instance, the authors suggested that some promotions (such as premiums, bonus packs, and sweepstakes)

added value to the product, whereas others, such as discounts simply reduced the cost. The authors also offered another classification of the sales promotions techniques based on the framing effect that stated that different promotions equivalent in value would be viewed differently in terms of gains or losses. They argued that monetary promotions would be more simply included into the price, resulting in a promotion that is framed as a reduced loss. Conversely, when the promotions are nonmonetary, the benefits cannot be integrated into the original price and thus, the promotion is framed as a separate gain. In an experiment, the authors were able to confirm their expectations. In fact, nonmonetary promotions not only had a larger noticeable difference but also wider latitude of acceptance than monetary promotions.

The authors attributed this lack of suspicion of subjects toward the nonmonetary promotions on the evaluation they made between the discount versus the form of premium they received. More precisely, the subjects did not compare the value of the free premium and the discount to the regular price of the product offered. In other cases, however, this result does not hold because usually for small size offers, “small cash promotions are more noticeable than small nonmonetary promotions” (p. 30).

Diamond (1992) in another study retested this issue by investigating the way consumers equated among different types of promotions. He based his hypotheses on two models, namely the Nominal Value, which equated price-oriented promotions (discounts) and nonprice-oriented promotions (extra product offering) of equal retail value. Conversely, the “Unit Price” model is a more complex procedure in which for example, offering a \$1 worth of free detergent with a container that is selling for \$4 reduces the unit price by 20 percent. On the other hand, a \$1 discount would reduce the

unit price by 25 percent. The author found in his first experiment, that people tended to approximate a Nominal Value when determining how much free product equated a certain discount. In a second experiment, the author sought to determine the preference of subjects to one of the two models suggested and to see whether the preference for a promotional type interacted with the size of a particular promotion. The findings were very pertinent, in that they indicated that extra product promotions in ounces for a certain product were preferred to small discounts. However, for larger promotions, discounts were favored, even though these preferences were not significant.

This finding is not consistent with the preceding one, and shows that the studies that dealt with this moderator in the sales promotion model are in contradiction. This contradiction is further highlighted in the recent work done by Lichtenstein, Burton and Netemeyer (1997), who found completely dichotomous results to the ones they reported in 1995. Their latest study sought the existence of consumer segments that were general deal prone and/or that reflected a proneness to deals at specific levels (price vs. nonprice promotion prone, rebate prone, coupon prone). In their methodology, eight types of deals were used including coupons, sales, cents-off, buy-one-get-one-free, free-gift-with purchase, end-of-aisle displays, rebates/refunds and contests/sweepstakes. Then, 49 items were used to measure the eight respective proneness types, and a cluster analysis was performed on the average item-score for the eight deal-type measures. The results supported the alternative stating that “there is sufficient similarity across sales promotion types to justify segmenting the consumer market across different deal types (a general “deal prone” segment and a “deal insensitive segment)” (p. 286). Another inconsistency revealed by this research pertained to the demographics. An examination of several

demographics across the clusters showed that age and education were strongly related, whereas gender and income were not significant. Across all analyses performed in this work, younger subjects and those with less education were more likely to be deal prone, which totally contradicted results previously cited.

The researchers explained this lack of cohesiveness between their previous findings and the results of the recent one by pretending that in the former, they examined the relationship between different constructs and not across different segments of consumers. Consequently, they called managers to be cost effective to target a smaller number of promotions at a deal prone segment.

Finally, a noteworthy variable that is specific to coupon redemption only, consists of the coupon face value. According to Leone and Srinivasan (1996), the coupon face value has a great impact on both brand sales and the number of coupons redeemed. Henderson (1985) conceptualized the coupon redemption decision, which in her mind is a function of four types of variables: coupons characteristics, characteristics of the purchase, brand loyalty and concurrent promotional conditions. The author carried over by hypothesizing that the consumer's decision to redeem includes three stages, namely collection, intention and lastly redemption. The coupon's face value steps in at the collection stage. The value offered and the execution of the coupon make the coupon more or less attractive to collect. Her results were coherent with her expectations, since she found that consumers redeemed when coupons were relatively more available and when they had a higher than average value. Another interesting finding pertained to the different orientation of redeemers toward the coupon's face value. The results indicated that heavy coupon users seemed to be more selective in redeeming higher value coupons.

The impact of coupon face value was further explored by Lisa Guimond (1996), who performed an experimental investigation of the perception of consumers of products featured on coupons. The author found that the psychological effect of using a coupon, liking for the coupon offer, and the intention to use the coupon varied in a significant manner with the deal face value. Her results also showed that this variable did affect the subjects' price perception, in that higher face values lead to less positive price perceptions of the brand.

In summary, we can say that other than the consumer deal proneness, other variables that characterize the deal have moderated the relationship between the sales promotions and the final behavior.

3- Ethnicity

While the body of research on sales promotion has made significant theoretical and practical contributions, numerous unresolved questions still remain. Among them is whether the effects of sales promotion vary across subcultural groups within nations concerning consumer-packaged goods. In a first step, let's define the term culture before we go into deeper examination of empirical findings in that matter.

Calantone, Morris and Johar (1984) defined culture as “ the whole set of beliefs, attitudes and social forms and ways of doing things of a reasonably homogeneous set of people”. The authors claim that the Canadian society has many subcultural groupings that tend to behave in a similar way when compared to other cultural groups.

Among the more notable developments that have emerged recently in that area, is the departure from the traditional ethnic member identification scheme to the emphasis on the measurement of the degree of acculturation. Acculturation represents the first dimension of ethnicity that an individual of a particular ethnic background may experience toward the dominant culture.

According to Yinger (1985), the word acculturation stems for the degree that values and norms of an individual or a group correspond with those of the dominant group or culture.

Previous research has provided support on the assimilation hypothesis. Indeed, Valencia (1985) developed an index of “Hispanicness” including the language spoken and preference as well as length of stay in the United States. Comparisons of whites with high, low Hispanic groups in the sample studied, revealed significant differences on several shopping variables such as shopping, shopping interest and shopping center enthusiasm. Interestingly, the results of that research also showed that the differences in these aspects of consumer behavior were in the monotonic direction either from both level of Hispanicness and to whites or vice versa.

The second dimension of ethnicity, that is ethnic identity is defined as the extent to which a person identifies him or herself belonging to an ethnic group (Laroche, Kim and Clarke, 1995). An individual’s ethnic identity is not much under the individual’s control and therefore, remains unchanged even after over a long period of time in contact with the dominant culture.

Schaninger, Bourgeois and Buss (1985) demonstrated how cultural differences among cultural groups were likely to yield different consumption and media behavior.

Their work concluded that culture was a strong determinant of attitudes, and that consumption differences were mostly due to cultural differences. In light of what they found, they predicted that various cultural subgroups would react differently to different promotional strategies.

In their work, these authors examined whether differences in consumption patterns between French and English Canadians were caused by different social class backgrounds and income levels. They concluded that there were many differences in consumption patterns. They found that French people consumed more soft drinks, instant coffee, beer, wine and gin, less diet drinks, own larger cars, read less newspapers and devoted more time watching television programs. They assumed these differences to be due to differences in income rather than to social class.

Other than this study, there have been many studies that have compared consumption and life style patterns between English and French Canadians. Two decades ago, Tigert (1973) and Vickers and Benson (1972) were the pioneers in the research focused on the comparison between these two dominant subcultures. They mainly based their findings on psychographic differences that exist between females of the two cultures in Quebec. Their findings can be summarized as follow:

- French Canadian females are more oriented toward their family, home, children and kitchen.
- They are more fashion oriented and more concerned about personal appearance and home cleanliness.
- They search for more value in shopping. Special promotions that stress value are

more appreciated.

- They tend to be more conservative and religious than their English Canadian counterparts and tend not to associate with the drug culture.
- They are more negative and reticent toward the use of credit cards.
- They are more interested in baking and cooking and less prone to use convenience foods.

These findings are consistent with those of Mallen (1977), who stated that French Canadians exhibited more hedonistic consumption attitudes and behavior than English Canadians. The expression “*joie de vivre*” is often used to characterize the French Canadian attitude of looking for good things in life. They are also characterized as being less willing to take risks. Laroche, Kindra and Mueller (1994) confirmed this past empirical statement by showing that French Canadians were more brand loyal than English ones. They showed that in the leading brand for many product classes, the leading brand among French Canadians had a higher share than the leading brand among English Canadians. Similar to these traits, Mallen (1977) found that French Canadians had a non-price cognitive trait, that is, if they appreciated a certain product, they would be likely to buy it regularly and price would not constitute a constraint in their purchase decision.

Furthermore, another early study directed by Bouchard (1980) defined French as having common historical and cultural roots, namely rural minority, North American, Catholic, Latin and French. These roots may help explain some of the consumption behaviors among this dominant Canadian culture.

The above are some of the English-French Canadian consumption differences reported in the past literature. While the differences are obvious in several areas of consumption and life style, they have to be interpreted with caution, because of the lack of validity of the traditional subcultural classification scheme applied in these studies. Such a classification scheme ignores the varying degrees of acculturation individuals may have experienced toward the other culture, and assumes homogeneity in different consumer attitudinal and behavioral dimensions for each subculture, which may be unfounded. For that reason, Kim and Laroche (1988) called the past subcultural studies involving French Canadians as “atheoretical” (p. 6).

4- Ethnicity and Sales Promotions

In a North American context, few are the studies that have explored the effect of a consumer’s ethnic background on his/her responsiveness to deals. According to Green (1995), the research in this area is limited to only one dimension of deal proneness, which is coupon proneness.

Hernandez (1988) aimed at raising some questions about the validity of using cultural value differences as the main reason for explaining why coupons would not work effectively in the Hispanic society in the US. According to him, the word “cupón” means food stamps. In other words, the term coupon is associated with government handouts. This is likely to generate negative responses interpreted as a cultural dislike for coupons. After conducting a survey in one of the largest supermarkets in the US chains in a Hispanic neighborhood, he found that only 18% of respondents did use the cents-off coupons in the purchase of consumer goods.

A further investigation of the responses, offered an explanation for this result, in that subjects pointed to the institutional barriers category. More precisely, respondents reported the lack of support offered by marketing institutions such as stores, distributors and manufacturers. Another reason provided pertained to the little availability of coupons and the use of the English language to print them. However respondents' explanations for not using coupons did not provide support for the hypothesis that Hispanic cultural values are incompatible with coupon usage.

The same author in association with Kaufman (1990), rebuilt on the previous results, and conducted another study to identify differences, if any, in Hispanic and Anglo retailers' perceptions regarding their decisions not to redeem cents-off coupons. They specifically examined neighborhood grocery stores, called "bodegas," as they comprise a major center for shopping activity within Hispanic neighborhoods in the US. The sample this time contained Anglo and Hispanic retailers selected in the Hispanic area. Interestingly, retailers reported reasons similar to those offered by consumers in the previous study, that is the lack of acceptance of cents-off coupons was mainly due to institutional barriers, such as lack of support of marketing institutions. Another important barrier that inhibited coupon redemption by bodegas, was related to the customer-use barrier. In fact, Hispanic retailers asserted that their customers did not redeem coupons. This result contradicts the consumers perception related to that issue, reported in Hernandez study (1988).

The authors argued that this discrepancy indicated a lack of integration among the channel intermediaries whose coordination is instrumental in the redemption process.

One year later, Kaufman (1991) presented results and implications from retailers' perspective in the Philadelphia/Southern New Jersey area, to report on problems with coupon use experienced within ethnic subcultures. The purpose of her study was to investigate the perceptions of retailers serving several ethnic markets to reveal whether channel barrier affected coupon use in ethnic subcultures. To attain her objective, Kaufman conducted an exploratory survey of food-related retailers, who served ethnic markets. The author expanded her survey to other subcultural groups including Southeast Asian, Chinese Koreans, and Indians, etc. The questionnaires containing several research questions that sought whether couponing was acceptable in ethnic markets, were administered to 80 stores selected as a convenience sample. Among the retailers in the sample, 20 percent reported serving Blacks, 14 percent served Orientals, 24 percent served Italians, 10 percent served other European groups, and 34 percent served Jewish consumers. Furthermore, 76 percent reported that foreign languages were used in conducting business with customers.

The first wave of results pertained to brand loyalty of immigrants. 80 percent of the retailers surveyed asserted that their customers were frequently loyal to their brands, whereas only 8 percent reported frequent brand switching. It is noteworthy that the brand loyalty depended on the type of products, and that immigrants showed more loyalty to their homeland brands. Regarding coupons use, 33 of the 50 retailers reported that their customers rarely or never used coupons. This usage rate is similar to that found in the Hispanic sample seen previously. An examination of the reasons that inhibited coupon use again indicated the lack of availability of coupons to the consumers.

The consensus from these studies is that ethnic consumers are not coupon prone and that coupon redemption levels among them are well below that of the general population.

Still in the US, a recent research done by Green (1995) studied the responses of another dominant culture in the US, that is the African-American to four types of retail sales promotion, and compared them to the Anglo-American ethnic. The methodology in this work consisted in an analysis of IRI scanner panel data for frozen snack products in the Chicago market. The data set covered a sample of 300 households, of which 250 were Anglo-American and just 50 were Afro-American, making 5300 purchases for a one-year period. The findings of the study were pertinent, in that they indicated that Anglo-American redeemed much more retail or trade coupons than their Afro-American counterparts. However, this difference did not hold for the other types of promotions studied namely product displays, feature ads, and price discounts. Afro-Americans displayed a more favorable response to in-store sales promotions like displays and discounts due to the fact that consumers do not need make as much effort to take advantage of these promotional activities, as is needed for coupon redemption.

In summary, the little research done on the effects of ethnicity on sales promotions does suggest a significant difference among the different subcultural groups in the US, especially for coupon use. No other study has attempted to seek other differences among ethnics on their usage of other promotional tools.

Nevertheless, in the Canadian market, very few studies have been found relating specifically the attitudes of different ethnics towards sales promotion. However, according to Mallen (1977) French Canadian women search more for value promotions,

which offer premiums or price reductions than do their English counterparts. Furthermore, Richter and Laporte (1971) reported that French Canadians were more responsive to coupons and premiums and had more favorable attitude towards national brands versus private ones. This finding is even more disclaimed by the findings of Schaninger et al. (1985) who found no difference between French and English Canadians in terms of their responsiveness to deals.

Finally, a very recent study directed by Laroche, Kim and Clarke (1997) investigated how two cultural factors, ethnic identity and acculturation affected a consumer's interest in sales promotions. The significance of this study lies in its pioneering objective to address the particular relationship between the two ethnicity dimensions and consumer deal interests. It allowed for individual differences regarding acculturation and ethnic identity within an ethnic group. Moreover, this study categorizes sales promotion techniques according to their term effect, and relates various techniques to consumer characteristics and ethnicity.

Based on a deep review of prior studies that dealt with the ethnicity concept, the authors hypothesized a significant difference in consumer deal interests between the two dominant Quebec cultures. They also predicted that an individual's ethnic identity would not have an impact on the individual's interests in short-term and long-term deal.

With regard to the relationship between acculturation and deals, the authors hypothesized that the level of an individual's acculturation would be more related to the difference in culture of consumer deal interest. And finally, they hypothesized that the level of a person's acculturation would more strongly influence the person's interest in long-term deals for English Canadians than for French Canadians.

As hypothesized, the findings confirmed the existence of significant differences between the two cultures as for their interests to both short and long-term deals.

For English Canadians, the short-term deal interest was mainly affected by the bargain-shopping factor. Moreover, English Canadians who were younger and non-full-time workers showed stronger interest in short-term deals.

For the French, two factors influenced their deals' interest, namely bargain shopping and stockpiling on specials. Furthermore, gender played an important role in influencing their short-term interest in deals, since French women were reported to have a higher interest in deals than French men.

On the other hand, ethnic identity did not have any impact on consumer deal interests neither for English nor for French Canadians. However, the effect of the acculturation dimension was more obvious for English Canadians, since the authors found that as people acculturated more, they became less interested in the long-term deals. This effect was absent for French Canadians.

Therefore, we can postulate that this study is unique in identifying how both cultural dimensions in conjunction with other purchase-related life-style factors and demographic characteristics influenced both short-term and long-term deal interests.

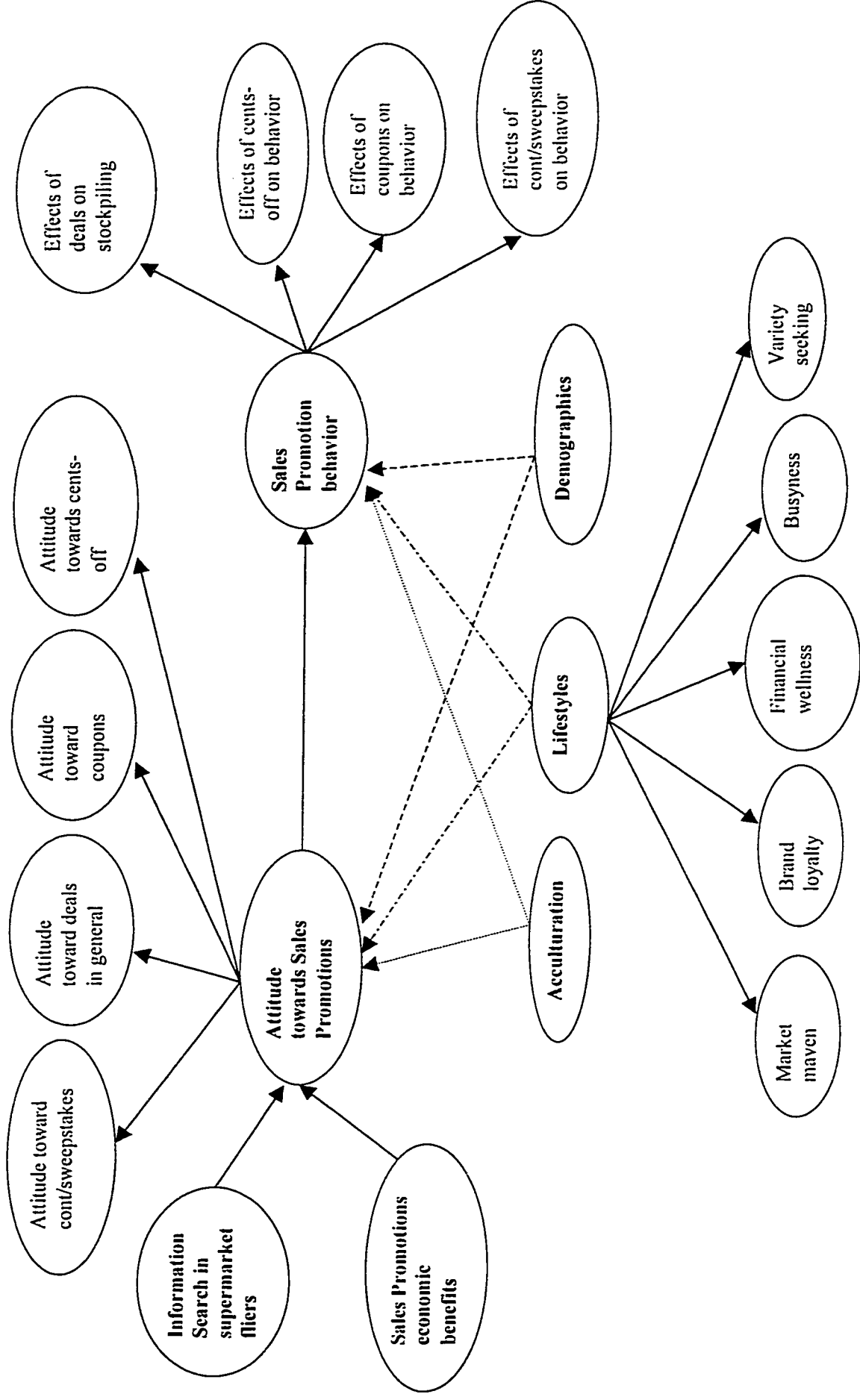
CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1- Research Model

Based on an in-depth examination of prior results and theories related to sales promotion, we attempted to conceptualize the mechanism that best explains how consumers seek , perceive and use promotions. The model (cf. Figure 2) is concerned with the degree to which promotions influence a complex and interrelated set of attitudes and behaviors. According to Blattberg and Neslin (1990, p. 82), “deal proneness is very rich in behavioral connotations, but there is a strong need for a consumer-based theory of the phenomenon”.

Aggregating what has been done previously , we attempted to classify most of the cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral aspects related to deals and to create a conceptual model that would describe the mechanisms by which consumers respond to promotions.

RESEARCH MODEL:(Figure 2)



2-Hypotheses

The purpose of the current study is purely exploratory. We attempted to generate a conceptual model based on previous findings and theories in the sales promotion literature. Due to the complexity of the model we designed and to the large number of variables and constructs we could identify from previous literature, we deemed more adequate to test for significant relationships among constructs than to establish a tremendous number of hypotheses that would mislead us in the analyses. Furthermore, since our conceptual model is based on prior research and theory in the area of sales promotion, it is permitted to use LISREL VII software, to accurately test the structural equation modeling. However, since we are including some new variables to verify their moderating influence on the basic relationship: cognitive-attitude-behavior, we decided not to develop any supposition and to rely on the LISREL results in the analysis.

3- The sample

The populations targeted for this survey consisted of English Canadians and French Canadians residing in the Greater Montreal area. In order to ensure a representative sample for each of the two ethnic groups, given the bicultural and multicultural character of the population in the city of Montreal, the data collection was confined to a selected number of census tracts in municipalities located in Montreal and its surrounding area which, according to the 1991 Census of Canada, exhibited a large percentage of residents whose mother tongue (single response) was either French or English.

A sample of at least 250 usable questionnaires from each ethnic group (anglophones and francophones) was deemed appropriate for this research to give a respectable measure of validity and reliability. Eighteen census tracts in 16 municipalities were chosen at random for the survey. The geographic areas chosen were residential districts with detached or semi-detached dwellings, which are easily accessible to interviewers. Residents in apartment dwellings were not canvassed because of difficulty in obtaining access to those dwellings.

4- The Survey Instrument

A structured non-disguised questionnaire was designed to gather the data required for this research. The questionnaire was written in English and translated into French. Prior to the printing of the questionnaire, a pretest was done. No major flaws were detected in the pretest. A sample of the questionnaire in English and in French appears in Appendix 2.

The questionnaire contained 12 pages for the English version and 14 pages for the French version, plus a cover letter. The questionnaire was divided into 4 parts. Part A contained 73 variables pertaining to lifestyles. The purchase-related lifestyles included busyness, venturesomeness, opinion leadership, dislike of housework, perceived financial wellness, bargain shopping, market maven, generic buyers, price consciousness, innovativeness, variety seeking, brand and store loyalty. All these measures were chosen from the previous studies of culture-related lifestyles (e.g., Hui et al., 1993), and from other studies related to deal proneness and attitudes of households towards sales promotion (Mittal, 1994; Feick and Federouche, 1987, Laroche, Kim and Clarke, 1995).

As in prior studies, the lifestyle items were measured on a 9-point Likert scale (1 = “disagree strongly” to 9 = “agree strongly”). The validity of the lifestyle items was demonstrated in previous studies and the reliability was confirmed.

Part B aimed at measuring the deal proneness constructs. The measures were taken from the study conducted in 1997 by Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton. In this study, the authors developed definitions for eight separate consumer deal proneness including coupons, cents-off, free-gift with purchase, buy-one-get-one-free, end-of-aisle display, rebate/refund, contest/sweepstake, sale proneness and general deal proneness. In our study the end-of-aisle measure was replaced by the sample proneness since it was among those most commonly employed (Blattberg and Neslin, 1990), and diverse in terms of possible deal-type categorization (active vs. passive, long-term vs. short-term, price vs. non-price oriented). For clarification, a definition for each deal option was given as a reference in the cover letter accompanying the questionnaire.

Lichtenstein et al. (1997) developed separate multi-item scales for each specific deal proneness. According to them, “the procedures used to develop these scales closely adhered to procedures recommended in the scale development literature. These procedures included construct definition, item development and purification, and assessment of dimensionality, discriminant validity, and internal consistency via confirmatory factor analysis.”

Part B also contained other measures, aiming at assessing the attitude towards deals. These measures included value consciousness (Lichtenstein et al., 1990), perceived quality of promoted products (Dodds, Monroe and Grewal, 1991), and economic benefits and time costs (Mittal, 1994). Finally, the last section of this part was related to the

behavior generated by sales promotion. Here, we added some multi-item measures used by Clarke (1995) to measure brand switching and stockpiling. The dependent variable deal usage was measured with one-item scales to quantify the deals used by respondents in the last month.

Part C pertained to the degree to which an individual belongs to either of the French or English culture. The ethnic membership was assessed by an individual's self-identification as being either an English Canadian or French Canadian. Acculturation, which represents the first dimension of ethnicity, was operated as the percentage of English and French language usage of an individual for twelve types of media, such as radio, television, movies and video and newspapers. Respondents were asked to distribute 100 scores between English and French for each medium. This procedure allows presenting a picture of the relative use of the languages for each medium. For English, acculturation was measured as the mean usage of French language for media (and vice-versa for French people). The second dimension, ethnic identity, was measured by multiple-items that included self-identification, spouse' and friends' ethnic origin, and ethnic nature of neighborhood. The 9-point Likert-type scales were used to measure the construct as shown in the appendix. These measures were consistent with those of the previous studies of ethnicity (Gentry et al. 1995; Hui et al. 1993).

The last section of the questionnaire pertained to demographic characteristics of the sample group, which in past research have been significant in explaining the deal proneness behavior. Consistent with previous studies, the questionnaire asked about gender, age, family income, education, employment status, occupation, etc.

5- Data Collection

Based on previous surveys, a usable return rate of 30% was expected. Within each of the census tracts in the selected municipalities, a quota of questionnaires to be distributed was established proportioned to the relative population of the particular census tract. A number of streets were picked at random in each census tract and efforts were made to survey as many household on these streets as possible until the distribution quota for the particular census tract was achieved.

The data distribution took place from June 25, 1998 to July 7, 1998. The questionnaires were administered door to door. Data collection was done mostly on weekends and evenings when respondents were more likely to be at home. Qualifying respondents willing to participate in the survey were given a questionnaire in the language of their choice (French or English), and a prepaid envelope addressed to Prof. Michel Laroche at Concordia University was provided to respondents to allow them to mail the completed questionnaire at their convenience. A total of 1662 questionnaires were distributed, 898 in English and 764 in French.

Details about the repartition of the sample are presented in tables 1 and 2 below.

TABLE 1
QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTION AND COLLECTION

MUNICIPALITY	No OF DISTRIBUTED CENSUS TRACTS	Number of questionnaires distributed		Number of usable questionnaires received		NOT USABLE	RECEIVED GROSS
		ENG.	FRE.	ENG.	FRE.		
Pointe-Claire	1	139	21	36	11	5	52
Dorval	1	120	35	38	22	9	69
Kirkland	2	160	14	34	11	6	51
Westmount	1	99	4	22	3	10	35
Brossard	1	1	25	1	9	2	12
Beaconsfield	1	37	6	10	5	3	18
T.M.R	1	31	43	5	13	5	23
Pierrefonds	1	95	36	33	12	13	58
Montreal	1	2	87	4	20	2	26
Greenfield Park	1	18	54	7	8	2	17
Longueuil	2	1	69	1	27	2	30
Nuns Island	1	19	114	4	48	1	53
Lachine	1	70	67	18	25	12	55
Outremont	1	5	20	3	8	0	11
Candiac	1	13	114	6	46	4	56
Ville Lassalle	1	88	55	6	17	7	30
TOTAL	18	898	764	228	285	83	596

TABLE 2
RATE OF RETURN

	English	French	Total
Number of questionnaires distributed	898	764	1662
Number of usable questionnaires	228	285	513
Rate of return (usable)	25.4%	37.3%	30.87%
Percent of total sample	44.44%	55.56%	100%

Following the data collection, responses were coded and entered directly into a data file to be analyzed with the SPSS program. Questionnaires returned by non qualifying respondents, or questionnaires containing a substantial amount of missing information were not entered in the data file. The data was verified and input errors were corrected.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS & ANALYSIS

In this chapter, descriptive statistics will be provided for the sample as a whole, as well as for subsets of the sample, followed by the factor analyses conducted for Parts A, B and C of the questionnaire. Finally, the results of the Lisrel analyses conducted on the software will be described.

1- Descriptive Statistics

The statistics defining the sample were examined for two purposes. The first purpose was simply to present the demographic composition of the sample for this study. The second purpose was to determine whether significant differences existed between French and English respondents, requiring a separation of the sample in further analyses for situational control. A non-homogeneous sample set would necessitate dividing the sample into two ethnic groups.

The cross-tabulation technique was employed to test for differences between French and English respondents on various demographic variables. In some cases, measurement categories were collapsed to avoid empty cells. Frequencies and basic descriptives were also examined for some variables. A brief description of the results of each variable will be now provided. Crosstab tables with corresponding Pearson-Chi square statistics for each of the variables discussed are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Demographic characteristics of the sample

Variable	Range	English (%)	French (%)	Total (%)	Pearson (sig.)
<i>Age</i>	Under 29	9.24	9.60	9.44	0.135
	30-39	19.30	26.33	23.18	
	40-49	30.70	30.90	30.25	
	50-59	18.86	19.94	19.45	
	60+	21.90	14.23	17.68	
<i>Gender</i>	Male	36.84	30.39	33.26	0.124
	Female	63.16	69.61	66.73	
<i>Marital Status</i>	Single	11.4	10.25	10.76	0.88
	Married	78.5	81.27	80.24	
	Wid/sep/div	10.1	8.48	9.0	
<i>Household Income</i>	Under \$20,000	2.6	4.2	3.5	0.322
	\$20,000-\$29,999	7.0	6.0	6.4	
	\$30,000-\$39,999	4.4	6.3	5.5	
	\$40,000-\$49,999	11.8	10.9	11.3	
	\$50,000-\$59,999	7.5	10.9	9.4	
	\$60,000-\$69,999	21.1	15.1	17.7	
	\$70,000-\$79,999	9.2	6.2	7.6	
	\$80,000+	36.4	40.4	38.6	
<i>Family Size</i>	1	5.33	8.16	6.90	0.018
	2	22.8	29.8	27.02	
	3	15.8	20.0	17.15	
	4	34.2	28.8	31.55	
	5+	21.9	13.3	17.35	
<i>Education</i>	High school	25.4	15.1	19.7	0.033
	Cegep/Com	29.8	33.0	31.6	
	Undergraduate	29.8	35.4	32.9	
	Graduate	14.9	16.5	15.8	
<i>Employment</i>	Full time	45.6	61.8	54.6	0.000
	Part time	14.0	11.9	12.9	
	No work	40.4	26.3	32.6	

a- Age:

In terms of the age of the sample, no significant difference existed between the French and the English respondents. Generally, respondents of both ethnicities were concentrated in the mid-range categories, between 40 and 49 years old.

b- Gender:

There were no significant differences between the French and the English sample sets regarding gender. Most of the respondents for this survey were female (about 67%). This is adequate for the study's objective since it has been reported in prior research that women are the primary shoppers in the family unit.

c- Marital Status:

This demographic variable did not show any significant difference among the categories for both groups. Around 80% of the total sample were married whereas only 9% of them were divorced, widowed or separated.

d- Family Income:

In terms of income, our sample was slightly skewed towards the mid to high levels. Around 16% of French respondents earned less than \$40,000 versus 13.6% of English families. In addition, nearly 46% of French households in our sample were concentrated in the mid-high level (\$40,000-\$79,999) compared to 49.6% of English in this category. Finally, 40% of French sample set indicated household earnings over \$80,000, while 36% of English reported gaining so.

e- Family Size

There were significant differences between the groups in terms of families with children and families without: about 29% of the English set were families of one or two people only compared to 38% in the French subsample. Moreover, it was loosely decided that a family of three or more indicated the presence of children. The English households in the sample had a significantly larger size than their French counterparts.

f- Education

A significant difference was found in terms of education. Generally speaking, the whole sample was fairly educated, but the French respondents tended to have higher education level: 16.5% of the French respondents had a graduate university degree, as opposed to 14.9% of English respondents. In addition, almost 35% of the French subsample had a university undergraduate degree compared to 29.8% for the English group of respondents. However, the greater differences appeared in the lower educational levels since more English stopped their education at the high school level than did their French counterparts.

g- Employment status

A significant difference existed between French and English respondents in terms of employment status. The examination of results reveals that more English are not working than French. In this category, we included people who are retired, unemployed and homemakers. More French are working part-time or full-time.

Table 4
Multivariate Analysis of Covariance

Factor	English	French	F-value
Market maven	4.86	4.59	3.497 ^b
Brand loyalty	6.04	6.05	0.069
Financial wellness	5.50	5.49	0.077
Busyness	5.21	5.44	1.432
Variety seeking	4.61	3.9	18.013 ^a
Information search in supermarket fliers	5.24	4.37	7.767 ^a
Sales Promotion economic benefits	4.94	4.37	9.269 ^a
Acculturation	2.06	3.19	56.359 ^a
Attitude toward cents-off	4.03	3.74	1.715
Attitude toward contest/sweepstake	3.03	2.78	0.825
Attitude toward coupons	4.59	4.24	1.019
Attitude toward deals	4.23	4.72	9.183 ^a
Effect of cents-off on behavior	3.89	4.11	1.204
Effect of contest/sweepstake on behavior	2.54	2.20	6.106 ^a
Effect of coupons on behavior	3.58	3.27	0.941
Effect of deals on behavior	5.96	5.62	1.954

a- Denotes statistically significant at the .01 level ($p < .01$)

b- Denotes statistically significant at the .05 level ($p < .05$)

c- Denotes statistically significant at the .10 level ($p < .10$)

The next stage of analysis investigated the differences between French and English Canadians on lifestyles, cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral factors. The investigation involved performing a set of analyses of covariances (using language, employment status, education level and family size as covariates) on all the factors identified by the factor analyses. A significant difference between French and English was found for 7 factors, namely, market maven, variety seeking, information search in supermarket fliers, sales promotion economic benefits, acculturation, attitude toward deals, and effect of contest/sweepstakes on behavior. English Canadians are significantly more shopper experts and variety seekers than their French counterparts. Therefore, they spend more time and effort looking for information on promotions in the supermarket weekly fliers than the French Canadians do. In addition, English Canadians believe more in the economic benefits generated by sales promotions, thus reinforcing their need to screen supermarket weekly fliers in search of good deals.

On the other hand, French Canadians are significantly more acculturated toward the English culture than are English Canadians toward French culture. This result could be explained by the increase of English usage in the daily life in Montreal.

From an attitudinal standpoint, French Canadians have a better attitude toward deals than English Canadians.

2. Factor analyses

In this section, the factor analyses conducted on parts A, B and C of the questionnaire will be described. Descriptive statistics will be then given for the sample as a whole, as well as for subsets of the sample. Finally, the results of the structural equation modeling will be presented.

The objective of a factor analysis is not only to reduce the data into a smaller and more meaningful set of components, but also to improve the reliability of the emerging factors. These factors will be subsequently used as indices measuring the different constructs described in the model. The method and results will be now explained in detail for the factor analyses run on the lifestyle, deal proneness and information search variables.

a- Method

To begin, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was run using some groups of variables. The entire data set could not be used for general EFA because of its large size. Thus, separate FAs were conducted to confirm measurement of the model constructs. The first constructs to be determined fell under the heading of lifestyles. All of the scaled questions in part A of the questionnaire, except questions concerning acculturation were included in the analysis.

The EFA was run using the maximum likelihood method and varimax and oblimin rotations. Subsequently, a reliability analysis was run for each factor, individual items were purified, and the FA was repeated with the remaining items, until reaching the final solution.

For the deal proneness constructs, the variables in part B of the questionnaire were separated into three subsets, namely cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral variables, and several analyses were run before obtaining meaningful results.

b- Lifestyle Factors

For the personal characteristic analysis, nine factors were identified, after deleting 12 of the original 60 items and recoding certain items accordingly. Eigenvalues were greater than 1.0 for each of the factors. The highest eigenvalue (for the first factor) was 6.373. Table 4 lists the 7 factors with their respective Cronbach's alpha, plus the retained items and their respective factor loadings. For further analyses, the mean of each factor was used as the construct measure.

Considering that this was a field study, the results of the factor analyses were satisfactory. Factor loadings for each item in the 7 factors were high. In fact, more than half of the loadings were greater than 0.7. As well, most of the Cronbach's alpha were high, ranging from 0.82 for the market maven to 0.76 for the bargain shopping constructs. Labeling the factors was relatively easy, and the grouping of the items appeared satisfactory.

Table 5
Factors for lifestyle variables

Description	Item	Cronbach Alpha	Factor Loading
Market Maven	- People come to me more often than I go to them for information on brands.	0.82	.790
	- I sometimes influence what my friends buy.		.665
	- My friends think of me as a good source of information when it comes to new products or sales.		.559
	- People ask me about products, places to shop or sales.		.546
Brand and store loyalty	- Once I find a brand I like to stick with it.	0.77	.715
	- For most supermarket items, I have favorite brands and limit my purchasing to them.		.647
	- For most product categories available at the supermarket, there are certain brands for which I (and my family) have definite preferences.		.646
	- I and my family consume only certain brands, not others.		.611
Perceived financial wellness	- An expected expense of about \$1000 would put in financial hardship.	0.75	.813
	- I am generally on a tight budget.		.696
	- I consider myself financially well-off.		.644
Busyness	- I am often juggling my time between too many things.	0.76	.758
	- "so much to do, so little time", this saying applies very well to me.		.731
	- I am too busy to relax.		.672
Variety seeking	- I often buy other brands to see if they are better than the brand(s) I usually buy.	0.76	.989
	- I often try new brands before my friends and neighbours do.		.552
	- When I see a new brand on the shelf, I often buy it just to see what it is like.		.582
Generics Buyers	- Generics are often as good as advertised brands.	0.77	.827
	- Generics products provide good value for what I pay.		.686
	- Generics are not much different from brands except for the packaging.		.671
Bargain shopping	- I shop a lot for "specials".	0.76	-.735
	- I am willing to spend more time shopping in order to find bargains.		-.705
			-.688

Lifestyle Factors

Among the factors obtained for the lifestyle measures, a few of them can be related to previous research. Price, Feick and Federouche (1988) found that market mavens, who have information about many products, places to shop, and markets, and provide other consumers with market information, were in fact smart shoppers. The results of that study showed that market mavens did budget their expenditure, were heavy coupon users and were very active in providing coupons to others.

The second lifestyle factor identified in our study pertained to brand and store loyalty. Mittal (1994) used the same items and found two separate factors, namely brand loyalty and store loyalty. Moreover, his study revealed that those shopping traits influenced how consumers perceived the costs and benefits of coupon redemption. More specifically, and negating his expectations, Mittal found that brand and store loyalty were negatively associated with brand and store encumbrances, that is disloyalty to stores and brands. In other words, brand (store) disloyals thought coupon redemption entailed greater store encumbrance.

The third factor that came out in this research represents perceived financial wellness, which is a determinant of coupon use in Mittal's research (1994).

The fourth and fifth factors identified are respectively, busyness and variety seeking. Those factors have already been employed several times in previous studies of culture related lifestyles (e.g., Mittal, 1994; Hui et al, 1993). In that prior research, Mittal (1994) concluded that demographics such as employment or household size affects people's perceptions of how busy they are, which later affects their behavior towards coupons.

The seventh factor, bargain shopper, was also used by Laroche et al (1995) as a psychographic factor in their study on deal interests. Along with socio-demographic variables, general shopping style factors were included as explanatory variables to examine how these factors influence consumers' interests in sales promotion.

Table 6
Factors for Cognitive Variables

Description	Item	Cronbach Alpha	Factor Loading
Information Search in supermarket fliers	- I use grocery store circular/flier advertisements to decide which store I will patronize.	0.85	.872
	- Prior to shopping, I check all the fliers for promoted brands and prices.		.862
Sales promotions costs/benefits	- Promotions can save me a lot of money.	0.60	.697
	- Cents-off promotions can save a shopper a lot of money.		.645
	- I don't believe that "2 for 1" deals save you much money.		.422

Given that this study is primarily exploratory, we attempted to separate the items into three categories, respectively cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral. In the first part and after deletion of several cognitive items, we ended up with two important cognitive factors. The first factor pertains to the information search that consumers conduct by reading the supermarket weekly fliers before they do their groceries, and the second factor consists of the sales promotion costs and benefits, that is the economic trait of deals (cf., table 6).

Table 7
Factors for Attitudinal Variables

Description	Item	Cronbach Alpha	Factor Loading
Attitude toward cents-off	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I enjoy buying products with cents-off promotions, regardless of the amount I save by doing so. - Buying products with cents-off promotions makes me feel good. - Beyond the money I save, buying products with cents-off promotions gives me a sense of joy. 	0.83	.871 .720 .538
Attitude toward contests/sweepstakes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I enjoy entering manufacturers sweepstakes. - Manufacturers sweepstakes are fun to enter, even when I know that I will never win. - When I buy a brand that is connected to a contest or a sweepstake, I feel that I have made a good deal. 	0.75	.881 .590 .585
Attitude toward coupon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I enjoy clipping coupons out of newspapers or magazines. - Redeeming coupons makes me feel good. - I enjoy using coupons regardless of the amount I save in doing so. - When I use coupons, I feel I am getting a good deal. 	0.87	-.851 -.794 -.675 -.586
Attitude towards "2 for 1" promotion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - When I buy a product with a " buy-one-get-one-free" offer, I feel that I am getting a good deal. - When I take advantage of a "buy-one-get-one-free" offer, I feel good. - I enjoy buying a brand that offers a "buy-one-get-one-free" promotion. 	0.91	.941 .718 .662
Attitude toward deals in general	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Compared to other people, I am very likely to purchase brands that come with promotional offers. - I enjoy buying brands that are promoted. - Receiving a promotional offer with a product purchase makes me feel like I am a good shopper. 	0.77	0.786 0.726 0.516

A careful examination of the factors that emerged from the analysis of the attitudinal variables after the oblimin rotation (cf., table 7) revealed the existence of 5 factors, namely attitude toward 2 for 1 promotion, attitude toward contests/sweepstakes, attitude toward coupons, attitude toward cents-off, and finally attitude toward deals in general. This repartition is similar to the one proposed by Lichtenstein et al. (1997).

In their study, these authors created several measures of proneness for different types of deals. However, the main caveat in that study was the lack of distinction between the nature of the items created. In other words, for each deal measure, the authors gathered cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral items that best assessed the proneness for that type of deal. From a consumer behavior standpoint, this gap was highlighted and a developmental work on measurement refinement was suggested.

Furthermore, Lichtenstein et al (1997) intended to examine whether there were consumer segments that have a propensity to be deal prone in general and/or segments that reflect a proneness to deals at some more specific levels. The results disconfirmed their expectations of a specific deal prone segment and suggested targeting a segment of consumers that was general across deal types.

Table 8
Factors for Behavioral Variables

Description	Item	Cronbach Alpha	Factor Loading
Cents-off's effects on behavior	- I am more likely to buy a brand if it has a cent-off promotion on the label.	0.74	.985
	- Compared to most people, I am more likely to buy products with cents-off promotions.		.423
	- During the last month, how many times have you bought a product using cents-off promotions.		.371
Coupon's effect on behavior	- I am more likely to buy brands for which I have a coupon.	0.79	.811
	- Approximately how many coupons do you redeem in a month?		.634
	- I have favorite brands, but most of the time I buy the brands I have a coupon for.		.628
Stockpiling	- If a product that I usually buy is being promoted, I will purchase it even if I do not need for immediate use.	0.74	.795
	- If a product that I usually buy is being promoted, I will increase the quantity of my purchases (i.e., stock up).		.744
Contests/sweepstakes' effect on behavior	- Monthly how many times do you participate in contests/sweepstakes.	0.63	.836
	- I don't waste my time filling out entries for promotional contests or sweepstakes.		.452
	- I often buy a product if the contest or sweepstakes interests me.		.356
Free gift with purchase's effect on behavior	- Compared to most people, I buy more brands that come with free gifts.	.81	-.757
	- I often purchase a product solely for the attached promotional gift.		-.742
	- Seeing a brand that comes with a free gift has incited me to buy brands I normally would not buy.		-.631
	-		

The final set of factors pertains to behavioral variables (cf., table 8). The maximum likelihood factor analysis with an oblimin rotation revealed the existence of five behavioral constructs, which are respectively: cents-off effects on behavior, stockpiling, contests/sweepstakes effect on behavior, coupons effect on behavior, free gift's effect on behavior. All the above mentioned constructs were tested by Lichtenstein et al. (1997).

3- LISREL RESULTS

Stevens (1962) defined measurement as “a rule for the assignment of numerals (numbers) to aspects of objects or events creating a scale (of measurement) (Stevens, 1966; p.22). In addition, Bollen (1989) states that in the social sciences, measurement usually involves unobserved or latent variables for which observed measures or indicators are developed.

After running exploratory factor analyses using SPSS 8.1, we could identify the dimensionality of several measures suggested in prior research and purify those measures by eliminating variables that loaded poorly on the factors. We then retained the factors that explained a meaningful proportion of the total variance. This purification was based on some rules of thumb, since no scientific rules exist to specify item removal in exploratory factor analyses.

After this preliminary step, we proceeded with a confirmatory factor analysis which permits to constrain a number of parameters based on prior findings and theories. According to Bagozzi (1994; p.186), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is the “most frequently applied procedure for representing the relationship between theoretical variables and their measurements.” In our case, we attempted to see whether the general consumer response to sales promotion follows a Fishbein Model (1963), that is a cognitive-attitude-behavior pattern.

Due to the complexity of the primary model defined and to identification problems encountered, we decided to break down the model into four parsimonious sub-models, which respectively corresponded to the cognitive-attitude-behavior models for each of the following sales promotions, namely cents-off, contest/sweepstakes, coupons

and deals in general. This latter could be any of the seven types of promotions defined in the literature review and used in the questionnaire. We added this alternative based on Lichtenstein et al. (1995) work in which the authors showed that people are not specific deal prone but general deal prone.

Next, the structural equations model in figure 1 was analyzed with Lisrel VIII (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1993).

A- ATTITUDES TOWARDS SALES PROMOTIONS

First, Structural Equations Modeling was applied to the attitudinal constructs identified by the exploratory factor analysis conducted in the first step. In comparison to the exploratory factor analysis measurement model specification, the CFA included a second-order factor, which represented *Attitude towards sales promotion* (See Figure 3). The first-order structure of the model under analysis remained basically the same as that in the EFA model. The existence of a higher-order factor was suggested by the substantial degrees of correlation among the four factors retained from the EFA analysis discussed above (Table 7) namely, attitude towards cents-off, attitude towards contest/sweepstakes, attitude toward coupons and finally attitude toward deals in general. CFA results for attitudinal factor appear in Table 9.

Figure 3: Attitude toward Sales Promotion

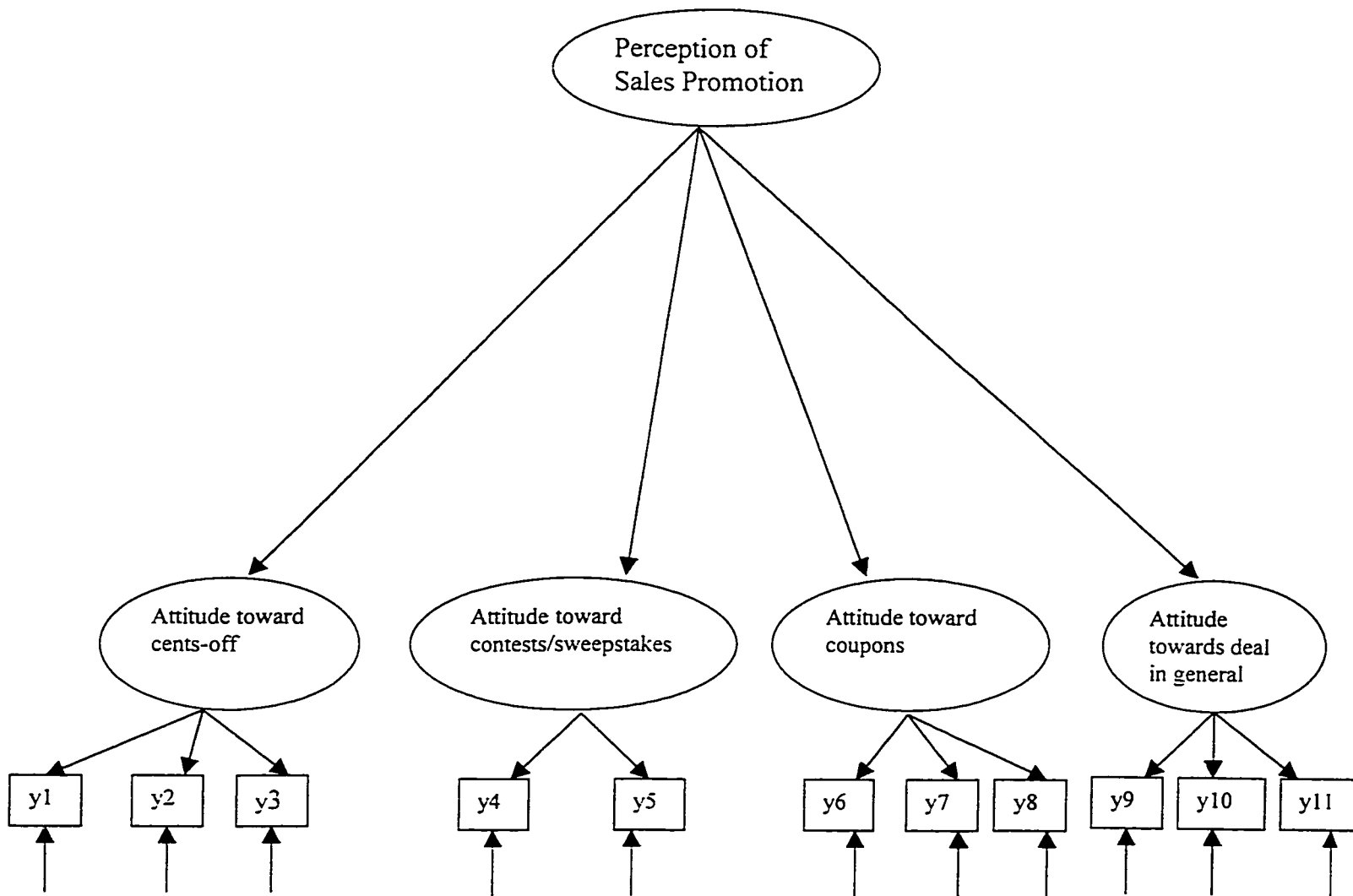


Table 9
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Estimates for Second-Order Attitudinal Model

Parameter ^a	Standardized Parameter Estimate	t-value
First Order		
<i>Factor Loadings</i>		
$\lambda_{1,1}$.86 ^b	--
$\lambda_{2,1}$.88	23.36
$\lambda_{3,1}$.65	16.01
$\lambda_{4,2}$.55 ^b	--
$\lambda_{5,2}$.95	8.62
$\lambda_{6,3}$.81 ^b	--
$\lambda_{7,3}$.71	16.41
$\lambda_{8,3}$.83	19.16
$\lambda_{9,4}$.77 ^b	--
$\lambda_{10,4}$.71	14.72
$\lambda_{11,4}$.72	14.76
Second Order		
<i>Factor Loadings</i>		
$\delta_{1,1}$.88	18.29
$\delta_{2,2}$.65	7.65
$\delta_{3,3}$.80	15.84
$\delta_{4,4}$.81	14.85
Goodness of Fit		
<i>Statistics</i>		
χ^2	156.00(.00)	
df	40	
NFI	0.94	
CFI	0.96	

Table 9 Cont'd

***Complete Correlation Matrices
Of First-Order Factors***

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	ASP
Factor 1	1.00				
Factor 2	.57	1.00			
Factor 3	.70	.52	1.00		
Factor 4	.71	.52	.65	1.00	
Attitude towards Sales Promotion	.88	.65	.80	.81	1.00

Note: Factor 1 = Attitudes towards cents-off
 Factor 2 = Attitudes towards contests/sweepstakes
 Factor 3 = Attitudes towards coupons
 Factor 4 = Attitudes towards deals
 ASP= Attitudes towards sales promotion.

^aParameter estimates are standardized

^bThe unstandardized coefficient corresponding to this parameter was constrained to equal 1.00 so as to fix the scale of the latent construct.

Interpretation of Results

After purification of several items due to residuals, estimation of the Attitude toward Sales Promotion yielded a χ^2 value of 156.00 with 40 degrees of freedom ($p = .00$). This indicated unsatisfactory fit, however, the χ^2 test is sensitive to sample size and deemed a poor measure of fit when sample size is relatively large as it was in this case (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). On the other hand, the Normed Fit Index (NFI) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) are known to be less sensitive to sample size effects. NFI and CFI values equal to or greater than .90 are generally taken as indicative of a meaningful model (Bentler, 1990). In this case, these indices respectively equaled .94 and

0.96. The second-order CFA model therefore exhibited acceptable fit and seemed to adequately represent the variable structure of the sample. An examination of the standardized parameter estimates for first-order factor loadings (λ s) and all second-order factor loadings (δ s) (See table 9), revealed significant coefficients for the model. This indicated convergence of the items in measuring their respective dimensions as well as convergence of the four first-order factors. In this case, the second-order factor loadings (δ s, gammas) convey how reliable each of the four first-order factors reflected the attitude towards sales promotions. Therefore, it was obvious that *attitudes towards cents-off* (η_1) emerged as the most reliable indication of sales promotion proneness ($\delta_{1,1}= 0.88$). The following highest level was exhibited by *proneness towards deals* in general no matter their types ($\delta_{2,2}= 0.81$). Next, *attitudes toward coupons*, represented the next reliable indicator of attitudes towards sales promotion ($\delta_{3,3}= 0.80$). Finally, *attitudes towards contests/sweepstakes* came out as the least reliable indicator of sales promotion attitudes ($\delta_{4,4}= 0.65$).

B- EFFECTS OF SALES PROMOTIONS ON BEHAVIOR

In comparison to the exploratory factor analysis measurement model specification, the CFA included a second-order factor, which represented the *effects of sales promotion on behavior*. Figure 4 illustrates the second-order factor model, which was suggested by the substantial degrees of correlation among the four factors retained from the EFA analysis discussed above (Table 8). These factors are respectively effects of cents-off on behavior, effects of coupons on behavior, effects of deals on stockpiling, and finally effects of contests/sweepstakes on behavior. (See CFA results in table 10).

Figure 4: The Effects of Sales Promotion on behavior

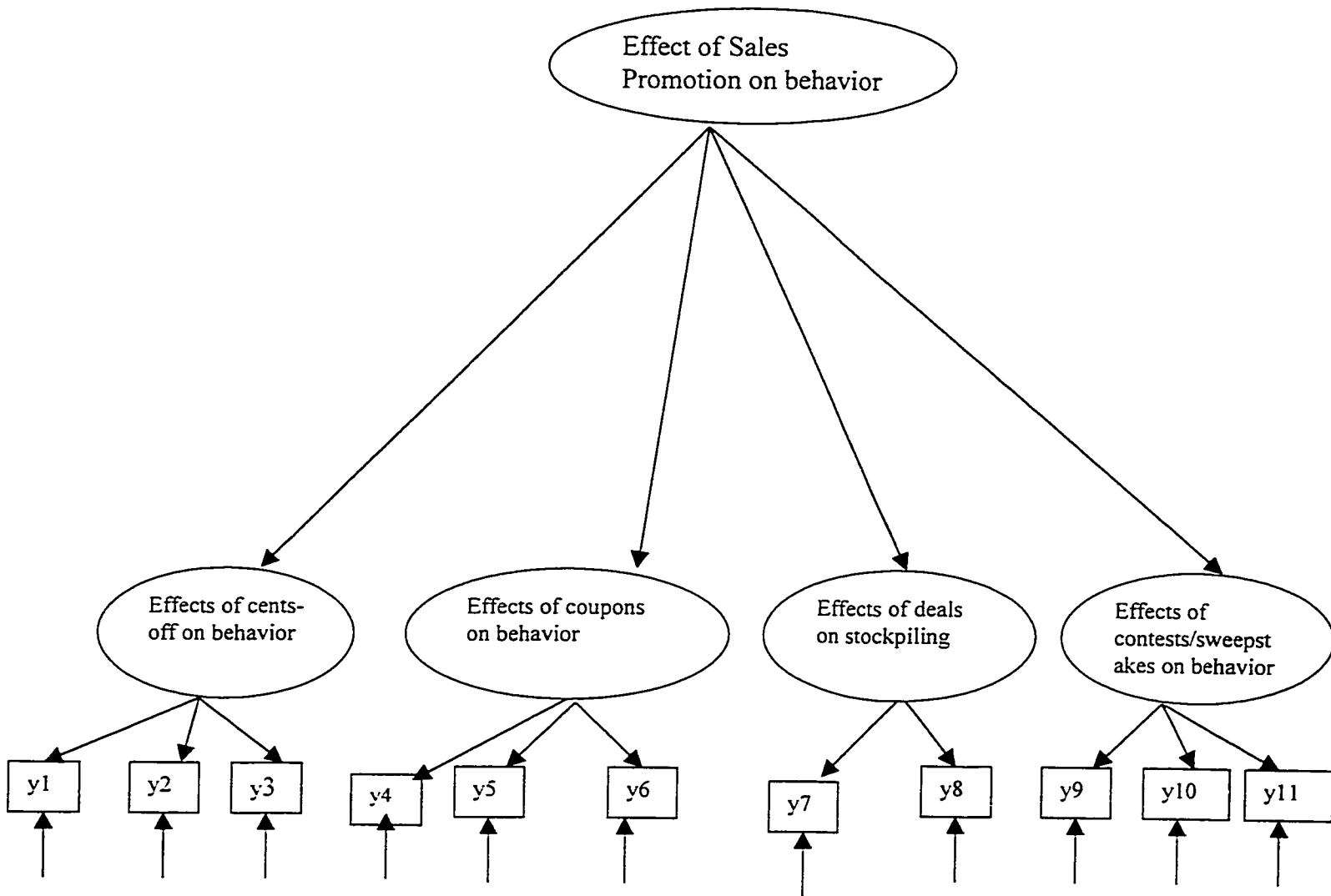


Table 10
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Estimates for Second-Order Behavioral Model

Parameter ^a	Standardized Parameter Estimate	t-value
First Order		
<i>Factor Loadings</i>		
$\lambda_{1,1}$.75 ^b	--
$\lambda_{2,1}$.72	13.51
$\lambda_{3,1}$.63	12.38
$\lambda_{4,2}$.89 ^b	--
$\lambda_{5,2}$.61	13.96
$\lambda_{6,2}$.76	17.69
$\lambda_{7,3}$.68 ^b	--
$\lambda_{8,3}$.88	7.29
$\lambda_{9,4}$.62 ^b	--
$\lambda_{10,4}$.44	7.36
$\lambda_{11,4}$.70	8.87
Second Order		
<i>Factor Loadings</i>		
$\gamma_{1,1}$.60	12.72
$\gamma_{2,2}$.75	15.26
$\gamma_{3,3}$.30	6.15
$\gamma_{4,4}$.39	8.55
Goodness of Fit		
<i>Statistics</i>		
χ^2	184.42(.00)	
df	40	
NFI	0.90	
CFI	0.92	

Table 10 Cont'd

***Complete Correlation Matrices
Of First-Order Factors***

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	ASP
Factor 1	1.00				
Factor 2	.68	1.00			
Factor 3	.36	.38	1.00		
Factor 4	.51	.53	.28	1.00	
Effects of Sales Promotion On behavior	.81	.84	.45	.63	1.00

Note: Factor 1 = Effects of cents-off on behavior
 Factor 2 = Effects of coupons on behavior
 Factor 3 = Effects of deals on behavior
 Factor 4 = Effects of contests/sweepstakes on behavior.
 ASP= Attitudes towards sales promotion.

^aParameter estimates are standardized

^bThe unstandardized coefficient corresponding to this parameter was constrained to equal 1.00 so as to fix the scale of the latent construct.

Interpretation of Results

After purification of several items due to residuals, estimation of the effects of sales promotion on behavior yielded a χ^2 value of 184.42 with 40 degrees of freedom ($p = .00$). This again indicated unsatisfactory fit, yet, it could be explained by the large sample size. On the other hand, as we mentioned previously, NFI and CFI values equal to or greater than .90 are generally taken as indicative of a meaningful model (Bentler, 1990). In this case, these indices respectively equaled .90 and 0.92. The second-order CFA model therefore exhibited acceptable fit and seemed to adequately represent the variable structure of the sample. An examination of the standardized parameter estimates for first-

order factor loadings (λ s) and all second-order factor loadings (δ s) (See table 10) revealed significant coefficients for the model. This indicated convergence of the behavioral items in measuring their respective dimensions as well as convergence of the four first-order factors. In this case, the second-order factor loadings (δ s, gammas) convey how reliable each of the four first-order factors reflected the effects of sales promotions on behavior.

The effects of coupons on behavior (η_2) emerged as the most reliable indication of sales promotion behavior ($\delta_{2,2}= 0.75$). Then, we find *the effects of cents-off on behavior* ($\delta_{1,1}= 0.60$). Next the effect of contest/sweepstakes on behavior comes out as the third reliable factor in explaining the general effect of sales promotion on behavior ($\delta_{4,4}= 0.39$). Finally, *the effects of deals on stockpiling* came out as the least reliable indicator of sales promotion behavior ($\delta_{3,3}= 0.30$).

In sum, those indices and coefficients indicate that the behavioral model explaining the effects of sales promotion is meaningful. However, this did not enable us to draw conclusions of the causal relationship that exists between the attitudes and the behavior. Therefore, we decided to break down the general model into 4 parsimonious sub-models corresponding to each type of sales promotion retained in the CFA analysis. Then, we explored the nature of the relationship between the different constructs to better understand the process by which consumers perceive and use each of the sales promotion techniques. At a final stage, we decided to introduce lifestyles, demographics and acculturation variables and to investigate their effects in every model studied.

MODEL 1: CENTS-OFF CONCEPTUAL MODEL: (Figure 5)

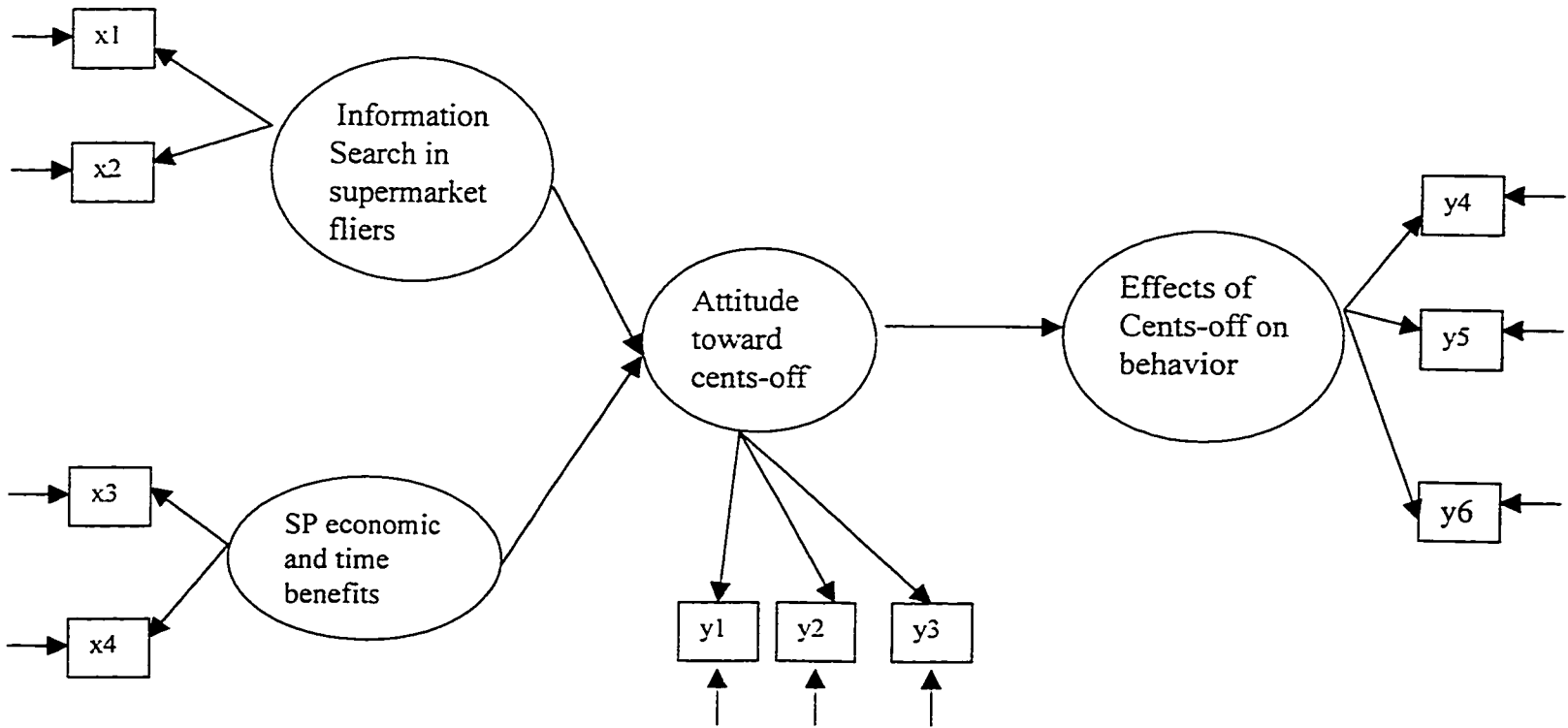


Table 11
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Estimates for Cents-off model

Parameter ^a	Standardized Parameter Estimate	t-value
First Order		
<i>Factor Loadings</i>		
Lambda-x		
$\lambda_{1,1}$.85 ^b	--
$\lambda_{2,1}$.88	12.40
$\lambda_{3,2}$.59 ^b	--
$\lambda_{4,2}$.78	12.24
Lambda-y		
$\lambda_{5,3}$.85 ^b	--
$\lambda_{6,3}$.86	23.91
$\lambda_{7,3}$.67	16.96
$\lambda_{8,4}$.78 ^b	--
$\lambda_{9,4}$.70	15.58
$\lambda_{10,4}$.62	13.62
Gamma		
$\gamma_{1,1}$	-.04	-.67
$\gamma_{2,1}$.88	9.79
Beta		
$\beta_{1,2}$.91	18.27
Goodness of Fit		
<i>Statistics</i>		
χ^2	174.43 (.00)	
df	31	
NFI	0.93	
CFI	0.94	

Table 11 Cont'd

***Complete Correlation Matrices
Of First-Order Factors***

	Att-Cents	Beh-Cents	Look-Info	SP Benefits
Att-Cents	1.00			
Beh-Cents	.91	1.00		
Look-Info	.40	.37	1.00	
SP Benefits	.86	.79	.50	1.00

^aParameter estimates are standardized

^bThe unstandardized coefficient corresponding to this parameter was constrained to equal 1.00 so as to fix the scale of the latent construct.

Interpretation of Lisrel Results

To analyze the cents-off cognitive-attitudinal-behavioral conceptual model, we are going to follow the criteria suggested by Byrne (1994) to assess a model adequacy.

Goodness-of-fit summary: The first indicator $\chi^2 = 174.43$ (.00) suggests that the hypothesized model is not entirely adequate to fit the data. Interpreted literally, it reveals that the hypothesis bearing on the cents-off Fishbein process, as summarized in the model, represents an unlikely event and should be rejected. However, this result has to be interpreted cautiously due to the sensitivity of the χ^2 statistical test to sample size.

According to Byrne (1994), “Bentler and Bonett (1980) Normed Fit Index (NFI) has been the practical criterion of choice”. In our case, the NFI index, which represents a measure of complete covariation in the data, was equal to .93. This indicates an acceptable fit of the model to the data. Moreover, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), which takes into account the sample size equals .94. These two results are consistent in suggesting that the hypothesized model represented an adequate fit to the data.

Assessment of parameter estimates: Byrne (1994, 56) states that “the first step in assessing the fit of individual parameters is to determine the viability of their estimated values”. In our case, no parameters exhibited unreasonable estimates like correlations greater than 1.00 or standard errors that are abnormally large or small. A review of the unstandardized solution in the output reveals all estimates to be reasonable and statistically significant, since their t-value is greater than (± 1.96). The only path that was non significant in the hypothesized model was $\delta_{1,1}$ which was equal to -.04 (-.67). This shows that there is no causal relationship between the Information Search construct and the attitudes toward cents-off construct. In other words, consumers do not build their perception towards cents-off based on the information search (i.e., reading weekly fliers) they conduct before they go shopping. This is consistent with the definition presented by Schneider and Currim (1991) that classifies deal prone consumers into two types: active and passive deal prone. According to these two authors, active deal prone consumers are those who conduct an intensive search to locate features and coupons, whereas passive deal prone consumers are those who conduct a restricted information search. They hypothesize and confirm in their study that active deal prone consumers are more likely to exhibit passive deal proneness than passive deal prone consumer to exhibit active deal behavior. This is consistent with our finding. In fact, according to the above definition, sensitivity to cents-off coupons is defined as active deal proneness. However, Canadian consumers do not conduct any information search prior to their shopping trip to look for cents-off promotions. This result asserts that people are not willing to incur fixed costs associated with scanning magazines and newspapers, and screening valuable cents-off

promotions from the useless ones (Bawa and Shoemaker, 1987). On the other hand, consumers seem to rely more on the perceived economic and time benefits of cents-off to form their attitudes towards this sales promotion technique.

Indeed the positive path between both constructs ($\delta_{2,2} = .88$) reveals that the more people perceive they are saving money using cents-off promotion, the more they appreciate it and feel they are smart and making good deals. This positive attitude toward cents-off generates more intention to buy when a brand or a product is offered with a cents-off reduction. Moreover, as consumers express positive feelings towards cents-off, the quantity of purchases made using cents-off promotion increases.

Therefore, we can conclude that consumers are attracted by larger amounts of cents-off savings. They do not look for fliers or magazines to collect them, but once they get a good saving, they feel they can make a good buy and thus are induced to purchase the promoted brand.

It is important to note that people do not use fliers to look for cents-off promotions, perhaps this is due to the information overload they are exposed to. However, people are still influenced by the magnitude of the savings they can get when doing their groceries. This finding has an important implication for marketers who must be aware that consumers may expect to get the cents-off saving inside the store, i.e., at the cashier or on the shelves. This opportunity could generate tremendous quantities of impulse purchases. This would be especially successful in the new products' launch, since it may entice consumers to try new packaged goods they would normally not buy, thus accelerating the in-store decision making.

*The moderating Effects of Lifestyles, Demographics and Acculturation on Cents-off
hypothesized Model:*

Since this study is interested in how the acculturation dimension, along with other life-style factors and demographic characteristics, have an impact on consumers' interests in sales promotion, a stepwise regression model approach was adopted for each of the four hypothesized models developed. The cultural dimension, acculturation and major life-style factors and demographics were used in the regression as independent variables. Thus, the following regression equation was adopted:

Consumer interests in cents-off = f(acculturation, purchase-related lifestyle factors, and demographics)

Although we performed a regression analysis using the entire sample of English and French Canadians for a general overview, our emphasis was on the results obtained from the regression analyses performed separately for each of the English and the French Canadian groups.

The estimation results for both groups are reported in Table 12. Each column shows the estimation results for the dependent variables attitude toward cents-off and cents-off behavior.

Table 12

Regression Estimates: Cents-off Conceptual Model

English Sample					French Sample				
	<i>Independent Variables</i>	β_0	β	<i>T-Value</i>		<i>Independent Variables</i>	β_0	β	<i>T-Value</i>
<i>Attitude towards cents-off</i>	<i>Variety Seeking</i>	.195	.176	3.246 ^b	<i>Attitude towards cents-off</i>	<i>Market Maven</i>	.131	.112	2.248 ^c
	Information search	.114	.157	2.673. ^a		<i>Variety Seeking</i>	.139	.122	2.565 ^c
	Sales promotion economic benefits	.489	.450	7.712 ^a		Sales promotion economic benefits	.657	.609	13.477 ^a
	<i>Income</i>	-.732	-.113	-2.077 ^b		<i>Marital Status</i>	-.454	-.084	-1.999 ^c
	Adj R ² = .365					Adj R ² = .498			
	F-Value = 33.7 ^a					F-Value = 71.58 ^a			
<i>Cents-off behavior</i>	<i>Financial wellness</i>	-.115	-.110	-2.365 ^b	<i>Cents-off behavior</i>	Attitude towards cents-off	.754	.75	18.955 ^a
	Attitude towards cents-off	.715	.709	15.306 ^a		<i>Husband Employment Status</i>	.204	.083	2.120 ^b
	<i>Age</i>	.145	.097	2.115 ^b		Adj R ² = .56			
	Adj R ² = .534					F-Value = 179.81 ^a			
	F-Value = 87.80 ^a								

a- Denotes statistically significant at the .01 level (p<.01)

b- Denotes statistically significant at the .05 level (p<.05)

c- Denotes statistically significant at the .10 level (p<.10)

Interpretation of Regression Estimates:

A careful examination of each column provides some interesting findings. As far as the attitude towards cents-off is concerned, the purchase-related life-style factor (variety seeking) turned out to be significant and to influence the attitude of English Canadian consumers, but was not as significant for the French Canadian group. Moreover, the attitude of English Canadians toward cents-off is negatively affected by only one demographic characteristic, namely income of the household. That means that the lower the income level of the household, the better the perception of cents-off. In that matter, Zeithaml (1985) uses role theory to explain the effect of income on supermarket shopping. She contends that the higher the income, the lower the need to perform the good shopper role (checking prices and using cents-off coupons).

In terms of behavioral response to cents-off, Financial wellness and Age did have a significant influence on behavior in the English group. In other words, English Canadian consumers who perceived themselves to be less wealthy were more inclined to use cents-off while shopping than those who feel they are rich enough not to bother using cents-off promotion. This is congruent with Mittal's (1994) finding who found that when income is higher, it generated a more positive financial wellness self-perception that yielded less promotional redemption.

In addition, age of English consumers did positively influence their predisposition to use cents-off. This could be explained by the fact that the elderly have more free time to spend looking for cents-off promotions and selecting the stores that offer better deals.

As for the French Canadian sample, the results show that the attitude towards cents-off promotion is positively influenced by the market maven dimension, while it is

negatively affected by the marital status demographic characteristic.

That means that the market maven profile related to French consumers reinforces their perception of cents-off promotion more than their English counterparts. Moreover, the negative relationship between marital status and attitude towards cents-off indicates that single French Canadians are more interested in cents-off deals and that this interest diminishes when they get married. This finding could be explained by the fact that in married couples, there are more duties and thus less time to take advantage of the grocery promotions.

MODEL 2: COUPONS' CONCEPTUAL MODEL: (Figure 6)

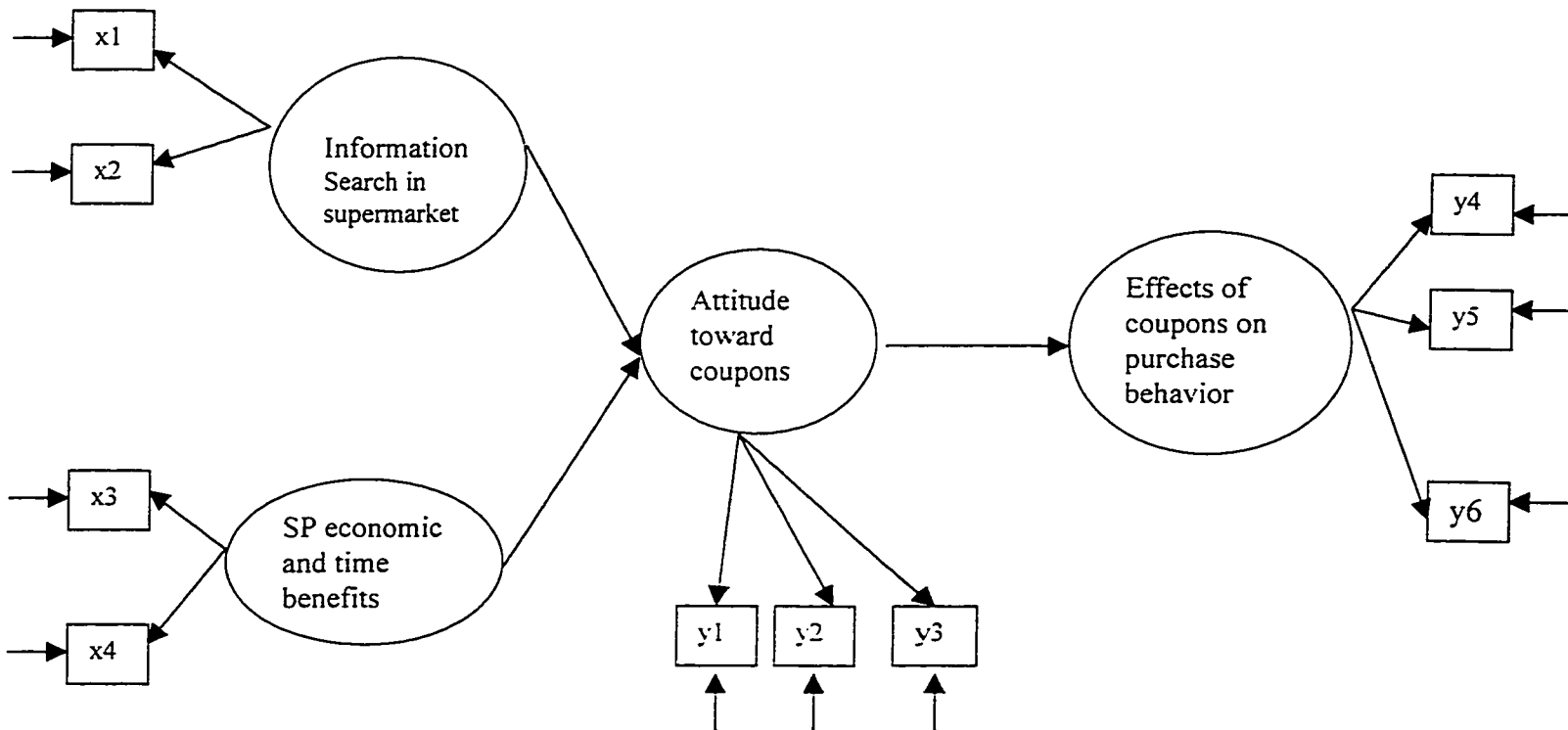


Table 13
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Estimates for Coupon Usage Model

Parameter ^a	Standardized Parameter Estimate	t-value
First Order		
<i>Factor Loadings</i>		
Lambda-x		
$\lambda_{1,1}$.83 ^b	--
$\lambda_{2,1}$.91	18.89
$\lambda_{3,2}$.61 ^b	--
$\lambda_{4,2}$.77	10.69
Lambda-y		
$\lambda_{5,3}$.82 ^b	--
$\lambda_{6,3}$.73	18.23
$\lambda_{7,3}$.80	20.47
$\lambda_{8,4}$.86 ^b	--
$\lambda_{9,4}$.69	16.95
$\lambda_{10,4}$.71	17.73
Gamma		
$\gamma_{1,1}$.44	8.58
$\gamma_{2,1}$.55	8.31
Beta		
$\beta_{1,2}$.90	19.67
Goodness of Fit		
<i>Statistics</i>		
χ^2	185.99 (.00)	
df	31	
NFI	0.93	
CFI	0.94	

Table 13 Cont'd

***Complete Correlation Matrices
Of First-Order Factors***

	Att-Coupons	Beh-Coupons	Look-Info	SP Benefits
Att-Coupons	1.00			
Beh-Coupons	.90	1.00		
Look-Info	.71	.64	1.00	
SP Benefits	.77	.69	.50	1.00

^aParameter estimates are standardized

^bThe unstandardized coefficient corresponding to this parameter was constrained to equal 1.00 so as to fix the scale of the latent construct.

Interpretation of Lisrel Results

Goodness-of-fit summary: The first indicator $\chi^2 = 174.43$ (.00) suggests that the hypothesized model is not entirely adequate to fit the data. Interpreted literally, it reveals that the hypothesis bearing on coupons process following a cognitive-attitude-behavior pattern, as summarized in the model, represents an unlikely event and should be rejected. However, this result has to be interpreted cautiously due to the sensitivity of the χ^2 statistical test to sample size. In fact, according to Mueller (1996, p. 83), "Several shortcomings associated with this formal hypothesis of data-model fit have been noted in the literature. First, the χ^2 -test depends on a number of assumptions (e.g., validity of the tested null hypothesis, multivariate normality of observed variables, and sufficiently large sample size). Given the above limitations, Jöreskog and Sörbom (1993) advocated to evaluate a χ^2 statistical value not as a formal test statistic. Instead they suggested to informally compare the magnitude of an observed χ^2 value to the mean of its underlying sampling distribution [$E(\chi^2) = df$], as compared to its associated degrees of freedom, is

indicative of a good fit and a large value is an indication of a bad data-model fit. In practice, some interpret ratios as high as 3, 4, 5 or even 6 as still representing good data-model fit.” In the case of the coupon-usage model, $\chi^2/df = 185.99/31 = 5.99$, which is a fairly good-data-model fit.

In addition, the NFI index, which represents a measure of complete covariation in the data, was equal to .93. This is indicative of an acceptable fit of the model to the data. Moreover, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), which takes into account the sample size, equals .94. These two results are consistent in suggesting that hypothesized coupon usage model represents an adequate fit to the data.

Assessment of parameter estimates: A review of the unstandardized solution in the output reveals all estimates to be reasonable and statistically significant, since their t-value is greater than (± 1.96). Furthermore, the positive path between both cognitive constructs and the attitudinal construct ($\delta_{1,1} = .44$; $\delta_{2,2} = .55$) reveals first, that consumers look for information in fliers and magazines seeking valuable coupons. Second, it indicates that the more people perceive they are saving money with coupons, the more they appreciate it and feel they are smart and making good deals. This positive attitude toward coupons generates intention to buy more when a coupon accompanies a brand or a product. Moreover, as consumers express positive feelings towards coupons, the quantity of purchases made using coupons increases, since the path coefficient ($\beta_{1,2} = .90$) reflects the significance of the causal inference between attitude towards coupons and coupon's usage behavior. According to self-perception theory, this finding, which is congruent with Dodson et al.(1978), can be explained by the differences in economic value and effort

required between cents-off and coupons which attract more switchers than do cents-off deals.

Therefore, we can conclude that consumers look and read supermarket and groceries' fliers to clip and redeem coupons. They are as well attracted by the magnitude of coupons. Therefore, we can state that consumers are more prone towards coupons than towards cents-off promotions since they spend more time and effort seeking coupons to redeem than cents-off promotions.

Our finding is consistent with Mittal's result, who reported in his study that reduced perception of coupon benefits generated less favorable attitudes, resulting thus in less coupon redemption.

As a conclusion, we can state that the enjoyment of couponing contributed significantly to coupon attitudes and redemption. Indeed, a large proportion (32%) of our respondents reported that they enjoyed using coupons, while 58% agreed that when they use coupons, they feel they are getting good buys. This raises the notion of smart shoppers, which has already been proven in prior studies. Indeed, Schindler (1984) used a market research method to underline the smart shopper mechanism operating in coupon usage. That is, consumers give themselves credit for obtaining a lower price and this attribution leads to desirable feelings that motivate the purchase. The evidence Schindler has compiled suggested that the personal action of getting a low price via a coupon provides a feeling of effectiveness and of winning that is more rewarding than an equivalent sale price. Furthermore, Shimp and Kavas (1984) noted that almost no research on deals has examined coupon usage behavior from the consumer's perspective. Their work attempted to suggest how consumers perceive various costs and rewards from

redeeming coupons. This research suggested that an important motivation for coupon redemption is the feeling of being thrifty and smart shopper.

The Moderating Effects of Lifestyles, Demographics and Acculturation on Coupons

Hypothesized Model:

As we proceeded for the cents-off usage, we repeated the same analysis for coupons to seek differences between French and English Canadians.

The estimation results for both groups are reported in Table 14. Each column shows the estimation results for the dependent variables attitude toward coupons and coupon usage behavior.

Table 14

Regression Estimates: Coupon Usage Model

English Sample					French Sample				
<i>Attitude towards coupons</i>	<i>Independent Variables</i>	β_0	β	<i>T-Value</i>	<i>Attitude towards coupons</i>	<i>Independent Variables</i>	β_0	β	<i>T-Value</i>
	<i>Brand Loyalty</i>	.171	.118	2.422 ^b					
	<i>Variety Seeking</i>	.108	.088	1.753 ^c		Information search	.317	.393	8.713 ^a
	Information search	.341	.421	7.884 ^a		Sales Promotion economic benefits	.533	.458	10.239 ^a
	Sales promotion economic benefits	.422	.349	6.552 ^a		<i>Acculturation</i>	-.099	-.079	-1.955 ^a
	<i>Income</i>	-.096	-.093	-1.888 ^c		Adj R ² = .515			
	Adj R ² = .475					F-Value = 101.53 ^a			
	F-Value = 42.08 ^a								
<i>Coupons Usage Behavior</i>					<i>Coupons Usage Behavior</i>	<i>Brand loyalty</i>	-.185	-.159	-4.409 ^a
	<i>Brand loyalty</i>	-.191	-.151	-3.355 ^a		<i>Financial wellness</i>	-.124	-.128	-3.516 ^a
	<i>Financial wellness</i>	-.101	-.100	-2.178 ^b		Attitude towards coupons	.652	.757	20.928 ^a
	<i>Busyness</i>	-0.081	-.086	-1.885 ^c		Age	.104	.065	1.793 ^c
	Attitude towards coupons	.641	.735	15.870 ^a		Adj R ² = .63			
	<i>Sex</i>	.315	.081	1.773 ^c		F-Value = 123.52 ^a			
	Adj R ² = .534								
	F-Value = 87.80 ^a								

d- Denotes statistically significant at the .01 level (p<.01)

e- Denotes statistically significant at the .05 level (p<.05)

f- Denotes statistically significant at the .10 level (p<.10)

Interpretation of Regression Estimates:

A careful examination of each column provides some meaningful results that are congruent with prior findings in the sales promotion literature. As far as the attitude towards coupons is concerned, the two purchase-related life-style factor (brand loyalty and variety seeking) turned out to be significant and to influence the attitude of English Canadian consumers, but was not significant for the French Canadian group. The finding relative to the positive effect of brand loyalty on the attitude toward coupon is quite surprising since it contradicts prior results that dealt with that issue. In fact, Mittal (1994) found that increased brand loyalty generated less favorable attitudes towards coupons and thus yielded less coupon redemption. Other studies also revealed the negative association between brand loyalty and coupon proneness (Webster, 1965; Montgomery, 1971; Teel et al. 1980; Bawa and Shoemaker, 1987). However, this result has to be interpreted with caution because in prior research, authors only tested the effect of promotions on the brand loyalty, and more specifically on coupon responsiveness. In our case, we are attempting to investigate the opposite effect, that is the effect of brand loyalty on the attitude towards coupons. In other words, we are trying to verify whether brand loyal consumers perceive positively coupons. If so, would it affect their final response to these incentives.

Moreover, the output also indicates that the attitude of English-Canadians towards coupons is negatively affected by only one demographic characteristic, namely income of the household as it was the case for cents-off promotion. That means that the lower the income level of the household, the better the perception of English Canadian consumers towards coupons. This results contradicts the results suggested by Blattberg et al. (1978)

who hypothesized that high income households are more deal prone than low income households. In addition, Bawa and Shoemaker (1987) found contrary to what was expected that coupon prone households tend to have a higher average income than the non-coupon-prone group.

In terms of behavioral response to coupons, brand loyalty did have the expected negative effect on coupon behavioral response. This result is consistent with previous research results (Webster, 1965; Montgomery, 1971; Teel et al, 1980; Bawa and Shomaker, 1987, Mittal, 1994). This is also reinforced in Papatla and Krishnamurthi's research (1996), that stated that increased purchases using coupons tended to erode brand loyalty and to enhance price sensitivity. This in fact was strongly supported in Mela et al. study (1997), in which the authors demonstrated that because of increased promotion activities and reduced advertising effects, consumers become more price and promotion sensitive over time. Those consumers could be called the "Activist Shoppers" as in Bawa et al. study (1987). They are defined as being above average users of coupons in most product classes, are low in brand loyalty, live in urban areas and have a better income.

Financial wellness, busyness and gender did have a significant influence on behavior in the English group. In other words, English Canadian consumers who perceived themselves to be less wealthy were more inclined to use coupons while shopping than those who feel they are rich enough not to bother using coupons. This is congruent with Mittal's (1994) finding who found that when the income is higher, it generated a more positive financial wellness self-perception that yielded to less promotional redemption.

As for the busyness variable, it negatively affected the coupon responsiveness in our model. This was predictable, since people who report being often busy have reduced availability to incur the fixed costs and the handling costs required to redeem coupons. This finding is congruent with Mittal's result, which predicted that busyness of households increased brand loyalty.

Moreover, Bawa et al. (1989) investigated the relationship between coupon redemption behavior and incremental purchasing to determine whether households' characteristics are associated with incremental purchasing. Using a logit model, they confirmed that incremental sales generated by coupons' usage were indeed higher in larger families, which presumably implies busyness of households.

In addition, gender of English consumers did positively influence their predisposition to use coupons. In fact, the positive sign of sex means that English men have a significant higher interest in coupons, compared to English women.

As for the French Canadian sample, the results show that their attitude towards coupons is influenced negatively by the acculturation dimension, but it is not affected by any of the demographic characteristics. That means that French Canadian consumers who are more acculturated toward the English culture tend to act as English Canadians. In this case, acculturation could be a proxy for income, that is as acculturation increases, income increases leading to a lower attitude towards coupons. However, in the English sample, though acculturation of English Canadians towards the French culture was positive, it does not show any significant directional pattern (p -value equal to .365). This conforms to Laroche, Kim and Clarke findings (1995) who define acculturation as an individual's learning of the traits of a different culture. According to the authors, the more a person

gets acculturated towards another culture, the more likely she/he will act like the members of that ethnic group. The research focuses on the effect of acculturation on a person's interest in sales promotion, particularly for short-term deals like coupons and rebates. "In other words, the degree to which a person is willing to expose himself or herself to other cultures by adopting the media of other languages different from his or her own ethnic language is relatively related to the average pattern of the other ethnic culture". (Laroche, Kim and Clark, 1995, p.6)

Our results partially support the results of Laroche et al. (1995) research, in which they postulated and verified that acculturation is more directly related to the pattern of the other culture in terms of the consumer interests in short-term deals (i.e., coupons). In our sample, we just verified that pattern for French Canadian consumers, since the effect of acculturation on the English Canadian sample was not significant.

Furthermore, French Canadians response to coupons is positively affected by age, that is the older French Canadian consumers are those who use the largest number of coupons. This contradicts Laroche et al. findings (1995), which state that the age variable turned out not to significantly influence the French Canadian interests in short term deals and particularly coupons.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS FOR COUPON USAGE

From a managerial standpoint, it is worthwhile noting that demographics are useful in targeting marketing promotions. Unfortunately, the relationship between demographics and coupon-redemption behavior has never been clear. According to Mittal (1994), a deep examination of prior studies reveals that there is no direct association between coupon redemption and most demographics. Coupon use is prevalent across all demographic groups. Therefore, marketing managers ought to target their coupon promotions broadly, in demographic terms.

Furthermore, the results of the present study also show that the lifestyle factors (i.e., perceived financial wellness, variety seeking, brand loyalty and busyness) were the factors that most strongly influenced consumers' deal interest. This finding suggests that the identification of average and low-income households ought to be a prime research issue for an efficient execution of sales promotion strategies. Managers have also to take into account that consumers enjoy using coupons because it makes them feel smart shoppers. This segment of consumers is willing to look for information seeking more appealing offers. These activist shoppers use many coupons, are willing to shop in several different stores, and are willing to consider several different brands for every product category. This segment appears to be an important target because their response elasticity to coupons is high. One way to reach these shoppers is to offer them multiple brand coupons (coupons redeemable only if two brands or more are purchased) or to build their "coupon loyalty" by identifying them using panel data, and sending them regularly a package of coupons that will reinforce their out-of-store decision.

Concerning acculturation's effect, the results are pertinent for advertising media selection for sales promotion. In fact, we found that French Canadian consumers tended to be more acculturated toward English culture. it would be reasonable to target them using English media to advertise coupons. In fact, it is widely known that there are more French Canadians that speak English than are English Canadians who speak the French language.

MODEL 3: CONTESTS/SWEEPSTAKES CONCEPTUAL MODEL: (Figure 7)

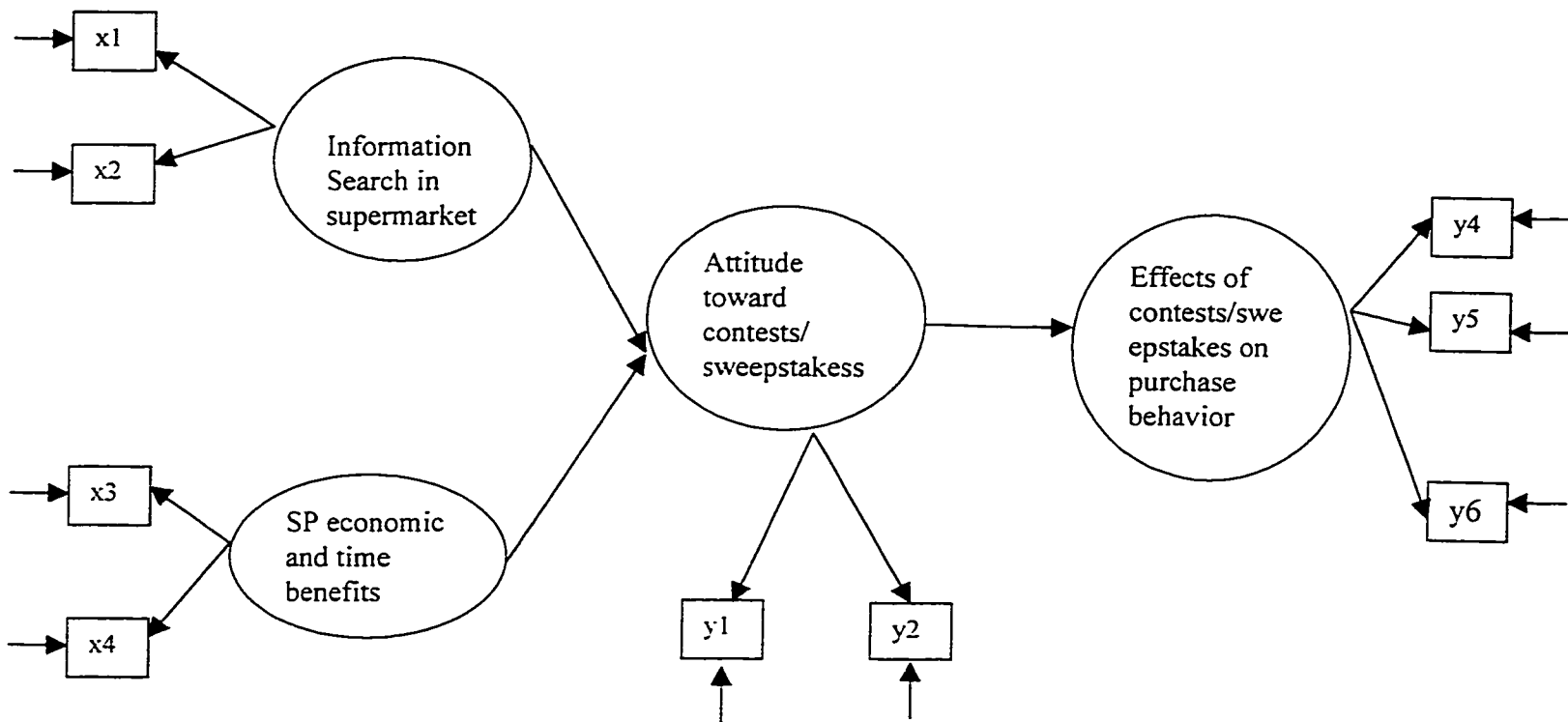


Table 15
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Estimates for Contests/sweepstakes Usage
Model

Parameter ^a	Standardized Parameter Estimate	t-value
First Order		
<i>Factor Loadings</i>		
Lambda-x		
$\lambda_{1,1}$.88 ^b	--
$\lambda_{2,1}$.86	13.29
$\lambda_{3,2}$.65 ^b	--
$\lambda_{4,2}$.71	9.34
Lambda-y		
$\lambda_{5,3}$.76 ^b	--
$\lambda_{6,3}$.53	11.46
$\lambda_{7,4}$.64 ^b	--
$\lambda_{8,4}$.52	10.34
$\lambda_{9,4}$.64	12.39
Gamma		
$\gamma_{1,1}$.12	1.87
$\gamma_{2,1}$.49	5.94
Beta		
$\beta_{1,2}$	1.17	12.43
Goodness of Fit		
<i>Statistics</i>		
χ^2	43.60 (.006)	
df	23	
NFI	0.97	
CFI	0.98	

Table 15 Cont'd

***Complete Correlation Matrices
Of First-Order Factors***

	Att-Coupons	Beh-Coupons	Look-Info	SP Benefits
Att-Coupons	1.00			
Beh-Coupons	.99	1.00		
Look-Info	.38	.43	1.00	
SP Benefits	.56	.62	.53	1.00

^aParameter estimates are standardized

^bThe unstandardized coefficient corresponding to this parameter was constrained to equal 1.00 so as to fix the scale of the latent construct.

Interpretation of Lisrel Results

Goodness-of-fit summary: The first indicator $\chi^2 = 43.6$ (.006) suggests that the hypothesized model is fairly adequate to fit the data. However, this result has to be interpreted cautiously due to the sensitivity of the χ^2 statistical test to sample size. Jöreskog and Sörbom (1993) advocated to compare the magnitude of an observed χ^2 value to the mean of its underlying sampling distribution [$E(\chi^2) = df$], we obtain in the case of the contest/sweepstakes usage model, $\chi^2/df = 43.6/23 = 1.89$, which is a good-data-model fit.

In addition, the NFI index, which represents a measure of complete covariation in the data, was equal to .97. This is indicative of an excellent fit of the model to the data. Moreover, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), which takes into account the sample size equals .99. These two results are consistent in suggesting that the hypothesized contests/sweepstakes usage model represents an adequate fit to the data.

Assessment of parameter estimates: A review of the unstandardized solution in the output reveals all estimates to be reasonable and statistically significant, since their t-value is greater than (± 1.96), except for the non significant effect of information search on the attitudes towards contests/sweepstakes (1.87). Furthermore, the positive path between the economic benefit cognitive construct and the attitudinal construct ($\delta_{22} = .43$) reveals that the more people perceive they are saving money using promotions, the more they appreciate it and positively mold their perception towards this type of lottery. This positive attitude generates more intention to buy when a contest or a sweepstake accompanies a brand or a product. Moreover, as consumers express positive feelings towards contests, the quantity of purchases accompanied by this type of promotion increases. Therefore, we can conclude that consumers do not look and read supermarket and groceries' fliers to look for contests or sweepstakes, which is logical since they hardly can find announcements related to this type of promotion in the grocery weekly fliers. However, consumers find appealing the value of the prizes, which contributes to shape a positive attitude towards this long-term deal.

To conclude, we can state that the enjoyment of filling out contests and sweepstakes contributed significantly to increase purchases accompanied with contests or sweepstakes.

The moderating Effects of Lifestyles, Demographics and Acculturation on Contests/sweepstakes hypothesized Model:

The estimation results for English and French groups are reported in Table 16. Each column shows the estimation results for the dependent variables attitude toward

contests/sweepstakes and response to contests/sweepstakes.

Table 16

Regression Estimates: Contests/Sweepstakes Usage Model

English Sample					French Sample				
	<i>Independent Variables</i>	β_0	β	<i>T-Value</i>		<i>Independent Variables</i>	β_0	β	<i>T-Value</i>
<i>Attitude towards Contests /sweepstakes</i>	<i>Busyness</i>	.119	.117	1.849 ^c	<i>Attitude towards contests/ Sweep stakes</i>	<i>Financial wellness</i>	-.140	-.149	-2.796 ^b
	<i>Variety Seeking</i>	.224	.193	3.051 ^b		Sales promotion economic benefits	.400	.409	7.659 ^a
	Information search in supermarket fliers	.150	.197	2.994 ^b		Adj R ² = .515			
	Sales promotion economic benefits	.227	.200	2.943 ^b		F-Value = 35.90 ^a			
	<i>Sex</i>	.515	.123	1.959 ^c					
	Adj R ² = .177								
	F-Value = 10.76 ^a								
<i>Contests/ sweepstakes Usage Behavior</i>	<i>Market Maven</i>	.080	.093	1.855 ^c	<i>Contests/ sweepstakes Usage Behavior</i>	Attitude towards contests/ Sweepstakes	.452	.626	13.501 ^a
	Attitude towards contests/ Sweepstakes	.490	.645	12.803 ^a		<i>Sex</i>	.231	.077	1.664 ^c
	Adj R ² = .443					Adj R ² = .389			
	F-Value = 91.30 ^a					F-Value = 91.66 ^a			

a- Denotes statistically significant at the .01 level (p<.01)

b- Denotes statistically significant at the .05 level (p<.05)

c- Denotes statistically significant at the .10 level (p<.10)

Interpretation of Regression Estimates:

The results pertaining to the contests/sweepstakes usage model show that English Canadian consumers attitude towards this promotional technique is positively influenced by two main lifestyle factors, namely busyness and variety seeking. Our finding completes Laroche et al. (1995) finding that states that bargain shopping factor influences the long-term deal interest of Anglophones. By long-term deal, the authors include contests/sweepstakes, trading stamps, refund offers, premiums and gifts. In other words, people who tend to seek variety in their grocery shopping trips, have more favorable perceptions of the promotional lottery than those who are more classical. Surprisingly, English Canadian consumers who reported being very busy also have a positive attitude towards contests and sweepstakes.

Finally, gender also affects the attitude of English Canadian consumers, showing that men are more interested in filling out promotional lotteries than women. However, this result has to be interpreted with caution since prior deal proneness studies have attempted to profile the prone consumer in terms of demographics, but results have always been inconsistent (Blattberg and Neslin, 1990, p.72-77).

With regards to English Canadians usage of contests/sweepstakes, the market maven lifestyle factor had a positive impact on their final behavior. That is English Canadian consumers who are characterized by being more expert in grocery shopping, are those who are more likely to use contests/sweepstakes promotions. In fact, this is concordant with Feick, Price and Federouche results (1988, p. 358), which state that “market mavens appear to view grocery shopping as a challenge in which the objective is to obtain the most for the least. This game involves planning, purposive shopping, and

the use of coupons, preferable in combination with special sales or promotions.”

For French Canadian consumers, their interest toward long-term deals, such as contests and sweepstakes is negatively influenced by their financial wellness. This result sounds wise because usually people who are wealthy do not spend much efforts seeking a prize they can afford themselves.

As for the French Canadian behavior towards contests and sweepstakes, it is only affected by the gender demographic characteristic. That is, men seem to be more likely to use contests and sweepstakes than are women. This exploratory result contradicts Laroché et al. (1995) finding that postulates that French Canadian women are more interested in long-term deals than are French Canadian men.

From a managerial perspective, it is important to target English Canadian market maven consumers through promotional lottery. In fact, these people who take time to plan for their shopping trip and to look for promotions, are generally not very rich and are willing to spread out the promotional information if it is worthy. These characteristics correspond to the profile sought in our model, which generally leads to a higher use of contests and sweepstakes.

MODEL 4 : EFFECTS OF DEALS ON STOCKPILING: (Figure 8)

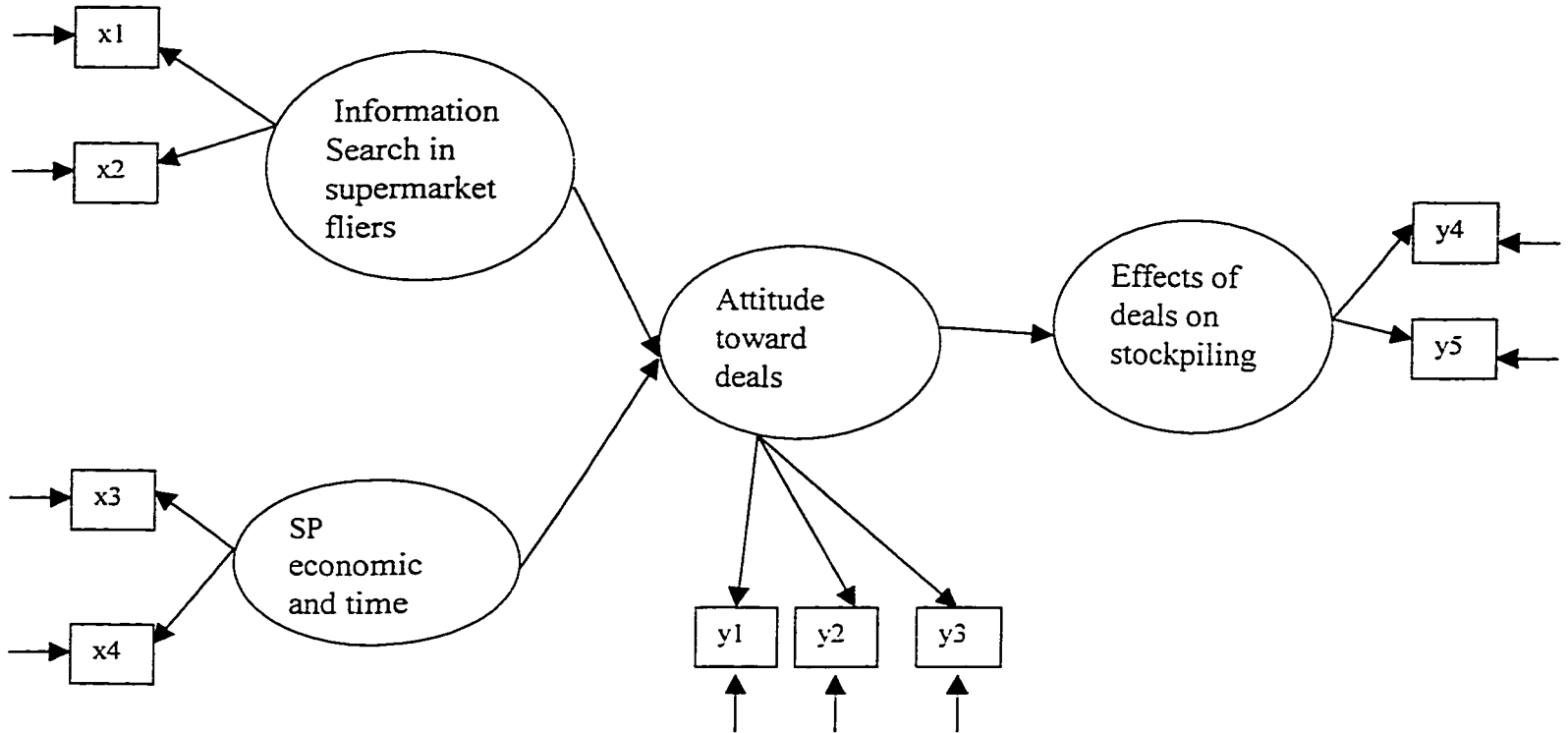


Table 17
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Estimates for Deal Usage Model

Parameter ^a	Standardized Parameter Estimate	t-value
First Order		
<i>Factor Loadings</i>		
Lambda-x		
$\lambda_{1,1}$.87 ^b	--
$\lambda_{2,1}$.86	12.72
$\lambda_{3,2}$.76 ^b	--
$\lambda_{4,2}$.61	11.24
Lambda-y		
$\lambda_{5,3}$.75 ^b	--
$\lambda_{6,3}$.73	14.61
$\lambda_{7,3}$.68	13.72
$\lambda_{8,4}$.67 ^b	--
$\lambda_{9,4}$.89	8.18
Gamma		
$\gamma_{1,1}$.00	1.87
$\gamma_{2,2}$.81	5.94
Beta		
$\beta_{1,2}$.48	6.70
Goodness of Fit		
<i>Statistics</i>		
χ^2	121.12 (.000)	
df	23	
NFI	0.93	
CFI	0.93	

Table 17 Cont'd

***Complete Correlation Matrices
Of First-Order Factors***

	Att-Coupons	Beh-Coupons	Look-Info	SP Benefits
Att-Coupons	1.00			
Beh-Coupons	.48	1.00		
Look-Info	.42	.20	1.00	
SP Benefits	.81	.39	.51	1.00

^aParameter estimates are standardized

^bThe unstandardized coefficient corresponding to this parameter was constrained to equal 1.00 so as to fix the scale of the latent construct.

Interpretation of Lisrel Results

Goodness-of-fit summary: The first indicator $\chi^2 = 121.12$ (.006) suggests that the hypothesized model is fairly adequate to fit the data. However, this result has to be interpreted cautiously due to the sensitivity of the χ^2 statistical test to sample size. Following the Jöreskog and Sörbom (1993) advocacy to compare the magnitude of an observed χ^2 value to the mean of its underlying sampling distribution [$E(\chi^2) = df$], we obtain in the case of the general deal usage model, $\chi^2/df = 121.12 = 5.26$, which is an acceptable data-model fit.

In addition, the NFI index, which represents a measure of complete covariation in the data, was equal to .93. This is indicative of an excellent fit of the model to the data. Moreover, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), which takes into account the sample size equals .94. These two results are consistent in suggesting that hypothesized contests/sweepstakes usage model represents an adequate fit to the data.

Assessment of parameter estimates: A review of the unstandardized solution in the output reveals all estimates to be reasonable and statistically significant, since their t-value is greater than (± 1.96), except for the non significant effect of information search on the attitudes towards deals (0.00). Furthermore, the positive path between the economic benefit cognitive construct and the attitudinal construct ($\delta_{2,2} = .81$) reveals that the more people perceive they are saving money using promotions, the more they appreciate it and positively mold their perception towards deals. This positive attitude generates more intention to buy when a deal accompanies a brand or a product, which results in stockpiling behavior. Therefore, we can conclude that consumers do not look and read supermarket and groceries' fliers to look for deals, which is logical since they hardly can find announcements related to all types of promotions in the grocery weekly fliers. However, they get informed about promotions through other sources such as word of mouth, advertising or once in the shopping place. This finding is in agreement with Gupta's finding (1988), which reports that sales increase due to promotions comes from brand switching, purchase acceleration and stockpiling. In the same line of thought, Schneider and Currim (1991) found that purchase quantity will be higher when a deal is available. It will increase with sensitivity to coupons and features and decrease with increasing sensitivity to displays. Finally, Blattberg et al. (1991) showed using the Inventory theory explanation that consumers do stockpile on deals. However, stockpiling is not occurring through more unit per purchase but a higher on hand inventory.

The moderating Effects of Lifestyles, Demographics and Acculturation on deals
hypothesized Model:

The estimation results for both groups are reported in Table 18. Each column shows the estimation results for the dependent variables attitude toward deals and effect of deals on stockpiling.

Table 18

Regression Estimates: Deals Usage Model

English Sample					French Sample				
	<i>Independent Variables</i>	β_0	β	<i>T-Value</i>		<i>Independent Variables</i>	β_0	β	<i>T-Value</i>
<i>Attitude towards deals</i>	<i>Busyness</i>	.113	.130	2.368 ^b	<i>Attitude towards deals</i>	<i>Variety Seeking</i>	.125	.124	2.597 ^b
	<i>Variety Seeking</i>	.195	.198	3.626 ^a		Sales promotion economic benefits	.564	.585	12.206 ^a
	Information search	.101	.157	2.704 ^a		<i>Family</i>	-.126	-.080	-1.729 ^c
	Sales promotion economic benefits	.396	.409	6.847 ^a		Adj R ² = .383			
	Adj R ² = .362					F-Value = 59.0 ^a			
	F-Value = 33.22 ^a								
<i>Effect of Deals on Stockpiling</i>	<i>Financial Wellness</i>	-.154	-.134	-2.118 ^c	<i>Effect of Deals on Stockpiling</i>	<i>Market Maven</i>	.186	.138	2.447 ^a
	Attitude towards deals	.346	.277	4.378 ^a		<i>Brand Loyalty</i>	.161	.111	2.068 ^a
	Adj R ² = .443					<i>Busyness</i>	.225	.162	2.983 ^c
	F-Value = 91.308 ^a					Attitude towards deals	.377	.292	5.162 ^a
						<i>Sex</i>	-.587	-.111	-2.038 ^b
						Adj R ² = .180			
						F-Value = 13.51 ^a			

a- Denotes statistically significant at the .01 level (p<.01)

b- Denotes statistically significant at the .05 level (p<.05)

c- Denotes statistically significant at the .10 level (p<.10)

Interpretation of Regression Estimates:

The findings of the last model pertaining to the effect of deals on stockpiling bring out new relationships between attitudinal constructs, lifestyle constructs and behavioral constructs.

In other words, this study sheds some light on the effects of psychographic variables on one of the most relevant effect of sales promotion, namely stockpiling. As we saw in the literature review, several studies have attempted to determine the effect of deals on the purchase behavior, however few of them were successful in combining the effect of deals and lifestyle and demographic characteristics.

In addition, the focal research question drawn from the literature is whether there is evidence to support consumer segments that are, in general, either deal prone or not deal prone or should consumers be segmented on some more specific basis. One objective of the present research was to address this issue and to see the differences among French and English Quebecers. Therefore we included the measure of general deal proneness created by Lichtenstein et al. (1995) and sought to see its effect on stockpiling, which has been reported by almost all the studies related to sales promotion effect.

The results reveal again that lifestyle variables, which were not taken into account in Lichtenstein et al. (1995, 1997) research, did again have a significant influence on the attitudinal and behavioral constructs. Indeed, for English Canadian consumers the same two factors, that is busyness and variety seeking have a positive effect on attitudes towards deals. As for the effect of deals on stockpiling, the output indicates that financial wellness still has a negative effect. This result is expected, since people who feel they are financially well off do not feel the need to stockpile on specials since they can afford to

buy the brand at its regular price. This way, they will not have to incur the fixed costs related to the handling costs (Bawa and Shoemaker, 1987).

For French Canadian consumers, variety seeking did again have a positive impact on perception of deals. In addition, only one demographic variable pertaining to the size of the family affected the attitudinal construct. This is consistent with Blattberg, Buesing, Peacock and Sen (1978) result, which posits that the presence of children will affect the intensity of deal proneness.

Furthermore for French Canadians, it emerges from results on the behavioral construct that lifestyle variables such as market maven, brand loyalty and busyness influence in a positive manner the stockpiling behavior due to sales promotion usage. This result was expected for market maven consumers who rely on their expertise to take maximum advantage of deals.

Finally, the negative sign accompanying the gender variable points out that French Canadian women are more likely to stockpile on specials than are French Canadian men.

SUMMARY

The primary objective of this study was to determine the process followed by Canadian consumers in their usage of sales promotion techniques for grocery shopping. It aimed at identifying the various factors that influence the consumer's decision to use promotions. A conceptual model developed from the Fishbein-Ajzen (1975) Attitude Model was hypothesized for the Canadian market. A cognitive-attitude-behavior multidimensional model was conceptualized to integrate all aspects of how and why consumers use sales promotion.

As the results indicated, the attitude towards sales promotions significantly predicted the resulting behavior towards deals. This was confirmed at the general level and at the specific level. In fact, attitude towards coupons was positively and significantly related to self-reported coupon redemption behavior. Also, attitude towards contests/sweepstakes was a positive predictor for self-reported contests/sweepstakes redemptions. This was also proven for cents-off and general deals.

The main findings of the present study could be summarized as follow:

- Consumers do not conduct an information search to look for cents-off promotion. However, they rely on perceived economic benefits of cents-off to form a positive attitude towards this technique. This favorable perception incites them to use cents-off deals when they go shopping. Furthermore, lifestyles and demographics had different influences across French and English Canadians. In fact, English Canadian consumers who look for cents-off are more likely to have a lower income and to seek variety of products in their grocery shopping. For French Canadians, however, consumers who

are likely to be cents-off prone are single market maven consumers, who seek variety of products.

- With regard to coupons usage, coupon prone English Canadians are more likely to be non loyal to one specific brand, to be very busy, to have a lower income which makes them perceive that they are not financially well. Moreover, English Canadian men tend to be more responsive to coupons than are English Canadian women. On the other hand, French Canadian consumers who tend to respond to coupons are more likely to be older, to be acculturated to the anglophone culture, and to perceive themselves as not being rich.
- To respond to contests/sweepstakes, Canadians do not conduct any prior information search. However, they are influenced by the magnitude and the economic benefit of those promotions. As for the acculturation dimension, results reveal that English Canadian consumers who tend to respond to the promotional games are people who consider themselves to be market maven, to be busy, and who seek variety when they do their grocery shopping. Nevertheless, the response of French Canadian consumers to contests and sweepstakes is significantly influenced by the gender (men more than women), and negatively affected by the perceived financial wellness.
- Finally, the effect of English Canadians' attitude towards deals on stockpiling promotional response is significantly influenced by their perceived busyness, their perceived financial wellness (negative effect), and by their tendency to seek for different products and brands. Similarly, French Canadians who have a favorable attitude towards deals and who do stockpile on specials are those who perceive

themselves to be market maven, to be busy, to be non-brand loyal. They are more likely to be women whose family is small.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Several limitations may restrict the generalizability of our findings for the following reasons:

- The data were obtained from households living in detached houses in the greater Montreal area. For practical issues, we could not distribute the questionnaires in apartment buildings. This may skew the sample towards richer, more highly educated and people living in private residences.
- Our study addressed eight promotion types based on both frequency of use and diversity, but there are other promotion types on which research could focus.
- Marketplace behavior data were collected based on self-reported measures of deals used per month. This was due to the high costs we would have to incur if we were to use scanner panel data.
- Since our primary objective was to develop an exploratory conceptual model that explains the sales promotion mechanisms from a consumer perspective, we judged it more prevalent to explore the entire model without establishing any hypothesis that would mislead us in our analysis.
- Due to the complexity of the model developed, we were unable to test the complete hypothesized relationship. For that matter, we had to break down the original model and to test each of the parsimonious sub-models independently. This was likely to discard many other relationships that would have reinforced the significance of the model.

- Because of time limits, it was not possible to explore other plausible relationships among the different constructs of the model. This was likely to limit the contribution of the present study and to hide other relevant tendencies in the sales promotion context.

THESIS MAJOR CONTRIBUTIONS

The present study contributes significantly to the empirical results pertaining to sales promotion literature. Its major implications are summarized in the following points:

- The results obtained in this study have important implications for both measurement and theory development and suggest that researchers testing theoretical relationships between antecedents or consequences of deal proneness should pay attention to the types of deals to which their theory relates.
- This current study has made a meaningful contribution to the sales promotion literature since it is one of the very rare studies that extends consumers' deal interest to the acculturation dimension that dominates in Quebec, to purchase-related lifestyle factors, and demographic variables.
- The methodology followed in the present research deepens and enhances the measurements developed by Lichtenstein et al. (1995, 1997), since it follows the consumer behavior theory and separates between cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral measures. This is more likely to generate more valid relationships and to improve the understanding of the mechanism that underlies the responsiveness to sales promotion.
- The findings and implications from this study extend prior scanner-data research because a large number of sales promotion types are examined, and the attitudes towards deal types are conceptually and empirically distinct from deal-response behavior. Thus, this broader area of promotion techniques investigated enhances generalizability of results.

- Finally, the findings of the current study represent a potential stepping-stone for a variety of conceptual and empirical studies capable of yielding a more precise understanding of each specific type of deal proneness, its psychological correlates and how it relates to differences in consumer response to different forms of deals.

AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This research raises several questions that need to be further explored.

- 1- The first fruitful avenue for research pertains to the measures used in the current study. We view further research that combines both survey-based measures with scanner panel data that would be more accurate in measuring the real response to deals.
- 2- The results of the following studies found significant effects associated with cents-off, coupons, contests/sweepstakes and general deal response. The remaining proneness types (2 for 1, sampling, rebates, free-gift-with-purchase) were involved in fewer significant paths. Future research should improve the measurements pertaining to the assessment of these constructs to grasp the mechanisms underlying the response to each of these specific deals.
- 3- This research does not directly examine the effects of various types of promotions on observable consumer responses identified in the sales promotion literature, such as brand choice, purchase intent, repeat purchase, impulse buying and interpurchase time. It would be crucial to comprehend the responses generated by each of the specific deals to opt for more efficient promotional strategies and reach more accurate targets.
- 4- Further research should focus on the effect of acculturation on the sales promotion response. The current study shed some light on the attitudinal and behavioral differences that exist among the two dominating ethnic groups in Quebec, however, it

needs more corroboration and support from future works to gain in consistence.

- 5- The present study examines the differences between ethnic groups in response to sales promotions. However, it does not consider the differences in response across product categories. Further research is needed to explore the effect of product involvement on responsiveness to deals.
- 6- In a Canadian context, more work has to be done to seek the differences that exist among other ethnic groups such as Italians, or Chinese, for their deal attitude and usage. This is likely to reinforce marketers strategies and to reduce the costs related to promotional budgeting.

CONCLUSION

The present study examined how the effect of the acculturation dimension, along with other purchase-related lifestyle factors and demographics, affected consumer deal attitude and behavior.

The results revealed that the deal proneness construct is better conceptualized at the specific level rather than at the general level. Indeed, people's attitude and behavior toward several types of deals is affected by different lifestyle and demographic variables.

The present study is relevant in that it gathers the major results pertaining to the sales promotion literature and attempts to conceptualize a model that explains the mechanism that underlies the responsiveness to deals across different ethnic groups in Quebec.

This pioneering work raises several areas for future research that would enhance the promotional strategies across ethnic segments in Canada and would generate better responses to sales promotion techniques.

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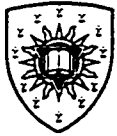
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APPENDICES



Concordia

UNIVERSITY

Department of Marketing
Faculty of Commerce and Administration

Dear Sir/Madam,

As part of the requirements of my Master of Science in Administration Program at Concordia University, I am interested in finding out the attitudes of Canadian consumers towards sales promotion.

I would very much appreciate your participation in this study by completing this questionnaire. This should take approximately 30 minutes of your time. Your participation is totally anonymous and voluntary. You are free to **discontinue** your participation at any time.

Since this research is necessary for the successful completion of my MSc.A program, I sincerely hope that you will agree to participate in this survey. Please return the completed questionnaire in the pre-paid envelope enclosed as soon as you can.

Thank you again for your kind participation.

Yours very truly,

Nadia Zgolli
MSc.A Student

Dr. Michel Laroche
Professor
Tel: (514) 848 2942

To complete the questionnaire, please refer to these definitions when answering the questions on the next pages.

Sweepstakes: a game of chance.

Contests: require three factors: skills, a prize, and a proof of purchase.

Coupons: certificates which entitle to a price reduction.

Refund offers: the consumer may recover a certain amount of the price paid when the proof of purchase is sent to the manufacturer.

Samples: small quantities of the product, which are given for free trial.

Gifts: encourage consumers to purchase the promoted brand in order to get the complementary product that is being offered (e.g., buy Tide and get a free towel).

Cents-off offers: amount taken off the usual retail price at the cash register (i.e., sale).

QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions

We thank you for your cooperation. We value your responses to this questionnaire. We have tried to make it as simple as possible. All that is required of you is to circle a code or to write numbers to indicate your answer. It is important that you answer **ALL** questions. If at any point, you do not know the exact answer, please provide your best estimate. Please note that there are no good or bad answers.

PART A

The following statements relate to attitudes, opinions, and interests with respect to a variety of topics. Please read through each statement and indicate the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with it. Circle a number from 1 to 9 in each case.

	Disagree Strongly									Agree Strongly								
I am too busy to relax.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I always read French newspapers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I am often juggling my time between too many things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I feel there is a risk in choosing a brand other than the one I am familiar with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I always go to see English movies or rent videos in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I always read English newspapers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I like to try new and different things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I sometimes like to do things that are a little frightening.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I do not buy brands that I have never tried before.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
When things get boring I like to find some new and unfamiliar experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
“So much to do, so little time.” This saying applies very well to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I always watch English television.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I always listen to English radio.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I like to be considered a leader.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I sometimes influence what my friends buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
People come to me more often than I go to them for information on brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I always listen to French radio.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									

	Disagree Strongly					Agree Strongly				
I always watch French television.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
If someone asked me where to get the best buy on several types of products, I could tell him or her where to buy it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I must admit I really don't like household chores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
My friends or neighbours often come to me for advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always speak English with my close friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always speak French with my close friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I am uncomfortable when my house is not thoroughly clean.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
One can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I like introducing new brands and products to my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I consider myself financially well-off.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always speak English at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I enjoy sampling several brands of commonplace products for the sake of comparison.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I find cleaning my house an unpleasant task.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always speak French with my family members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I am willing to spend more time shopping in order to find bargains.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
An unexpected expense of about \$1000 would put me in financial hardship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always speak French at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I like helping people by providing them with information about many kinds of products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always speak English with my family members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Generic products (no name products) provide good value for what I pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I am generally on a tight budget.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
People who buy generics (no name products) tend to be cheap.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always read the weekly fliers in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I find myself checking the prices in the grocery store for small items.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
People ask me about products, places to shop, or sales.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I enjoy most forms of housework.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I shop a lot for "specials".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	Disagree Strongly					Agree Strongly				
I always speak French with my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Generics (no name products) are not much different from brands except for the packaging.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Whatever I buy: clothing, appliances, I shop around to get the best prices.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
My friends think of me as a good source of information when it comes to new products or sales.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I went to an English school for my education.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
When I see a new brand on the shelf I often buy it just to see what it's like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Investigating new brands of grocery and other similar products is generally a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
To take advantage of deals, one cannot depend on just one store.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always speak English with my children.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I often try new brands before my friends and neighbours do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I often buy other brands to see if they are better than the brand(s) I usually buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always speak English when I go shopping.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I like continually changing activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I know the prices I pay for the products I buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
For most supermarket items, I have favorite brands and limit my purchasing to them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Patronizing more than one store becomes necessary if I want to take advantage of as many deals as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always go to French movies or watch videos in French.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I and my family consume only certain brands, not others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Once I find a brand I like I stick with it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I went to a French school for my education.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
To take advantage of deals, I often have to buy less preferred brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I do most of my shopping in the stores I have always shopped in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always speak English with my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
For most product categories available at the supermarket, there are certain brands for which I (and my family) have definite preferences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	Disagree Strongly					Agree Strongly				
I always speak French with my children.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always speak French when I go shopping.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Generics (no name products) are often as good as advertised brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Once I get used to where things are in a supermarket, I hate to change stores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always read the weekly fliers in French.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

PART B

	Disagree Strongly					Agree Strongly				
Redeeming coupons makes me feel good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I enjoy buying a brand that comes with a free gift , regardless of the value of the free gift.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I have favorite brands but if I see a “ 2 for 1 ” offer for any brand, I’ll buy it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Coupons have caused me to buy products I normally would not buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I am more likely to buy a brand if it has a cents-off promotion on the label.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I enjoy clipping coupons out of newspapers or magazines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Seeing a brand that comes with a free gift has incited me to buy brands I normally would not buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Beyond the money I save, buying products with cents-off promotions gives me a sense of joy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I have favorite brands, but most of the time I buy the brands I have a coupon for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I often purchase a product so as to complete a promotional gift set.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I enjoy using coupons regardless of the amount I save in doing so.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I often buy a product if the sweepstakes/contest interests me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Cents-off promotions can save a shopper a lot of money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Beyond the money I save, buying a brand that comes with a free gift gives me a sense of joy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	Disagree Strongly									Agree Strongly								
I enjoy buying a brand that offers a “buy-one-get-one-free” promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I enjoy buying products with cents-off promotions, regardless of the amount I save by doing so.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I am more likely to buy brands for which I have a coupon .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
Compared to most people, I buy more brands that come with free gifts .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
Beyond the money I save, buying products that offer a rebate gives me a sense of joy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
Buying products with cents-off promotions makes me feel good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I often purchase a product solely for the attached promotional gift .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I have favorite brands, but if possible, I buy the brand that is connected with a contest or sweepstake .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
When I use coupons , I feel I am getting a good deal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
When I take advantage of a “buy-one-get-one-free” offer, I feel good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
Beyond the money I save, redeeming coupons gives me a sense of joy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I often make additional purchases in order to meet refund requirements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
When I buy a product with a “buy-one-get-one-free” offer, I feel that I am getting a good deal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I am usually not motivated to respond to promotional offers on products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I enjoy buying a product that offers a “2 for 1” promotion, regardless of the amount I save by doing so.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
When I buy products, I like to be sure that I am getting my money’s worth.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
Compared to most people, I am more likely to buy products with cents-off promotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
When I buy a brand that is connected to a contest or sweepstake , I feel that I have made a good deal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
The quality of a “promoted” brand is as good as the quality of a non-promoted brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I enjoy entering manufacturers’ contests .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
Receiving cash rebates makes me feel good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									
I feel like a successful shopper when I purchase products that offer promotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9									

	Disagree Strongly					Agree Strongly				
I have favorite brands, but when it is possible, I buy the brand that offers a cash rebate .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
When purchasing a product, I always try to maximize the quality I get for the money I spend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Compared to most people, I would say I have a positive attitude toward cents-off promotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I do not take the time to mail back for money refunds .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Beyond the money I save, buying promoted brands makes me happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I feel compelled to respond to contest or sweepstake offers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I don't believe that "2 for 1" deals save you much money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Once I pay for postage, mail-in cash rebates are no longer worth the hassle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I can save a lot of time if one does not get into the habit of responding to sales promotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I am generally not motivated to respond to rebate offers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Receiving a promotional offer with a product purchase makes me feel like I am a good shopper.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
It is important to taste/try a new product before I purchase it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
If I like the sample , I will buy the product.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I am very concerned about low prices, but I am equally concerned about product quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
When I do grocery shopping, I compare the prices of different brands to be sure I get the best value for the money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I generally shop around for lower prices, but products still must meet certain quality requirements before I will buy them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
It is very time-consuming to use deals for supermarket items.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I enjoy receiving samples .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
When I shop, I usually compare the "price per kilo or pound" information between brands I normally buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I don't waste my time filling out entries for promotional contests or sweepstakes .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I enjoy buying brands that are promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	Disagree Strongly					Agree Strongly				
Compared to other people, I am very likely to purchase brands that come with promotional offers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I always check prices at grocery stores to be sure I get the best value for the money I spend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
When I am indifferent between two brands, I would purchase the one that has a contest or sweepstakes associated to it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
The money I can save by taking advantage of promotional offers does not amount too much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
When I purchase a brand that is offered with a promotion, I feel that it is a good buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
A "promoted" product is always of inferior quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Promotions can save me a lot of money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I use grocery store circular/flier advertisements to decide which store (s) I will patronize.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I believe that I help my family financially by using sales promotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
When a promotion is over, I often go back to my regular brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I enjoy sampling different brands for the sake of comparison.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
If I like a brand, I rarely switch from it to try something different.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Manufacturers' contests and sweepstakes are fun to enter, even when I know I will never win.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
It does not really take too much time to take advantage of deals on a regular basis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
If a product that I usually buy is being promoted, I will purchase it even if I don't need it for immediate use.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Prior to shopping, I check all the fliers for promoted brands and prices.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
If a product that I usually buy is being promoted, I will increase the quantity of my purchases (i.e., stock up).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I like promotional offers for products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

Approximately, how many **coupons** do you redeem in a month?

0 1-2 3-4 5-6 7-8 9-10 11-12 13-14 15 or more.

During the last month, how many times have you bought a product offered with a **free gift**?

0 1-2 3-4 5-6 7-8 9-10 11 or more.

After you try a **sample** and you like it, how likely is it that you will end-up buying the product?

Very Unlikely

Very likely

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Monthly, how many times do you participate in **contest/sweepstakes** ?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 or more.

During the last month, how many times have you bought a product using **cents-off** promotions?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 or more.

During the last month, how many times did you buy products offered with a **rebate**?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 or more.

During the last month, how many times did you buy products offered with a **“2 for 1”** promotion?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 or more.

In how many grocery stores do you shop weekly?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 or more.

PART C

1. In this section, we would like to know the extent to which you use English, French, and other languages in your daily activities. Please provide a distribution in percentage of time from 0 (never) to 100 (all the time) in each activity in the following language categories.

	<u>English</u>	<u>French</u>	<u>Other</u> (Specify _____)	<u>Total</u>
At home: with spouse (if applicable)	____%	____%	____%	100%
with children (if applicable)	____	____	____	100%
With relatives	____	____	____	100%
At work (if applicable)	____	____	____	100%
With close friends	____	____	____	100%
Watching television	____	____	____	100%
Listening to radio	____	____	____	100%
Reading newspapers	____	____	____	100%
Going to movies or watching videos	____	____	____	100%
Shopping	____	____	____	100%
Reading weekly fliers	____	____	____	100%
When you went to school	____	____	____	100%

2. Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements (circle the number that best reflects how you feel).

	Disagree Strongly	Agree Strongly
I consider myself Anglophone.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
I consider myself Francophone.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
I consider myself Allophone* . (please specify _____)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
* Other than Anglophone(s) or Francophone(s). Use the one that applies to you.		
All my closest friends are Anglophones.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
All my closest friends are Francophones.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
My spouse is Anglophone.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
My spouse is Francophone.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
All my neighbours are Anglophones.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
All my neighbours are Francophones.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
I am very comfortable dealing with Anglophones.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	

	Disagree Strongly					Agree Strongly				
I am very comfortable dealing with Francophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Anglophones would benefit greatly if they adopted many aspects of the French culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Francophones would benefit greatly if they adopted many aspects of the English culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Francophones and Anglophones should share each other's cultural heritage.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I like to go to places where I can be with Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I like to go to places where I can be with Francophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I grew up in mostly Anglophone neighbourhoods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I grew up in mostly Francophone neighbourhoods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I often participate in the activities of Anglophone community or political organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I often participate in the activities of Francophone community or political organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I am strongly attached to all aspects of the French culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
I am strongly attached to all aspects of the English culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Are you ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Are you ☐ Single
 ☐ Married or living together
 ☐ Separated or divorced
 ☐ Widowed

3. Please indicate your age bracket

<input type="checkbox"/> under 20 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 40 to 49 years
<input type="checkbox"/> 20 to 29 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 50 to 59 years
<input type="checkbox"/> 30 to 39 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 60 years and over

4. Please indicate your total **family** gross income bracket

<input type="checkbox"/> under \$20,000	<input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000 to \$59,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 to \$29,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000 to \$69,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000 to \$39,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$70,000 to \$79,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 to \$49,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 and over

5. Size of your family: ____ 1 ____ 2 ____ 3 ____ 4 ____ 5 or more.
6. If you have children living at home, what is the age of the youngest child? ____ years.
7. Do you, or your family, ____ own your home?
or ____ rent?
8. Please indicate the highest level of education attained by:

<u>Yourself</u>	<u>Your Spouse</u>	
____	____	Elementary school
____	____	High school
____	____	Community college/CEGEP/technical school/diploma
____	____	Bachelor degree
____	____	Master or Doctorate degree

9. What is your occupation? _____

If you are married/living together, what is the occupation of your spouse?

10. What is the employment status of (circle one number):

	<u>Yourself</u>	<u>Your spouse</u>
Work full time (30 + hours per week)	1	1
Work part-time (less than 30 hours per week)	2	2
Retired, pensioned	3	3
Student	4	4
Unemployed	5	5
Homemaker only	6	6

11. What is your place of birth?

____ Quebec ____ Western Canada ____ Europe
 ____ Ontario ____ Atlantic Provinces ____ Other (Please specify: _____)

Thank you for your collaboration

Département de Marketing
Faculté de Commerce et d'Administration

Cher monsieur/ chère madame,

L'objectif de ma thèse de Maîtrise ès Sciences en Administration est d'identifier les attitudes des Canadiens envers les promotions de vente.

J'apprécierais beaucoup votre participation à cette enquête qui constitue une partie nécessaire de ma thèse de Maîtrise. Ceci prendra approximativement 30 minutes de votre temps. Votre participation est totalement anonyme et volontaire. Vous êtes également libre **d'arrêter** votre participation à n'importe quel moment.

Veuillez S.V.P retourner le questionnaire rempli dans l'enveloppe pré-payée ci jointe.

Je vous remercie infiniment de votre collaboration et je vous prie cher monsieur/chère madame d'agréer l'expression de mes sentiments les meilleurs.

Nadia Zgolli
Étudiante en MSc.A Marketing

Dr Michel Laroche
Directeur de recherche
Tel: (514) 848 2942

Veuillez S.V.P vous référer à la liste de définitions ci-dessous pour répondre aux questions figurant dans les pages suivantes.

Sweepstakes: un jeu de chance.

“Contest” ou concours promotionnel: exige trois critères pour la participation: des compétences, une récompense, et une preuve d'achat.

Coupons: des certificats qui amènent à des réductions de prix.

Offre de remboursement: le consommateur peut récupérer un certain montant du prix qu'il a payé lorsqu'il présente une preuve d'achat.

Échantillon: une petite quantité offerte avec le produit pour l'essai.

Prime-cadeau: incite le consommateur à acheter la marque en promotion pour pouvoir bénéficier du produit complémentaire qui est offert (ex: Achetez Tide et obtenez une serviette de bain gratuite).

Offre “cents-off” : montant déduit du prix de vente normal (ex: solde).

Définitions

Les promotions de vente comportent les activités suivantes: veuillez s-v-p vous référer à ces définitions dans vos réponses dans les prochaines pages.

Sweepstakes: un jeu de chance.

“Contest” ou concours promotionnel: exige trois critères pour la participation: des qualités, une récompense, et une preuve d’achat.

Coupons: des certificats qui amènent à des réductions de prix.

Offre de remboursement: le consommateur peut récupérer un certain montant du prix qu’il a payé lorsqu’il présente une preuve d’achat.

Échantillon: une petite quantité offerte avec le produit pour l’essai.

Prime-cadeau: incite le consommateur à acheter la marque en promotion pour pouvoir bénéficier du produit complémentaire qui est offert (ex: Achetez Tide et obtenez une serviette de bain gratuite).

Offre “cents-off” : montant du prix de vente normal (ex: solde)

QUESTIONNAIRE

Directives

Nous vous remercions de votre collaboration. Vos réponses à ce questionnaire nous seront extrêmement utiles. Nous avons essayé de rendre ce questionnaire aussi simple que possible tout en respectant les objectifs de la recherche. Votre tâche consiste à encircler un code pour indiquer votre réponse ou à inscrire un chiffre. Il est très important que vous répondiez à **TOUTES** les questions. Si à un moment donné, vous ignorez la réponse exacte, donnez une estimation du mieux que vous pouvez.

PARTIE A

Les énoncés suivants relatent divers attitudes, opinions et intérêts. Veuillez s'il vous plaît les lire et indiquer à quel point vous êtes en accord ou en désaccord avec chaque énoncé. Encerclez un numéro de 1 à 9 dans chaque cas.

	Fortement en désaccord					Fortement d'accord				
Je suis trop occupé(e) pour pouvoir relaxer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je lis toujours des journaux français.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je partage souvent mon temps parmi un trop grand nombre choses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je sens qu'il est risqué de choisir une marque différente de celle que je connais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je visionne toujours des films anglais au cinéma et je loue des vidéos en anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je lis toujours des journaux anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'aime essayer des choses nouvelles et différentes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'aime parfois faire des choses qui sont un peu effrayantes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je n'achète pas de marques que je n'ai jamais essayées auparavant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Lorsque je m'ennuie, j'aime rechercher des expériences nouvelles et peu familières.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
“Beaucoup de choses à faire en très peu de temps”. Ce dicton s'applique très bien à ma situation/personne.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je regarde toujours la télévision anglaise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	Fortement en désaccord					Fortement d'accord				
J'écoute toujours la radio anglaise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'aime être considéré(e) comme un "leader".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Parfois, j'influence les achats de mes amis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les gens viennent me demander des renseignements sur les marques plus souvent que je vais leur demander des renseignements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'écoute toujours la radio française.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je regarde toujours la télévision française.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Si une personne me demande où elle peut trouver les meilleurs achats de plusieurs types de produits, je peux lui indiquer où elle peut les acheter.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je dois admettre que je n'aime pas vraiment les tâches ménagères	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Mes amis et voisins me demandent souvent des conseils.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je parle toujours en anglais avec mes bons ami(e)s.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je parle toujours en français avec mes bons amis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je ne me sens pas à l'aise quand ma maison n'est pas nettoyée à fond.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
On peut épargner beaucoup d'argent en recherchant des aubaines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'aime faire connaître de nouveaux produits ou nouvelles marques à mes amis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je me considère assez aisé(e) financièrement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je parle toujours l'anglais au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'aime essayer plusieurs marques de produits courants tout simplement pour les comparer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je trouve que faire le ménage à la maison est une tâche désagréable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je parle toujours en français avec les membres de ma famille.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je veux bien volontier magasiner davantage afin de trouver des aubaines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	Fortement en désaccord					Fortement d'accord			
Une dépense inattendue de \$1000 me mettrait dans une mauvaise situation financière.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je parle toujours le français au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime aider les gens en leur fournissant de l'information sur plusieurs types de produits.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je parle toujours l'anglais avec les membres de ma famille.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Les produits sans marque (génériques) représentent une bonne valeur pour le prix que je paie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'ai souvent un budget limité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Les gens qui achètent des produits sans marque (génériques) sont un peu radins.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je lis toujours les circulaires de la semaine en anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Souvent, je vérifie les prix de menus articles dans les épiceries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Les gens me demandent de l'information au sujet de divers types de produits, d'endroits où magasiner et des soldes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
La plupart des travaux ménagers sont agréables.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je recherche beaucoup des produits à prix réduits (en spécial).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je parle toujours en français avec mon époux(se).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
À part l'emballage, il n'y a pas une grande différence entre Les produits sans marque (génériques) et les produits de marque.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Que ce soit pour des vêtements, meubles, ou produits ménagers, je recherche beaucoup pour avoir les meilleurs prix.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Mes amis me considèrent comme une bonne source d'information au sujet de nouveaux produits et des soldes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'allais dans une école anglaise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quand je vois une nouvelle marque sur l'étalage, souvent je l'achète tout simplement par curiosité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Etudier de nouvelles marques de produits d'épicerie ou celles de produits similaires est généralement une perte de temps.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	Fortement en désaccord					Fortement d'accord			
Pour profiter des aubaines, on ne peut pas dépendre d'un seul magasin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je parle toujours en anglais avec mes enfants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Souvent, j'essaie de nouvelles marques avant que mes amis ou voisins ne le fassent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'achète souvent d'autres marques pour vérifier si elles sont meilleures que celle(s) que j'achète habituellement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je parle toujours en anglais quand je vais faire mes achats.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime les activités qui changent continuellement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je connais les prix que je paie pour les produits que j'achète	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Pour la plupart des produits de supermarché, j'ai des marques préférées et je n'achète qu'elles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Il faut visiter plusieurs supermarchés si on veut profiter des promotions/aubaines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je visionne toujours des films français au cinéma ou je loue des vidéos en français.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Ma famille et moi consommons certaines marques et pas d'autres	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Une fois que je trouve une marque de produit qui me plaît, je ne la change plus.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'allais à une école française	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Pour profiter des promotions (ou spéciaux), on doit souvent acheter des marques moins préférées.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je fais la plupart de mes achats dans les mêmes magasins que j'ai l'habitude de fréquenter.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je parle toujours en anglais avec mon époux(se).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Pour la plupart des catégories de produits disponibles dans le supermarché, il y a certaines marques pour lesquelles moi et ma famille avons des préférences définitives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je parle toujours en français avec mes enfants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	Fortement en désaccord					Fortement d'accord			
Je parle toujours en français quand je vais faire mes achats.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Les produits sans marque (génériques) sont souvent aussi bons que ceux qui sont annoncés (produits de marque).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Une fois que je m'habitue aux différents étalages dans un supermarché, je déteste changer de supermarché.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je lis toujours les circulaires de la semaine en français.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

PARTIE B

	Fortement en désaccord					Fortement d'accord				
Je me sens bien quand j'utilise des coupons .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'aime acheter une marque qui est accompagnée d'une prime-cadeau , indépendamment de la valeur de cette prime.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'ai mes marques préférées, mais si je vois une marque qui Offre une promotion " 2 pour 1 ," je l'achèterai .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les coupons m'ont déjà amené à acheter des produits que je n'aurais pas normalement acheté.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je suis plus enclin à acheter une marque qui est accompagnée d'une promotion " cents-off " qui apparaît sur l'étiquette.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'aime découper les coupons des journaux ou magazines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Une prime-cadeau offerte avec un produit m'a déjà incité à acheter des marques que je n'ai pas l'habitude d'acheter.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'aime acheter des produits accompagnés des promotions " cents-off ", indépendamment du montant que j'épargne.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'ai des marques que je préfère à d'autres, mais le plus souvent j'achète les marques qui sont offertes avec des coupons .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	Entièrement en désaccord					Entièrement d'accord				
Souvent, j'achète un produit pour pouvoir compléter un ensemble de cadeaux promotionnels.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'aime utiliser les coupons indépendamment du montant qu'ils me font épargner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Souvent, j'achète un produit quand le concours ou "sweepstakes" promotionnel qui l'accompagne m'intéresse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les promotions "cents-off" peuvent épargner à l'acheteur beaucoup d'argent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
En plus de l'argent que j'épargne, acheter une marque qui est offerte avec une prime-cadeau me donne un sentiment de joie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'aime acheter une marque qui offre une promotion "achetez-un-obtenez-le-deuxième-gratuitement".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
En plus de l'argent que j'épargne, acheter des produits accompagnés de promotion "cents-off" me procure un sentiment de joie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je suis enclin à acheter des marques qui sont offertes avec des coupons .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Par rapport à la plupart des gens, j'achète plus de marques qui sont offertes avec des primes-cadeaux .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
En plus de l'argent que je gagne, l'achat de produits qui sont accompagnés de rabais me donne un sentiment de joie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Acheter des produits avec des promotions "cents-off" me donne un sentiment de bien-être.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Souvent, j'achète un produit uniquement pour la prime-cadeau qui l'accompagne.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
J'ai mes marques préférées, mais quand c'est possible, j'achète la marque qui est accompagnée d'un concours promotionnel ou un sweepstake.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Quand j'utilise des coupons , je sens que je fais de bonnes affaires.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Quand je profite d'une promotion "achetez-un-obtenez-le-deuxième-gratuitement," je me sens bien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
En plus de l'argent que j'épargne, l'utilisation des coupons fait naître en moi un sentiment de joie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Souvent, je fais des achats supplémentaires pour répondre aux exigences des offres de remboursement .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	Fortement en désaccord					Fortement d'accord			
Quand j'achète un produit avec une offre " achetez-un-obtenez-1-le-deuxième-gratuitement. " je sens que je fais une bonne affaire.		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Généralement je ne suis pas motivé(e) à répondre aux promotions qui offrent des rabais de remboursement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime acheter un produit qui offre une promotion " 2 pour 1, " indépendamment du montant que j'épargne.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Lorsque j'achète un produit, je veux être certain(e) que c'est une bonne valeur pour mon argent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Par rapport à la plupart des personnes, j'estime avoir une Attitude positive envers les promotions " cents-off ".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quand j'achète une marque qui est accompagnée d'un concours promotionnel ou sweepstakes , je sens que je fais une bonne affaire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
La qualité d'une marque en promotion est aussi bonne que la qualité d'une marque qui n'est pas en promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime compléter les concours promotionnels ou sweepstakes .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Recevoir des rabais cash ou comptant fait que je me sens bien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quand je reçois une offre promotionnelle avec l'achat d'un produit, je ressens que je suis un bon acheteur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'ai des marques préférées, mais quand c'est possible, j'achète la marque qui offre des rabais comptant ("cash").	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quand j'achète un produit, je fais toujours en sorte d'optimiser la qualité que j'obtiens pour l'argent que je dépense.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Par rapport à la plupart des gens, il est plus probable que j'achète des produits avec des promotions " cents-off ."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je ne prends pas de temps pour envoyer les offres de remboursement par la poste.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
En plus de l'argent que j'économise, l'achat de produits en promotion me rend heureux(se).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je me sens contraint(e) à répondre aux concours promotionnels ou sweepstakes .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je ne crois pas que les offres " 2 pour 1 " soient très avantageuses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	Fortement en désaccord					Fortement d'accord			
Une fois le tarif postal payé, l'envoi des offres de rabais comptant 1 par la poste n'en vaut plus la peine.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
On peut gagner beaucoup de temps si l'on ne s'habitue pas à recourir aux promotions de vente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
D'habitude, je ne suis pas motivé(e) à répondre aux offres promotionnelles qui accompagnent les produits.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quand j'achète une marque qui est offerte avec une promotion spéciale, je ressens que c'est un bon achat.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
C'est très important d'essayer un nouveau produit avant de l'acheter 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Si j'aime l' échantillon , j'achèterai le produit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je me sens très concerné(e) par les bas prix,mais je me sens également concné par le niveau de qualité du produit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quand je fais mon épicerie, je compare les prix de plusieurs marques pour être certain(e) d'avoir la meilleure valeur pour l'argent que je dépense.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Généralement, je recherche les bons prix, mais j'exige aussi que les produits que j'achète répondent à certains critères de qualité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
L'utilisation des offres promotionnelles pour les produits de supermarchés nécessite beacoup de temps.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime recevoir des échantillons .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quand je magasine, je compare souvent "le prix par gramme" parmi les marques que j'achète d'habitude.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je ne perds pas mon temps à compléter les applications pour les concours ou " sweepstakes " promotionnels.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime acheter les marques en promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Par rapport à d'autres personnes, je suis très enclin à acheter des 1 marques qui sont offertes avec des offres promotionnelles.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je vérifie toujours les prix dans les épiceries pour m'assurer d'avoir la meilleure valeur pour l'argent que je dépense.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quand je suis indifférent(e) entre deux marques de produits, j'achète celle qui est accompagnée d'un concours promotionnel ou sweepstakes .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	Fortement en désaccord					Fortement d'accord			
Les montants que l'on peut épargner grâce aux offres promotionnelles ne sont pas très importants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je me sens comme un acheteur habile lorsque j'achète des produits offerts avec une promotion spéciale.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Un article en promotion est toujours de moindre qualité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Les promotions me font épargner beaucoup d'argent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'utilise la publicité en circulaire pour choisir l'(les) épicerie(s) dans laquelle(s) je vais faire mes achats.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je crois que l'on aide financièrement sa famille en utilisant les promotions de vente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quand une promotion se termine, je reviens souvent à ma marque habituelle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime essayer des marques différentes juste pour les comparer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Si j'aime une marque, j'essaie rarement une autre marque.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Les concours promotionnels des manufacturiers ou sweepstakes sont agréables à compléter, même si je sais d'avance que je ne vais pas gagner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Le fait de recourir régulièrement aux promotions de vente ne nécessite pas tellement de temps.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Si un produit que j'achète habituellement est en promotion, je l'achèterai même si je ne compte pas l'utiliser immédiatement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Avant d'aller faire mes achats, je vérifie toutes les circulaires pour m'informer des marques promues et de leurs prix respectifs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Si un produit que j'ai l'habitude d'acheter est en promotion, j'augmenterai le volume de mes achats pour ce produit (ex:stocker).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime les offres promotionnelles spéciales qui accompagnent les produits.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Combien de **coupons** utilisez-vous approximativement en un mois?

0 1-2 3-4 5-6 7-8 9-10 11-12 13-14 15 ou plus

Quelle est la probabilité d'acheter un certain produit suite à l'essai d'un **échantillon** qui vous a plu?

Très peu probable

Très probable

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Sur une période d'un mois, combien de fois participez-vous à des **concours promotionnels**?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 ou plus

Au cours du mois dernier, combien de fois avez-vous acheté un produit qui est accompagné d'une **prime cadeau**?

0 1-2 3-4 5-6 7-8 9-10 11 ou plus

Au cours du mois dernier, combien de fois avez-vous acheté un produit en ayant recours aux promotions "**cents-off**"?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Au cours du mois dernier, combien de fois avez-vous acheté des produits offerts avec un **rabais**?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 ou plus

Dans combien d'épiceries allez-vous faire vos achats hebdomadaires?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 ou plus

PARTIE C

1. Dans cette section, nous aimerions connaître l'étendue de votre utilisation de la langue française, de l'anglaise, et de toute(s) autre(s) langues dans vos activités quotidiennes. Veuillez S-V-P distribuer 100 points de 0% (jamais) à 100% (tout le temps) pour chaque activité dans les trois catégories de langues suivantes.

	<u>Français</u>		<u>Anglais</u>		<u>Autre</u> (laquelle? _____)	<u>Total</u>
À la maison: avec votre époux/ épouse (si appl.)	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
avec vos enfants (si appl.)	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
Avec les autres membres de la famille	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
Au travail	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
Avec vos amis intimes	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
À regarder la télévision	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
À écouter la radio	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
À lire les journaux	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
À visionner des films au cinéma ou des vidéos	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
À magasiner	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
À lire les circulaires de la semaine	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%
Quand vous étiez à l'école	____%	+	____%	+	____%	= 100%

2. Veuillez SVP indiquer votre degré d'accord ou de désaccord avec les énoncés suivants (encerclez le chiffre qui correspond le mieux à ce que vous ressentez)

	<u>Fortement en désaccord</u>					<u>Fortement d'accord</u>				
Je me considère Anglophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je me considère Francophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je me considère Allophone.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
(veuillez svp précisez _____)										
* Autre qu'Anglophone ou Francophone										
Tous mes meilleurs amis sont Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Tous mes meilleurs amis sont Francophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Mon (ma) conjoint(e) est Anglophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Mon (ma) conjoint(e) est Francophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Tous mes voisins sont Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Tous mes voisins sont Francophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je suis très à l'aise dans mes relations avec des Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	Fortement en désaccord					Fortement d'accord			
Je me sens très à l'aise dans mes relations avec des Francophones	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Les Anglophones auraient grand avantage à adopter plusieurs aspects de la culture française.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Les Francophones auraient grand avantage à adopter plusieurs aspects de la culture anglaise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Les Francophones et les Anglophones devraient partager leur patrimoine culturel respectif.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime aller aux endroits où je me trouve en compagnie d'Anglophones	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime aller aux endroits où je me trouve en compagnie de Francophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'ai grandi dans un voisinage principalement Anglophone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'ai grandi dans un voisinage principalement Francophone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je participe souvent aux activités des organisations communautaires ou politiques Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je participe souvent aux activités des organisations communautaires ou politiques Francophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je suis très attaché(e) à tous les aspects de la culture Française.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je suis très attaché(e) à tous les aspects de la culture Anglaise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

DONNÉES DÉMOGRAPHIQUES

1. Êtes-vous _____ Homme _____ Femme
2. Êtes-vous _____ Célibataire
_____ Marié(e) ou vivant en union libre
_____ Séparé(e) ou divorcé(e)
_____ Veuf (ve)
3. Veuillez indiquer votre catégorie d'âge
- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------|
| _____ Moins de 20 ans | _____ 40 à 49 ans |
| _____ 20 à 29 ans | _____ 50 à 59 ans |
| _____ 30 à 39 ans | _____ 60 ans et plus |
4. Veuillez indiquer la catégorie de votre revenu **familial**
- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| _____ Moins de 20 000\$ | _____ \$50 000 à \$59 999 |
| _____ \$20 000 à \$29 999 | _____ \$60 000 à \$ 69 999 |
| _____ \$30 000 à \$39 999 | _____ \$ 70 000 à \$89 999 |
| _____ \$40 000 à \$49 999 | _____ \$ 90 000 et plus |
5. Nombre de membres dans votre famille: ____ 1 ____ 2 ____ 3 ____ 4 ____ 5 et plus
6. Si vous avez des enfants à la maison, quel est l' âge du plus jeune? ____ ans.
7. Est-ce que vous ou votre famille êtes, ____ propriétaire d'une maison? ou ____ locataire?
8. Veuillez indiquer le plus haut niveau d'éducation atteint par:

Vous-même

Votre époux (se)

école élémentaire

école secondaire

CEGEP/ collégial

Baccalauréat

Maîtrise ou Doctorat

9. Quelle est votre occupation? _____

Si vous êtes marié(e) ou vivez en union libre, quelle est l'occupation de votre conjoint(e)? _____

10. Quel est votre statut au travail? (veuillez n'encercler qu'une seule option)

	<u>Vous-même</u>	<u>Votre époux(se)</u>
Travail à temps plein (30 heures ou plus par semaine)	1	1
Travail à temps partiel (moins de 30 heures par semaine)	2	2
À la retraite	3	3
Étudiant(e)	4	4
Sans emploi	5	5
Personne au foyer	6	6

11. Quel est votre lieu de naissance?

___ Québec	___ Ouest Canadien	___ Europe
___ Ontario	___ Maritimes	___ Autre (svp précisez)