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THE FIRST MOMENT OF TRUTH

- Why timing of in-store marketing matters

Abstract:

Retail managers of today face many and complex challenges on how and where to reach their customers. As of today, almost 70 % of all grocery shopping decisions are made in-store, which implies the store itself to be a fundamental area for communicating and influencing customers in course of making their shopping (Nordfält, 2012). This is acknowledged by Dhar, Huber and Khan (2007) who provide theoretical evidence of those customers who buy an initial product are more likely to also buy another following product. This is due to a shift from a deliberate to an implementation, goal-oriented focus. They conceptualize this as the Shopping Momentum effect. This is an explorative study that practically examines the concept of the Shopping Momentum effect in-store. This study focuses on a grocery store environment. It is a quantitative study, which uses the method of replication. The quantitative approach consists of customer receipt data, aggregated store sales data and a quantitative customer questionnaire. The findings from the experimental study suggest that the Shopping Momentum effect is realized also in an actual store environment. This is mainly visible through customers who are in Shopping Momentum buy more items, spend a higher total amount, buy more promotions and expect their shopping experience to be less difficult and more fun than customers that do not experience the effect. The findings also include consequent in-store marketing challenges for store managers who wish to evoke this effect. These challenges are: (1) Create a win-win situation, (2) Choose the right sales promotion, (3) Handling the effect in-store and (4) Extending the effect to other channels.

Keywords: *The Shopping Momentum effect, In-store Marketing, Communication Challenges, Retail Marketing*

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1 INTRODUCING OPPORTUNITIES IN IN-STORE MARKETING

1.1. Background

When exiting a store, did you ever leave carrying numerous items that you did not plan to purchase? In fact, you probably have, since unplanned purchasing accounts for 40 percent of all money spent in supermarkets (Sorensen, 2008). Despite all new ways of communicating with customers 70 percent of all purchase decisions are still made in-store (Sorensen, 2008). You might say that you were in such mood to spend or that you just came into a very good flow. It is a retailer's dream, but what exactly happens between deciding on your first purchase and walking out that door wondering what just happened? Retail store managers are not unfamiliar with tactics such as using *Loss leaders*[1] to simply get people in to the store by encouraging a first purchase commitment. Consider the Swedish furniture store IKEA who place inexpensive items like tea lights at the entrance just to get the customer started, and their customers who are feeling that they made a great bargain worth travelling all the way to IKEA for. Once the customer gets going, retailers' have found them to be more prone to purchase also other things from their assortment (Ekström, 2012). The present study will illustrate that the flow you experience in a good shopping spree is more than imagination. Dhar, Huber and Khan (2007) found that what happens after you have purchased that first item is actually a physical mechanism that will influence your subsequent cognition and behavior.

"An object at rest remains at rest,
and an object in motion remains in motion,
unless acted on by an outside force."
Newton's first law

Once a first decision has been made, the impression is that other things tend to sort themselves out one by one. This is conceptualized as the Shopping Momentum Effect: *"Shopping Momentum occurs when an initial purchase provides a psychological impulse that enhances the purchase of a second unrelated product*" *(*Dhar et al. 2007, p. 370).

[1] A Loss leader is a product sold at a substantial discount, often below costs, in order to generate additional sales.

A major problem for consumers today seems to be that decision-making based on rational consequence evaluations is not always easy. According to a recent Swedish survey, consumers consider the grocery shopping very difficult, since they have many and sometimes conflicting objectives (Wikström, Hedbom & Turesson, 2010). The inaction that can result from the inability to choose can indeed affect the sales of grocery stores negatively. Hui, Fader & Bradlow (2009) find that customers tend to use only 25 percent of their time spent in a supermarket to actually make purchase decisions – a proactive store manager needs to start taking advantage of the other 75 percent of the time by helping customers to make in-store decisions. From a retailer perspective, the sooner a product is put in a basket, that is the shorter the *time-to-basket*, the greater the opportunity of adding the next product. It is no longer a question of providing a product assortment; it is about selling the product through approaching the customer at the right time (Wallner & Åkerblom, 2012). However, as of today there is little evidence of that store managers work with timing to the greatest possible extent.

Based on the importance of in-store decisions both from a customer's as well as a retailer's perspective, it is surprising that academic research has not focused on the timing aspect of when customers make their first in-store decision. The question remains – *What happens between making the first purchase and exiting a store with bags full of unplanned products?*

1.2 Problem background

The authors teamed up with the marketing division at a large grocery chain in Sweden, which offers a broad range of grocery and household goods via different store concepts. The company management suggested a broad subject aimed at increasing customer spend in-store. One of the main challenges a grocery chain faces today is that consumers experience a greater pressure when shopping for food. Preferably the food should be healthy, time-efficient, economical and inspiring at the same time. As a consequence, it was suggested that the increasing number of decisions and the conflicting demands can have a negative impact on customers' average spend in-store.

1.3 Problem area

Why do stores frequently fail in meeting the requirements of the customers? One explanation is the lack of knowledge of customers' critical decision-making points in-store. Nearly all supermarkets use various in-store advertising to make shoppers visit more aisles in the stores and potentially, buy more products. But does these tactics increase customer spend or do customers become irritated of having to spend a longer time than needed, ultimately making them to switch store? On the one hand, customers want to feel inspired, surprised and guided. On the other hand customers want to be time-efficient and well-planned in-store (Wikström et al., 2010). Moreover, purchase decisions are made very quickly as customers are being exposed to a cacophony of in-store messages (Sorensen, 2009). Although many studies have been conducted within the area, it is still unclear how the timing of the first purchase influences customers' subsequent shopping trip. The few studies made in a laboratory setting show intriguing results of changes in purchase propensity and customers' mind-set, once having made the first purchase (Dhar et al, 2007). However, these studies need to be confirmed in a retail setting and thereafter further investigated. Therefore, the authors decided to formulate four research questions to examine the Shopping Momentum effect:

1. Can the timing of an initial purchase of a product affect the continued shopping trip in-store (in terms of total spending and the tendency to make unplanned purchases)?
2. What effect does the initial purchase have on customers' shopping expectations, mood, and store perceptions?
3. Will the total product, brand and category sales differ depending on whether a product is displayed at the entrance or near the regular shelf space?
4. In what ways can an understanding of the Shopping Momentum effect help store managers in their strategic and in-store marketing decision-making?

These questions will be used to research Shopping Momentum in a retail context and help store managers to address customers' indecisiveness in-store. In line with these challenges, the overall problem of this thesis is formulated:

What does the Shopping Momentum effect imply on customers' behavior in an in-store environment and how can store mangers benefit from this effect?

1.4 Purpose

The *primary purpose* of this thesis is to establish whether the theory of Shopping Momentum is applicable on an in-store environment, and if so, how it influences customers' shopping expectations and how store managers can handle it.

The *secondary purpose* is to establish whether the attempts to generate Shopping Momentum immediately in-store has any side effects on the category sales.

1.5 Delimitations

Due to the limited scope of a master thesis, it was necessary for the authors to focus on a few angles of approach to the problem area. *Firstly*, the scope of research was narrowed down to focus on how Shopping Momentum works in a Swedish in-store setting, and more specifically, in a large grocery store environment. However, as there are many challenges for store managers concerning timing and in-store marketing, this delimitation leaves other areas unexplored, such as that timing of offerings are important throughout the whole customer journey, customers' individual propensity to react to timely placed offerings and the negative feelings associated with impulse buying and low impulse-control (Nordfält, 2012). *Secondly*, considering that purchase patterns might be influenced by parameters as lifestyle, personal traits and cultural factors the findings might be limited to only include Swedish customers. *Thirdly*, whereas there are multiple impulse products in grocery stores that could initiate an initial purchase, the authors had to delimit the experiment to the usage of one driver item on one type of display. The authors also had to exclude the manipulation of other product-related and environmental variables possibly affecting unplanned buying. *Fourthly*, while many customer variables that could affect the purchasing patterns after being exposed to an in-store offering in the store entrance, the number of variables of measuring the effect had to be limited. Therefore, based on opinions of retail experts the variables measuring the store experience and expectations were delimited to *expected difficulty, expected enjoyment, quality on products, value-for-money, spending expectations, level of planning*, and *general mood.*

1.6 Intended knowledge contribution

The overall aim of this thesis is to contribute to the retail marketing research field. Currently, there is lack of studies giving practitioners concrete advice on the effects of the timing of customers' initial purchases. In general, a lot of techniques used in stores today are based on rule of thumb rather than academic research (Nordfält, 2007). By enabling marketers and retail managers to discover the concept of Shopping Momentum, they can benefit from this thesis by forming an understanding of how the concept can be of strategic importance. By solving the *first* purpose of determining the existence of the Shopping Momentum effect in a retail context, and defining the circumstances prevailing for which the theory is applicable in an in-store environment, the authors also wish to establish guidelines for future research on Shopping Momentum and time-to-basket.

Furthermore, this thesis aims at meeting the increasing demand for studies within the marketing field that take on an experimental approach (e.g. Baker, 2002; Schlosser, 1998). Since many studies are made in laboratories testing students there is a general request for higher external validity in experimental studies, (Winer, 1999), thus the authors found it highly relevant to test this thesis' hypotheses in a realistic retail setting. Additionally, researchers within the marketing field are inclined to dedicate their time only to the generation of new ideas, which is why there is a lack of studies that replicate and confirm existing knowledge (Hunter, 2001). Therefore, this thesis builds on existing findings on the Shopping Momentum effect by exploring the possibilities to apply the concept in a retail context, by using an experimental approach in an authentic setting.

Moreover, by solving the *primary* and *secondary* purpose of this thesis store managers will be able to improve their understating how to use in-store areas and timing of sales promotions efficiently, with regards to customer spending at a basket level and sales in related categories.

1.7 Thesis outline

To offer a clear and intuitive thesis structure for the readers, the authors have organized the paper into five chapters in accordance with the research process. Chapter two aims at providing an understanding of the Shopping Momentum effect through summarizing the most relevant research regarding this theory and related theories within in-store marketing, customer decision making and customers in-store behavior. Chapter three presents a detailed overview of the process of realizing the Shopping Momentum effect in-store. It includes the thesis research design, used research methods as well as a discussion of the reliability and validity of the study. The fourth chapter presents the results of the main study and the replication study performed, as well as findings from analysis of the customer survey and sales data analysis. The fifth chapter provides further analysis and discussion of the most interesting results, relating them to the theories referred to in the second chapter. Finally, a foundation for a practical approach to Shopping Momentum as well as future fields of academic research within this field will be suggested.

1.8 Definitions

This section provides a few clarifications of the terminology used in this thesis. They are critical for a true understanding of our discussion in the following chapters, as many definitions vary for certain concepts.

Shopping Momentum effect: Shopping Momentum occurs when an initial purchase provides a psychological impulse that increases the likelihood of the purchase of a second, unrelated product (Dhar et al., 2007).

Driver item: The driver item is the first item purchased, i.e., the Shopping Momentum effect occurs when the driver item has been purchased (Dhar et al., 2007).

In-store marketing: In-store marketing refers to different sales activities as for instance offers, product sampling or special discounts that a retailer can use in-store (Nordfält, 2007).

Special display: A special display is when a product is placed other than in its usual shelf space, typically in a prime spot, for instance on an end-cap or in the middle of the in store racetrack (Nordfält, 2007).

End-cap display: The end-cap refers to the shelf space at the end of each aisle (Nordfält, 2007).

Entrance special display: The entrance special display was developed for the purpose of this thesis and is a special display that is placed just after the store entrance, thus a display that is visible to anyone entering the store.

Sales Promotion: Sales Promotion refers to many kinds of incentives and techniques directed towards consumers and traders with the intention to produce immediate or short-term sales (Nordfält, 2007).

Unique Promotion: When referring to Unique Promotions in this study, the authors refer to the amount of different sales promotions a person has purchased. For example a customer may in total purchase three bottles of soda to a discounted price, but the amount of unique promotions is only one.

Mental budget: Customers make up mental budgets of how much they are willing to spend while entering a store. The budget consist of products that they have planned at a product or brand level, as well as make room for unplanned purchases (Stilley et al., 2010).

In-store slack: In-store slack refers to the share of the mental budget of the customer which is allocated to unplanned purchases (Stilley et al, 2010).

Time-to-basket: We define this as the time it takes for the customer to add the very first item to their shopping basket in the store.

2. THEORY AND HYPOTHESES GENERATION

With the purpose to examine the effect of Shopping Momentum in store, several theoretical fields need to be studied as well as the practical conditions of the retail environment. In this chapter, the fundamental theory on the independent variable Shopping Momentum, how it is related to other psychological phenomena as well as classic purchasing theories on impulse buying and unplanned purchases will be described.

2.1 Independent variable background

2.1.1 What is the Shopping Momentum effect?

The concept of the Shopping Momentum effect was firstly explained in a study made by Dhar et al. (2007). They defined this consumer psychology phenomenon to happen when "[...] *an initial purchase provides a psychological impulse that enhances the purchase of a second, unrelated product".* The Shopping Momentum arises from the idea that there is a mental hurdle when shopping; when going from browsing to shopping there is a mental shift that increases the likelihood of a next purchase. This thesis aims to investigate the consequences of such an effect being evoked in customers' mind-set. Consequently, the Shopping Momentum effect has been used as the independent variable for this thesis.

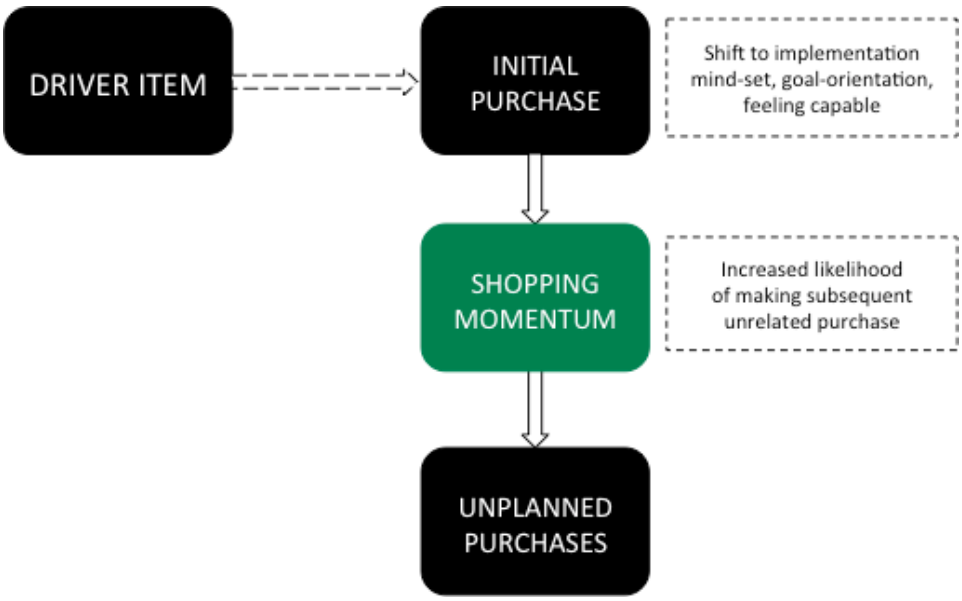

Figure 1 Model of Shopping Momentum Effect (Authors own construction based on Dhar et al (2007)

In Figure 1 the concept of the Shopping Momentum effect is summarized, showing how the effect occurs when the customers makes her *initial purchase* of the *driver item* in-

store. This first purchase triggers a shift from a *deliberative* to an *implementation* mind-set, which influences people's cognition and behavior. A deliberative mind-set weighs the pros and cons of pursuing a specific action, whereas the implementation mind-set focuses on the timing and sequencing of goal-oriented actions. The implementation mind-set evokes feelings of commitment to purchase by reducing the psychological barriers to action. In a purchase context, this shift makes the customer more likely to do additional unrelated purchases (*unplanned purchase*) than if the initial purchase had not taken place.

In explaining an increased propensity to make several, successive, purchases, the concept of the Shopping Momentum is distinctively different from other theories. The Shopping Momentum effect explains an increased propensity to make two subsequent purchases that are: (1) Unrelated in its character, that is, the products do not have to be complementary or associated with each other. This is different from previous studies by for instance Cialdini & Guadagno (2004), which emphasize the importance of the relatedness of the requests to increase likelihood. (2) Dissimilar in terms of value and magnitude of the two purchases; a purchase of a more expensive item may as well be preceded by a less expensive one, as the other way around. (3) Independency of the level of customers' individual involvement in the product. The inclination of a subsequent second purchase is not affected by a greater involvement or impact on the self-image generated by the initial request, as shown in for instance studies by Hansen & Robinson (1980) of the so-called Foot-in-the-door effect. Finally, concept such as the Foot-in-the-door effect is expected to be lasting for weeks, whereas the Shopping Momentum effect can dissipate quickly over time.

Further, the dimensions of the Shopping momentum effect as explained by Dhar et al (2007) also draw on some practical implications, as they provide boundaries for how the Shopping Momentum effect can be evoked. Firstly, they prove that using a gift as a driver item will cause the Shopping Momentum effect to be less pronounced, than when the driver item requires payment (p. 373). Secondly, they conclude that Shopping Momentum is a short-term effect that is able to disperse quickly over time (p. 376). Thirdly, they show that when customers use separate sources of money, their implemental mind-set is disrupted, which in turn decreases the effect of Shopping Momentum (p. 375). Lastly, Dhar predicts some types of driver items such as cigarettes, liquor and tabloid magazines, as well as deep-discount products, to be less successful in

inducing Shopping Momentum as they will activate consumers' resistance to additional purchases (p. 377).

Based on the conclusions from the original study, the potential practical implications provided and the support that appears to exist in commercial practice, the authors decided to specifically examine the Shopping Momentum effect in a grocery store environment. Before going deeper in to the dependent variables, the pre-conditions and ways of facilitating for the Shopping Momentum effect to appear in a physical retail store, will be further discussed below.

2.1.2 The Shopping Momentum effect in store

When adapting the concept of the Shopping Momentum effect from a laboratory study into a retail context, there are certain characteristics of the in-store environment that will affect how the effect can be induced. As a suggestion for further in-store experiments, Dhar et al. (2007) suggest in their study the usage of a *"highly desirable item, offered at a discount similar to that of other items in the store*" (p. 376). The store setting provides fundamentally different characteristics of the environment, and the features of the products and the display itself. In opposite to offering a driver item in a laboratory setting the in-store environment adds a new dimension to the concept as the presentation of the driver item becomes more important in order to ensure that the offer is actually being noticed.

The Store. The store itself provides a significantly different context than a laboratory environment. In the store, customers are not oriented towards the in-store medium but quickly shift focus as she moves around the store. Another substantially different feature is that the customers are subject to an infinite amount of commercial messages. The customers are as a consequence of this forced to make quick decisions, which may cover only a few seconds (Sorensen, 2009). Further, there are a number of environmental and social variables that affect the customer experience and decisions in-store (Nordfält, 2007).

Product and Display. When shopping in a grocery store, customers are faced with an abundance of products of which she sees only a small share, and of which only a few are likely to be bought on impulse. Once the customers have seen the product, there are several product-related factors that influence the likelihood of unplanned purchasing;

price, distribution, size, ease of storage, marginal need for the product/brand, product-life and self-service (Stern, 1962). In general price has a large importance when it comes to what products that are being purchased without planning on beforehand. A very expensive product, for example a car, is less likely to be purchased on an impulse whereas a price discount increases the likelihood of doing so (Stern, 1962). Also, the display type plays an important role. For instance, if the special display is combined with a promotional discount, sales usually increases even more, hence leaving room for an even higher amount of unplanned purchase behavior (Nordfält, 2007).

2.2 Dependent variable background

To be able to interpret results and draw conclusions from purchase behavior by customers in Shopping Momentum, the authors must examine other theories relating to the first purchase and the subsequent purchasing behavior. This will be done through presenting fundamental areas of consumer shopping behavior.

2.2.1 Unplanned purchases

The propensity to make unplanned purchases is a key indicator of the presence of the Shopping Momentum effect. Dhar et al. (2007) found that the likelihood of undertaking a, for the test unit, *unplanned purchase* (*target item*), increased significantly if the test persons had first purchased another product (*driver item*.) Therefore, assuming that the Shopping Momentum effect is prevailing also in an in-store environment, customers who have made an initial purchase will be more prone to purchase a subsequent unplanned product.

Unplanned purchasing is an area of great interest for both practitioners and theorists, as it accounts for as much as 40 percent of all money spent in supermarkets (Sorensen, 2008). Thus, a high share of all purchase decisions are made in-store. In fact some researchers would argue that this share covers up to 80 percent (Nordfält, 2007). An unplanned purchase, it is not necessarily a purchase made on *pure impulse*. Rather, Stern (1962) has identified also three other types of unplanned purchasing including *reminder* and *suggestion impulse buying,* and *planned impulse buying.* Whereas the pure impulse purchase involves the shopper acquiring something that he usually does not buy, the reminder and suggestion impulse involve being reminded in-store to re-purchase something or that a new need is visualized to the customer when he sees the

product in-store. Planned impulse buying includes purchases that the customer intends and expects to make *conditional* on in-store price specials, coupon offers and the like.

The fact that consumers intentionally leave room in budgets for unplanned purchases was recognized by Stilley, Inman, and Wakefield (2010); a concept they name *customer in-store slack*. To what extent the customer uses her in-store slack depends on the store's ability to provide inspiration or offers that the customers simply do not want to resist. Thus, the in-store slack is not always depleted. Here, store managers have important roles in acting as enablers that aid customers in depleting their in-store slack, which is done by providing customers with attractive sales promotions and in-store reminders (Stilley et al, 2010). As of today, store managers are using several in-store marketing techniques to evoke unplanned purchases. For example when placing a product on special display the subsequent sales increase can largely be traced to customers making unplanned purchases (Chevalier, 1975ab).

2.2.2 Total spending

Whether customers get into Shopping Momentum or not thus affect their propensity to make unplanned purchases during the rest of their store trip. As the number of unplanned purchases the customer make will have an outcome on the total spend (Stilley et al., 2010), the total spending is also influenced as a consequence of being in Shopping Momentum.

The concept of in-store slack explains how consumers plan to make unplanned purchases, but also that these unplanned purchases may or may not take place, depending on the store's ability to induce such unplanned purchases (Stilley et al., 2010). Two individuals with equally high mental budgets and shares of in-store slack but who differ in how many unplanned purchases they actually make will spend different shares of their mental budgets. This thesis builds on the theory of In-store slack and thus expects that the one who spend more money on unplanned purchases has depleted a higher share, or even exceeded his in-store slack (Stilley et al., 2010). Hence, the increased spending on unplanned products should result in incremental sales at the basket level. When a store is successful in providing customers with reasons to spend their slack, for example by offering attractive sales promotions and in-store reminders, the average spending will increase (Stilley et al., 2010). A customer who purchases

something just after entering the store will experience the Shopping Momentum effect earlier, thus the increased propensity to purchase unplanned purchases starts earlier (Dhar et al., 2007). When entering the rest of his shopping tour, the customer will feel more prone to spend his in-store slack, and effectively spend his entire budget for planned and unplanned products, or even exceed it compared to those who are not yet in Shopping Momentum.

2.2.3 Customer expectations and experiences

Purchasing a price promotion and experiencing a Shopping Momentum effect directly after entering the store can have effects that are not immediately shown in sales data. An understanding of these effects require a presentation of the how being in Shopping Momentum after responding to a price promotion affects customers' feelings and mood, as well as the perceptions of the store.

While the theories on unplanned purchases and in-store slack explain customer spending, the focus is here on the additional influence the Shopping Momentum effect has on customers. For a store manager, emotional and perceptual elements are important aspects of the total store experience. This thesis uses the following variables to evaluate customer expectation; expected difficulty and enjoyment, mood, perceived value for money and perceived quality.

Expected Difficulty refers to how difficult the shopper expects her subsequent purchasing to be, which is likely to differ whether the customer is in Shopping Momentum or not. When purchasing the driver item the customer experiences a Shopping Momentum effect from moving from a deliberative to an implementation mind-set (Dhar et al., 2007). According to Gollwitzer & Bargh (1996) persons in the implementation mind-set are more certain of the feasibility of their goals. They also believe themselves to be highly capable, invulnerable to risks and in control over action outcomes. Such optimism about the feasibility of goals has also shown to lead to a more successful goal achievement than pessimism (Gollwitzer & Bargh, 1996). Moreover, an implementation mind-set do not make decisions based on a strictly rational evaluation of associated costs and benefits, which reduces the time and effort required for goal achievement (Dhar et al., 2007).

Shopping Momentum is likely to result from purchasing an attractive item to a discounted price (Dhar et al., 2007). Purchasing a product to a discounted price may generate a feeling of excitement, which suggests that there is both a *utilitarian*, as well as an *ego-expressive aspect* to price (Schindler, 1989). The utilitarian aspect of price, include price as an indicator for quality, as well as the utility of alternative uses of the money spent; the alternative purchases forgone. For a discounted price other utilitarian consequences arise in the utility of the items that could then also be purchased. The ego-expressive aspects of price are the implications that price can have on the consumer's self-concept, that is, paying a low price may lead to the consumer feeling proud, smart, or competent, feelings that collectively are labeled "smart-shopper feelings".

Expected enjoyment refers to the hedonic value of shopping customers may experience. As previously mentioned price promotions can be used to spur unplanned purchases (e.g. Stern, 1962). The opportunity for customers to make such spontaneous in-store decisions contribute to the hedonic value of shopping, when the acquisition itself satisfies the need to purchase something rather than the need for certain tangible attributes (Rook, 1987). The hedonic value is one of the two dimensions of shopping value that need to be taken into account in order to gain understanding of customers' behavior and choices (Babin, Darden & Griffin, 1994). Whereas the *utilitarian* value of shopping regards the rational and task-related value, the *hedonic* value is more subjective and results from fun and playfulness (Babin et al, 1994). Hence, the hedonic shopping value reflects shopping's potential entertainment and emotional worth, but can also be received through bargain perceptions (Babin et al., 1994). The purchase of an unplanned product on price promotion can thus be said to increase the hedonic value of shopping, and ultimately its perceived enjoyment.

General Mood refers to the general mood state of the customer that day, and is an aspect that can affect the customers' in-store behavior. As previously mentioned, the initial purchase generates feelings of being capable and in control (Gollwitzer & Bargh, 1996), and realizing a price promotion makes shoppers feel smart (Schindler, 1989). In addition, unplanned purchases and perceived bargains increase the enjoyment (Babin et al, 1994). Such positive emotions ultimately contribute to customers being in a better mood (Robbins, Judge & Campbell, 2010). Mood and emotions are interrelated feelings. However, emotions are intense feelings, such as excitement, that are directed to someone or something, whereas moods are feelings that tend to be less intense and that

often lack contextual stimulus. It is generally believed that moods are less fleeting than emotions and that emotions can turn into moods once the focus of a certain event that created the feeling is gone (Robbins et al, 2010).

Further, there are a wide range of linkages between mood states and consumer behavior (Swinyard, 1993). For example a positive mood has been proved to lead to an increased purchase propensity (e.g. Spies, Hesse & Loesch, 1997, Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn & Nesdale, 1994). This has been explained by the fact that shoppers who experience the shopping trip as pleasant predicts spending extra time in the store and ultimately spend more (Donovan et al, 1994). Hence, if a store manager is able to affect their customers' moods early in-store by enhancing positive emotions, generated by the initial purchase, customers are likely to spend both more time and money as a consequence.

Perceived value for money refers to the perceived value for money that the customer believes that the store is able to provide and *perceived quality* refers to the perceived level of quality. As a consequence of falling into Shopping Momentum by responding to a price promotion, the customer realizes that she can also purchase an additional item because of the discounted price (Schindler, 1989) that is she reminded of the bargain she was offered.

Studies in the field of marketing signals suggest that the employment of various marketing elements send signals about the brand that consumers can use in their evaluations and choices. For example the use of warranties sends the signal that the brand is long lasting and price indicate what level of quality to expect (e.g. Dahlén, Rosengren & Törn, 2008; Kirmani & Rao, 2000 Rao & Monroe, 1989). According to Chevalier (1975b) displaying high-appeal products at a very low price, can create a low price image as display prices often are remembered. In line with this reasoning a message to customers about the price level of the store and ultimately about the quality of the products is sent by the price promotion on special display.

Price perception also depends on whether the customer has recognized the special display or not. A product display positioned at the very beginning of a store is visible to every customer entering the store. Research within psychology and marketing (e.g. Bargh, Gollwitzer, Lee-Chai, Barndollar & Trötschel, 2001; Shapiro 1999) discuss that a person first needs to unconsciously notice something in order to then choose which

impressions they want to become consciously aware of. Those who have purchased the driver item have with all certainty noticed the presence of the price promotion at the entrance. However, it is possible that also other customers have recognized it as researchers have shown that people can be affected by a signal also at an unconscious level (Nordfält, 2007). Hence, it is necessary to examine whether the independent variable, that is the initial purchases of the price promotion, will affect the perceived value for money and consequently the quality perception of the store.

2.2.4 Category and brand effects

In chapter 2.2.1 and 2 the shopping momentum effect on the basket level is discussed. An understanding of the broader consequences of creating shopping momentum by placing a driver item at special display at the entrance versus in a traditional end-cap display of the driver's regular aisle is key.

It was previously argued that a person in Shopping Momentum is more prone to make subsequent unplanned purchases as well as spend more money in total. The authors also discussed how in-store marketing techniques are used to encourage these unplanned purchases. When promoting a brand with a special display the increased sales can be a result of customers re-distributing their purchases so that related products or brands experience a sales dip, which is profitable for the brand owner. However, in a retailer perspective such cannibalization can hurt overall profitability. Preferably the sales increase is resulting from an increase in spending at the basket level, either resulting from increased consumption or from carrying out a purchase in advance (Nordfält, 2007).

As mentioned, where and how a product is marketed will also have an outcome on a brand and category level. Although short-term effect of special displays on the aggregated store sales might not be remarkable, the effect on a specific product category can be huge (Nordfält, 2007). Wilkinson, Mason and Paksoy (1981) found that a special display can result in up to 270 percent product sales increase, but other studies suggest even higher increases when a display is combined with a price discount (e.g. Chevalier, 1975b). Gupta (1988) found that the increased sales of a price promoted brand could be traced to customers changing brand in 84 percent of the cases. Hence, in the vast majority of the cases shoppers changed their habitual choice when another brand is discounted and displayed outside the regular shelf. In fact a substantial part of a

retailer's work is to provide convenience for shoppers by helping them take decisions (Lange & Wahlund, 1997). A special display can act as a choice agent and simplify the choice decision for consumers as one product stands out from the crowd and is visible without having to visit the regular shelf space. Consumers find it difficult to meet the many and sometimes conflicting demands that they have on their grocery shopping, and therefore seek the convenience in letting the store decide for them (Wikström et al., 2010). Thus, the inability and the unwillingness to make decisions partly explain why customers so frequently switch brand. The sales of a product on a special display can also increase because the consumption of the product increases or because a purchase is carried out in advance.

Sorensen (2003) highlights the importance of merchandising, that is, it is not only a question of what to offer but also where and how. He argue that the average shopping trip only covers 25 percent of the store and that only half the shoppers are walking through the store in the way was intended. It is the half of shoppers that do use the racetrack that the store caters the best, and also those who tend to spend more. To meet the needs of the other shoppers Sorensen (2003) highlights the issue of effective merchandising. He argues that many items during the shopping path will result in impulse purchases, and focus should lie on effectively manage this large unplanned segment of shopping that customers are not explicitly searching for. This should be done by putting the right products in front of the right shoppers, rather than trying to attract shoppers to the merchandise or expecting them to find or search for it.

Chevalier (1975b) tried to once and for all establish whether a brand placed on a special display can be profitable both for the brand manufacturer and the retailer, or if such display is cannibalizing on other brands on the shelf, hence being unprofitable for the retailer. He found that on average there is no cannibalization, that is, the brands on the shelves did not lose out on sales when a competing brand was on special display. Instead, he found that the average product category increased with five per cent also when excluding the sales from the displayed brand. However, even if the average product category was not cannibalized the results showed that for 9 out of 16 brands some cannibalization appeared whereas for 7 brands the special display attracted customers to also visit the shelf. In line with the finding that there is a general sales increase experienced by competing brands, Spiggle (1987) points out that a special display of a brand may trigger a need for something in the same product category, but

not necessarily result in a purchase of that specific brand. For example the customer sees a display of cookies and is reminded to buy a dessert. In the case when the driver item is placed on an end-cap close to other products in the same category the customer has a larger possibility to compare the offered item with other brands. If the driver item is on display elsewhere in the store, the comparison is harder to make and the customer will have to decide whether to purchase the item or not. However, the consumer can still be reminded of or suggested a need to purchase something in the driver product category (Spiggle, 1987).

2.3 Hypotheses generation

As the theoretical foundation on which this thesis is built upon now is established, the authors can proceed with specific hypotheses connected to research questions 1,2 and 3.

2.3.1 Effectiveness measurements: Unplanned purchases

A key premise of this thesis is that a shift in mind-set, that is the Shopping Momentum effect, will make customer more likely to pick up the next unplanned purchase than if the initial purchase had not occurred (Dhar et al, 2007). To mediate unplanned purchases in-store an attractive sales promotion is used as a mean to make consumers deplete more of their in-store slack, where the depletion will be more pronounced among SM customers (Stilley et al, 2010). Hence, the authors hypothesize that the customers who purchase the driver item (*Shopping Momentum Customer* below referred to as *SM Customer*) will make more unplanned purchases both in terms of amount spent as well as in terms of quantity, compared to those who do not purchase the driver item (*Non-Buyers*):

H1a: SM Customers will purchase more unique promotions than Non-Buyers.
H1b: SM Customers will purchase more items on promotion than Non-Buyers.
H1c: SM Customers will spend more money on promotions than Non-Buyers.

2.3.2 Effectiveness Measurement: Total spend

The goal of encouraging customers to buy promotions is to increase the total spending at the basket level. It has been shown that if succeeding in evoking the Shopping Momentum effect, it increases the likelihood of customers adding another item to their

basket. With the increased likelihood of customers spending their entire in-store slack they will spend a higher share of their mental budget (Stilley et al, 2010). Thus, we hypothesize:

H2a: SM Customers will reach a higher total spend than Non-Buyers.
H2b: SM Customers will purchase a larger amount of products than Non-Buyers.

2.3.3 Expectations measurement: Customer feelings and perceptions

The Shopping Momentum effect involves the shift from a deliberative to an implementation mind-set, where the customer becomes more certain of the feasibility of her goals and feels more capable (Gollwitzer & Bargh, 1996). The initial unplanned purchase of the price promotion that leads to Shopping Momentum also results in feelings of excitement and enjoyment (Babin et al, 1994). Thus, we hypothesize:

H3: SM Customers expects the shopping trip to be less difficult than Non-Buyers.
H4: SM Customers expects the shopping trip to be more fun than Non-Buyers.

The feelings of excitement, of being smarter and more capable resulting from the initial purchase are expected to translate into the person's mood (Robbins et al, 2010). Thus, we hypothesize:

H5: SM Customers are in a better mood than the Non-Buyers.

After having responded to a price promotion the shopper realizes the utilitarian value of a discounted price, that is, the other products it as a consequence can purchase additionally due to having made the bargain. The price discount is perceived on a deeper level by the SM Customers since they will process the message consciously, compared to Non-Buyers who may only notice the bargain unconsciously. Therefore, we assume that:

H6: SM Customers perceive the store to offer higher value for money than Non-Buyers.

Analogous with the reasoning for value for money, the quality perception will differ between the groups as a low price sends signals about lower quality (Kirmani & Rao, 2001). Thus, we also hypothesize that:

H7: SM Customers perceive the store to be of less quality than Non-Buyers.

2.3.4 Effectiveness measurements: Brand and category effects

Advancing the Shopping Momentum effect to the store entrance by placing a discounted product on display is likely to increase spending at a basket level by increasing the likelihood of customers adding the next item to their basket earlier (Dhar et al., 2007). According to theory, placing a product on special display can have a huge effect on the sales of the product displayed, the sales of other products within the brand family as well as influence the sales of other brands in the category (Chevalier, 1975b). Therefore, it is of interest to compare whether the sales effects of such displays differ depending on where the display is placed. That is, depending on when during the shopping path the offer is timed. Based on this we first hypothesize:

H8: The entrance special display will increase sales compared to when the product is not on special display on a…

a) product level;

b) brand level, and

c) category level

H9: An end-cap display will increase the sales compared to when the product is not on special display on a...

a) product level;

b) brand level, and

c) category level

H10: The entrance special display will increase the product sales more compared to when the product is on end-cap display on a…

a) product level;

b) brand level, and

c) category level

2.4 Information needed

A summary of how the hypotheses are connected to the research questions 1, 2 and 3 are shown below. Hypotheses are constructed to be able to solve the first research question in a first step, thereafter hypotheses have been formed to further investigate the effect.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	HYPOTHESES
1. Can the timing of an initial purchase of a product effect the continued shopping trip in-store (in terms of total spending and the tendency to make unplanned purchases)?	**Unplanned Purchases** H1a: SM Customers will purchase more unique promotions than Non-buyers. H1b: SM Customers will purchase more items on promotion than Non-buyers. H1c: SM Customers will spend more money on promotions than Non-buyers. **Total Spend** H2a: SM Customers will reach a higher total spend than Non-buyers. H2b: SM Customers will purchase a larger amount of products than Non-buyers.
2. What effect does the initial purchase have on customers' shopping expectations, mood, and store perceptions?	**Customer Expectations & Store Perceptions** H3: SM Customers expects the shopping trip to be less difficult than Non-buyers. H4: SM Customers expects the shopping trip to be more fun than Non-buyers. H5: SM Customers are in a better mood than the Non-buyers. H6: SM Customers perceive the store to offer higher value for money than Non-buyers. H7: SM Customers perceive the store to be of less quality than Non-buyers.
3. Will the total product, brand and category sales differ depending on whether a product is displayed at the entrance or near the regular shelf space?	**Brand and Category effects** H8: The entrance special display will increase sales compared to when the product is not on special display on a... a) product level; b) brand level, and c) category level H9: An end-cap display will increase the sales compared to when the product is not on special display on a... a) product level; b) brand level, and c) category level H10: The entrance special display will increase the product sales more compared to when the product is on end-cap display on a... a) product level; b) brand level, and c) category level

3. METHOD

In the following chapter the authors describes the method used in this study. It clarifies the choice of topic, research design and methodology. Lastly, the reliability and validity of the thesis' findings is discussed.

3.1 Choice of topic

The inspiration to write about in-store marketing came from the marketing division at a large grocery chain. How to reach customers in today's cluttered marketing environment and influence them to spend in-store are issues the marketing department handles on a daily basis. To get an overview of where retail marketing stands today and to find out about the problems that consumers experience when shopping for groceries, we participated in two seminars (Sveriges Marknadsförbund, 2012ab). The topic was further discussed with Magnus Söderlund, our tutor and professor at Stockholm School of Economics, as we wanted to ensure to conduct research within an area highly relevant for retail professionals. Based on the authors interest for the new possibilities of timely placed offers through mobile devices, he highlighted the importance of first laying the fundamental theoretical grounds for the timing of physical offerings in-store. After a comprehensive literature research that confirmed the absence of theory on timing of promotions, the authors decided with excitement to research the phenomenon of *Shopping Momentum*.

3.2 Scientific approach

An exploratory research approach has been chosen for this thesis, as the authors aim to define the Shopping Momentum effect further and gain insights for developing a practical approach to the theoretical concept. Since the thesis uses existing theories to formulate hypotheses, a deductive approach is used (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Further, causal research elements have been used as the authors wished to establish cause-and-effect relationships between the independent variable the Shopping Momentum effect and dependent variables derived from the original study and current retail marketing theories (Malhotra, 2010). In order to test the hypotheses and obtain findings on the Shopping Momentum in practice, a quantitative approach with a large sample of customer data was decided on. The hypotheses will be accepted or rejected based on the experimental findings, and will be used to provide further insights to and understanding

of the phenomena and provide input for marketers and practitioners in strategic decision-making in-store.

3.3 Research design

The experiment design is modeled in consideration of the exploratory approach of this thesis. It is suggested that when addressing a relatively unexplored area, as the one researched in this thesis, a mixed method research design consisting of both qualitative and quantitative research, is particularly useful. This approach is suitable as it allows for the researchers to fill in gaps one research method cannot cover (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Since the Shopping Momentum effect has not previously been examined in a grocery store environment, the qualitative research preceding the quantitative data collection has been important in order to set up an appropriate experiment environment (see further in Chapter 2). The qualitative methods used in this thesis comprise a focus group and unstructured, open-end interviews with marketing experts within the retail field.

As the concept of Shopping Momentum can largely be tracked by customer receipt data, the research methods have been first and foremost quantitative. The quantitative study consists of a main study of customer receipt data, a customer questionnaire and aggregated store sales data. The main study has thereafter been reproduced in a replication of the main study. The independent variable of the study is the Shopping Momentum effect, defined by whether a purchase from the initial offer has occurred or not. The dependent variables measures the customers purchase behavior in-store as a consequence of the independent variable, with regard to: the number of and amount spent on promotions, total receipt sum and customers' shopping experience. This thesis also aims at exploring the effects of Shopping Momentum triggered by an immediate price promotion on sales in a broader perspective, where the timing of the in-store promotion is manipulated to be either in the store entrance or at an end cap close to its usual shelf space.

In the constant search for new knowledge, generation rather than replication to statistically confirm ideas has become predominant especially in the field of marketing, leading to a serious decrease of replication studies (Toncar & Munch, 2010; Hunter, 2001). The replication study was of fundamental importance (See Figure 2) and crosschecking the results of the main study with a replication study, the retrieved statistical results are more certain (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In addition to collecting the

customer receipt data, in the second phase the study was extended with the supplementation of a questionnaire, which was crucial to gain important contextual information. However, the aggregated sales data was left out from the second phase due to in-store difficulties.

As previously discussed, the fact that the researched phenomenon is analyzed from multiple viewpoints, there will be an increased likelihood of more accurate judgments (Jick, 1979).

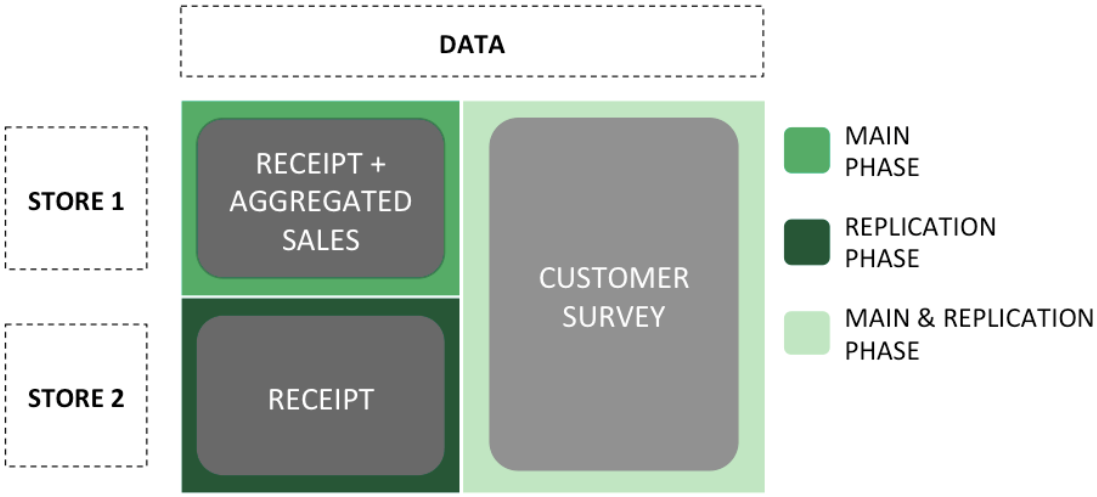

Figure 2 Experiment design different phases

3.3.1 Study objects

3.3.1.1 The store choice

Prior to the experiment, the authors researched suitable store environments for the research. Several variables such as store size, store location and store interior were discussed with retail expert and Assistant Professor in Marketing and Strategy, Jens Nordfält and the grocery chain's management. Based on these discussions, two hypermarkets within their largest store concept, with similar assortments and customer buying behavior, were chosen. The authors discussed the possibility to use a smaller store, as the shopping customers behaves differently here compared to in a larger store (Lange & Wahlund, 1997). A main reason why a larger supermarket finally was chosen as a study object, was however the considerable amount of store visitors, which would increase the probability of getting enough respondents in order to draw valid conclusions.

3.3.1.2 Product and display choice

Preceding discussions were also held regarding the driver item and display for the experiment, in order to find an offer representing a good bargain and preferably, to evoke an initial purchase as soon as customers entered the store to evoke Shopping Momentum early on.

To decide on a specific product, a focus group consisting of four participants was held discussing topics related to impulse buying and memory structures, derived from a seminar with retail expert Jens Nordfält (Sveriges Marknadsförbund, 2012). The discussions concerned: (1) how respondents remembered what to buy once in-store, (2) the level of planning and budget-setting in-store, and (3) what types of products and displays that could create impulse purchases. Based on the focus group discussions, certain attractive products were identified: establishing that sweets/chocolates, soda, chewing gum, and magazines were perceived as typical unplanned purchases. The product choice was thereafter narrowed down to chocolate, which is an established impulse buying product (Wahlund & Lange, 1997). The final product choice fell on a Marabou chocolate bar of 0.2 kg in eight different flavors, put on two half-sized pallets. The well known, premium mass-market brand was chosen to ensure that many customers would find the offer appealing.

To create the Shopping Momentum effect the chocolate bars were to be placed on special display at the store entrance. The retail in-store design agency, CODE was consulted in order to create an in-store display with the right features (Wallner & Åkerblom, 2012). Lastly, to guarantee a high attractiveness of the offer in order to ensure a high number of purchasers, the special display was combined with a price promotion, as this combination has proven to have the largest effect on sales (Nordfält, 2007). Thus, the regular price of 15.90 SEK per piece was set to two for 28 SEK, offering a total discount of 3.80 SEK. The price and products were subsequently held constant throughout the experiment. This decision was based on the purpose of the thesis to examine the fundamental effects of the timing of in-store special displays and not how the effects might differ depending on, e.g., brand equity or product involvement.

Aside from the chosen discounted Marabou bar as a driver item, the authors initially aimed to test also a product from another grocery category role. From the focus group it was also derived that customers may decide upon what to make for dinner inspired by the first sales promoted product they see. In line with the findings of the original study,

the Shopping Momentum effect would not be dependent on a specific product or price anchor (Dhar et al, 2007). Further, to simultaneously test another type of special display used for cross-selling intentions (Nordfält, 2007) a dinner suggestion based on pasta was chosen. Subsequently, the authors started to collect data but after having sampled customer data during two full afternoons the low share of SM Customers implied that the dinner suggestion was not suitable for the purpose of the experiment and thus might not be an effective way to induce Shopping Momentum in-store.

3.4 Main study

3.4.1 Experiment

The experiment consists of two groups exposed to the experiment special display in-store; one group with customers who purchased the driver item (*SM Customers*) and a control group with customers who did not buy the driver item but another product from the chocolate category (*Non-Buyers*). Thus, both groups bought some kind of chocolate during their store visit, although the groups are distinguished by either being in Shopping Momentum when entering the store or not. An example of the experiment is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3 Driver item on Special display

The placing of the driver item was also manipulated with a placing later on in the store at an end-cap, as previous research indicate there might be different category effects depending on where in the store the special display is put (Sorensen, 2003). Aside from the independent variables, all other characteristics were kept similar.

The main study was set in March during Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday in Store 1 during week 12 2012. On Tuesday and Wednesday, from 4 to 11 pm, customers were exposed to an entrance special display. On Thursday and Friday aggregated sales data was collected with the driver item displayed on a more commonly used end-cap display. The week did not contain any holidays the experiment took place just before most people in Sweden receive their salaries.

3.4.2 Customer receipt data

To be able to test our hypotheses sales data was retrieved in the form of individual customer receipts for further analysis. The individual receipts contained information on the amount of products purchased, total spending and a detailed listing of individual products bought. Thus the variables retrieved are *total spending*, *total amount of product purchased, the amount of unique promotions purchased, the total amount of promotion items purchased,* and *the total spending on promotion items.*

The sample consists of all SM Customers and customers who have bought any other product in the chocolate category, during March 20-23 2012. The total customer receipt sample of the main study is 441 customer receipts of which 161 receipts belong to the experiment group and 280 receipts to the control group. A manipulation check supported that the total amount spent did not differ between the customers who purchase Marabou 200 grams (driver item) and those who buy other chocolate brands (control group) when there was no experiment taking place (See Appendix 7.8).

3.4.3 Aggregated sales data

To strengthen the findings from the customer receipt data analysis, also aggregated sales data was retrieved from the store. This data captured the total sales effect on the specific driver item, total brand sales as well as the effect on the category of chocolate confectionary. The sales data was retrieved both for the experimental days, comparable days the previous month as well as comparable days in March/April the year before.

3.4.4 Questionnaire

To further track the customer experience effect of in-store advertising, a complementary questionnaire was designed to measure differences in perceptions of the store and the shopping expectations, between *Shopping Momentum (SM) Customers* and Non-Buyers.

A small pilot-study with ten supermarket customers randomly selected in-store was conducted prior to data collection. Respondents to the pilot study only had a general knowledge of the purpose with the experiment, as to the extent to generally evaluate their shopping experience. The respondents gave valuable feedback regarding the length of the questionnaire, to which corrections were made in order to avoid respondent fatigue.

Questionnaire design and sampling

As previously mentioned, the questionnaire was used as a complementary element to gain additional understanding of the Shopping Momentum effect. Another purpose of the questionnaire was to compare the SM Customers with Non-Buyers in terms of their shopping trip expectations and their experience of the store. By comparing the groups, it can be examined if being in Shopping Momentum also affects emotional perceptions. The design was developed in dialogue with our tutor, who suggested a short questionnaire of maximum 10 questions that could provide an overall picture of the expectations and store experience and suit an in-store collection of data. The questionnaire variables of interest this time was therefore limited to; *level of enjoyment* and *expected difficulty* regarding the shopping trip, customers' *general mood* and their perception of the store's *price* and *quality level*. Also, to receive information concerning the comparability of *SM Customers* and *Non-Buyers*, as well as customers visiting Store A and Store B, questions about the *intended budget* and *level of planning* were also asked. As for their shopping purpose, customers were asked to indicate their *purpose of the shopping trip*; weekly shopping, fill-in trip or shopping for a special occasion (See Appendix 7.1 for questionnaire). In order to get clear results, the survey responses were graded on a 1-7 point ratio scale (1 = "Not at all"/"Very bad" and 7= "Very much"/"Very good") (Malhotra, 2010). Since the study aims to explain differences between groups, the questionnaire was held identical for all groups.

The authors collected the survey responses of the two groups verbally during four afternoons in the two stores. The customer survey was asked randomly to all customers after that they had passed by the entrance special display. This *probability sample* is more likely to reflect the entire population, and thus generalizable results are more likely (Bryman & Bell, 2007). As the data is analyzed using statistics, a sample size of at least n=30 for each group is needed in order to invoke the Central Limit theorem, that is, assuming the sample to be approximately normally distributed (Malhotra, 2010). The total sample of the survey was n=60 with 30 in each groups. No respondents needed to be excluded from the data analysis.

The questionnaire data was conducted as a separate study and was not connected to specific customer receipts, however the sample was drawn from the very same sample of customer receipt data that day. Thus, the authors assume the sample reflects the opinions of the group of *SM Customers* vs. *Non-Buyers* on a broader level.

3.5 Replication study

According to Hunter (2001) scientific progress requires a database of facts, and facts can be established only by replicated studies. Replication is an appropriate strategy when one wants to confirm the robustness of the findings in an original study (Hunter, 2001). Therefore, by conducting a replication study of the authors own work, with additional sales data and a customer survey extension, the authors provide evidence to earlier results as well as further insights into the customer experience.

The replication study was set as a *replication with extension* in order to duplicate most aspects of the original study while deliberately modifying one aspect of the study, in this thesis the store sample, to learn if the same results would be obtained (Toncar & Munch, 2010). A *statistical replication design* was chosen, with an identical procedure and the same independent and dependent variables as in the main study, in order to reduce sampling error to a small enough level to draw accurate conclusions (Hunter, 2001). Additionally, the authors also here conducted a small customer survey that intended to measure and further explain possible changes in customer expectations and mood as a consequence of the Shopping Momentum effect. The replication study was set in April on Tuesday and Wednesday during week 16 2012, with the same time schedule as in the

main study. Also this week was before most people in Sweden receive their salaries and did not include any holidays.

The initial intention was to replicate also the placing of the special display in the replication study, however the authors could not get hold of an enough volume of chocolate bars to fill up an end-cap display. Therefore, the comparison of the driver item placing manipulation was unfortunately left out in the replication study.

The total sample data from the replication study consists of n=457 customer receipts. Of these, n=139 receipts are assigned to the experiment group and n=318 receipts to the control group.

3.6 Analytical tools

As this study consists of one main study and one replication study, data analysis was performed in two different stages. However, as the analysis was conducted following the same procedure, it is only depicted once below.

3.6.1 Data preparation

To analyze the customer receipt data and data provided by the questionnaire further in PASW, the sales data had to be prepared in spreadsheets. Thus, prior to analyzing the 941 total customer receipts, withdrawal of each receipt data and product sales statistics from the experiment hours was done. Each receipt with the driver item was withdrawn separately from the database and saved in to a spreadsheet, sorted per date and hour. 50 control group receipts were withdrawn accordingly from each day, following an identical hourly distribution in order to avoid any bias due to different purchase patterns. It was necessary to exclude data in two circumstances; firstly, the control group receipts where customers had bought both the initial offer and another product from the chocolate category, since they are assumed to be in shopping momentum and thus represent the experiment group (n=29). Secondly, extreme outliers in *total spending* and *total spending on promoted items* were excluded from the sample (n=14).

Next, individual receipts were checked for the propensity to purchase unplanned products. This was done through counting the number of products on promotion during the experiment week on each receipt, as a proxy for the number of unplanned purchases. This proxy was used since promotional goods tend to be unplanned to a larger extent than other products bought (Bucklin & Lattin, 1991; Chevalier, 1975ab; Stern 1962). The EAN codes of the week's price promotions were therefore matched with the EAN codes on each customer receipt. Both the number of unique promotions and the total amount of promoted items purchased were counted on. Lastly, the total amount spent on promotions was calculated and entered into PASW. This method allowed for analysis both on number of as well as the sum spent on unplanned purchases. The discounted chocolate used in the experience was excluded from the promotion variables since purchasing it was a pre-requisite for the experiment group.

3.6.1 Data analysis

Customer Receipt Sales Data

After preparing the data for a PASW analysis, an independent sample t-test was run for all of the variables in Store 1, establishing significant differences between the dependent factors within the independent factors. As previously mentioned, these significant results induced the replication study. Hence, independent sample t-tests for all the dependent variables were also run when data had been collected from Store 2. Generally, hypotheses were accepted on a 10 percent significance level.

For the replication study to provide strong evidence, it was necessary to control for any influence on the dependent variables by the store itself as an extraneous variable. The possible influence of the store itself could have affected the dependent variable measures in a way that weakens the results of the manipulation (Malhotra, 2010). Therefore, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was performed to establish whether the special display affected the dependent variables independently (Malhotra, 2010). Since there were not more than two groups, a Post Hoc test was not necessary to perform. The results showed that the main effects store and initial purchase were both significant but there are no statistically significant interaction effects between store and initial purchase on any of the dependent variables (see Table 1 and Table 2 and Appendix 7.5 for more details).

Total Spending	F	p value	Partial ETA
STORE	44.678	.000	.048
INITIAL PURCHASE	5.246	.022	.006
STORE * INITIAL PURCHASE	2.332	.127	.003

Table 1 Interaction effect between the store and the manipulation on Total Spending

Total Items	F	p value	Partial ETA
STORE	36.203	.000	.039
INITIAL PURCHASE	4.398	.036	.005
STORE * INITIAL PURCHASE	1.423	.233	.002

Table 2 Interaction effect between store and the manipulation on Total amount of Items

These initial steps of analysis indicate numerous similarities between the effects in the stores, thus the authors are confident in the success of the replication study in Store 2. Further, the two-way ANOVA confirmed our expectations of no particular influence by the store, except from the relative size of the receipt between groups within stores. To

avoid repetition and present more reader-friendly results, the results of the two stores combined will therefore be presented in the results-section.

Survey data

To test the hypotheses regarding customer experiences (Hypotheses 6-10) statistical analyses in PASW was conducted. To control that the survey samples from the two stores could be aggregated into one study, two tests were run to see that there were no differences between the stores. A one-way ANOVA indicated no difference in the purpose of the visit (main trip, fill in trip, special occasion) depending on what store the customer was visiting ($p>0.1$). Also, a T-test ensured that there were no significant differences between the stores for the dependent variables *fun*, *difficulty*, *mood, perceived value for money* and *perceived quality level* (See Appendix 7.3).

Lastly, it was of importance of the study that the groups *SM Customers* and *Non-Buyers* did not hold any predetermined differences in different spending intentions or in their level of planning their shopping. Therefore a T-test was run on the variables *Budget* and *Planning* (See Appendix 7.3). The results showed no significant difference in their expected budget spent ($p>0.1$) between SM Customers (mean=581) and Non-Buyers (mean=577). The analysis neither showed any significant differences ($p>0.1$) for the level of planning the shopping list before entering the store between SM Customers (mean=5.21) and Non-Buyers (mean=5.11).

Thereafter, independent sample t-tests could be run for each of the variables; *Fun, Difficulty, Mood, Perceived value for money* and *Perceived quality level*.

Aggregated Store Sales Data

In testing the hypotheses on category, brand and driver item effects on a broader level (Hypotheses 8-10c), aggregated sales data was used. The sales of the driver item, the driver item brand in total and the category sales were compared with the previous month and the previous year. The increased sales of the brand and category were calculated after deducting the number of product and revenue contributed by our driver items.

3.7 Reliability and validity

Reliability and validity are used to estimate the applicability and correctness of the study performed (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

3.7.1 Reliability

Reliability assesses the level of consistency in the study; consequently if the selected sample can be expected to produce similar results as another sample of test units (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Reliability is assessed by determining the proportion of systematic variation in a scale (Malhotra, 2010). The relevant aspects of reliability for this thesis concerns internal reliability and stability. *Internal reliability* refers to the consistency of results across questions for one respondent unit, whereas *stability* refers to the consistency over time. (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

The reliability of the quantitative data in this study relates to both customer/sales data as well as the quantitative output data from the questionnaire. The stability and internal reliability of the sales data has been secured by the usage of actual sales data. Moreover, the lack of interaction effects of the extraneous variable the store increases the reliability and repeatability of the experiment. Internal reliability in the data preparation has further been secured through a consistent approach by the authors, in for instance the classification of promotions, to avoid inter-rater inconsistency. Concerning the customer questionnaire, a pilot study was run where the length and phrasing of questions were changed, which increases likelihood of gaining the results once more. However, to ensure consistency over time for the results, the authors suggest the questionnaire to be repeated at another point of time in order to increase the study's consistency.

3.7.2 Validity

Validity estimates if and to what extent the study has measured what you intended to measure. The validity of the research is dependent on both *external* and *internal* validity. *External validity* refers to whether the results can be generalized beyond the experimental situation of the study. The *internal validity* deals with the causal

relationships between the independent and the dependent variables, in other words if the effects on the test units are caused by the experiment variable (Malhotra, 2010; Bryman & Bell, 2007).

External Validity

As there is a general request for higher external validity in experimental studies since many studies are made in laboratories testing students (Nordfält, 2012), the authors found it highly relevant to test the thesis' hypotheses in a realistic retail setting. By examining the causality of the test variables in an actual store environment, the external validity and generalizability is enhanced positively (Malhotra, 2007). Also, the fact that the study contains a replication study of the original experiment further establishes the external validity of the study (Toncar & Munch, 2010). Although the generalizability might be affect by the fact that the main and replication study could not take place simultaneously, the experiments were spread over ten days, which delimits the influence of time-specific occurrences..

Given the discussion above, the authors assess the general validity of the experiment to be satisfactory.

Internal validity

Regardless of the achieved external validity, internal validity is required to be able to generalize the results. As this thesis seeks to achieve a high internal validity and ensure a causal relationship between the independent and dependent variables, the influence of extraneous variables on the dependent variables has to be minimized (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The internal reliability of this thesis has been ensured through *randomization, design control* and lastly, *statistical control*. (Malhotra, 2010) Firstly, customers were randomly assigned to the experiment as no customers were informed in advance of the experiment. The effectiveness of the randomization has been confirmed as the control group and the experiment group did not differ in terms of their planned budget or their level of planning of the shopping trip. The authors did not compare the results with customers who had not had an opportunity to make an initial purchase at the store entrance; however doing so might have provided even clearer results in the customer survey. Further, the authors controlled for the potential spending differences between groups, however no significant differences were detected, comparing the average receipt sum of both chocolate SM Customers and driver item SM Customers from a number of randomly chosen dates in 2012. Secondly, *design control* was ensured by repeating the experimental design; using the in-store position in each store, using the

same design elements in display and sign features, pricing the offer identically, ensuring a consistently high supply of products at both stores and confirming the same opportunity of the display been seen by customers. By being able to control these variables, a high degree of internal validity can be obtained (Malhotra, 2010). Lastly, as previously mentioned a statistical control for extraneous effects was conducted through a two-way ANOVA for all the dependent variables. However, the test could confirm that there were no significant interaction effects between the independent variable *SM Customer/Non-buyer* and the extraneous variable *store size*.

A quantitative study may also discuss several types of measurement validity, such as *face validity* and *construct validity*. To secure the measurements to reflect the concept in question and to hold *face validity,* the measurement variables used have been discussed with our tutor, retail experts as well as practitioners within retail marketing. Since hypotheses also are derived from theory closely related to the concept, *construct validity* is ensured (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

4 RESULTS & ANALYSIS

This chapter presents and analyses the results from the PASW testing of the hypothesis in the main study, replicating study, and the questionnaire extension. First, we discuss the results from actual sales data, that is, unplanned purchase propensity and total spending. Next, we present the findings from the questionnaire, that is, expected difficulty and enjoyment, and general mood, as well as perceived level of quality and value for money. Lastly, the effects depending on timing of the special display is analyzed for product sales, brand sales, and product category sales.

As discussed in the section of methodology, the combined results from the two stores will be presented in this chapter. Further details on the separate results of the stores are found in Appendices 7.6 and 7.7.

4.1 Unplanned purchasing

Hypothesis 1a-c test the differences in the tendency to purchase additional price promotions between SM Customers and Non-Buyers.

Variable	Mean SM Customer	Mean Non-Buyer	Mean Difference	p-value
Unique Promotions	1,18	0,71	0,47	0,001
Promotion Items	1,79	1,01	0,78	0,001
Total Promotion	45,82	26,30	19,52	0,003
Spent per Promotion	27,69	27,98	-0,29	0,931

Table 3 Results regarding Unplanned purchasing, $n_{SM\ Customer} = 300$, $n_{Non\text{-}Buyer} = 598$

As seen in Table 3 the results show that those who have experienced the Shopping Momentum effect early purchase significantly more unique price promotions ($M_{SM\ Customer} = 1.2$ versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer} = 0.7$, p=0.001), as well as significantly more items on price promotion ($M_{SM\ Customer} = 1.8$ versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer} = 1.0$, p=0.001). The results also tell that the *SM Customer* spend significantly more money on price promoted products in total ($M_{SM\ Customer} = 45.8$ versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer} = 26.3$, p=0.003). Therefore, hypothesis a, b, and c are supported.

H1a: SM Customers will purchase more unique promotions than Non-Buyers.

ACCEPTED

H1b: SM Customers will purchase more items on promotion than Non-Buyers.
ACCEPTED

H1c: SM Customers will spend more money on promotions than Non-Buyers.
ACCEPTED

To gain further understanding of hypothesis 1, and to detect whether the increased total spending on promotions is derived from a higher spending per promoted item or from the higher propensity to purchase unplanned items an additional t-test was performed. The amount spent per promotion did not differ between the groups, and thus the increased spending is resulting from the increased amount of unplanned purchases ($M_{SM\ Customer}$ =27.7 versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer}$ = 28.0, p=n.s.)

4.1.2 Total spending

Hypothesis 2 suggests that customers who purchase the entrance price promotion falls into shopping momentum earlier and will thus purchase more items during the shopping trip. The results (see Table 4) show that SM Customers spend significantly more at the shopping trip ($M_{SM\ Customer}$ = 562 versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer}$ = 491, p=0.074) and they purchase a significantly larger number of products than Non-Buyers ($M_{SM\ Customer}$ = 20.8 versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer}$ = 18.7, p=0.099).

Variable	Mean SM Customer	Mean Non-Buyer	Mean Difference	p-value
Total Spending	561,51	491,34	70,17	0,074
Total Items	20,82	18,73	2,09	0,099
Share of Unplanned	0,070	0,052	0,017	0,108

Table 4 Results regarding Total Spending

H2a: SM Customers will reach a higher total spend than Non-Buyers.
ACCEPTED

H2b: SM Customers will purchase a larger amount of products than Non-Buyers.
ACCEPTED

Additional analysis was performed in order to achieve a greater understanding of whether the increased spending, as seen in hypothesis 2, was largely due to a higher share of unplanned purchases, as expected with regards to the Shopping Momentum effect. To uncover the potential difference a t-test of the share of promotion spending, in relation to the entire purchase between the *SM Customers* and the *Non-Buyers* was run. The share of unplanned purchases did differ between the groups ($M_{SM\ Customer}$ =7.0 percent versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer}$ = 5.2 percent, p=0.108), but the difference could however not be statistically confirmed as the significance level is slightly exceeded.

4.2 Effects in a broader sense

Hypotheses 3 to 7 aims at investigating if the customers shopping trip and store expectations can be associated to the event of a purchase early in-store. Results are shown in Table 5.

Variable	Mean SM Customer	Mean Non-Buyer	Mean Difference	p-value
Difficulty	1,90	3,80	-1,90	0,000
Enjoyment	3,93	3,33	0,60	0,071
Mood	5,20	4,77	0,43	0,292
Value for Money	4,67	4,47	0,20	0,490
Quality	5,23	5,10	0,13	0,673
	n=30	n=30		

Table 5 Results regarding effects in a broader sense

4.2.1 Expected difficulty

In line with the expectations of people who are in the implementation mind-set, the results reveal that SM Customers believe that the subsequent purchases during the rest of the shopping tour will be significantly less difficult than Non-Buyers ($M_{SM\ Customer}$ = 1.90 versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer}$ = 3.80, p=0.000).

H3: SM Customers expects the shopping trip to be less difficult than Non-Buyers.

ACCEPTED

4.2.2 Expected enjoyment

Hypothesis 4 tests the difference in how fun a person expects the subsequent shopping tour to be, after having or not having bought the entrance price promotion. The results show that SM Customers are to a higher extent than Non-Buyers expecting the purchasing to be more fun during the rest of their trip ($M_{SM\ Customer}$ = 3.93 versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer}$ = 3.33, p=0.071).

H4: SM Customers expects the shopping trip to be more fun than Non-Buyers.
ACCEPTED

4.2.3 General mood

Hypothesis 5 suggests that those who have purchased the entrance price promotion will be in a significantly better mood than those who did not. The results shows that there is a substantial difference in mood between, indicating that SM Customers generally are in a better mood than Non-Buyers ($M_{SM\ Customer}$ = 5.20 versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer}$ = 4.77, p=n.s.). However, the difference is not statistically significant and thus further conclusions cannot be drawn.

H5: SM Customers are in a better mood than the Non-Buyers.
REJECTED

4.2.4 Value for money and quality perception

In contrary, to hypothesis 6, a significant difference between the perceived value for money is not found ($M_{SM\ Customer}$ = 4.67 versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer}$ = 4.47, p=n.s.). Neither is there any significant results the quality perception depending on whether the driver item had been purchased or not ($M_{SM\ Customer}$ = 5.23 versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer}$ = 5.10, p=n.s.). Thus, H9 and H10 are not supported.

H6: SM Customers perceive the store to offer higher value for money than Non-Buyers.
REJECTED

H7: SM Customers perceive the store to be of less quality than Non-Buyers.
REJECTED

4.3 Brand and category effects

Hypothesis 8, 9 and 10 a-c suggest that the timing of a special display will have different effects on product, brand portfolio, and category revenues. The calculated effect on brand and product category excludes the sales from the driver items and shows the effect on the other products in the category and in the brand portfolio. The results consider the change in sales on a monthly basis. The change in product turnover is also presented to illustrate whether the change mostly is due to volume or margins shown (see Table 6). However, as the authors do not have knowledge about the gross profit margins, we find the increase in sales revenue to be the most important aspect.

MoM	Driver Item		Brand		Category	
	ENTRANCE	END-CAP	ENTRANCE	END-CAP	ENTRANCE	END-CAP
Products	258%	51%	-6%	63%	-3%	-9%
Sales	234%	43%	29%	135%	-11%	-15%

Table 6 Sales effects from Timing

The results for the entrance special display showed a positive increase in sales, for both the driver items and the brand (234 percent and 29 percent respectively). However, the change in sales for the product category was negative, decreasing with 11 percent with the amount of products sold rather stable. Thus, H8 a and b are accepted, but H8c is rejected.

H8: The entrance special display will increase sales compared to when the product is not on special display on a…

a) *product level;*

ACCEPTED

b) *brand level;*

ACCEPTED

c) *category level*

REJECTED

The results for the end-cap display are similar to that of the entrance display. Sales of the driver item and the brand increase with 43 percent and 135 percent respectively. The chocolate category experiences a decrease of 15 percent. Hence, H9 a and b are accepted, and c is rejected.

H9: An end-cap display will increase the sales compared to when the product is not on special display on a...

a) *product driver level;*

ACCEPTED

b) *brand level;*

ACCEPTED

c) *category level*

REJECTED

Hypotheses 10 a-c test whether the entrance special display has a more positive impact on sales of the driver tem, the brand and the product category than an end-cap display. The results show that this is true for the driver items, where the increase in sales is 234 percent and 43 percent for the entrance and end-cap respectively. However, the sales are less positively impacted when the entrance special display is used in terms of brand sales (29 percent and 135 percent increase of from the entrance and the end-cap respectively). In terms of category sales, neither the entrance nor the end-cap display affected the sales positively (-11 percent and -15 percent decrease respectively).

Although the decrease is smaller for the entrance display compared to the end-cap display, it did not produce an *increase* in sales which is why the hypothesis is rejected.

H10: The entrance special display will increase the product sales more compared to when the product is on end-cap display on a…

a) product driver level;

ACCEPTED

b) brand level:

REJECTED

c) category level

REJECTED

4.4 Summary of hypotheses testing

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	HYPOTHESES	RESULT
1. Can the timing of an initial purchase of a product effect the continued shopping trip in-store (in terms of total spending and the tendency to make unplanned purchases)?	**Unplanned Purchases** H1a: SM Customers will purchase more unique promotions than Non-buyers. H1b: SM Customers will purchase more items on promotion than Non-buyers. H1c: SM Customers will spend more money on promotions than Non-buyers. **Total Spend** H2a: SM Customers will reach a higher total spend than Non-buyers. H2b: SM Customers will purchase a larger amount of products than Non-buyers.	ACCEPTED ACCEPTED ACCEPTED ACCEPTED ACCEPTED
2. What effect does the initial purchase have on customers' shopping expectations, mood, and store perceptions?	**Customer Expectations & Store Perceptions** H3: SM Customers expects the shopping trip to be less difficult than Non-buyers. H4: SM Customers expects the shopping trip to be more fun than Non-buyers. H5: SM Customers are in a better mood than the Non-buyers. H6: SM Customers perceive the store to offer higher value for money than Non-buyers. H7: SM Customers perceive the store to be of less quality than Non-buyers.	ACCEPTED ACCEPTED REJECTED REJECTED REJECTED
3. Will the total product, brand and category sales differ depending on whether a product is displayed at the entrance or near the regular shelf space?	**Brand and Category effects** H8: The entrance special display will increase sales compared to when the product is not on special display on a... a) product level; b) brand level, and c) category level H9: An end-cap display will increase the sales compared to when the product is not on special display on a... a) product level; b) brand level, and c) category level H10: The entrance special display will increase the product sales more compared to when the product is on end-cap display on a... a) product level; b) brand level, and c) category level	 ACCEPTED ACCEPTED REJECTED ACCEPTED ACCEPTED REJECTED ACCEPTED REJECTED REJECTED

5 DISCUSSION

This section will reflect upon the results of the sales data analysis and the questionnaire, and relate the findings to relevant theory. The discussion begins with a general reasoning about and critics on the findings of this study. Thereafter, the main parts of the Shopping Momentum in store are outlined. These are discussed from a store manager's perspective and suggest practical measures. Further, *recommendations for future studies are proposed.*

Main problem:

What does the Shopping Momentum effect imply on customers' behavior in an in-store environment and how can store mangers benefit from this effect?

5.1 Discussion and critics of the study

The results of this study strongly supports that the Shopping Momentum effect is applicable in an in-store environment, and that creating such momentum in the beginning of the store have significant effects on the subsequent purchasing behavior. Before we proceed and analyze conclusions and implications of these findings, we firstly would like to start with a discussion of whether these results have originated from generating Shopping Momentum or if there are other potential explanations to the results. Also, if the authentic in-store experimental setting rather than a laboratory environment has helped in providing clear results on the effects of the Shopping Momentum effect in a retail environment.

Firstly, the effects on individual spending and store sales provided by our customer data might not be representative for all supermarket customers and all situations, as only SM Customers of one driver item and other chocolate SM Customers were compared. However, the chosen driver item, the Marabou bar, is one of the largest and most common chocolate brands in Sweden today, why the authors suggest that its SM Customers are not very different from any other supermarket customer. Further, our independent sample t-test of the groups did not indicate any significant differences in in-store spending between Marabou customers and other chocolate buyers on days when the experiment did not take place. Given our in-store setting, and the inability to isolate the effect of our special display for a longer period of time, there is a possibility that factors have had an effect on store profitability and customers spending. For

instance, the effect of other manufacturer deals and retail displays of which the customer has been able to stockpile or buy certain promotions the week before. However, the authors do believe it was possible to adjust the choice of product and type of promotion accordingly through discussing these issues with the store managers before the experiment.

Moreover, when reflecting over the customer receipt data, it would have been desirable to track the individual customers more closely when in-store. By matching each individual customer's receipt with their time spent in-store the Shopping Momentum effect could possibly have been shown more clearly, if the shopping trip would have been done also faster and thereby more efficient than other customers. Also, matching the customers shopping list before entering the store with their actual receipts might have provided even clearer evidence for the Shopping Momentum effect in showing the unplanned purchases. There is a risk that using price promotion as a proxy for unplanned purchasing does not fully reflect only unplanned purchases, but also some purchases planned in advance. Neither does the proxy capture all impulse purchases that are not on price promotion. Through connecting specific customer receipts with SM Customers, individual differences in for instance household income, store loyalty and impulse buying tendency could also have been controlled for. However, these aspects were carefully weighed against the additional time it would take to administer in-store, and gaining as much customer basic data as possible, given a satisfying method of measuring the Shopping Momentum effect on customers.

Lastly, the authors would like to emphasize that two similar types of stores have been used, in rather similar geo-economic areas. In spite of these circumstances, it is worthy of note that the sales data analysis produced statistically significant results, which nevertheless provide strong evidence for our findings.

5.2 Discussion of results

5.2.1 Contribution and the Shopping Momentum effect in-store

The theoretical foundation in this thesis was based on three main theoretical theories;

1. The original study on the Shopping Momentum effect (Dhar et al, 2007)
2. The implementation-focused orientation it has shown to evoke among customers (Gollwitzer & Bargh, 1996)

3. Consumer theories on in-store behaviour, such as the concept of In-Store Slack (Stilley et al. 2010)

This study strongly suggests that the Shopping Momentum effect in-store is mediated by both the store's effort to evoke the effect and customers' perceptions of the offer, resulting in significantly different in-store behavior for SM Customers than for Non-Buyers. The main differences can be seen on customers' expectations before entering the store, which transform into a notably dissimilar buying behavior. For instance, customers think that their shopping trip will be significantly less difficult, indicating less confusion and more determination when commencing their shopping trip. This study shows that customers who experience the Shopping Momentum effect spend more in total and buy more promotions than customers who do not shift mind-set early on in the store. Combining these findings, the authors can conclude that the course of events implied in the Shopping Momentum theory can be used in the retail environment. Further, we expect the usage of a price promotion driver item, as a suggested approach by Dhar et al (2007), to have been a key component to the successful implementation. This conclusion can be drawn from the pilot-study done with a less attractive offering, which initiated much fewer purchases. In addition to this, our customer survey results imply that there is an additional dimension of customer expectations and emotions that is influenced. On the basis of these conclusions, the authors suggest a sequential model of the Shopping Momentum with the acknowledgement of the importance of the store, specifically regarding to the sales promotion/store environment (see Figure 5).

The starting point is the *Initial Purchase* itself, as this is the dividing point between *the Shopping Momentum Customer* and *Non-Buyers.* The Initial Purchase is in this thesis induced by a *Sales Promotion*, which is considered to be the preferred way of evoking the Shopping Momentum effect. Whether or not customers decide on buying the first purchase is subsequently the pre-requisite for falling into *Shopping Momentum*, as these customers prove to employ a different buying behavior in-store. Particularly, they are more prone to make *Unplanned Purchases,* which in turn is a determinant for the *Total Spending* in-store. For instance, customers who experience the Shopping Momentum effect are more likely to spend their entire in-store slack/mental budget. In this model, the authors would also like to emphasize the connection between the use of a *Sales Promotion* and *Customer Expectations* to mediate *Unplanned Purchases* during the shopping trip. The use of a Sales Promotion can contribute considerably to raise

people's expectations about the enjoyment and easiness of the shopping trip. If the store manager subsequently answers to the customer expectations, it results in more spending in-store. Therefore, the attractiveness of the initial Sales Promotion, or another driver item, plays a critical role for the store performance and customer perceptions.

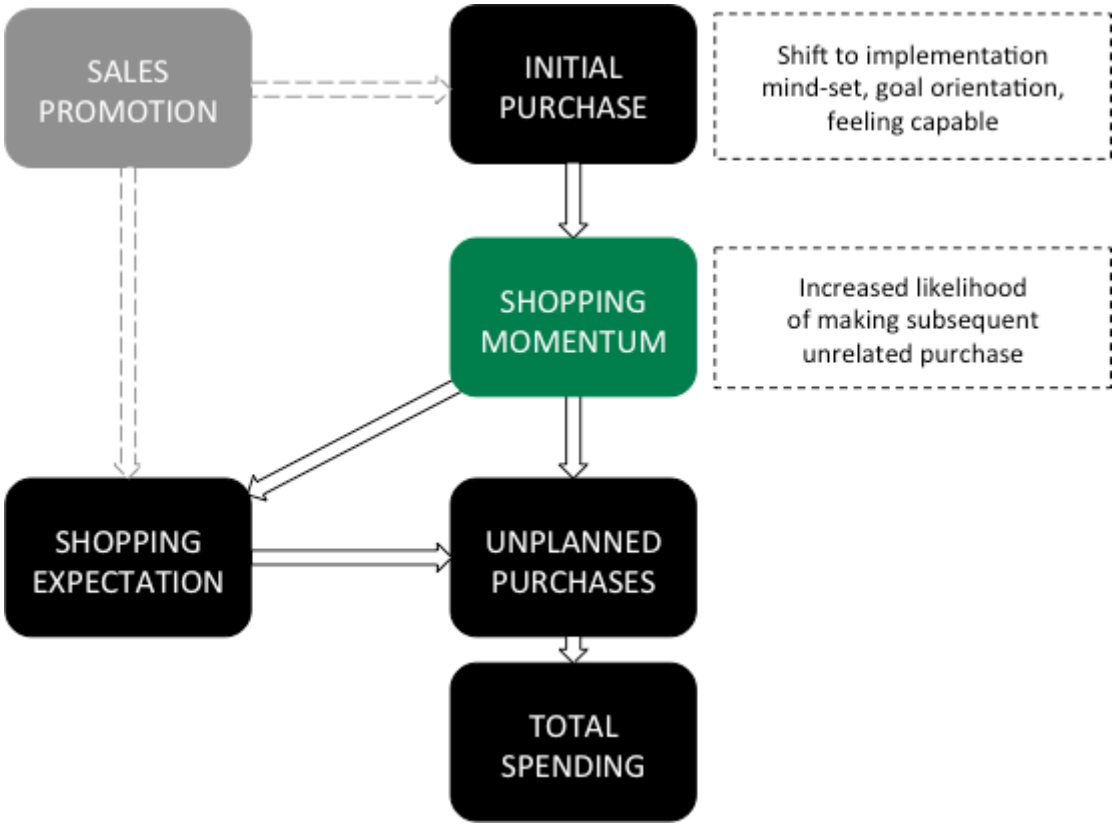

Figure 4 Authors' construction of the Shopping Momentum effect in a retail context (Dhar et al., 2007)

5.2.2 Shopping Momentum from a customer spend perspective

Customers, who are in Shopping Momentum in a retail store environment, are more likely to make unplanned purchases. The results were found for the unique amount of promotions, the total amount of promoted items, as well as the total amount spent on promotions. As a consequence of spending more on unplanned purchases, also the total amount spent was higher for those in Shopping Momentum.

The increased number of unplanned purchases was in line with our expectations and can be explained by the fact that those in Shopping Momentum were expected to spend

more of their in-store slack (Stilley et al, 2010). The SM Customers spent on average 45.8 SEK compared to Non-Buyers who spent 26.3 SEK. An interesting finding is that the average amount spent per promotion, 28.0 SEK and 27.8 SEK for the SM Customers and Non-Buyers respectively did not differ, which implies that the increased spending is due to the increased amount of unplanned purchases. The finding is in line with the findings made by Stilley et al (2010) who suggest that people intentionally leave room for unplanned purchases in their budgets and that each individual has an in-store slack to be used for the purpose. However, whether or not the in-store slack is depleted depend on a store's ability to inspire and remind customers of their latent needs, as well as provide irresistible offerings. The present study suggest that if a retailer provides an attractive offering in the beginning of the store customers who acquire it have less barriers to make subsequent unplanned purchases after entering the store.

One could argue that the higher amount spent on promotion is a result of certain customers being *cherry pickers*, that is, they are looking to purchase sales promoted items, the authors believe that the risk is small considering the fact that SM Customers did not only spend more money on promotions, but also in total. The argument is supported by a study made by Mulhern and Padgett (1995) who concluded that a very low percentage of customers visit a store in order to only buy promoted items, and of those few people actually do end up buying only these products.

Further, the total money spent was significantly different between the groups, indicating that the SM Customers who had experienced Shopping Momentum earlier were prone to use a higher share of their in-store slack. Additional support for this finding is that the share of money spent on unplanned purchases seems to be higher for SM Customers than for Non-Buyers even though the accepted significant level is slightly exceeded (7.0 percent and 5.2 percent respectively, $p=0.108$). Furthermore, the absolute value of the planned purchases was not significantly different ($M_{\text{SM Customer}}=517$ SEK, $M_{\text{Non-Buyers}}=485$ SEK, $p=0.448$). Hence, the authors can suppose that the initial offer can increase sales at a basket level, by increasing the probability of the customer making more unplanned purchases.

5.2.3 Shopping Momentum from a customer expectations perspective

Our primary purpose further aimed to investigate the effects on customer expectations and mind-sets of being in Shopping Momentum. Besides from the shift in mind-set, the authors also expected the use of a price promotion to evoke the Shopping Momentum effect to influence the results. The customer survey indicated significant results for the variables *difficult* and *fun* and clear indications for the variable *mood*. However, no significant results were provided for the level of *perceived quality* and the *perceived value for money*.

The clearest result was found for the level of perceived difficulty, where SM Customers and Non-Buyers held significantly different expectations ($M_{SM\ Customer}$ = 1.90 versus $M_{Non\text{-}Buyer}$ = 3.80, p=0.000). This is in line with what the authors expected based on the Shopping Momentum effect, as it suggest customers to shift into an implemental mind-set. This mind-set orientation implies that people feel capable, in control of their outcomes and more decisive in when, how and where to act (Dhar et al, 2010). Thus, the present study can confirm that a shift from the deliberative to the implementation mind-set has taken place, since the SM Customers view the subsequent purchasing as significantly less difficult.

Closely related to this result, the authors also found that buying customers expected the shopping trip to be more fun. This could be explained, in our case, by Babin et. al's (1994) findings on the link between unplanned purchases and enjoyment of shopping, as unplanned purchases and the bargain perception are important contributors to the hedonic value of the shopping trip. However, although there is a clear relationship between the variables, the authors cannot confirm the causality; whether the purchase spurs expectations of the shopping trip to be fun, or if these customers enjoy shopping and by that purchase the driver item.

Further, the authors also expected these instant feelings of enjoyment to transfer into a more stable state of a generally better mood, as feelings connected to a certain event tend to disparate and be replaced by a more permanent, corresponding mood (Robbins et al, 2010). However, no such significant results were found among respondents. This lack of a significant difference between the groups might be explained by the relatively small positive stimuli that might spur positive feelings but not alter customers' mood on

its own. Nonetheless, as we found SM Customers to have a generally higher score on the Mood variable, we suggest that this correlation and ability to influence customers' general mood state should not be neglected.

The authors can conclude that the time-to-basket does not only matter in terms of the amount spent on a basket level, but also for the general expectations on the perceived enjoyment and difficulty of the shopping trip close at hand.

Based on theory of message perception and marketing signals the authors expected that the SM Customers would find the experiment offering to contribute with a higher value for money, and consequently that the low price association would send signals about the quality. However, the results showed no immediate effects on either perceived value for money or for quality perceptions. The authors see several potential reasons to why any differences could not be detected.

Firstly, considering that people shop for groceries very often and on a regular basis, the process is likely to largely be made on routine (Lange & Wahlund, 1997). Furthermore, there are few retail brands carrying groceries, and although it has not been tested within the purpose of this thesis, the customer sample is likely to be familiar with the retail brand. When people already have knowledge about the brand, messages or signals are likely to be perceived in the light of what they already know, and ultimately have less impact on the brand associations (Wang, 2006). Secondly, it was argued that not everyone who passes the special display would be consciously aware of the price promotion whereas the SM Customers were expected to process the message on a more conscious level. However, customers may have perceived the special display as a bargain opportunity without being aware of its actual message (Chevalier, 1975b). Following the results for price perception, it is not surprising that no differences could be detected in terms of perceived quality. The assumed difference was based on theory about how the price level is signaling the level of quality (Kirmani & Rao, 2000) and since the price perception did not differ, neither did the quality perception.

5.2.4 Shopping Momentum from a store perspective

According to theory on merchandising planning, the placing of special display has a crucial impact on the sales of that merchandising. The average customer only covers 25

percent of the store on her shopping trip and only half of the customers use the store path (race track) store managers have planned for them (Sorensen, 2003). Based on this, the authors assumed a difference in product sales depending on the placing of the experiment offering. This study confirmed this, by showing a significantly different effect on sales of the driver item, where the entrance display increases considerably more (+258 percent) compared to the end-cap display (+51 percent) on a month-to-month basis. This shows that more customers might be reminded or tempted by a need for the product in a way they are not when the product is only presented on an end-cap. Perhaps needless to say this is a consequence of the fact that more people pass by at the entrance.

The authors also had reasons to believe the entrance special display would act as a choice agent and help customers in their brand choice, and consequently increase total brand sales. Particularly, this would be more evident when the brand was displayed in the beginning of the store, where customers could not easily pick up their habitual brand choice (Gupta, 1988). However, comparing brand sales on a month-to-month basis, without the sales of our promoted products, this study suggests that an end-cap serves to promote the brand sales to a much larger extent (+135 percent) than did the entrance display (+29 percent). This indicates that the end cap spur the need for the promoted product but also for related products in the brand portfolio, and consequently boost these items too. When the driver is displayed at the entrance such redistribution is less likely because the rest of the portfolio is not located in a convenient distance. Hence, for the entrance display the increase of total brand sales is driven largely by the sales of the driver items, and less by the enhanced need for any of the brand's products.

Conversely, the entrance display was thought to act also as a priming agent for the whole category, as special displays has been shown to not only trigger product or brand needs, but the category as a whole (Spiggle, 1987). It was therefore hypothesized that both end cap and entrance displays would increase sales through customers passing by, however the entrance special display would be more efficient due to more customers being exposed to the display at the entrance point. The findings of this study suggest however that the category sales, without the promoted products, did not benefit from either an entrance display (-11 percent) or an end cap (-15 percent) compared to the previous month. These cannibalization effects show that customers simply re-distribute their purchases to other brands when being primed with a certain product (Walters,

1991; Gupta, 1988) and the placing of the merchandise do not affect that brand switch to a great extent.

To conclude, the study shows that the timing of special displays does play an important role to increase sales on a product level. On a product basis, the entrance displays are also considerably more efficient than an end-cap display. If the objective is to increase sales also of other products within the brand portfolio a regular end-cap display is recommended. However, if the aim is rather to increase the sales of other products in the category, neither end-caps nor entrance displays should be used.

5.3 Conclusion on Shopping Momentum in a store context

Drawing on the findings of this thesis, the authors are able to conclude how the customer experiencing the Shopping Momentum effect early behaves differently compared to other customer. After committing to her first purchase early on, the SM customer act and perceive her subsequent shopping differently than Non-Buyers, influenced by her initial purchases. The SM customer will *spend more money* on *more items* during her shopping trip than other customers will; yet she will not replace her planned items for bargains only. The SM customer will make *more unplanned purchases*, but these are in addition to the planned purchases. Hence, she will use more of the budget she is mentally prepared to spend in-store. While doing her shopping, the SM customer will also *feel capable* and will orient the store in a goal-oriented manner. She will also expect the shopping trip to be *more pleasant*. Yet, she will not think the store provides her a better value-for-money or is of lower quality than other customers do. At the same time, the shop owner will experience incremental sales at the basket level by inducing Shopping Momentum as early as possible. However, this increase is not reflected in the sales of other products in the category. The sales of brand related items are enhanced, as more customers are likely to pick up something additionally from the driver item brand.

In section 5.2.1 a sequential model based on our findings for how Shopping Momentum is realized in-store was introduced. This model suggests different steps for store managers to consider when aiming for creating Shopping Momentum in-store. These different steps provide challenges accordingly for managers, who are considering initiating a Shopper Momentum effect. These challenges and possible solutions will be

further discussed in the next section. But firstly, the authors will provide a few suggestions on how researchers can build on our findings in the future.

5.4 Future research

The findings of this study were framed by the supposedly ideal way to evoke a Shopping Momentum effect; a price promoted premium brand on special display in a large store. Nonetheless, the findings can provide directions and guidance for researchers who want to further explore this effect for other types of retailers and products.

One potential future direction to take would be the purpose of the shopping trip; this study was executed in two stores of large format, which implies for a certain shopping behavior. Even though none of the types of shopping trips were significantly more represented in our customer survey sample, studies on the matter suggest that there should be. For example there may be more main shopping trips and less fill-in trips in a large format store (e.g. Lange & Wahlund, 1997). The impact of such potential differences were not within the scope of this thesis and future studies will have to test the potential differences in more detail. Furthermore, it is likely that loyal customers and frequent visitors behave and respond differently to sales promotions displayed in the store, than first-time visitors or customers who shop for groceries more infrequently. This study does not taken such differences into account, but future studies researching the potential interaction effect between customer characteristics and Shopping Momentum is encouraged.

Furthermore, the present study has researched the Shopping Momentum effect in a grocery store environment. According to Dhar et al (2007) the Shopping Momentum effect arise regardless of the type of product category, but the effect is not prevailing after having received a gift. Therefore, future studies testing whether the applicability of Shopping Momentum in a store environment can be established also for other types of retailing industries and promotion types are welcomed.

This study aimed at also discovering the side effects of creating Shopping Momentum by initiating a purchase early in store with the use of a price promotion. Within the scope of this thesis such effects were measured in the sales data for the days of the experiments. However, some studies suggest that there can be a post-promotional effect seen in data

after the time period of the sales promotion. The purpose of this thesis was not to find such long-term effects but future studies with a long-term perspective are requested to draw such conclusions.

5.5 Managerial implications

This study has raised the importance of *time to basket*; that is, how long time it takes before the shopper experiences the Shopping Momentum effect. Given that the creation of a Shopping Momentum effect at an early stage in the store influences both spending at a basket level as well as customers' shopping expectations, as presented in chapter 5.3, the authors will now suggest important practical implications for store managers to grasp these opportunities. The interrelated parts of the model are shown in Figure 5.

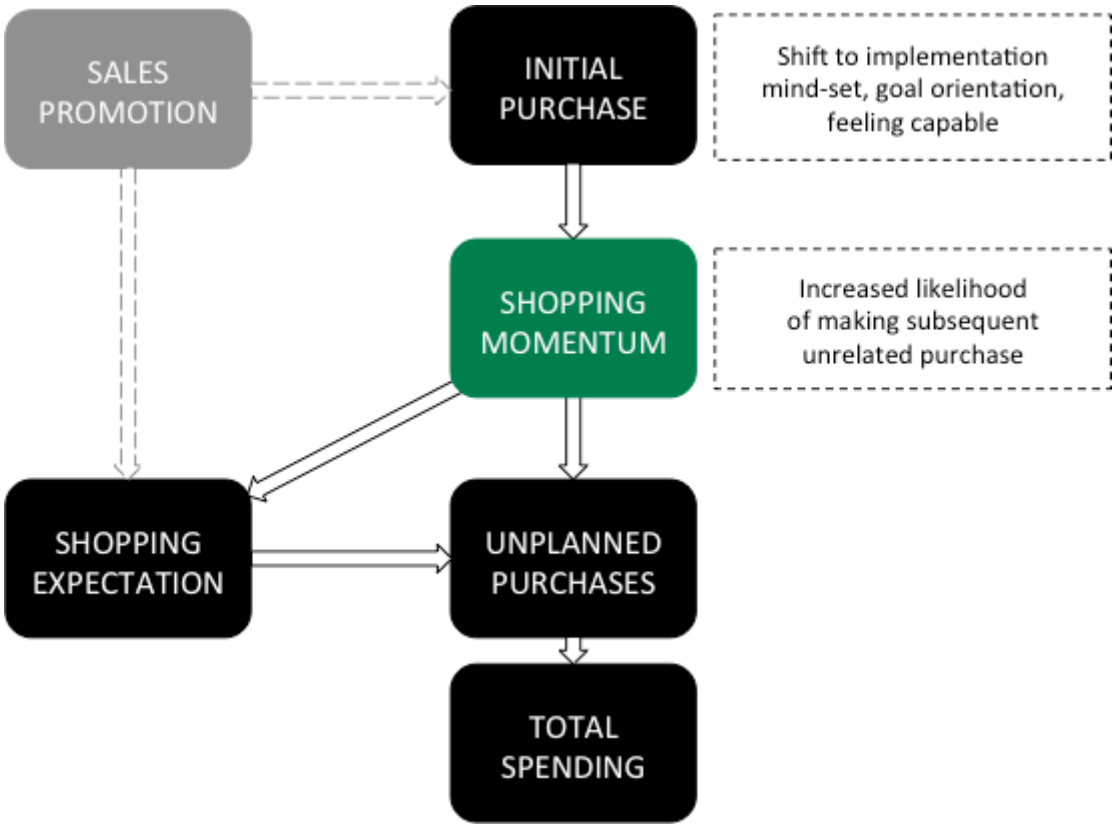

Figure 5 Authors' own construction of the Shopping Momentum effect in a retail context

5.5.1 Store manager challenge: Create a win-win situation

(Unplanned Purchases, Total Spending, Shopping Expectation and Mood)

Customers today largely feel that grocery shopping is difficult and filled with several and often, contradicting demands, making the hypermarket visit a necessary evil. By presenting customers with an attractive offer or a smart bargain immediately when they enter the store, store managers can help off some of this irresoluteness in-store. This initial purchase commitment makes the shopper feel more capable and optimistic in reaching her goals (Dhar et al., 2007). The customer who experiences the Shopping Momentum effect does not only expect the shopping trip to be less difficult but she also expects to enjoy it to a greater extent. Thus, while helping the customer succeeding with her shopping goals, a retail manager can experience increased sales at a basket level. If store managers can increase the shopping efficiency and thereby increase the share of time spent acquiring merchandise, not just browsing for goods, it is more likely the customer uses her in-store slack. To enable this to happen, store managers should time an attractive offer at the store entrance in order to enable customers to feel like smart shoppers while simultaneously reducing their barriers to action in the rest of the store.

By having customers experiencing Shopping Momentum early in-store, store managers are also able to increase the number of subsequent unplanned purchases. These unplanned purchases play an important role in the hedonic value of shopping for customers. Also, customers who cannot find opportunities to spend their in-store slack might leave the store disappointed and frustrated (Stilley et al., 2010). Store managers who succeed in creating Shopping Momentum early on can provide customer with more opportunities to make unplanned purchases later in the store and thus absorb a higher share of customers' in-store slack and mental budgets.

Stores should try to satisfy customers' paradoxical demands for utilitarian and hedonic value (Wikström et al., 2010), by providing them with an unshakable self-confidence when entering the store. At present, stores are not sure whether they should "fool" customer to shop as many aisles as possible perhaps inducing an unplanned purchase, or improve their efficiency in-store. Instead, if customers are to spend more in-store while also expecting to have more fun and feel as more competent shoppers, stores should take the opportunity to form the mutual benefits of the Shopping Momentum effect.

5.5.2 Shopping Momentum in-store: Make the right choices

(Initial Purchase)

To evoke the first step, the *Initial Purchase*, the authors suggest careful planning of the Sales Promotion. Dhar et al. (2007) used an attractive product at a discounted price as an enabler for Shopping Momentum. Their advice was also to not use a gift or a product with a too deep discount, as these features will not induce the effect. The present study extends their findings by adapting them to a retail environment. This study recognizes that ensuring a product to indeed evoke Shopping Momentum in-store require several measures. Firstly, the driver item is competing with the numerous other in-store messages trying to get the customer's attention. Therefore, how the product is presented is of paramount importance. At the store entrance the focus of the shopper is not solely on the actual purchasing but also to locate oneself, to find a shopping cart, and possibly to see to that the accompanying children are content. In other words, a product offer at the store entrance needs to be easy to notice and the purchase decision needs to be easy to take. Displaying too many products, for example, may confuse the shopper and thus lead to a passive response. In the present study a pilot experiment was executed using a dinner suggestion driver, displaying the multiple products used to cook pasta with meat sauce. The display did not attract enough shoppers and the probable explanation is that the purchase decision was too complex when timed at the entry point of the customer shopping tour (Ekström, 2012).

Another possibility is to let the initial purchased be spurred by a typical impulse purchase good, for instance "guilty pleasures", such as chocolate, candy, or chewing gum. These are thought by the authors of the original study to be less successful at inducing momentum, as they might activate customers' resistance to additional purchases by spontaneously reminding them of higher priority goals (Dhar et al, 2007; Fishbach, et al. 2003). However, this study suggests the usage of chocolate does not have such an effect in an actual retail environment. Rather, the very first purchase taking place is much more important. Customers appreciate the feeling of having made a bargain, purchased a premium brand to a reduced price or simply the accessibility and ease of grabbing the promotion – much more than regretting having bought a guilty pleasure.

5.5.3 Shopping Momentum in-store: Problematization

(Total Spending)

The ability of the sales promotion to produce shopping value, enjoyment and smart shopper feelings is a crucial threshold for the Shopping Momentum effect. The driver item needs to provide a pleasant surprise and offer the customer something that adds value to her regular shopping list. But how can store managers provide delight to customers that might visit the store everyday? Store managers need to acknowledge customers who only pop into the store for a fill-in trip as well as regular, weekly shoppers. In order for the initial purchase to induce the Shopping Momentum effect the initial driver needs to be perceived as attractive, which might not be the case for the shopper who has been welcomed by a chocolate bar, four evenings in a row. The ideal solution to the problem would be if the promotional offer could be personalized. One way of doing this is to use digital devices. In fact, most customers carry around one of these already – the smartphone. With the use of digital mobile solutions, such as the geo-tag function used in mobile phone applications, the customer can check in at the store letting the store know she is there and consequently receive the offer of the day. Thereby, the store manager could ensure that the shopper is exposed to a new offer each time she arrives, so that the driver item always provides a pleasant surprise. An important difference from regular advertising is that the mobile offer would have to induce an actual purchase in order for the shopper to experience the Shopping Momentum effect.

Customers demand opportunities to make spontaneous purchases but there is a fine line between feeling inspired and feeling as if the store manager is trying to make you buy something. A general concern among people is that marketing is used by companies to manipulate their customers to spend more money. People are aware that in-store marketing techniques are used to spur impulse purchases. That candy is displayed next to the cashier and if you are only there to pick up a forgotten dairy product all other aisles need to be passed, were issues brought up by a focus group in the present study. A slight sign of irritation and a sound of agreement among the participants appeared when one of them stated; "*No matter what you do the milk always costs you 100 SEK*". Although the present study did not give any indications that people who purchased the initial price promotion felt manipulated the issue still needs to be brought to the table. It has been previously shown that customers who become consciously aware of and feel

influenced by the in-store communication believe that they are going to spend more than they had planned. In the end they tend to spend less, due to feelings of loss control over their personal expenditures (Nordfält, 2012). The in-store marketing effectiveness must be balanced so that it does influence customers' behavior but without being too apparent or interrupting. If the driver of the initial purchase is perceived in the wrong way, there is a risk that the attempt to induce the positive effects of Shopping Momentum takes a wrong turn. When bearing these aspects in mind, retailer managers should consider the risk of tiring, their customers.

Our study suggested that customers who experience the Shopping Momentum effect and thus feel more capable and in more control, spend more money than those who did not experience the Shopping Momentum effect. A potential risk of customers constantly exceeding one's budget may be feelings of lost control, regrets and anxiousness. In that case the benefits from shifting to an implementation mid-set may be reset. Taken to the extreme, increasing the amount spent at a basket level could be achieved at the expense of a decreased frequency of visit, hence with the risk of lowering the total turnover.

5.5.4 Shopping Momentum: *Extending the effect*

5.5.4.1 Shopping Momentum effect extended inside the store

As mentioned, the Shopping Momentum effect is assumed to be a short-lived impulse and to require constant reminders and new purchases in order for the effect to be sustained. Two main threats to experience shopper flow in-store consider navigations and choice (Sorensen, 2009). Firstly, the customer needs to find what she is looking for without having to shop several aisles. Secondly, when facing the right product aisle, she needs to know which product to pick. Struggling with these two hindrances, the shopping value clearly diminishes. Therefore, in order for store managers to ensure a continuous feeling of capability and goal-orientation, these should be addressed with appropriate guiding tools. Ideally, the customer should feel that she can be guided to her products on her shopping list, while simultaneously being faced with for her relevant, inspiring promotions she can take action on if she feels for it. The solution to this challenge is simple but far from easy to implement; ensure you as a store manager know a lot about her individual preferences and buying patterns. Also here the smartphone can act as the retailer's rescuer. The device could be used to provide individually adapted offers when the customer walks around in the store, and also, provide them at the exact right moment. The message might be important, but the supermarket

environment particularly put emphasis on timing, as suggested by the results of manipulating the placing of the special display. The supermarket shopper is, unlike many other media, not mainly oriented towards the in-store medium itself but uses a 360-degree orientation, meaning that they rapidly change their span of attention (Sorensen 2009). Thus, store managers should take advantage of media such as mobile devices which accompanies customers whatever direction they may take in-store – through GPS-tracking, geo-tagging or Bluetooth positioning through mobiles, it is possible to know the exact aisle position of the customer. As long as these interactions occurs with the permission of the customer, these marketing efforts are actually also perceived as less obtrusive than other marketing (Dahlén, Lange & Smith, 2010).

5.5.4.2 Shopping Momentum effect extended outside the store

The positive effects the Shopping Momentum effect causes for both customers and retailers *in-store* might be evident, but what about when the customer leaves the store in question? Many stores are situated in clusters, such as in shopping malls or retail centers. If the Shopping Momentum effect can be preserved inside the store, could the effect also stay with the customer during the movement *between* stores? In order words, do purchases in one store affect the likelihood to purchase something in a store located nearby? If so, this would imply that shopping malls could benefit from cooperating in-between stores to increase their own store sales, while also making the customer more efficient in covering all her shopping needs. Dhar et al. (2007) suggests that the Shopping Momentum effect can be disrupted if the initial purchase requires a payment before another purchase opportunity is presented. In other words, the waiting in line and paying for the purchases in the first store may influence the transferability of the effect to other stores. If the payment is the obstacle that eliminates the Shopping Momentum effect modern retailers need to consider alternatives to make the payment smoother. When the payment requirement is not as apparent the shopper continues to focus on its shopping goals. For example if the shopper could purchase items from a cluster of different stores and put everything in the same basket and not be asked to pay until the very end, the Shopping Momentum effect could possibly be transferred from store to store. This idea could be further extended to also cover clusters of e-tailers or mobile shopping, where the opportunities to create convenient payment methods are extensive.

5.5.5 Conclusions on store manager challenges related to Shopping Momentum

Store managers face four main areas of challenges when crafting strategies to a Shopping Momentum effect:

1. Creating a win-win situation along with the customer;
2. Making the right choice of sales promotion;
3. Handling the effect in-store, and
4. Exploring the benefits of the Shopping Momentum in a wider context.

It is evident that an understanding of the Shopper Momentum dynamics when realized in-store enables store managers to meet the challenges of in-store marketing in a more structured and intelligent way. It is also clear that the success of the Shopping Momentum effect depends largely on a mutual agreement with the customer and that store managers need to stay on their toes to be updated and synchronized with the many and nuanced customer demands.

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Jens Nordfält, Associate Professor and Dean Nordic School of Retail Management 2012-02-17

Fredrik Wallner & Tommy Åkerblom, Code Concept design, 2012-04-05

Peter Ekström, Head of Store Development, Coop 2012-05-04

7 APPENDIX

7.1 Questionnaire

1. On a scale from 1-7, where 1 is very bad and 7 is very good what is your general mood at the moment?
2. On a scale from 1-7,where 1 is not at all and 7 is very much how fun do you expect this shopping trip to be?
3. On a scale from 1-7,where 1 is not at all and 7 is very sure, how sure are you of exact what products you will purchase during this shopping trip?
4. Approximately how much are you planning on spending today?
5. What is your purpose of today's shopping – fill in trip, weekly shopping or for a special occasion?
6. On a scale from 1-7,where 1 is very and 7 is not at all, how difficult do you expect this shopping trip to be?
7. On a scale from 1-7, where 1 is not at all and 7 is very, how much value for money do you perceive this store to offer?
8. On a scale from 1-7, where 1 is very low and 7 is very high, how do you perceive the level of quality of this store?

7.2 Customer receipt sample

Vara		Brand	Strl.	Enhet	Oms SEK InM	Oms Styck
Total					305,05	19
4009900443203	STRAWBERRY PEACH	EXTRA	0,03	Kg	10,00	1
4009900443227	POMEGRANAT BLUEBERR	EXTRA	0,03	Kg	10,00	1
7310511216405	SCHWEIZER NÖT	MARABOU	0,2	Kg	28,00	2
7310865001276	PUCKO EXTRA KAKAO	PUCKO	1	Liter	20,00	2
7310865066121	LÄTTYOGH MILD CITRO	ARLA KO	1	Liter	74,75	5
7311379532058	KORVBRÖD 16P ALL	KORVBRÖDS BAGARN	0,432	Kg	21,50	1
7315550212340	DAMMSUGARE GOB	GODBITEN	0,17	Kg	10,00	1
7340011321378	DRICKYOG JORDGUBB	Coop	0,35	Liter	18,00	2
7340011321385	DRICKYOG PERS/PASSI	Coop	0,35	Liter	9,00	1
7340011321392	DRICKYOG SKOGSBÄR	Coop	0,35	Liter	9,00	1
7393144011050	Frm: KALASWIENER	0	0	Ukendt	49,90	1
7393144011166	Frm: GRILLKORV	0	0	Ukendt	44,90	1

({Tid på dag - time} = 21) och ({Kvitto Nr} = 95317)

7.3 Questionnaire differences per store

STORE COMPARISON

Variable	Mean Store 2	Mean Store 1	Mean Difference	p-value
Difficulty	3,17	2,55	0,62	0,569
Enjoyment	3,69	3,58	0,11	0,749
Mood	4,86	5,10	-0,24	0,569
Value for Money	4,62	4,52	0,10	0,235
Quality	5,14	5,19	-0,05	0,861
Budget	706,90	569,35	137,55	0,398
Planned	5,23	5,03	0,20	0,160
	n=30	n=30		

7.4 Two-Way ANOVA interaction effect between Store and initial purchase for dependent variables

7.4.1 Amount of unique unplanned purchases

Unique Promotions	F	p value	Partial ETA square
STORE	.133	.716	.000
INITIAL PURCHASE	8.725	.003	.019
STORE * INITIAL PURCHASE	.760	.384	.002

STORE	INITIAL PURCHASE	Mean	N
1	SM Customer	1.14	139
	Non-Buyer	.80	85
	Total	1.01	224
2	SM Customer	1.22	160
	Non-Buyer	.60	65
	Total	1.04	225
Total	SM Customer	1.18	299
	Non-Buyer	.71	150
	Total	1.02	449

7.4.2 Amount of unplanned items

Total Promotions	F	p value	Partial ETA square
STORE	.829	.363	.002
INITIAL PURCHASE	7.864	.005	.017
STORE * INITIAL PURCHASE	.826	.364	.002

STORE	INITIAL PURCHASE	Mean	N
1	SM Customer	45.8285	139
	Non-Buyer	32.0341	85
	Total	40.5940	224
2	SM Customer	45.8176	160
	Non-Buyer	18.7926	65
	Total	38.0104	225
Total	SM Customer	45.8227	299
	Non-Buyer	26.2961	150
	Total	39.2993	449

7.4.3 Total amount spent on unplanned purchases

Spent on Promotions	F	p value	Partial ETA square
STORE	.481	.488	.001
INITIAL PURCHASE	9.320	.002	.021
STORE * INITIAL PURCHASE	.574	.449	.001

STORE	INITIAL PURCHASE	Mean	N
1	SM Customer	1.78	139
	Non-Buyer	1.18	85
	Total	1.55	224
2	SM Customer	1.79	160
	Non-Buyer	.80	64
	Total	1.51	224
Total	SM Customer	1.79	299
	Non-Buyer	1.01	149
	Total	1.53	448

7.4.4 Total spending

Total Spending	F	p value	Partial ETA square
STORE	44.678	.000	.048
INITIAL PURCHASE	5.246	.022	.006
STORE * INITIAL PURCHASE	2.332	.127	.003

STORE	INITIAL PURCHASE	Mean	N
1	SM Customer	667.01	139
	Non-Buyer	637.91	318
	Total	646.76	457
2	SM Customer	470.41	161
	Non-Buyer	324.88	280
	Total	378.01	441
Total	SM Customer	561.50	300
	Non-Buyer	491.34	598
	Total	514.78	898

7.4.5 Total products purchased

Total Items	F	p value	Partial ETA square
STORE	36.203	.000	.039
INITIAL PURCHASE	4.398	.036	.005
STORE * INITIAL PURCHASE	1.423	.233	.002

STORE	INITIAL PURCHASE	Mean	N
1	SM Customer	24.01	139
	Non-Buyer	22.89	318
	Total	23.23	457
2	SM Customer	18.06	161
	Non-Buyer	14.01	280
	Total	15.49	441
Total	SM Customer	20.82	300
	Non-Buyer	18.73	598
	Total	19.43	898

7.5 T-tests sales data Store 1

Store 1

Variable	Mean SM Customer	Mean Non-Buyer	Mean Difference	p-value
Unique Promotions	1,22	0,6	0,62	0,008
Promotion Items	1,79	0,8	0,99	0,002
Total Promotion	45,82	18,8	27,02	0,001
Total Spending	470,42	324,89	145,53	0,000
Total Items	18,06	14,01	4,05	0,000
	n=161	n=280		

7.6 T-tests sales data Store 2

Store 2

Variable	Mean SM Customer	Mean Non-Buyer	Mean Difference	p-value
Unique Promotions	1,14	0,8	0,34	0,089
Promotion Items	1,78	1,18	0,6	0,057
Total Promotion	45,83	32,03	13,8	0,162
Total Spending	667,01	637,91	29,1	0,651
Total Items	24,01	22,89	1,12	0,583
	n=139	n=318		

7.7 Manipulation Check

Variable	Mean Marabou	Mean Chocolate	Mean Difference	p-value
Total Spending	310,8	340,3	-29,5	0,596
Amount of products	12,27	13,47	-1,20	0,777
17 January and 13 March	n=73	n=100		