CONSUMER-LEVEL FACTORS THAT MODERATE THE SUCCESS OF PRIVATE LABEL BRANDS: HEDONIC VERSUS UTILITARIAN PRODUCTS

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ABSTRACT

Consumer-Level Factors That Moderate the Success Of Private Label Brands:

Hedonic Versus Utilitarian Products

Private labels with increasing market shares and improving quality perceptions are a worldwide phenomenon receiving attention from both academicians and professionals. Taking the consumer perspective, this study with its large-scale survey examines the predictive power of consumer-level factors such as price consciousness, price quality associations, brand loyalty and quality variability on private label brand purchase intentions with multiple regression analyses. The unique contribution of this paper is analyzing private label purchase decisions by comparing hedonic products to utilitarian products. As a result, we see consumers exhibit different behaviors toward them. Results showed that consumers are more prone to buy PLBs when it is an utilitarian good and perceive less quality variability among different brands of the utilitarian good. On the other hand, people are more brand-loyal for hedonic goods and make higher price quality associations compared to utilitarian goods.

The Regulatory Focus Theory, people's dominant regulatory focus, is also integrated into the model, but consumers' dominant regulatory focus did not exhibit any significant predictive power on private label purchase intention according to the regression analysis. Demographics such as age, education, income level and household size are other independent variables in the regression analysis, and some of them proved to be significant for one of the two product types.

ÖZET

Tüketici Kaynaklı Faktörlerin Market Markalarının Başarısı Üzerindeki Etkisi:

Haz Odaklı Ürünler ile Fonksiyonel Ürünler Karşılaştırması

Market markaları zaman içerisinde artan pazar payları ve iyileşen kalite algıları ile hem akademisyenlerin hem de profesyonellerin ilgisini çeken bir konu olmaktadır. Bu çalışma tüketici perspektifinden bakarak ulaştığı geniş kitle ile gerçekleştirilen ankette; tüketici kaynaklı faktörlerden fiyat hassasiyeti, fiyat-kalite ilişkisi, marka sadakati ve markalar arası kalite değişkenliğinin market markası satın alma eğilimi üzerindeki belirleyici etkilerini regresyon analizi metoduyla incelemiştir. Bu çalışmanın literatüre olan özgün katkısı ise tüketicinin market markası satın alma kararını haz odaklı, hedonik ve fonksiyonel ürün kategorilerini karşılaştırarak analiz etmek olmuştur. Sonuç olarak tüketicinin bu iki ürün tipinde farklı tutumlar sergilediği görülmüştür. Araştırma tüketicilerin fonksiyonel ürünlerde market markalarını satın almaya daha yatkın olduğunu ve fonksiyonel ürün markalarında daha az kalite değişkenliği olduğunu düşündüğünü göstermiştir. Diğer yandan tüketiciler haz odaklı ürünlerde daha yüksek marka sadakati sergilemekte ve fiyat ile kaliteyi daha çok ilişkilendirmektedir.

"Düzenleyici Odak Teorisi" ise bu araştırmanın bir diğer özgün bakış açısıdır; fakat tüketicilerin baskın düzenleyici odağının market markası satın alma eğilimi üzerinde istatistiksel olarak belirgin bir etkisi olmadığı sonucuna varılmıştır.

Son olarak, yapılan regresyon analizine bağımsız ana değişkenler olarak dahil edilen yaş, eğitim, gelir seviyesi ve hane halkı sayısı gibi demografik etkenlerin bir kısmının farklı ürün tiplerinde istatistiksel olarak farklı sonuçlar doğurduğu görülmüştür.

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Dedicated to

Leyla, Emre and Zeynep

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

“You get what you pay for” is an old idiom indicating that the quality of a product will be parallel to the price of it. Is price really the leading indicator of quality? One can argue this idiom’s validity by looking at the market share success of private label brands (PLBs). Private labels have a total market share (in terms of dollar sales) of 30 percent or above in 17 countries in Europe (Private Label Manufacturers Association, 2019) despite the fact that they are generally priced 20-50 percent lower than national brands (NBs).

PLBs, also called store brands, are solely managed by their retailers including their production, marketing and distribution stages. They have a wide range of product portfolio varying from groceries to home-care or fashion apparel to health products. They may be launched under a retailer’s name, or they may have a brand name like any other manufacturer brand. Private labels have a strong relationship with the store, so a high-quality PLB product will positively affect store image and store loyalty and may lead to an increase in sales numbers of the retailer (Sethuraman & Cole, 1999; Liu & Wang, 2008; Collins-Dodd & Lindley, 2003; Ailawadi & Harlam, 2004).

It is an ongoing discussion whether PLBs can perform as equivalents to national brands or they offer mediocre quality compared to their national rivals, but it is likely that their quality perception is improving along with their increasing market shares. (Steenkamp, Heerde & Geyskens, 2010).

In Turkey, 77 percent of consumers somewhat or completely agreed that private label brands are “good alternatives to famous brands” and with that ratio Turkey ranked on top of the list, followed by Germany and Netherlands with 76 percent (GlobalData, 2017). This study drills down into the private label subject.

The plethora of research on PLBs demonstrates the topic's popularity among academicians and also the vast potential outcome for business implications. Previous literature on PLBs have investigated the subject either from a manufacturer, a retailer or a consumer perspective. PLBs have critical value for both retailers and manufacturers, but in this study we take the consumer perspective.

Through out literature, various factors have been examined in the consumer perspective. Some studies investigated consumer characteristics and failed to draw the portrait of a typical PLB consumer, ended up with the fact that PLB users have mixed demographic and social backgrounds (Frank and Boyd, 1965; Myers, 1967; Rao, 1969; Burger and Schott, 1972). Consumer-level factors affecting purchase intention and behavior (Batra & Sinha, 2000; Glynn & Chen, 2009), perceived quality (Del Vechhio, 2001; Calvo-Porral & Levy-Mangin, 2017) or risks of PLBs (Richardson, Jain & Dick, 1996; Mieres, Martin & Gutierrez, 2006; Liljander, Polsa & Riel., 2009; Zielke & Dobbelstein, 2007) are other popular areas of the consumer perspective. Academicians used numerous product categories in their studies and compared them to national brands.

There are many types of risks acknowledged in literature (i.e. performance, financial, social, time, and safety). Dunn, Murphy and Skelly (1986) in their work have highlighted two of them as more critical for PLBs. They are performance and financial risks. Performance risk is the ambiguity of the outcome of a product that may not meet its promised function (Beneke et al., 2012) and financial risk can be described as the monetary loss from making a wrong purchase decision (Zielke & Dobbelstein, 2007).

Even though risk types are not the main focus of this study, some of our constructs eventually have an impact on perceived risks of private label products by the consumers.

All in all, as a result of many possible factors affecting PLBs' success, it is evident that there is a dramatic variance in market shares of PLBs between different product categories. For example, PLBs accounted for 48.9 percent of the dried nuts category, but only 5.3 percent of the laundry detergents in market share (in terms of TL sales) in Turkey (Nielsen, 2018). There is a body of literature studying numerous product categories (Batra & Sinha, 2000; Dhar & Hoch, 1997; Glynn & Chen, 2009), but -best to our knowledge- no one has yet evaluated those differences in PLB purchase intentions by comparing the hedonic versus utilitarian products. This study is going to make an original contribution to the private label literature with this vantage point.

CHAPTER 2

PLAN OF THE THESIS

In this study, we have searched the impact of four consumer-level factors as main antecedents on PLB purchase intention; price consciousness, price quality associations, quality variability and brand loyalty. In addition to that; we also have consumers' dominant regulatory focus as a main antecedent. We included demographics such as age, income, household size and education level to our model as well.

Following this section, each antecedent has been explained along with the relevant literature and how they have contributed to previous PLB studies. Afterward, hedonic and utilitarian product classification has been discussed. Also, the regulatory focus theory is explained, which has been introduced to our analysis to bring another unique perspective to PLB studies to see if it has determinative influence over consumers' purchase intentions of PLBs. After the literature review, we have proposed our conceptual framework along with our hypotheses to investigate the differences in consumers' purchase intentions toward hedonic versus utilitarian PLB products. Finally, we put out our large-scale survey results and analysis along with our methodology and procedure. We have concluded our study with general discussion, our managerial implication suggestions for the industry and the limitations of the study and further possible research subjects.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

Private labels, brands that are solely managed and controlled by their retailers, are in people's lives over a century now. On the contrary of general belief of PLBs' "low quality", Private Label Manufacturers Association (PLMA) suggests and defends that private labels are mislabeled as being low in quality and they instead offer good quality. PLMA declared that their relatively low prices are sustainable because they benefit from cost efficiencies by buying in higher quantities and eliminating the middleman. PLMA made "Satisfaction guaranteed or your money refunded" their slogan to emphasize their good quality. Early private labels date back to 1800s like Brooks Brothers or Macy's whose strategy was to have 20-50 percent lower prices than competitors. In 1966, A&P, one of the oldest retailers with private labels, placed a newspaper advertisement in the New York Daily News to out the main emphasis of their private label business is focused on quality instead of low price orientation. A&P gave the headline "what is the definition of a private brand?" to their advertising and said, "Quality comes first." (PLMA).

3.1 Price consciousness

Price consciousness is a critical construct that has a strong impact on consumer's behavior and their purchase decisions. Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer (1993) define price consciousness as "the degree to which the consumer focuses exclusively on paying low prices" briefly in their work. Lichtenstein, Bloch and Black (1988) defines price consciousness by first describing two sides of the shopping process; what consumer receives with purchasing (product) and what consumer sacrifices in return (price). Consumers who are more concerned with the negative side of the transaction (price) are considered to be more price-conscious for that particular product (Lichtenstein et al., 1988). In previous studies there exist evidence that price consciousness increases with lower income levels (Gabor & Granger, 1979); it is higher among deal-prone consumers (Babakus, Tat, & Cunningham, 1988) and it is negatively correlated with price quality associations (Lichtenstein et al., 1988).

Price consciousness is being widely used in private label studies as well and found to be a predictor of the purchase behavior (Burger & Schott, 1972; Rothe & Lamont, 1973; Batra & Sinha, 2000; Lee, 2008; Glynn & Chen, 2009). Sinha and Batra (1999) have a research devoted to price consciousness concept in PLB success and showed that both perceived risk and national brands' price unfairness in a product category are the two main antecedents of price consciousness. Depending on these two variables, the level of price consciousness for a category varies dramatically. They found that consumers are less price conscious for products with higher perceived risk and they are more price conscious for product categories where they think manufacturers are charging them with unnecessarily high prices that are not fair (Sinha & Batra, 1999). Batra and Sinha (2000) proved a significant relationship with price consciousness and PLB purchases in a positive direction.

Therefore, even if there exist a lot of previous studies emphasizing the importance of improved quality of PLB products, we still think price consciousness is a very strong antecedent leading to PLB purchase and must be included in a PLB purchase intention study.

3.2 Price quality associations

A plethora of research has revealed that price frequently influences consumers' quality judgments (Rao & Monroe, 1989). If a market functions without any imperfections, then a consumer may assume high prices will represent high quality (Gerstner, 1985), but unfortunately, this might not always be the case. Usually, the price can either be interpreted as a result of the costs associated with the product (supply side) or the indicator of quality and performance (demand side). Plenty of researchers concluded that consumer perceptions favor the latter and believe that a higher price of a product will assure it's quality (Tull, Boring & Gonsior, 1964; Gabor & Granger, 1966; McConnell, 1968). Price may have various meanings, "loss" or the "sacrifice needed to be made to own something" or the quality received, "extra value or prestige" (Leavitt, 1954).

According to the Cue Utilization Theory, there are two types of cues; intrinsic (taste, texture, color) and extrinsic (brand, price, packaging, advertising), to interpret the quality of a product (Cox, 1967). People tend to use extrinsic cues to judge product quality, so price quality association is a popular subject in the marketing literature (Kardes, Cronley, Kellaris & Posavac, 2004). In the absence of brand familiarity, price, as an extrinsic cue, can play a representative role for quality (Zeithaml, 1988).

Leavitt (1954) indicated that for many consumers when there is uncertainty about quality among different brands in a product category, price is a commanding lead for them to evaluate the quality. Since the association between price and quality is an attractive relationship, many academicians have worked on that, and some ended up with unexpected results revealing weak relationships between the two. Some researches find a price-quality association playing a significant role for only specific product groups. (Gerstner, 1985; Morris & Bronson, 1969; Sproles, 1977).

Studies showed that price and quality relationship works better in the positive direction for relatively expensive products since people buy those categories less frequently and they are less familiar with them, to avoid risk they see price as an indicator of its quality (Olson, 1976). When this relationship between price and quality has been specifically analyzed in packaged foods, which is partly related to our study as well, an extensive research including fifteen years long data of 679 brands in 40 packaged food categories has revealed that, in contrast with durable goods, price and quality exhibit no correlation at all, for packaged foods (Riesz, 1979). In that study, there have been even found negative correlations between price and quality in some products such as frozen foods. In Oxenfeldt's research (1950), food is the category where seven out of ten products have negative correlations between price and quality. So researches on food categories generally showed similar results of no significant or very weak positive relationship between price and quality (Friedman, 1967).

For the "people" element in this equation, drawing on literature, studies depictured that culture plays a role in price-quality associations made by consumers as well. A recent study with a purpose of analyzing cultural self-construal effects on price quality judgments showed that people with more interdependent cultural self-construal, who are more holistic thinkers rather than analytical, are more prone to judge quality with the price (Lalwani & Shavitt, 2013). Literature showed that the relationship between price and quality might vary depending on informational, individual and product category factors (Zeithaml, 1988).

When we scrutinized this subject's implementation to the PLBs, we have encountered numerous works. First of all, low prices of PLBs cause some people to label them as inferior in their overall quality due to the attribution theory "a low price is a sign of problematic aspect of a product" (Sawyer & Dickson, 1984). Even though retailers focus on improvements in quality (Dhar & Hoch, 1997), low prices combined with ineffective advertisements signal failure of PLBs for people who associate price with quality (Garretson, Fisher & Burton, 2002). Garretson et al. (2002) proved that price quality associations hurt PLB attractiveness and low prices indicate inferior quality, on the contrary, consumers would enjoy getting price promotions for national brands and they feel achievement of money saving without sacrificing quality.

It is assumed that for consumers with weaker price and quality associations, PLBs have more chance to be chosen over national brands (Ailawadi, Neslin & Gedenk, 2001; Burton, Lichtenstein, Netemeyer & Garretson, 1998; Garretson et al., 2002). Glynn and Chen (2009) examined price quality associations as an extrinsic cue to the consumer and found out a significant relationship in a negative direction for PLB purchase proneness.

Price-quality associations are worth investigating because PLBs, with relatively low prices, which may be affiliated with inferior quality, are increasing market shares steadily and claiming to have similar quality to NBs after all.

3.3 Quality variability

In order to understand how quality varies among brands in a product category, first, one should understand what quality means to the consumer, how it is evaluated, what are the indicators of it and so forth. It can be broadly defined as "superiority" or "excellence" (Zeithaml, 1988) but it is a subjective notion, and usually, there appears to be a difference between objective and perceived quality. People ideally evaluate quality according to both extrinsic and intrinsic cues associated with them, but occasionally intrinsic cues are hard to fully comprehend in most situations such as no prior consumption experience of that product, shortage of time to evaluate intrinsic cues or just the unwillingness to spend the time; so people tend to rely solely on extrinsic cues such as price (Zeithaml, 1988).

Quality evaluations regarding the price is a popular subject and well-investigated area, we have also went over it in previous part in the literature review, but price-quality association studies revealed specifically that there are some product categories where there is no significant relationship between the two. Drawing on literature, brands in some particular categories are “all alike” in the eyes of the consumer (Leavitt, 1954) so consumers do not think of price as an indicator of quality, because regardless of price, the quality variance is very little!

Implications of this association in PLB works is significant, whereas it is assumed that in categories where people think quality does not vary much among different brands, people are more likely to buy PLB alternatives (Batra & Sinha 2000; Glynn & Chen, 2009). Batra and Sinha’s (2000) work established that the more variance in quality between different brands is perceived, the more significant consequences of a purchase mistake is also expected by consumers. In their study, higher consequences of a purchase mistake eventually lead to less PLB purchase.

Narasimhan and Wilcox (1998) argued that quality variation has a direct effect of perceived risk as well. Hoch and Banerji (1993) emphasized that in product categories where sophisticated manufacturing processes or high technology is required, quality variability may be high, and high quality variability will harm PLB success in that category. Richardson et al. (1996) underlined the importance of having low perceived quality variation for PLB products compared to national brand products in order to have low perceived risk levels and to have increased value-for-money of PLBs. They recommend improving extrinsic cues of PLBs and protecting intrinsic quality at the same time to be successful. Sustaining consistent quality levels and reducing the perceived quality gap between national brands will bring success to PLBs (Erdem, Zhao & Valenzuela, 2004).

Glynn and Chen (2009) found a negative effect of quality variability on PLB purchase proneness overall, but when each product category has been evaluated separately, only a few specific products of functional categories such as toilet tissue have exhibited significant effect between quality variability and PLB proneness. We believe that quality variability plays a significant role in PLB usage, especially in FMCG, since consumers usually have an unlimited number of brand options within reach.

3.4 Brand loyalty

Belongings are not just "objects" to people but a way to express their identities and so there is a relationship between someone's self-concept and their brand choices (Belk, 1988). There has been many attempts to define what a "brand" is, but still there is not a single definition, De Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley (1998) defined brand as "a multidimensional construct, matching a firm's functional and emotional values with the performance and psychosocial needs of consumers" after a dense literature investigation. Brand loyalty has been a widely studied area in marketing baring numerous different definitions. According to some view, brand-loyal consumers are inclined to purchase the same brand they always buy repeatedly, do not seek variety as much as others and less eager to switch to a new or unknown brand (Garretson et al., 2002).

Brand loyalty, a core component of the brand equity, also have the power to influence other factors as perceived quality and price quality associations (Aaker, 1996). It may also set the ground for price premiums since loyal customers are willing to pay a premium in order to have their specific brand in favor (Aaker, 1996).

Brand loyalty has strong ties with price consciousness, whereas it is assumed that price conscious people are less brand loyal, they seek for more varieties and better deals (Garretson et al., 2002). Garretson et al. (2002) also hypothesized that brand loyalty would have a negative effect on price promotion attitude, but their findings did not support this hypothesis. Krishnamurthi and Raj (1991) found that brand loyal consumers are actually happy to benefit from price promotions for their preferred brands.

Price sensitivity is also related to brand loyalty, which has been received attention from academicians heavily. Brand loyal people are less sensitive to the price changes in their preferred brands compared to non-loyal (Krishnamurthi & Raj, 1991).

In PLB studies, it has been argued that people who are less brand loyal tend to buy PLBs more (Glynn & Chen, 2009). Since PLBs are highly related to price related areas, we expect each factor that has a relation with price, along with the factors related to brand selection, may have an impact on PLB purchases, so we have included brand loyalty into our study too.

3.5 Regulatory focus orientation

“People approach pleasure and avoid pain” as Higgins (1998) said, merely explaining hedonic theory and nature of homo sapiens. There exist a vast amount of articles in social psychology discussing people’s motives to reach desired things and strive to avoid undesired results as Higgins has mentioned in his work in 1998. Higgins (1998) claimed that the hedonic principle is so vital that analyzing “how” it operates will help to differentiate very similar motivations from each other such as thirst or hunger. He argued that as in the self-discrepancy theory, there exist two self-guides to reach the desired end; either through the “ideal-self” or the “ought-self”. In order to attain that goal, people’s approaches and avoidances differ (Higgins, 1998). So with his regulatory focus theory (RFT), Higgins suggested two distinct self-regulatory mindsets of people; promotion focus where people are motivated to achieve goals and reach their “ideal-self”; prevention focus where people are willing to fulfill duties in order to avoid losses and reach “ought-self”.

These distinct foci also lead to different prioritizations when it comes to making purchase decisions. A consumer will go after a promising, fancy, comfortable product if he is promotion focused, or he will search for a safe and reliable one if he is prevention focused (Werth & Foerster, 2007).

Every person can perform both promotion or prevention focus according to the situation in hand but their “chronic” focus (dominant focus) date back to prior learning processes from childhood and have an impact on which information someone will look first or from what information someone will be attracted (Werth & Foerster, 2007).

Whenever an individual’s regulatory focus and the information processed are in line, there is a ‘regulatory fit,’ and processing capacity of that person is increased (Higgins, 2000). Since the chronic regulatory focus of a person may affect his decision-making process while shopping, the theory has been extensively incorporated in consumer studies. Lee and Aaker (2004) after several experiments found that designing “message frames” according to people’s RF is very influential, such as “loss-framed” messages appeal more to the prevention-focused customers whereas “gain frames” are more effective for the promotion oriented. Zhao and Pechmann (2007) proved the importance of regulatory fit between one's regulatory focus and the message that has been given from a brand for calling to action by analyzing impacts of antismoking advertising campaigns with 1000 adolescents.

Previous studies have emphasized that it is hard to determine whether highlighting hedonic or utilitarian features of a product in an advertisement will be more forceful to increase sales. We know that some people act upon their emotions and some others are guided by their cognitions (Kemp & Kopp, 2011; Chaudhuri, 2002; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982) so Roy and Ng (2012) have tried to shed light on this subject. Their study showed that when a person is promotion oriented, they tend to be more responsive to hedonic attributes of a product and vice versa. In our study, we hope to benefit from insightful sides of RF toward consumers' PLB purchase decisions.

3.6 Hedonic and utilitarian products

Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) characterized hedonic consumption as the multisensory images, fantasies and emotional arousal derived from consumption by a consumer. Before hedonic consumption perspective was introduced to the marketing literature, most studies traditionally examined consumption by leaving the aesthetic, intangible, sensual aspects out of the scope. In hedonic consumption perspective, products are seen as subjective symbols rather than physical entities (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). With hedonic consumption perspective, common product categories that have been under examination like packaged goods or durables have broadened as well, and researchers started to analyze consumptions of highly hedonic products such as opera, concerts, movies, paintings or sports games too (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982).

These products are capable of creating strong emotional involvements, but emotional involvements are not limited to these products, there is a hedonic side in every consumption experience. For example, toothpaste that is primarily designed to serve a functional need like preventing cavities can provide hedonic satisfaction with its taste at the same time (Batra & Ahtola, 1991). Hedonic products are mainly pleasure-oriented and may even sometimes cause guilt. On the other hand, utilitarian goods are considered as more instrumental, functional, goal-oriented and mainly used to accomplish a mission, there is no risk of feeling, but also there is less pleasure or fun in it (Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998).

Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000) conducted a study on acquisition (which item to get) and forfeiture (which item to give up) choices for utilitarian and hedonic goods and found that people prefer utilitarian goods more when it is time to acquire, but in forfeiture decisions, they have harder times for giving up on hedonic goods.

Baltas, Kokkinaki and Loukopulou (2017) investigated consumers' variety seeking behavior depending on the attribute types by comparing hedonic and utilitarian goods and discovered that consumers are seeking more varieties in sensorial attributes for hedonic products and seeking more varieties in functional attributes for utilitarian products.

Sethuraman and Cole (1999) asked consumers to define the level of consumption pleasure (hedonistic goods) for product categories in a study where they investigated antecedents of price premiums paid for national brands as opposed to store brands and found out that consumers are willing to pay a price premium for categories with high consumption pleasure. They determined the level of consumption pleasure by asking respondents to rate two dimensions; if the product is fun to have and if the product gives pleasure.

Evaluating PLB purchase decisions with a hedonic and utilitarian products perspective will deliver a unique contribution to the PLB literature and will provide insights to both retailers and manufacturers on developing their products.

CHAPTER 4

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

4.1 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework we depicted in Figure 1 outlines our comparison of PLB purchase intention for hedonic and utilitarian goods. As main antecedents, we have price consciousness, quality variability, price quality associations and brand loyalty.

As a new perspective, we introduced the regulatory focus theory to our study and to the best of our knowledge; it is the first time for a private label study. We also included demographics which have differing results in prior PLB studies.

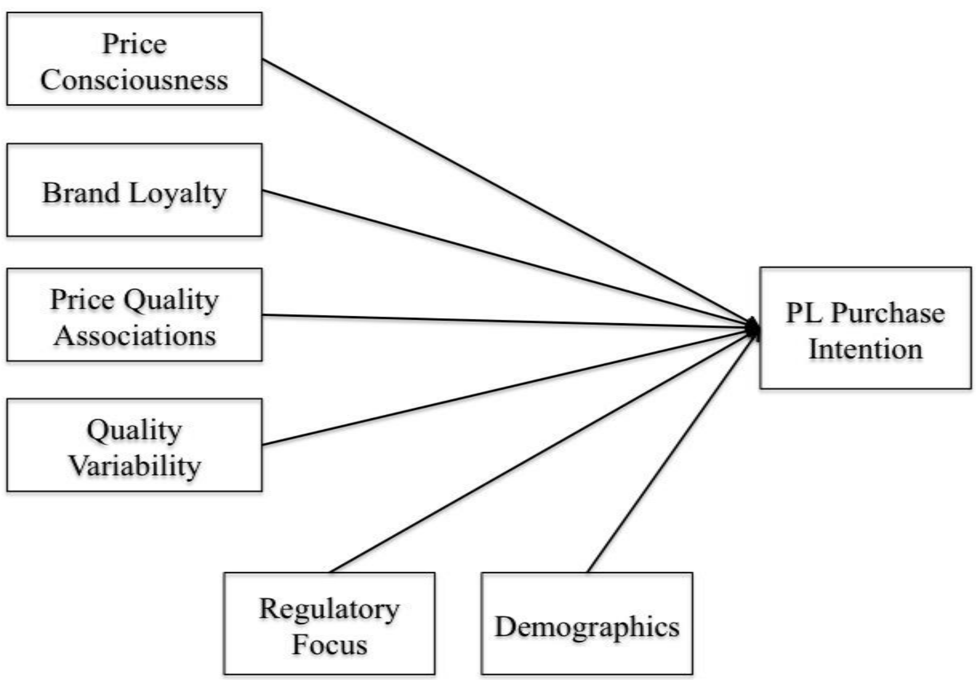

Figure 1. Conceptual framework

4.2 Hypotheses

H1a. Consumers are more prone to buying PLBs where they perceive lower variability in quality across brands of hedonic products.

H1b. Consumers are more prone to buying PLBs where they perceive lower variability in quality across brands of utilitarian products.

H2a. Consumers are more prone to buying PLBs where they are more price conscious for hedonic products.

H2b. Consumers are more prone to buying PLBs where they are more price conscious for utilitarian products.

H3a. Consumers are less prone to buying PLBs where they make higher price quality associations for hedonic products.

H3b. Consumers are less prone to buying PLBs where they make higher price quality associations for utilitarian products.

H4a. Brand loyalty reduces consumer proneness to buying PLBs in hedonic products.

H4b. Brand loyalty reduces consumer proneness to buying PLBs in utilitarian products.

H5a. Consumers PLB purchase intentions are determined by age for hedonic products.

H5b. Consumers PLB purchase intentions are determined by age for utilitarian products.

H6a. Consumers are less prone buying PLBs of hedonic products where they have larger incomes.

H6b. Consumers are less prone buying PLBs of utilitarian products where they have larger incomes.

H7a. Consumers are less prone buying PLBs of hedonic products where they have smaller household size.

H7b. Consumers are less prone buying PLBs of utilitarian products where they have smaller household size.

H8a. Consumers PLB purchase intentions for hedonic products are determined by their education level.

H8b. Consumers PLB purchase intentions for utilitarian products are determined by their education level.

H9a. Consumers PLB purchase intentions for hedonic products are determined by their dominant regulatory focus.

H9b. Consumers PLB purchase intentions for utilitarian products are determined by their dominant regulatory focus.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

5.1 Conceptual model background and scale items

In our study, we took Batra and Sinha's (2000) work as a starting point and followed that to Glynn and Chen's (2009) replication study. We introduced our differentiation points and finalized our conceptual framework as depicted in the previous section. Batra and Sinha (2000) have investigated different determinants (price consciousness, search versus experience goods, quality variability and consequences of purchase mistake) that moderate PLB purchases for 12 products in the US. Batra and Sinha (2000) proved that PLB purchase increases when consumers perceive reduced consequences of making a mistake in brand selection and also when the product has more "search" characteristics rather than "experience" characteristics. They found that high price consciousness leads to higher PLB purchase.

On the other hand, Batra and Sinha's (2000) work did not find a significant effect of quality variation on PLB purchase. In our study, we only kept one out of three perceived risk determinants; quality variability and left out the other two. We also kept price consciousness because of its critical role in PLB purchase decisions and also seen as a measure for income effects (Batra & Sinha, 2000).

Glynn and Chen (2009) have replicated and carried forward Batra and Sinha's (2000) study with the inclusion of two new constructs; brand loyalty and price quality associations. Their study found out that brand loyalty is a significant determinant in a negative direction for seven product categories. They researched ten products different than Batra and Sinha's with the same data collection method of mall-intercept survey in

New Zealand. We included brand loyalty and price quality associations to our study as main antecedents as well. For our mutual constructs with Glynn and Chen, we have adopted the same scale items they used and translated them to Turkish.

Sources of our scale items are as followed; for price consciousness Ailawadi et al. (2001) and Batra and Sinha's (2000), for price quality associations Lichtenstein et al.'s (1993), for brand loyalty Ailawadi et al. (2001) and Garretson et al.'s (2002), for purchase intention Grewal et al., (1998) and Liljander et al.'s, (2009) and for PLB purchase behavior Batra and Sinha's (2000) scale items have been used. Each of our constructs has a minimum of three items.

In order to measure RF, we used a combined measure formed and tested by Haws, Dholakia and Bearden (2010). The authors studied five different measures of different authors in this area and came up with a composite regulatory focus scale, including five items in each focus; promotion and prevention. The composite scale includes items from RFQ by Higgins et al. (2001), BIS/BAS scale by Carver and White (1994) and Lockwood scale by Lockwood, Jordan and Kunda (2002). One item in each focus is reverse coded and indicated in Appendix A.

All items for price consciousness, price quality associations, quality variability, brand loyalty, purchase intention and regulatory focus has been measured with a five-point Likert scale anchored by strongly disagree/strongly agree.

There is one question to measure PLB purchase behavior measuring if consumers buy more private labels or national brands in real life, which has not been used in regression analysis but used in mean comparisons between product types. It is a one item question on a five-point scale from "1=I buy exclusively national brands, 5=I buy exclusively private label brands".

Participants also reported their demographic information of gender, age, marital status, size of their household, level of household income and education. They also specified the city they live in and their jobs. Survey questionnaire in English and Turkish can be found in Appendix A and Appendix B, correspondingly.

5.2 Pre-test for product selection: hedonic and utilitarian product

In order to designate representative hedonic and utilitarian products in our research study, we conducted a pretest. We adopted the testing method used by Strahilevitz and Myers (1998), which was also used by Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000). In this Turkish online survey, 81 respondents classified 22 products as hedonic, utilitarian, both hedonic and utilitarian or neither of the two. Seventy-seven percent of the respondents were between 26-35 years old, and 63 percent of them were women. 22 products that we investigated in the survey were hand dishwashing soap, toilet paper, toothpaste, baby food, pet food, shampoo, rice, sunflower seed oil, milk, yogurt, ready soup, cheese, cereals, pasta, cake, salty crackers, biscuits, coffee, chocolate, carbonated drinks, chips and ice cream. As a result, chocolate was selected as the hedonic product with 85.2 percent of the respondents voting it hedonic and hand dishwashing soap as the utilitarian product with 92.6 percent of the respondents voting it utilitarian.

Our utilitarian product in research hand dishwashing soap has a very high penetration level of 91,5 percent, so the prevalence of usage does not cause an inadequacy. (Ipsos, 2018) PLBs in hand dishwashing detergents have increased their value share up to 22.8 percent (Nielsen, 2018) and have reached a penetration level of 42.4 percent in 2018 (Ipsos, 2018). The hand dishwashing soap market in Turkey is not so fragmented, dominated by two national brands; Pril and Fairy with 30.3 and 36.5 percent market shares respectively. (Nielsen, 2018)

Our hedonic product in research solid chocolate also has a high penetration rate of 91.8 percent. (Ipsos, 2018) PLBs have a value share of 16.9 percent in the solid chocolate market. On the other hand, solid chocolates are a more fragmented market in Turkey with several strong competitors of national brands. Ülker, Eti, Nestle, Mondelez are top firms operating in this market with respective market shares as 32.8, 21.1, 13.5 and 6.0 percent (Nielsen, 2018).

5.3 Participants and procedure

Data is collected via an online survey in May 2019 in Turkey. The survey consisted of four parts; demographic questions, regulatory focus questions, items for consumer-level factors for hedonic product and the same set of questions for the utilitarian product. Questions for product parts have shuffled so that one group of respondents answered for the hedonic product first and other group of respondents answered for the utilitarian product first; we did this to eliminate any possible exhaustion that may lead to inconvenience. No matter which product type a respondent answers first, everyone has first answered the demographic and regulatory focus questions. Any respondent who did not buy the particular hedonic or a utilitarian product of any brand in the last six months has not answered for that product and automatically skipped to the other product's questions.

In total, we have reached 1084 people, and 74 percent of them have completed the survey. In the end, there were 774 completed surveys for the hedonic product (chocolate) and 614 for the utilitarian product (hand dishwashing soap, detergent). In order to make a healthier comparison we used the intersection set of 583 respondents who have completed the survey both for chocolate and detergent.

Of these 583 people, 60 percent of them were women. 60.4 percent of respondents were married, 26.9 percent were single and remaining were divorced or widowed. Our sample was quite extensive geographically with respondents from 53 different cities in Turkey, but Istanbul holds the majority with 51.8 percent. Istanbul has been followed by İzmir, Ankara, Bursa, Adana, and Antalya with 6.7, 5.8, 3.6, 2.6 and 2.4 percent respectively. Other demographic variables of age, education, household income, and household size of respondents are given in Appendix C with frequencies.

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSES AND FINDINGS

6.1 Validation of constructs

In order to assess our conceptual framework, multiple linear regressions were employed separately for both product types. In order to check the reliability of constructs we did exploratory factor analysis with principal components analysis with varimax rotation in SPSS, calculated average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) for each construct including independent and dependent variables. Five factors were extracted from this analysis for each product, as planned with eigenvalues over 1.0 and each item loaded on the correct construct. Each construct of price consciousness, price quality associations, quality variability, brand loyalty, and purchase intention has satisfying levels of AVE and CR scores.

For the regulatory focus constructs in order to fulfill sufficient AVE score (> 0.5) and CR score (> 0.7) two items from prevention focus scale and one item from promotion focus scale have been deleted. Factor loadings and AVE scores of all constructs are illustrated in Appendix D with tables D1, D2, D3 and D4.

Collinearity was not a problem in our data set as correlations among independent variables were very low (less than 0.5). Correlations between all four main antecedent constructs and dependent variable can be found in Appendix E for hedonic and utilitarian products shown in Table E1 and E2 respectively.

6.2 Comparison between hedonic and utilitarian products

As to serve to our study's main purpose, we have completed paired sample t-tests to compare means for each consumer-level factor to see if they differ for hedonic and utilitarian products. Results are exhibited in Appendix F with Table F1 and Table F2. Differences were statistically significant for each construct. Since we have the same sample answered for both products, we have eliminated the potential error of personal differences.

As a result, people appeared to be more price conscious and more prone to PLBs for a utilitarian product, and they made more PLB purchases in the past with utilitarian product.

On the other hand, people's price-quality associations are significantly higher for hedonic products, and they are more brand loyal in hedonic products compared to utilitarian products.

People also find more quality variability among hedonic product brands compared to utilitarian ones.

6.3 Dominant regulatory focus

Regulatory Focus (RF) Theory of Higgins is a unique perspective we brought to PLB studies. To integrate the RF into our model, we have used the dominant (chronic) RF approach used by Lockwood, Jordan and Kunda (2002). Even if people may have different RFs in different situations, they also have a dominant (chronic) RF. As Lockwood et al. (2002) did, we have subtracted prevention focus score from promotion score, and people with positive scores are classified with a dominant promotion focus and negative scores are classified with dominant prevention focus. We included the dominant RF construct as a categorical variable where promotion-focused people have a value of one, and prevention-focused people have a value of zero.

After this procedure, out of 583, 334 people were labeled with a dominant promotion focus, 186 people with dominant prevention focus. 63 people were left out of this construct because they have equal scores of prevention and promotion.

People's regulatory focus is affected by culture being individualistic or collectivistic and people in collectivistic countries, like Turkey, tend to have prevention focus dominantly according to previous studies (Uskul, Sherman & Fitzgibbon, 2008). Our study has proved otherwise with majority having a dominant promotion focus.

6.4 Multiple linear regressions for hedonic and utilitarian products and hypotheses testing

In order to deeply analyze how consumer-level factors and demographics affect PLB purchase intentions, we have constructed a multiple regression model in SPSS for both of our product types. In the model, our main antecedents are price consciousness, price quality associations, brand loyalty, quality variability, as well as four demographics variables and dominant RF of consumers.

Both regression models for hedonic and utilitarian products were significant with R^2 values of 0.298 and 0.380, respectively. A comparison table of our regression results for two product types is in Table 1. Regression results for hedonic and utilitarian product are in Appendix G and H, respectively. Model summaries, ANOVAs and coefficients are shown with Table G1, G2, G3 for hedonic product and Table H1, H2, H3 for utilitarian product, respectively.

Table 1. Regression Analysis for Hedonic and Utilitarian Product Category

Category	R^2	Sig. *p*-value	Price Consciousness	Price-Quality Associations	Brand Loyalty	Quality Variability	Dominant RF
Hedonic	0.298	0.000	0.331*	-0.070**	-0.051	-0.080**	0.009
Utilitarian	0.380	0.000	0.373*	0.003	-0.177*	-0.183*	-0.001

Notes: Standardized regression coefficients significant *$p < 0.05$ and **$p < 0.10$; sample size 583 per category

Demographic independent variables are not shown in this table in order to achieve clearer representation.

Price consciousness has the highest standardized coefficient in the positive direction for both products at a statistically significant level; therefore, our hypotheses of *H2a* and *H2b* are confirmed.

For hedonic products, price quality associations and quality variability are only marginally significant at $p < 0.10$ and brand loyalty is not significant so *H4a* is rejected.

On the other hand, quality variability and brand loyalty have statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) impact on PLB purchase intention for utilitarian products in a negative direction as expected, therefore confirmed *H1b* and *H4b*. Price quality associations have no significant effect on PLB purchase intention for utilitarian products so *H3b* is rejected.

Dominant regulatory focus does not have any significant impact on PLB purchase intentions for both hedonic and utilitarian products so *H9a* and *H9b* are rejected.

Our regression analysis revealed significant differences among age groups for hedonic products, so *H5a* is accepted. However, for utilitarian products, there are no differences among age groups, so the hypothesis of *H5b* is rejected. One of the contradicting contributions of this study happened to be the age factor playing a significant role in PLB purchase intention for hedonic products on the contrary of Batra and Sinha (2000) and Glynn and Chen (2009) study.

Similarly, there exist significant differences for income levels for a hedonic product, so *H6a* is accepted. The second highest income group (at $p < 0.05$) and the highest income group (at $p < 0.10$) both have significant coefficients in a negative direction for hedonic products, so people with higher income levels tend to buy less PLBs in hedonic goods. For utilitarian products, income levels have no significant impact on PLB purchase intentions, and *H6b* is rejected.

According to regression analysis for hedonic products, PLB purchase intentions do not differ among household size, so *H7a* is rejected. However, for utilitarian products, people who live alone have a significantly different PLB purchase intentions compared to other household sizes in a negative direction ($p < 0.05$) and H7b is accepted.

For hedonic products, there is no difference among different levels of education, so *H8a* is rejected. For utilitarian products, education levels of respondents showed a significant difference. Thus *H8b* is accepted.

CHAPTER 7

GENERAL DISCUSSION

In this study, we drew advantage from previous studies of Batra and Sinha (2000) and Glynn and Chen's (2009) on consumer-level factors affecting PLB success and made beneficial extensions with new perspectives. Our unique contribution to the PLB studies area is bringing the hedonic versus utilitarian product perspective. By this, we saw that same respondents have different perceptions for substantial factors at a statistically significant level and also their approach to PLBs for these product types differ as well. Hedonic products, which are more sensual and experiential, are providing consumers with more pleasure, therefore, have more emotional value than functional to consumers. Presumably, consumers may be expected to be less prone to buying PLBs in hedonic goods compared to utilitarian, where PLB products are generally associated with unattractive appearance and inferior quality. Our results confirmed that people are less price conscious and less prone to PLB purchases for hedonic products compared to utilitarian.

Moreover, people think hedonic products have more quality variance among different brands, and higher prices are more associated with higher quality for hedonic products. They also tend to be more brand loyal for hedonic products as well. None of these results was unexpected, yet this work has confirmed them with an up to date study.

After all, with our regression model, it has been proved that the consumer-level factors' predictive power on PLB purchase intentions differ for hedonic and utilitarian products too. Price consciousness continued to stand out as the most powerful predictive factor on PLB purchase intentions as it was in the previous literature (Batra & Sinha, 2000; Glynn & Chen, 2009). For the other three consumer-level factors, different studies ended up with different results for the impact of brand loyalty, price quality associations and quality variability in the past. We also revealed that even for the same consumers, these might have different results on PLB purchase intentions when hedonic and utilitarian goods are compared. Parallel to consumer-level factors, demographics affect PLB purchase intentions differently for hedonic and utilitarian products as well.

Introducing the regulatory focus orientation is another unique perspective we brought to PLB studies. However, dominant regulatory focus, people's chronic preference over aiming to reach the "ought-self" or the "ideal-self", did not have significant predictive power on their PLB purchase intentions according to our findings.

CHAPTER 8

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Our study has valuable outputs for various stakeholders in retailing and can be very useful in management. The results provide guides for both retailers and national brand manufacturers as well as their brand management teams.

As our research shows, consumers' perceptions and attitudes toward hedonic and utilitarian products differ; therefore, stakeholders' action plans and management strategies should differ and be customized as well.

According to our findings, even if variation in quality did not have a significant impact on PLB purchase intention for hedonic products in the regression model, consumers still perceive higher quality variability among different brands of hedonic products compared to utilitarian products. Therefore retailers interested in PLB production need to improve their quality perceptions in order to compete with national brands. To achieve this, launching more premium products with higher prices in hedonic categories may help retailers gain and allege higher quality perceptions. For example, for the hedonic product category in our study, producers of chocolate PLBs may extend their portfolios with more niche and expert products to gain prestige. Also, putting marketing effort for improving packaging quality and advertising of hedonic products and making emphasis on quality –along with the price- may be advantageous for retailers. Thus, retailers will improve extrinsic cues of hedonic products.

Another outcome of our research is that brand loyalty has a significant negative impact on PLB purchases for utilitarian products; so the more people are sticking with the same brand, the less they are likely to switch to a PLB. Consumers are more interested in the functioning and delivering desired results in utilitarian goods, so retailers may need to act upon to break this habit by targeting this. Brand managers of PLBs in utilitarian categories need to focus on “trial” which may hopefully lead to repeat purchases if a consumer is satisfied with the consumption result. In order to achieve this, retailers may use the advantage of ownership of stores and highlight their utilitarian products in shelves by placing them in critical spots such as store entrance or checkouts. Also making a bundle of products with best-selling PLBs with utilitarian product PLBs may help increase the trial effect. Advertisings for utilitarian products should also have a strong call-to-action attitude to make consumers willing to try another brand.

On the other hand, brand loyalty may be an advantage for national brands in utilitarian products if people favor an NB in that category, as in our study’s example of hand-dishwashing detergents; but NBs should not take this success for granted and must act proactively. Improving products by making advancements may be helpful for NB manufacturers since most of the PLB producers lack such skill set for technical innovations NBs can strengthen consumers’ brand loyalty with this.

All in all, no matter which product type, hedonic or utilitarian, price consciousness is the leading antecedent to PLB purchase intention with highest standardized coefficients; therefore this characteristic of consumers is a dangerous threat for national brand manufacturers. In order to overcome this risk, NB manufacturers may benefit from price promotions for both product types, but in either of them, they should be cautious to protect their perceived quality and reputation. Previous studies showed that it is possible by reaching consumers’ who name themselves as “smart shoppers” and think as they are saving money without sacrificing quality when they exploit price promotions for NBs (Garretson et al., 2002).

As a closing remark for brand managers, our study showed consumers are less prone to buying PLBs in hedonic products, and they actually bought less of PLBs in the past compared to utilitarian products. These results imply a weakness for PLBs and open area for improvement. Hedonic products are more sensual and experiential related to fantasies, feelings and fun (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982) so it is no surprise that PLBs fall behind. Retailers must work on the experiential aspects of their products and improve their promise over sensual satisfaction for hedonic products. For example, the typical visual codes for national brand chocolate commercials are using beautiful women, including lots of “beauty shots” and creating a dreamy atmosphere, which is not the typical tone of voice in PLB commercials. So, one way may be adjusting their tone of voice in advertising and strengthening visual power. Hedonic consumption is about appealing to emotions rather than leading to rational decisions, so even packaging designs or color choices matter a big deal when it comes to provoking emotions. PL brand managers must be more careful and meticulous planning their marketing efforts in hedonic products.

CHAPTER 9

LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

In our study, we have designated one product to represent each product type; hedonic and utilitarian. It is known that all products conserve hedonic and utilitarian aspects to some extent, but in some products one side outweigh the other. Generally, art performances, sports activities and cultural products stand out as very hedonic products, but those products do not exist among private label product range. Henceforth we have picked the most hedonic product according to our pre-test among 22 products, chocolate, as the subject in our study. We wanted to have our hedonic and utilitarian products to be available in similar retailer environments so that respondents can compare them hassle-free. Nonetheless, further research can carry on the same analysis with different product categories and strengthen the differences between hedonic and utilitarian goods in PLBs. As wee see, same respondents' answers vary from one product to other; therefore to make sure these differences we have found has derived from our distinction (being hedonic or utilitarian), it will be beneficial to try other products in the same circumstances.

In this study, as RF, we have measured the chronic (dominant) regulatory focus of respondents by asking questions like "I feel like I have made progress toward being successful in my life." However, we know that people have different foci in different situations. Therefore, in further studies, there still may be a potential to investigate consumers' situational RF at a specific time and its effects.

Even though this study has been conducted with respondents from a specific country, Turkey, we have not analyzed impacts of culture in our study. PLB purchase intentions and its antecedents may also be investigated with a cultural perspective in addition to the existing research literature (Budhathoki, Schmitt & Michaelidou, 2018).

APPENDIX A

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Items

1. What is your gender? (Woman, Man)
2. What is your age? (Under 25, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65 or above)
3. What is your marital status? (Single, Married, Widowed/Divorced)
4. What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? (No education completed, Primary/Secondary school diploma, High school diploma, Bachelor's degree (BA, BS), Master's degree/Doctorate)
5. What is your occupation? (Unemployed, Farmer, Retired, Tradesman, Housewife, Public sector -employee, Public sector- executive, Student, Private sector-employee, Private sector- executive)
6. What is your household income? (Below 2.000 TL, 2.001-4.000 TL, 4.001-6.000 TL, 6.001-8.000TL, 8.000-10.000 TL, Over 10.000 TL)
7. How many people living in your household including yourself? (1 person, 2 people, 3-4 people, 5 people or more)
8. Which city you live in? (List of cities in Turkey)

Regulatory Focus - Promotion Items (1: Strongly Disagree / 5: Strongly Agree)

1. When it comes to achieving things that are important to me, I find that I don't perform as well as I ideally would like to do. [R]
2. I feel like I have made progress toward being successful in my life.
3. When I see an opportunity for something I like, I get excited right away.
4. I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations.

5. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to reach my “ideal self”—to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations.

Regulatory Focus -Prevention Items *(1: Strongly Disagree / 5: Strongly Agree)*

1. How often did you obey rules and regulations that were established by your parents?
2. I worry about making mistakes.
3. I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life.
4. Not being careful enough has gotten me into trouble at times. [R]
5. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to become the self I “ought” to be—fulfill my duties, responsibilities, and obligations.

Price Consciousness Items *(1: Strongly Disagree / 5: Strongly Agree)*

1. It is important for me to get the best price for the products I buy.
2. Price is the most important factor when I am choosing a brand of (category).
3. I compare prices of at least a few brands before I choose one.

Price-Quality Association Items *(1: Strongly Disagree / 5: Strongly Agree)*

1. The higher the price of a product, the higher the quality.
2. The old saying "you get what you pay for" is generally true.
3. The price of a product is a good indicator of its quality.

Brand Loyalty Items *(1: Strongly Disagree / 5: Strongly Agree)*

1. Usually I care a lot about which particular brand I buy
2. I am willing to make an effort to search for my favorite brand
3. Once I have made a choice on which brand to purchase, I am likely to continue to purchase it without considering other brands.

Quality Variability Items *(1: Strongly Disagree / 5: Strongly Agree)* [R]

1. All brands of (category) are basically the same in quality.
2. I don't think that there are any significant differences among different brands of (category) in terms of quality.
3. (category) brands do not vary a lot in terms of quality.

Private Label Brands Purchase Intention Items *(1: Strongly Disagree / 5: Strongly Agree)*

1. The probability that I would consider buying PLBs is high.
2. I would purchase PLBs next time.
3. I would consider buying PLBs.
4. There is a strong likelihood that I will buy PLBs.

Private Label Brands Purchase Behavior

1. How often do you buy private label brands when you think of your purchases in past? [I only buy national brands, I often buy national brands, I buy national and private brand equally, I often buy private brands, I only buy private brands]

APPENDIX B

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (TURKISH)

Bölüm 1:

1. Cinsiyetiniz nedir? (Kadın,Erkek)
2. Yaşınız nedir? (25 yaş altı, 25-34 yaş, 35-44 yaş, 45-54 yaş, 55-64 yaş, 65 yaş ve üstü)
3. Medeni haliniz nedir? (Bekar, Evli, Dul/Boşanmış)
4. En son tamamladığınız eğitim seviyesi nedir? (Bir öğrenim kurumundan mezun değilim, , İlköğretim, Lise, Yüksekokul veya Fakülte, Yüksek Lisans / Doktora)
5. Mesleğiniz nedir? (Çalışmıyor, Çiftçi, Emekli, Esnaf, Ev hanımı, Kamu sektörü-çalışan, Kamu Sektörü-yönetici, Öğrenci, Özel sektör-çalışan, Özel sektör-yönetici)
6. Hanenizin aylık toplam gelirini hangisi en doğru ifade eder? (2.000 TL ve altı, 2.001-4.000 TL, 4.001-6.000 TL, 6.001-8.000TL, 8.000-10.000 TL, 10.000 TL üstü)
7. Siz de dahil olmak üzere hanenizde kaç kişi yaşamaktadır? (1 kişi, 2 kişi, 3-4 kişi, 5 kişi veya daha fazla)
8. Hangi şehirde yaşıyorsunuz? (Türkiye'deki tüm şehirler listede seçilebilmektedir.)

Bölüm 2: Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz. (*Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, Katılmıyorum, Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum, Katılıyorum, Kesinlikle katılıyorum*)

1. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri başarmak konusunda, istediğim kadar başarılı bir performans sergileyemediğimi görüyorum. (ters kod)

2. Hayatta başarılı olmak konusunda ilerleme kaydettiğimi hissediyorum.
3. İstediğim bir şey için bir fırsat yakaladığımda hemen heyecanlanırım.
4. Sık sık umutlarıma ve hedeflerime nasıl ulaşacağımı hayal ederim.
5. Kendimi temel olarak, "idealimdeki ben"e ulaşmaya çalışan; yani umutlarını, arzularını ve hayallerini gerçekleştirmeye çalışan biri olarak görüyorum.
6. Anne babamın koyduğu kurallara genellikle uyardım.
7. Yeterince dikkatli olmamak, bazen başımı belaya soktu. (ters kod)
8. Hata yapmaktan endişelenirim.
9. Sıklıkla, hayatımdaki olası başarısızlıkları nasıl önleyebileceğimi düşünürüm.
10. Kendimi temel olarak, "olmam beklenen" kişi olmaya çalışan; yani görevlerini, sorumluluklarını ve yükümlülüklerini yerine getirmeye çalışan biri olarak görüyorum.

Bölüm 3: Çikolata: Sade (çeşnisiz) ya da içinde Antep Fıstığı, fındık, badem, karamel gibi çeşniler olabilen; sütlü, bitter ya da beyaz tablet çikolata.

Aşağıdaki soruları lütfen bu ürünleri düşünerek cevaplayınız.

Son 6 ay içerisinde çikolata satın aldınız mı? (Evet aldım, Hayır almadım)

("Hayır, almadım" seçeneğini tercih eden katılımcılar çikolata hakkında sorulara devam etmemiştir.)

Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz. (Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, Katılmıyorum, Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum, Katılıyorum, Kesinlikle katılıyorum)

1. Çikolata satın alırken en uygun fiyatlı ürünü almak benim için önemlidir.
2. Satın alacağım çikolata markasına karar verirken, fiyat benim için en önemli kriterdir.

3. Çikolata satın almadan önce en az birkaç farklı markanın fiyatlarını karşılaştırırım.
4. Bir çikolatanın fiyatı ne kadar yüksekse, ürün o kadar kalitelidir.
5. “Ucuz etin yahnisi yavan olur” sözü ile kast edilen şey çikolatalar için de doğrudur.
6. Bir çikolatanın fiyatı, o ürünün kalitesi hakkında çok şey söyler.
7. Genellikle hangi marka çikolata satın aldığımı çok önemserim.
8. En sevdiğim çikolata markasını bulabilmek için gerekirse birden çok markete gidebilirim.
9. Bir kez bir bir çikolata markasını satın alma kararı verdikten sonra (diğer markaları değerlendirmeden) hep aynı markayı satın almaya devam ederim.
10. Piyasadaki tüm çikolata markaları aşağı yukarı aynı kalitededir.
11. Çikolata markaları arasında kalitesel anlamda kayda değer bir fark olduğunu düşünmüyorum.
12. Çikolata markaları kalite olarak çok farklılık göstermez.

Ulusal Marka; aynı anda farklı süpermarket, bakkal, gibi noktalarda satılan markalardır.

Örnek Ülker Çikolata, Eti Çikolata, Nestle Damak, Torku Çikolata vb.

Market Markası; Perakendeciler tarafından üretilen ya da onlara özel ürettirilen, yalnızca bir perakendecide satışa sunulan markalardır.

Örnek Buono (Bim), Vince (A101), Karmen (Şok), M çikolata (Migros) vb.

Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz. *(Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, Katılmıyorum, Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum, Katılıyorum, Kesinlikle katılıyorum)*

13. Çikolata satın alırken, market markalarını değerlendirme ihtimalim yüksektir.
14. Bir sonraki alışverişimde market markalı bir çikolata satın alabilirim.

15. Market markalı çikolata satın almayı düşünürüm.
16. Gelecekte market markalı bir çikolata satın alma ihtimalim yüksektir.
17. Belirtilen tanımları göz önünde bulundurduğunuzda, çikolata tercihinizi aşağıdaki ifadelerden hangisi en iyi tanımlar? (Yalnızca ulusal (genel) markalı çikolata satın alıyorum, Çoğunlukla ulusal markalı çikolata satın alıyorum, her iki marka kategorisinden de eşit olarak satın alıyorum, Çoğunlukla market markalı çikolata satın alıyorum, Yalnızca market markalı çikolata satın alıyorum)

Bölüm 4: Bulaşık deterjanı: Bardak, tabak, çatal, bıçak gibi mutfak gereçlerini temizlemek amacıyla elde yıkamada kullanılan sıvı bulaşık deterjanı.

Lütfen bu bölümde sorulan soruları bu ürünleri düşünerek cevaplayınız.

Son 6 ay içerisinde elde yıkama için bulaşık deterjanı satın aldınız mı? (Evet aldım, Hayır almadım)

("Hayır, almadım" seçeneğini tercih eden katılımcılar deterjan hakkında sorulara devam etmemiştir.)

Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz. *(Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, Katılmıyorum, Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum, Katılıyorum, Kesinlikle katılıyorum)*

1. Bulaşık deterjanı satın alırken en uygun fiyatlı ürünü almak benim için önemlidir.
2. Satın alacağım bulaşık deterjanı markasına karar verirken, fiyat benim için en önemli kriterdir.
3. Bulaşık deterjanı satın almadan önce en az birkaç farklı markanın fiyatlarını karşılaştırırım.
4. Bir bulaşık deterjanının fiyatı ne kadar yüksekse, ürün o kadar kalitelidir.

5. “Ucuz etin yahnisi yavan olur” sözü ile kast edilen şey, bulaşık deterjanları için de doğrudur.
6. Bir bulaşık deterjanının fiyatı, o ürünün kalitesi hakkında çok şey söyler.
7. Genellikle hangi marka bulaşık deterjanı satın aldığımı çok önemserim.
8. favori bulaşık deterjanı markamı bulabilmek için gerekirse birden çok markete gidebilirim.
9. Bir kez bir bulaşık deterjanı markasını satın alma kararı verdikten sonra (diğer markaları değerlendirmeden) hep aynı markayı satın almaya devam ederim.
10. Piyasadaki tüm bulaşık deterjanları aşağı yukarı aynı kalitededir.
11. Bulaşık deterjanı markaları arasında kalitesel anlamda kayda değer bir fark olduğunu düşünmüyorum.
12. Bulaşık deterjanı markaları kalite olarak çok farklılık göstermez.

Ulusal Marka; aynı anda farklı süpermarket, bakkal gibi noktalarda satılan markalardır. Örnek Pril, Fairy, Bingo gibi.

Market Markası; Perakendeciler tarafından üretilen ya da onlara özel ürettirilen, yalnızca tek bir perakendecide satışa sunulan markalardır.

Örnek Mintax (Şok), Çiçeğim (A101), Desto (Bim), M marka (Migros), Carrefour Eco Planet (Carrefour) vb.

Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz. *(Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, Katılmıyorum, Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum, Katılıyorum, Kesinlikle katılıyorum)*

13. Bulaşık deterjanı satın alırken, market markalarını değerlendirme ihtimalim yüksektir.
14. Bir sonraki alışverişimde market markalı bir bulaşık deterjanı satın alabilirim.
15. Market markalı bulaşık deterjanı satın almayı düşünürüm.

16. Gelecekte market markalı bir bulaşık deterjanı satın alma ihtimalim yüksektir.
17. Belirtilen tanımları göz önünde bulundurduğunuzda, elde yıkama için bulaşık deterjanı tercihinizi aşağıdaki ifadelerden hangisi en iyi tanımlar? (Yalnızca ulusal (genel) markalı deterjan satın alıyorum, Çoğunlukla ulusal markalı deterjan satın alıyorum, her iki marka kategorisinden de eşit olarak satın alıyorum, Çoğunlukla market markalı deterjan satın alıyorum, Yalnızca market markalı deterjan satın alıyorum

APPENDIX C

FREQUENCIES OF PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHICS

	Frequency	%
Gender		
Female	350	60
Male	233	40
Age		
≤25	67	11.5
25-34	110	18.9
35-44	141	24.2
45-54	94	16.1
55-64	113	19.4
≥65	58	9.9
Education		
Primary / secondary school	38	6.5
High school	164	28.1
College Degree	303	52
Master's/ Doctoral	78	13.4
Income		
≤ 2.000 TL	33	5.7
2.001-4.000 TL	165	28.3
4.001-6.000 TL	129	22.1
6.001-8.000 TL	69	11.8
8.001-10.000 TL	62	10.6
> 10.000 TL	124	21.3
Household Size		
1 person	71	12.2
2 people	180	30.9
3-4 people	270	46.3
≥ 5 people	62	10.6

N: 583

APPENDIX D

CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

Table D1. Factor Loadings of Regulatory Focus Orientation (After item-deletion)

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
PROMO 2	**0.643**	-0.087
PROMO 3	**0.665**	0.183
PROMO 4	**0.758**	0.176
PROMO 5	**0.791**	0.119
PREV 3	-0.12	**0.801**
PREV 4	0.154	**0.801**
PREV 5	0.273	**0.562**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Table D2. Factor Loadings of Price Consciousness, Price Quality Associations, Quality Variability, Brand Loyalty and Purchase Intention (Chocolate)

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Price Consciousness 1	0.274	-0.267	-0.010	**0.743**	-0.038
Price Consciousness 2	0.167	-0.229	0.089	**0.780**	-0.026
Price Consciousness 3	0.167	-0.009	0.007	**0.818**	-0.075
Price Quality Associations 1	-0.006	-0.042	**0.820**	0.064	0.063
Price Quality Associations 2	-0.018	0.042	**0.801**	-0.016	0.085
Price Quality Associations 3	0.002	-0.009	**0.864**	0.029	0.169
Brand Loyalty 1	-0.013	0.160	0.164	-0.017	**0.769**
Brand Loyalty 2	-0.002	0.098	0.072	0.014	**0.820**
Brand Loyalty 3	-0.073	-0.150	0.077	-0.121	**0.701**
Quality Variability 1	-0.169	**0.827**	-0.003	-0.181	0.045
Quality Variability 2	-0.143	**0.859**	0.017	-0.137	0.005
Quality Variability 3	-0.162	**0.884**	-0.020	-0.119	0.064
Purchase Intention 1	**0.748**	-0.185	0.022	0.185	0.021
Purchase Intention 2	**0.924**	-0.129	-0.009	0.136	-0.035
Purchase Intention 3	**0.908**	-0.120	-0.026	0.162	-0.060
Purchase Intention 4	**0.906**	-0.112	-0.021	0.177	-0.051

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table D3. Factor Loadings of Price Consciousness, Price Quality Associations, Quality Variability, Brand Loyalty and Purchase Intention (Detergent)

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Price Consciousness 1	0.180	-0.298	-0.020	**0.782**	-0.104
Price Consciousness 2	0.214	-0.231	0.091	**0.816**	-0.125
Price Consciousness 3	0.364	0.041	-0.026	**0.687**	-0.095
Price Quality Associations 1	0.038	-0.060	**0.829**	0.076	0.046
Price Quality Associations 2	-0.042	0.139	**0.747**	-0.066	0.239
Price Quality Associations 3	-0.013	0.079	**0.863**	0.020	0.145
Brand Loyalty 1	-0.079	0.249	0.260	-0.117	**0.734**
Brand Loyalty 2	-0.033	0.160	0.055	-0.046	**0.867**
Brand Loyalty 3	-0.252	-0.099	0.200	-0.160	**0.673**
Quality Variability 1	-0.196	**0.830**	0.040	-0.152	0.133
Quality Variability 2	-0.196	**0.893**	0.050	-0.123	0.069
Quality Variability 3	-0.219	**0.862**	0.077	-0.162	0.104
Purchase Intention 1	**0.799**	-0.154	0.006	0.210	-0.027
Purchase Intention 2	**0.881**	-0.186	-0.008	0.189	-0.117
Purchase Intention 3	**0.871**	-0.204	-0.025	0.181	-0.147
Purchase Intention 4	**0.879**	-0.188	0.002	0.203	-0.113

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table D4. Reliabilities of Constructs

Constructs	Relevant Literature for Scale Items	Number of Items	Product	AVE	Composite Reliability
Consumer-level factors					
Price Consciousness	Ailawadi et al. (2001) and Batra and Sinha (2000)	3	Chocolate	0.65	0.85
			Hand dishwashing soap	0.58	0.81
Price Quality Associations	Lichtenstein et al. (1993)	3	Chocolate	0.69	0.87
			Hand dishwashing soap	0.66	0.85
Brand Loyalty	Ailawadi et al. (2001) and Garretson et al. (2002)	3	Chocolate	0.59	0.81
			Hand dishwashing soap	0.58	0.80
Quality Variability	Batra and Sinha (2000)	3	Chocolate	0.75	0.90
			Hand dishwashing soap	0.74	0.90
Dependent Variable					
PL Purchase Intention	Batra and Sinha (2000)	4	Chocolate	0.80	0.94
			Hand dishwashing soap	0.74	0.92
Regulatory Focus					
Promotion Focus	Haws et al. (2010)	4	-	0.51	0.81
Prevention Focus		3	-	0.53	0.77

APPENDIX E

CORRELATIONS OF VARIABLES

Table E1. Correlations of Main Antecedents for Hedonic Product

		Price Consciousness	Price Quality Associations	Brand Loyalty	Quality Variability	PL Purchase Intention
Price Consciousness	Pearson Correlation	1	0.055	-.118**	-.385**	.442**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.187	0.004	0	0
	N	583	583	583	583	583
Price Quality Associations	Pearson Correlation	0.055	1	.252**	-0.003	-0.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.187		0	0.935	0.685
	N	583	583	583	583	583
Brand Loyalty	Pearson Correlation	-.118**	.252**	1	.098*	-.089*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004	0		0.017	0.032
	N	583	583	583	583	583
Quality Variability	Pearson Correlation	-.385**	-0.003	.098*	1	-.347**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.935	0.017		0
	N	583	583	583	583	583
PL Purchase Intention	Pearson Correlation	.442**	-0.017	-.089*	-.347**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.685	0.032	0	
	N	583	583	583	583	583

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table E2. Correlations of Main Antecedents for Utilitarian Product

		Price Consciousness	Price Quality Associations	Brand Loyalty	Quality Variability	PL Purchase Intention
Price Consciousness	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.013	-.310**	-.418**	.539**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.763	0	0	0
	N	583	583	583	583	583
Price Quality Associations	Pearson Correlation	-0.013	1	.371**	.138**	-0.049
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.763		0	0.001	0.235
	N	583	583	583	583	583
Brand Loyalty	Pearson Correlation	-.310**	.371**	1	.296**	-.299**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0		0	0
	N	583	583	583	583	583
Quality Variability	Pearson Correlation	-.418**	.138**	.296**	1	-.436**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.001	0		0
	N	583	583	583	583	583
PL Purchase Intention	Pearson Correlation	.539**	-0.049	-.299**	-.436**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.235	0	0	
	N	583	583	583	583	583

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX F

MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HEDONIC AND UTILITARIAN PRODUCTS FOR CONSUMER-LEVEL FACTORS

Table F1. Paired Sample Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Price Consciousness (Chocolate)	2.629	583	0.90989	0.03768
	Price Consciousness (Detergent)	3.161	583	0.87207	0.03612
Pair 2	Price Quality Associations (Chocolate)	3.157	583	0.85098	0.03524
	Price Quality Associations (Detergent)	2.825	583	0.80535	0.03335
Pair 3	Brand Loyalty (Chocolate)	3.385	583	0.7907	0.03275
	Brand Loyalty (Detergent)	3.173	583	0.8836	0.03659
Pair 4	Quality Variability (Chocolate)	3.967	583	0.80442	0.03332
	Quality Variability (Detergent)	3.541	583	0.90868	0.03763
Pair 5	PL Purchase Intention (Chocolate)	2.640	583	1.0225	0.04235
	PL Purchase Intention (Detergent)	2.915	583	0.97932	0.04056
Pair 6	PL Purchase Behavior (Chocolate)	1.985	583	0.8995	0.0373
	PL Purchase Behavior (Detergent)	2.194	583	0.9678	0.0401

Table F2. Paired Samples Test

Paired Samples Test	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2 - tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Price Consciousness	-0.53173	0.96547	0.03999	-0.61027	-0.4532	-13.298	582	0.000
Price Quality Associations	0.33219	0.8931	0.03699	0.25954	0.40484	8.981	582	0.000
Brand Loyalty	0.21212	0.9162	0.03795	0.1376	0.28665	5.59	582	0.000
Quality Variability	0.42653	0.90346	0.03742	0.35304	0.50002	11.399	582	0.000
PL Purchase Intention	-0.2753	1.05391	0.04365	-0.36103	-0.18957	-6.307	582	0.000
PL Purchase Behavior	-0.2093	1.0425	0.0432	-0.2941	-0.1245	-4.847	582	0.000

APPENDIX G

REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR HEDONIC PRODUCT

Table G1. Model Summary (Hedonic Product)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.546a	0.298	0.269	0.866

Table G2. ANOVA (Hedonic Product)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	158.963	21	7.57	10.082	.000b
Residual	373.904	498	0.751		
Total	532.867	519			

Table G3. Coefficients (Hedonic Product)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
Hedonic Product (PLB Purchase Intention)	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.70	0.44		6.12	0.000
Price Consciousness	0.38	0.05	0.331*	7.62	0.000
Price Quality Associations	-0.08	0.05	-0.070	-1.77	0.077
Brand Loyalty	-0.07	0.05	-0.051	-1.25	0.211
Quality Variability	-0.11	0.06	-0.080	-1.86	0.064
Dominant RF (promotion)	0.02	0.08	0.009	0.23	0.817
Age Under 25	0.48	0.18	0.155*	2.72	0.007
Age 25-34	0.29	0.16	0.111	1.86	0.063
Age 35_44	0.46	0.15	0.190*	3.01	0.003
Age 45_54	0.27	0.16	0.101	1.74	0.083
Age 55_64	0.08	0.15	0.030	0.51	0.614
Income 2.000 TL-4.000 TL	-0.06	0.19	-0.027	-0.33	0.744
Income 4.000 TL-6.000 TL	-0.16	0.19	-0.065	-0.81	0.417
Income_6.000 TL-8.000 TL	-0.27	0.21	-0.087	-1.28	0.201
Income 8.000 TL-10.000 TL	-0.43	0.22	-0.132*	-1.99	0.047
Income Above 10.000 TL	-0.41	0.21	-0.165	-1.94	0.052
Household Size - 1 person	-0.23	0.17	-0.073	-1.32	0.187
Household Size - 2 people	-0.22	0.15	-0.100	-1.46	0.146
Household Size -3-4 people	-0.11	0.13	-0.056	-0.84	0.400
Education Level (High school)	-0.01	0.17	-0.005	-0.06	0.950
Education Level (College degree)	-0.07	0.18	-0.034	-0.39	0.695
Education Level (Masters/phd)	-0.16	0.21	-0.052	-0.75	0.456

* Significant at the .05 level.

APPENDIX H

REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR UTILITARIAN PRODUCT

Table H1. Model Summary (Utilitarian Product)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.616a	0.380	0.353	0.773

Table H2. ANOVA (Utilitarian Product)

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	182.237	21	8.678	14.511	.000b
Residual	297.819	498	0.598		
Total	480.056	519			

Table H3. Coefficients (Utilitarian Product)

Utilitarian Product (PLB Purchase Intention)	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	3.06	0.39		7.77	0.000
Price Consciousness	0.42	0.05	0.373*	8.95	0.000
Price Quality Associations	0.00	0.05	0.003	0.08	0.937
Quality Variability	-0.20	0.05	-0.183*	-4.42	0.000
Brand Loyalty	-0.19	0.05	-0.177*	-4.06	0.000
Dominant RF (promotion)	0.00	0.08	-0.001	-0.04	0.972
Age Under 25	-0.06	0.16	-0.022	-0.40	0.688
Age 25-34	-0.25	0.14	-0.102	-1.84	0.066
Age 35_44	-0.04	0.14	-0.016	-0.26	0.795
Age 45_54	0.00	0.14	0.001	0.01	0.993
Age 55_64	-0.18	0.14	-0.075	-1.36	0.176
Income 2.000 TL-4.000 TL	0.18	0.17	0.084	1.07	0.287
Income 4.000 TL-6.000 TL	0.21	0.17	0.090	1.20	0.233
Income_6.000 TL-8.000 TL	0.05	0.19	0.018	0.28	0.776
Income 8.000 TL-10.000 TL	0.12	0.20	0.037	0.60	0.550
Income Above 10.000 TL	0.10	0.19	0.043	0.54	0.587
Household Size - 1 person	-0.30	0.15	-0.102*	-1.98	0.048
Household Size - 2 people	0.02	0.13	0.008	0.12	0.905
Household Size -3-4 people	0.08	0.12	0.041	0.66	0.511
Education Level (High school)	-0.18	0.16	-0.086	-1.17	0.242
Education Level (College degree)	-0.26	0.16	-0.136	-1.67	0.095
Education Level (Masters/phd)	-0.15	0.19	-0.052	-0.78	0.435

* Significant at the .05 level.

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