

The impact of Sales Promotion Activities, on private label attitude and purchase intention

Ravikanth Reddy V

Research Scholar, S V University, Tirupati

Prof. B. Amarnath

Research Supervisor, S V University, Tirupati.

Abstract

This study examines the effect of sales promotion activities for PLs on consumers' attitudes toward PLs and how these attitudes influence their purchase intentions. Regarding this objective, three apparel retail stores that have the highest number of branches around India were included in the study. In addition to this, the PLs of the apparel product category from each of the retail stores were examined, since apparel is frequently consumed and apparel PLs have high market shares in most of the countries.

In the scope of the study, 481 surveys were gathered and analyzed. Regarding the results, it was seen that the effect of sales promotion activities on consumers' attitudes toward PLs is 0.30. Moreover, the effect of consumers' attitudes toward PLs on their purchase intentions is 0.48, which means that if consumers' attitudes toward PLs can be developed positively, it will increase their intention to purchase these products or brands by 48%. The findings of the study provide important implications for practitioners and scholars in the marketing and retailing fields.

Keywords: private label attitude, sales promotion, purchase intention.

Introduction

Private labels are retailers' "own brands" that are manufactured by another company. These items are only available at specific retailers (Hsu & Hsu, 2015). Although PLs are referred to differently in the existing literature, retailers frequently use them to persuade customers to prefer their stores because these products are manufactured exclusively for them (Lymperopoulos et al., 2010). Furthermore, retailers can increase the number of private-label alternatives with lower prices for consumers when compared to national brands. This allows retailers to reach out to a wider range of customers with varying incomes.

There are various factors (such as price, brand name, past experiences, product performance, and word-of-mouth activities) that have an impact on the consumers' perception of quality and hence their purchase decisions (Odabaş, 2000). These factors may be prioritised differently by each consumer. For example, some consumers prioritise brand recognition when deciding which product to purchase, whereas others prioritise price. This fact also causes consumers to behave differently.

Early social psychology and personality researchers were unable to produce empirical findings that demonstrated consistent cause-and-effect relationships between personality traits, attitudes, and behaviors. Logical consistency has great importance in understanding consumer behaviour and, as a result, predicting possible future behavioural choices.

To persuade consumers to choose certain products or brands, companies use various tools, such as promotional activities. Companies try to influence their target markets and boost their sales in the short term, particularly through sales promotion activities (Horchover, 2002). While doing so, sales promotion activities can help to develop positive consumer attitudes toward the products or brands. If there is an added value offered, consumers are more likely to purchase a brand or a product (Kotler & Armstrong, 2016).

The purpose of this study is to discover the relationship between sales promotion activities, consumer attitudes toward PLs, and their intent to purchase them. The study's main goal is to emphasise the importance of sales promotion in influencing consumer attitudes toward PL products. According to the literature review, no study

focuses specifically on this main purpose. In this context, three apparel retail stores that offer consumers lower prices when compared to other retailers were investigated. These shops were chosen because they are widely distributed throughout India.

Conceptual background

Sales Promotion

Along with advertising, personal selling, public relations, and direct marketing, sales promotion is part of the promotional mix (Horchover, 2002; Mullin, 2010; Kaser, 2012). Sales promotion activities are planned for a short time to achieve specific marketing and sales goals, and they should provide additional value for the products or services to persuade consumers to purchase them (Kotler & Armstrong, 2016; Kerin & Hartley, 2016).

According to "The Institute of Sales Promotion" (ISP), sales promotion covers various activities that will help the company accomplish certain sales and marketing goals by adding value to its products and services. In addition to this description, sales promotion can be defined as "the practise of offering additional value for a brand or a product to reach specific marketing objectives" (Horchover, 2002). De Pelsmacker et al. (2010) grouped these activities under three categories, which are "monetary incentives" (such as price discounts on the shelf, coupons, cash refunds, savings cards, etc.), "chance to win a prize" (such as contests, sweepstakes, lotteries, etc.), and "product promotions" (such as sampling, free in the mail, premiums, self-liquidators, savings cards, etc.). Another categorization can be made regarding the target group of the sales promotion activities. These activities can be designed as consumer promotions, trade promotions, business promotions, and sales force promotions (McCarthy & Perreault, 1993; Kotler & Armstrong, 2016).

What companies should keep in mind when implementing sales promotion activities is that, if done correctly, these activities will affect consumer demands and thus sales in the short term (Banerjee, 2009) because they provide extra value or incentives to customers (Kaser, 2012).

The primary goals of implementing sales promotion activities are the same as the goals of promotional activities, which are to inform, persuade, and remind consumers (Kerin & Hartley, 2016). Aside from these objectives, increasing store visitation frequency and product purchases, profitably changing consumers' behaviors, leading consumers to buy new products (Ogden-Barnes & Minahan, 2015), encouraging consumers to switch brands and retain them, and introducing new products to consumers can all be counted as objectives of sales promotion activities (Mittal & Sethi, 2011).

Furthermore, through sales promotion activities, potential customers can be enticed to try the promoted product or service. As a result, new customers will be encouraged to try Furthermore, these activities will make existing customers more loyal, and they may be rewarded for demonstrating such loyalty. As a result, a company will likely expand its market share.

private label attitude

Private label brands (PLBs) are products sold by a retailer or wholesaler under their own label (Boone & Kurtz, 2011). Even though different scholars used different terms instead of "private label," such as "store brands or labels" (Dick et al. 1996; Parker & Kim, 1997; Steenkamp & Dekimpe, 1997), "own label brands or products" (Simmons & Meredith, 1983; Martell, 1986; Laaksonen & Reynolds, 1994), or "retailer brands" (Davies, 1998; Burt & Davis, 1999), the common national brands (NBs), also known as manufacturers' brands, are brands that are owned by the manufacturer company. Consumers prefer NBs to PLs because they are more familiar with them (Hultman et al., 2008).

PL products enable retailers to increase their margins, gain more control over their shelf space, strengthen their bargaining power concerning their distribution channel (Jin & Suh, 2005), gain a negotiating advantage with national brand manufacturers, and increase consumer loyalty to the store (Ailawadi et al., 2008). Furthermore, PLs are effective assets for increasing retailers' competitiveness with NBs (Nenycz-Thiel & Romaniuk, 2009), as more people begin to see PLs as a strong alternative in certain categories (ACNielsen, 2005). Rising costs inevitably resulted in price increases, which strengthened retailers' position with PL products against national brands in many product categories (Hollensen, 2010).

With PLs, retailers can offer consumers goods that they cannot find in other retail stores because these products are manufactured specifically for the retailers and marketed under their own brand (Lymperopoulos et al. 2010). Even though PL prices are generally lower than their NB alternatives in almost every category (Anchor & Kourilova, 2009), some consumers may believe that PL quality is subpar (DeVecchio, 2001).

When consumers have a cheaper alternative, their price elasticity rises (Altunşık et al. 2004). As the number of PLs grows, consumers will have more options for replacement products. Although consumers' perceptions of quality for PLs may be lower than for NBs, they are more likely to consider PLs, especially if the products are in fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) categories, because these products are purchased frequently and risk perceptions are relatively low.

Quality perception, according to Richardson et al. (1994), is important in consumers' use of PLs. Consumers' use of PLs tends to increase when all of the alternatives in a given product category have similar qualities or when the difference in quality is modest (Batra & Sinha, 2000). Retailers can influence consumer perceptions by positioning PL products near NB alternatives in-store.

As a result, consumers will be able to compare PLs and NBs and investigate their ingredients and manufacturers. Some PLs are manufactured by the same companies whose products are sold in the same store. This allows consumers to compare PLs and NBs in terms of price and quality, demonstrating that there is little difference in product quality but a significant price difference.

Bruton et al. (1998) defined "PL product attitude" as a consumer's own evaluation and/or purchase of PL products. If consumers' perceptions of the quality of these products improve, they will be able to develop positive attitudes toward them. As previously stated, consumers have different priorities when determining the quality of a product or brand. Because the prices of PL products are lower than those of NBs in general, they are more likely to be perceived as low-quality products (Peterson & Wilson, 1985; Lichtenstein & Burton, 1989; Walsh & Mitchell, 2010).

Some consumers, on the other hand, concentrate on the ingredients and the manufacturer company to gain a better understanding of the product's quality (Richardson et al. 1994), which may lead to positive attitudes toward PLs.

NBs attempt to compete with PLs by effectively utilising promotional activities such as personal selling, advertising, direct marketing, public relations, and sales promotion (Manzur et al. 2011). Retailers can offer up to 40% lower prices than national brands because they have lower advertising costs and their own distribution channels (Cunningham et al., 1982).

To overcome the disadvantages, such as low perception, retailers use sales promotion activities on their PLs. For example, sampling activities are used to persuade potential customers to try PLs. Price reductions are an effective way to entice them to buy and try PLs. Distributing flyers and displaying banners throughout the store is an effective way to inform customers about the PLs. These activities have the potential to give retailers a competitive advantage over NBs.

Purchase Intention

Fishbein & Ajzen (2010) described intention as being ready to engage in a behavior. Howard & Sheth (2001), on the other hand, stated that purchase intention tries to explain which brands or products the consumer is inclined to buy. Regarding these definitions, a purchase intention can be described as a consumer's readiness to purchase a specific brand or product. In order for consumers to be ready to exhibit such behavior, they need to have the correct motivation to do so (Thanajaro, 2016).

Purchase intention has been named in various ways, such as "likelihood of purchase" (Infosino, 1986), "willingness to buy" (Dodds et al., 1991; Sweeney et al., 1999), "intention to buy" (Levy & Ofir, 1986; Chung & Pysarchik, 2000; Hajli, 2015), "purchase intent" (Cornwell & Coote, 2005), "intention to purchase" (Wee et al., 1995), etc.) Although it is referred to differently, the reason why consumers prefer a particular brand or product is being investigated by examining purchase intention (Shah et al. 2012).

Purchase intention is an important point and a complicated process because consumers evaluate specific products and/or brands. This procedure is also applicable to consumer behaviors, perceptions, and attitudes (Mirabi et al.

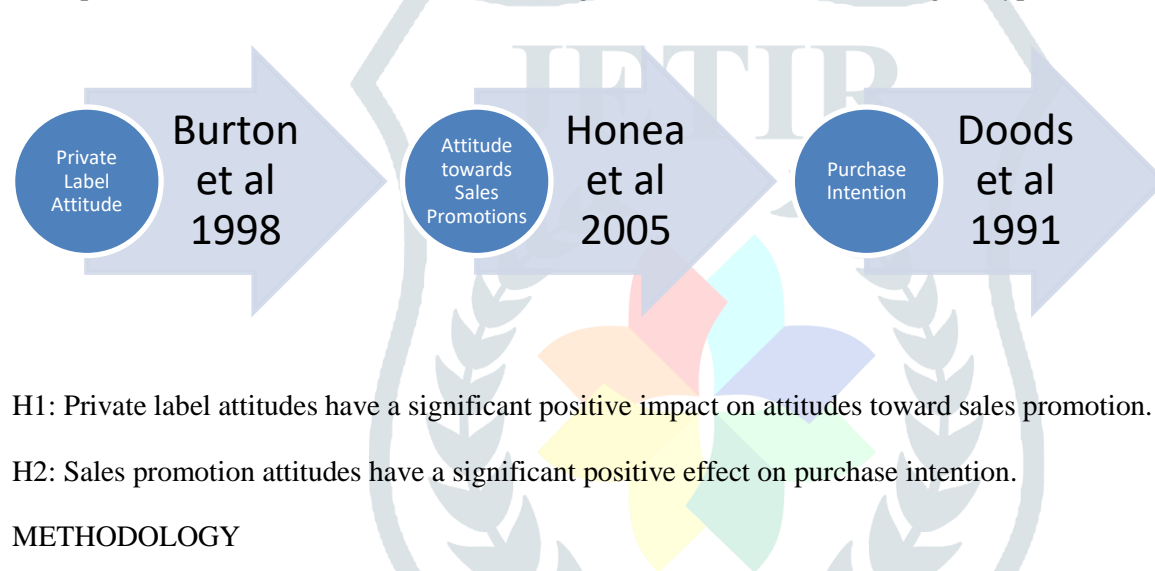
2015). Furthermore, it can be influenced by demographic factors such as gender, age, education, income, and so on (Akhter, 2003).

Consumers' purchase intentions toward FMCG products become routine because products in this category are purchased based on previous information and experiences. As these are medium-involvement products, the perceived risk of apparel is neither low nor high. As previously stated, PLs' prices are typically lower than their NB alternatives, providing retailers with a significant competitive advantage, particularly among consumers with lower financial standing.

In general, the most preferred brands are the most expensive, and despite the low financial risk for this product category, consumers may prefer the cheaper alternative due to income constraints.

Importance of Study

PL products gain more and more importance every day, and consumers' attitudes toward these products influence their willingness to buy them. These attitudes can be developed positively by using sales promotion activities. The main focus of this study is to examine how the sales promotion activities for PLs affect consumer attitudes toward them. Moreover, if such an effect exists, their attitudes toward PLs will influence their purchase intentions. The conceptual model is shown in Figure 1. The following hypotheses were developed:



H1: Private label attitudes have a significant positive impact on attitudes toward sales promotion.

H2: Sales promotion attitudes have a significant positive effect on purchase intention.

METHODOLOGY

To accomplish the stated objectives and test the suggested hypotheses, a quantitative method is employed. A survey consisting of three measures and demographic questions was used. The "Sales Promotion" scale was adapted from Kowk (2005), the "Private Label Attitude" scale was adapted from, and the "Purchase Intention" scale was adapted from Dodds et al. (1991). The items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The demographic questions included gender, marital status, monthly income, the population of the household, age, profession, and education.

The survey was administered to Hyderabad-based participants. These three cities were chosen because their populations are diverse and reflect the demographics of other metropolitan areas in India in general. Furthermore, it is thought that a regional selection would be the best option because the survey could not be conducted in other parts of the country due to the research's financial constraints. Within the context of the study, three apparel retail stores with the most branches and the most widespread distribution in the country were chosen. Furthermore, the apparel product category was chosen for this study because it has one of the highest market shares among PLs. Another reason this product category was chosen is that these products are in the FMCG category, which has a lower perceived risk than other categories, making consumers more likely to purchase PLs.

The convenience sampling method was used in this study to create a sample that is representative of the Indian population. This sampling method was chosen because it is thought to improve the sample's ability to represent the population under study. Furthermore, it was intended to reach the same number of participants for each retail store included in the study. A total of 500 surveys were distributed to reach an equal number of surveys for each retail store. We were able to analyse 481 surveys for the study. The results section includes detailed numbers.

First, the study's context examined the dependability of the used measures. For each of the measures, exploratory factor analysis was used first, followed by confirmatory factor analysis. SPSS 23 and AMOS 23 statistics programmes were used to conduct the analyses. All findings were presented in the results section.

RESULTS

As previously stated, the convenience sampling method was used to create a sample that is representative of the Indian population. The retailer determined the demographic profile of the participants. Male (50,4%) and female (49,6%) participants are closely related, as are single (43,1%) and married (56,9%) participants. The majority of participants are between the ages of "20–29" (22%), "30–39" (22.1%), and "40–49" (19.2%).

All three measures were subjected to exploratory factor and reliability analyses, as shown in Table 3. In terms of reliability, the Cronbach Alpha value for the "Sales Promotion" scale is 0.93, the "Private Label Attitude" scale is 0.83, and the "Purchase Intention" scale is 0.96. These values were 0.87 (Homea, 2005); 0.87 (Bruton et al., 1998); and 0.85 (Dodds et al., 1991) for the studies from which the measurements were adapted.

Exploratory factor analysis results show the explained variances for each measure, which are 71.4% for "Sales Promotion," 60.2% for "Private Label Attitude," and 84.2% for "Purchase Intention." Higher explained variance values indicate a more robust factor structure. For social sciences, these values should be greater than 0.50 (Zdamar, 2016). As shown in Table 3, the explained variance values are all greater than this interval.

The KMO test is applied to detect the sufficiency of the data gathered from the sample. It is stated that the KMO value is perfect if it is close to "1" and unacceptable if it is below "0,50" (0,90 is perfect, 0,80 is very good, 0,70 to 0,60 is mediocre, and 0,50 is unacceptable). As shown in Table 3, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) values for the used measures are, respectively, 0,89 for the "Sales Promotion" scale, 0,76 for the "Private Label Attitude" scale, and 0,85 for the "Purchase Intention" scale. As stated above, these values meet the desired levels.

The factor loadings of the "Sales Promotion" and "Purchase Intention" scales for all of the statements are greater than 0,30, indicating that the statements are suitable for further analysis (Hair et al. 2014). However, one statement from the "Private Label Attitude" scale was removed because it was extracted into two different factors and the analysis was repeated. The factor loadings of the remaining statements on the scale were all above 0.3 after the analysis was run a second time, indicating that the statements are suitable for further analysis.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a model in which the relationships between structures are discussed instead of the relationships between variables (DeVellis, 2003). In addition, CFA tests confirm how the analytical structure of the factor and the data fit the hypothesised model and are applied to test the following situations:

Factor structures that were obtained through exploratory factor analysis,

Factor structures that were determined via the existing literature,

Factor structures that were described within the original scales and/or

Factor structures that were predicted

The model fit indices are shown in Table 1 as well as the good and acceptable fit indices (Karagöz, 2017). Regarding the results presented in Table 1, all values are above acceptable fit index values, and some of them meet good fit index criteria.

Table 1. Model fit indices and results

Model fit indices	Results	Goodness Fit Indices	Acceptable fit indices
X ² /df	4.156	<3	<5
RMSES	0.065	<0.05	<0.08
GFI	0.935	>0.90	>0.85
AGFI	0.909	>0.90	>0.85
CFI	0.968	>0.97	>0.95
TLI	0.961	>0.95	>0.90

The hypotheses developed for the study have been tested and are supported by statistically significant regression coefficients. Sales promotion can explain consumers' attitudes toward PLs with a ratio of 0.30, which means that every unit spent on PL sales promotion activities positively returns 30%. Similarly, consumers' attitudes toward PLs can explain consumers' intention to purchase PLs with a coefficient of 0.48. This finding also implies that for every unit improvement in consumers' attitudes toward PLs, their intention to purchase PLs increases by 48%. As a result, H1 (p0,001) and H2 (p0,001) are both supported.

Table 2 displays the model's discriminant validity. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the AVE values should be greater than the squared correlation of each variable with other variables. Because this criterion is met for each variable, discriminant validity is ensured.

Table 2 shows the model's convergent validity. According to this analysis, the CR value should be greater than 0.70 (Hair et al. 2014) and the AVE value should be greater than 0.50. Furthermore, the CR value of each variable should be greater than the AVE value. However, if all of the criteria are met, the AVE value can be accepted if it is less than 0.50. (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As presented in Table 2, the composite reliability (CR) values of each variable in the model are higher than the AVE values.

Table 2. Convergent validity for the model

Variables of the model	AVE	CR
Private Label Attitude	0.662	0.931
Sales Promotion	0.592	0.878
Purchase Intention	0.796	0.939

The AVE value of the "Private Label Attitude" variable is 0,492, which is lower than 0,50 yet still very close. The remaining two variables have AVE values greater than 0.50. These values are acceptable in terms of convergent validity.

Discussion and conclusion

The primary goal of this study was to investigate the impact of sales promotion activities on consumers' attitudes toward PL products as well as how these attitudes influence their intent to purchase PLs. To achieve this goal, the PL brands of three apparel retail stores were observed. The product category was determined to be commonly consumed apparel products from these retail stores. The data were collected from Hyderabad-based participants and analysed using structural equation modelling (AMOS-SEM). The convenience sampling method was used to determine the sample. Furthermore, age and gender criteria were used to ensure that the sample was representative of the population under study.

Sales promotion activities, also known as marketing communication activities (Kerin et al. 2015), are used by businesses to inform, persuade, and remind customers (Kerin et al. 2015). Furthermore, through these activities, businesses may be able to positively influence consumers' attitudes as well as their behaviours (Familmaleki et al. 2015). Laroche et al. (2003) found that if people give positive ratings to sales promotion activities, they are more likely to have positive attitudes.

References

ACNielsen. (2005). The Power of Private Label: A Review of Growth Trends around the World. New York, NY: ACNielsen.

- Ailawadi, K. L., Pauwels, K., & Steenkamp, J.-B. E. (2008). Private-Label Use and Store Loyalty. *Journal of Marketing*, 72(6), 19–30. doi:10.1509/jmkg.72.6.019
- Akhter, S. H. (2003). Digital divide and purchase intention: Why demographic psychology matters. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 24(3), 321–327. doi:10.1016/S0167-4870(02)00171-X
- Anchor, J. R., & Kourilová, T. (2009). Consumer perceptions of own brands: International differences. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 26(6), 437–449. doi:10.1108/07363760910988256
- Banerjee, S. (2009). Effect of product category on promotional choice: Comparative study of discounts and freebies. *Management Research News*, 32(2), 120–131. doi:10.1108/01409170910927587
- Batra, R., & Sinha, I. (2000). Consumer-Level Factors Moderating The Success Of Private Label Brands. *Journal of Retailing*, 76(2), 175–191. doi:10.1016/S0022-4359(00)00027-0
- Boone, L. E., & Kurtz, D. L. (2011). *Contemporary Marketing*. Cengage Learning.
- Bruton, S., Lichtenstein, D. R., Netemeyer, R. G., & Garretson, J. A. (1998). A
- Burt, S., & Davis, S. (1999). Follow my leader? Lookalike retailer brands in nonmanufacturer-dominated product markets in the UK. *International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 9(2), 163–185. doi:10.1080/095939699342624
- Chung, J.-E., & Pysarchik, D. T. (2000). A model of behavioral intention to buy domestic versus imported products in a Confucian culture. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 18(5), 281–291. doi:10.1108/02634500010343982
- Cornwell, T. B., & Coote, L. V. (2005). Corporate sponsorship of a cause: The role of identification in purchase intent. *Journal of Business Research*, 58(3), 268–276. doi:10.1016/S0148-2963(03)00135-8
- Cunningham, I. C., Hardy, A. P., & Imperia, G. (1982). Generic brands versus national brands and store brands. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 22(5), 25–32.
- Davies, G. (1998). Retail brands and the theft of identity. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution*, 26(4), 140–146. doi:10.1108/09590559810214903
- De Pelsmacker, P., Geuens, M., & Van den Bergh, J. (2010). *Marketing Communications: A European Perspective* (4th ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- DeVecchio, D. (2001). Consumer perceptions of private label quality: The role of product category characteristics and consumer use of heuristics. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 8(5), 239–249. doi:10.1016/S0969-6989(00)00030-8
- DeVellis, R. F. (2003). *Scale Development - Theory and Application*. Sage Publications Inc.
- Dick, A., Jain, A., & Richardson, P. (1996). How consumers evaluate store brands. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 5(2), 19–28. doi:10.1108/10610429610119405
- Dodds, W. B., Monroe, K. B., & Grewal, D. (1991). Effects of Price, Brand, and Store Information on Buyers' Product Evaluations. *JMR, Journal of Marketing Research*, 28(3), 307–319.
- Familmaleki, M., Aghighi, A., & Hamidi, K. (2015). Analyzing the Influence of Sales Promotion on Customer Purchasing Behavior. *International Journal of Economics & Management Sciences*, 4(4), 1–6.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (2010). *Predicting and changing behavior: the reasoned action approach*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating Structural Equation Models with

- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2014). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hajli, N. (2015). Social commerce constructs and consumers' intention to buy. *International Journal of Information Management*, 35(2), 183–191. doi:10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2014.12.005
- Hollensen, S. (2010). *Marketing Management: A Relationship Approach* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Honea, H., & Dahl, D. W. (2005). The promotion affect scale: Defining the affective dimensions of promotion. *Journal of Business Research*, 58(4), 543–551. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0148-2963\(03\)00145-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0148-2963(03)00145-0)
- Horchover, D. (2002). *Sales Promotion*. Oxford, UK: Capstone Publishing.
- Howard, J. A., & Sheth, J. N. (2001). The theory of buyer behavior. In M. J. Baker (Ed.), *Marketing: Critical Perspectives on Business and Management*, (pp. 81-105). New York: Routledge.
- Hsu, Y., & Hsu, Y.-T. (2015). The influence of brand awareness and experiential quality: Taking manufacturer brands and private labels as examples. *International Journal of Business and Commerce*, 4(6), 84–98.
- Hultman, M., Opoku, R. A., & Bui, Q. T. (2008). Private label competition: The perspective of Swedish branded goods manufacturers. *Management Research News*, 31(2), 125–141. doi:10.1108/01409170810846849
- Infosino, W. J. (1986). Forecasting New Product Sales from Likelihood of Purchase Ratings. *Marketing Science*, 5(4), 372–384. doi:10.1287/mksc.5.4.372
- Jin, B., & Suh, Y. G. (2005). Integrating effect of consumer perception factors in predicting private brand purchase in a Korean discount store context. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 22(2), 62-71.
- Kaser, K. (2012). *Advertising & Sales Promotion*. South-Western, Cengage Learning.
- Kerin, R. A., & Hartley, S. W. (2016). *Marketing: The Core* (6th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Kerin, R. A., Hartley, S. W., & Rudelius, W. (2015). *Marketing: The Core* (12th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G. (2016). *Principles of Marketing* (6th ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Laaksonen, H., & Reynolds, J. (1994). Own brands in food retailing across Europe. *Journal of Brand Management*, 2(1), 37–46. doi:10.1057/bm.1994.30
- Laroche, M., Pons, F., Zgolli, N., Cervellon, M.-C., & Kim, C. (2003). A model of consumer response to two retail sales promotion techniques. *Journal of Business Research*, 56(7), 513–522. doi:10.1016/S0148-2963(01)00249-1
- Levy, H., & Ofir, C. (1986). New Product Screening via the Intention-To-Buy Scale. *Decision Sciences*, 17(1), 65–78. doi:10.1111/j.1540-5915.1986.tb00213.x
- Lichtenstein, D. R., & Burton, S. (1989). The Relationship Between Perceived and Objective Price-Quality. *JMR, Journal of Marketing Research*, 26(4), 429–443. doi:10.1177/002224378902600405
- Lymperopoulos, C., Chaniotakis, I. E., & Rigopoulou, I. D. (2010). Acceptance of detergent-retail brands: The role of consumer confidence and trust. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 38(9), 719–736. doi:10.1108/09590551011062457
- Manzur, E., Olavarrieta, S., Hidalgo, P., Farías, P., & Uribe, R. (2011). Store brand and national brand promotion attitudes antecedents. *Journal of Business Research*, 64(3), 286–291. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2009.11.014
- Martell, D. (1986). Own labels: Problem child or infant prodigy? *Quarterly Review of Marketing*, 11(4), 7–12.

- McCarthy, E. J., & Perreault, W. D. (1993). *Basic Marketing: A Global-Managerial Approach* (11th ed.). Richard D. Irwin, Inc.
- Mirabi, V., Akbariyeh, H., & Tahmasebifard, H. (2015). A Study of Factors Affecting Customers' Purchase Intention - Case Study: The Agencies of Bono Brand Tile in Tehran. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Engineering Science and Technology*, 2(1), 267–273.
- Mittal, M., & Sethi, P. (2011). The Effectiveness of Sales Promotion Tools among Indian Consumers: An Empirical Study. *Journal of Promotion Management*, 17(2), 165–182. doi:10.1080/10496491.2011.580693
- Mullin, R. (2010). *Sales Promotion: How to create, implement & integrate campaigns that really work*. London: Kogan Page.
- Nenycz-Thiel, M., & Romaniuk, J. (2009). Perceptual categorization of private labels and national brands. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 18(4), 251-261.
- Ogden-Barnes, S., & Minahan, S. (2015). *Sales Promotion Decision Making: Concepts, Principles, and Practice* (N. Malhotra, Ed.). New York: Business Expert Press, LLC.
- Parker, P. M., & Kim, N. (1997). National brands versus private labels: An empirical study of competition, advertising and collusion. *European Management Journal*, 15(3), 220–235. doi:10.1016/S0263-2373(97)00003-0
- Peterson, R. A., & Wilson, W. R. (1985). Perceived risk and price reliance schema as price-perceived quality mediators. *Perceived Quality*, 247-268.
- Richardson, P. S., Dick, A. S., & Jain, A. K. (1994). Extrinsic and Intrinsic Cue Effects on Perceptions of Store Brand Quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(4), 28–36. doi:10.1177/002224299405800403
- Scale for Measuring Attitude toward Private Label Products and an Examination of its Psychological and Behavioral Correlates. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26(4), 293–306. doi:10.1177/0092070398264003
- Shah, S., Aziz, J., Jaffari, A. R., Waris, S., Ejaz, W., Fatima, M., & Sherazi, S. K. (2012). The Impact of Brands on Consumer Purchase Intentions. *Asian Journal of Business Management*, 4(2), 105–110.
- Simmons, M., & Meredith, B. (1983). Own label profile and purpose. *Journal of the Market Research Society*, 26(1), 3–27.
- Steenkamp, J.-B. E., & Dekimpe, M. G. (1997). The Increasing Power of Store Brands: Building Loyalty and Market Share. *Long Range Planning*, 30(6), 917–930. doi:10.1016/S0024-6301(97)00077-0
- Sweeney, J. C., Soutar, G. N., & Johnson, L. W. (1999). The Role of Perceived Risk in the Quality-Value Relationship: A Study in a Retail Environment. *Journal of Retailing*, 75(1), 77–105. doi:10.1016/S0022-4359(99)80005-0
- Thanajaro, N. (2016, June). Exploring the interaction effects between the country of manufacture and country of design within the context of the sportswear industry in Thailand. Academic Press.
- The Nielsen Company. (2014). *The State of Private Labels Around The World*. Retrieved 04 10, 2019, from Nielsen: <https://www.nielsen.com/content/dam/niensenglobal/eu/docs/pdf/Nielsen%20Global%20Private%20Label%20Report%20November%202014.pdf>
- The Private Label Manufacturers Association (PLMA). (n.d.). Private label gains across Europe, climbing to all-time highs in seven countries. Retrieved 04 16, 2019, from <https://www.plmainternational.com/industry-news/private-label-today>
- Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error. *JMR, Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39–50. doi:10.1177/002224378101800104

Walsh, G., & Mitchell, V.-W. (2010). Consumers' intention to buy private label brands revisited. *Journal of General Management*, 35(3), 3–24. doi:10.1177/030630701003500302

Wee, C.-H., Tan, S.-J., & Cheok, K.-H. (1995). Non-price determinants of intention to purchase counterfeit goods. *International Marketing Review*, 12(6), 19–46. doi:10.1108/02651339510102949

