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Health Choice

A concept of the future

Guiding customers towards healthier alternatives

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Abstract

Title	Health Choice, a concept of the future - <i>Guiding customers towards healthier alternatives</i>
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Keywords	Point of purchase, Healthy varieties, Markings, Signs, Buying behaviour
Purpose	To find out in what ways signs of healthier varieties in store, affect and possible change, customer behaviour.
Methodology	The study has a positivistic view on the world. The research is conducted by an abductive approach using theory and empirical data alternately. Both quantitative and qualitative methods have been adopted in order to see changes in customer behaviour as well as explain it.
Theoretical perspective	The study is based upon theories in the areas of customer behaviour (buying behaviour and decision making) and the store environment that could affect that behaviour (total merchandise process and point of purchase communication). The theoretical chapter is summarised with a modified AIDA-model.
Empirical foundation	By using a quantitative method (sales data) we aimed to find out whether or not our signs affected the customers behaviour. With qualitative methods (customer interviews and observations) we aimed to strengthen the data from the quantitative method as well as to explore the meaning of the customers' behaviour.
Conclusions	By putting forward four products as a healthier alternative in the bread section, we succeeded in increasing the sale of three of them. We did not change the customers' behaviour from choosing "unhealthy bread" to instead choosing a "healthy bread". We did however change some people's behaviour from buying one "healthy bread" to another also "healthy bread". There is a big interest for health and markings of healthier alternatives, but customers buy bread because of taste, and not just because of the healthiness. We found that it is easier to influence younger people (since they often have a few breads they chose between) than elderly (which buy the same bread out of habit). Some people are not available for receiving an external stimulus in the store, since they are "bound" to another product (for example buying a product for someone else or because of satisfied habit).

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TO BUY OR NOT TO BUY

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THAT IS THE QUESTION

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1 Introduction

This chapter will introduce the topic of the thesis by giving a background review and a problem discussion, which will result in a knowledge gap. The following part will discuss the research purpose, question and study's target group. Finally the thesis will bring into account terminology and the disposition of the thesis.

1.1 Background

In recent years obesity has increased among the population in Sweden (Svenska Dagbladet, 2006). Diseases such as cancer, diabetes, mellitus, osteoporosis as well as dental problems, are other effects of bad health that has become more common in today's society (Zandstra et al, 2001). During the past years, a more time-pressured society has emerged (Underhill, 2003). This has resulted in irregular food habits, fast food and increase of different types of diet methods, thus it is clear that customers need help in choosing healthy varieties in store. Although we cook the meal ourselves more seldom than before, the society is experiencing a growing interest of eating healthier (Hufvudstadsbladet 2005). Due to increases in diseases combined with bad food habits, health have been brought into focus in this thesis.

1.1.1 Bread trends

An increasingly upcoming issue in media has been the debate about the growing trend in wholemeal products such as pasta, cookies, cereals and bread. Wholemeal provides a feeling of satisfaction, which in turn can lead to less intake of food. Additional, research has showed that it has a positive effect on heart diseases and the stomach as it lowers the risk of constipation (Interview, Bryngelsson). Furthermore, recommendation to eat several slices of bread daily (Ica Kuriren 2005) has been given, thus it can be seen as a key nourishment of the intake of food. This thesis has brought a focal point on bread.

According to Therese Schultz (Interview, Schultz), a growing trend in bake-off bread and healthy bread can be distinguished in the marketplace. This view was strengthened by Michal Wieloch (Interview, Wieloch) as he claims that coarse bread as well as freshly baked bread has high demand in his store (ICA Supermarket, Jätten). In addition, flavoured bread, such as olive, herbs and tomato has also increased in demand.

Furthermore, Wieloch (Interview, Wieloch) has pointed out that demand of bread differ depending on geographic location. In Lund for instance, there are usually high demand of white and sliced bread since the consumers get a lot for the money (referring to all the students, with a limited budget, doing their grocery shopping in Lund), while there is a there are a high demand of healthy bread in general in Trelleborg. (Interview, Wieloch) The most influencing factor when it comes to bread trends is foremost media, for example newspapers that enlarge medical studies to sell more issues. The grocery store is directly influenced by what is said in media especially when it comes to diseases such as the bird flu and peoples consumption of chicken. (Interview, Wieloch)

1.1.2 Existing bread markings

At almost any bread section today, the types of bread are getting more and more, which makes it difficult to make a distinction between healthy and unhealthy breads. The two most common types of markings are present in the marketplace which aims to distinguish healthiness in bread products. These are the keyhole mark and wholemeal contents. The Keyhole mark has been developed by Livsmedelsverket, which has decided on one set of content rules per product group concerning the contents of fat, fibre, sugar and salt. The two latter have recently been enclosed, which follows the new regulations of 2006 (see Appendix I. The Keyhole marking). The bread that has got a keyhole mark is seen as healthy for the general public. (Interview, Schultz) According to a study by Higginson et al (2002) fat is the most frequently looked at type of nutrition label information during healthy food choice followed by energy. This shows an importance of ingredient awareness. Wholemeal, however, is an ingredient the bakery industry uses to determine the healthiness of their bread. If the bread contains more than 50percent percent wholemeal, it can be named wholemeal bread. Although it should be remembered that nobody knows exactly what and why wholemeal is healthy for (Interview, Schultz).

During the recent years GI symbol and “Gott Liv” (developed and sold by ICA) markings have been developed in the marketplace to help customers to choose healthy varieties in store. The former is related to the GI – diet, which main purpose is to keep the blood sugar low (ABC science online, 2002). If this could be attained, he or she will minimise the desire of food, which in turn leads to less intake of food (hunger). However, the blood sugar level will be in balance with is good for the body. The bakery industry has implemented the GI symbol on bread products to assist consumer to buy GI food. The latter, Gott Liv, is a new concept that has been implemented visual on ICA’s own products. It consists of a system of circles containing five circles. Each circle has a colour and a purpose, for instance the orange circle means energy and show the actual energy content in the product. Pink however, show the percentage of sugar while dark blue show the percentage of fat. Light blue show salt and black fibre. Customers attain quick information about what the product contains in terms of sugar, salt, fat, fibre and energy. This will assist them to easier make a healthy choice. (ICA, 2006)

Research has showed that four out of ten Swedish inhabitants still are confused and have difficulties to distinguish between healthy and unhealthy breads (Brödinstitutet, 2005). Therefore one could clearly see a need in the market to apply methods that make it easier to distinguish and thereby choose healthy varieties. By knowing which problems and decisions the customer is facing during this time of confusion (i.e. in the store at the point of purchase) both the retailer and the manufacturer can make the process of choosing healthier alternatives, easier.

1.1.3 Point-of-Purchase

The majority of experts and practitioners within the area of retail marketing agree on the fact that most purchase decisions are made in the store. POPAI (Point of Purchase Advertising Institute) claims that this number is 75 percent (Derrick, 2005), while other researchers claim that the percentage is as high as 90 percent (*Special report – point of purchase: find out what’s in the store*, 2005). When the customer is in the grocery store, it is claimed that a brand has four to six seconds to convince the customer to buy their product (Underhill, 2000; Derrick, 2005). There are many factors that can affect this figure (for example type of industry or retail store), but still one fact stands; it is important for the brand owner to get the

customers' attention and interest, in the store. By knowing the target groups needs and wants this challenge can be turned into a profitable opportunity instead.

Point of purchase or point of sale, is the location and the time where the transaction occurs. This phenomenon gives the marketer an opportunity to reach the customer at a moment when he or she is at the same place as the good, or service, the money and the buying intention. The fact that the customer is in the store to make a purchase means that they are more receivable for information about products, i.e. do not ignore the advertisement noise in the same way as outside of the store. Depending on the placement in the store, the customer is in a more or less receivable mood for advertisements (Adams, 2004).

According to Fill (2002) point of purchase-advertising is a good way for marketers to attract attention with the customers and provide information. The ability to persuade the customer to buy a product at this moment is very strong, since they are devoted to their shopping. The goal of this kind of advertisement is either to persuade the customer to buy the product at that moment (unplanned or impulse purchase) or to create awareness with the customer so that they will chose the particular brand the next time they come in contact with it (Adams, 2004).

Point of purchase advertising has the advantage of being a cheap and flexible way of marketing a product. Often the advertisement only consists of a few pieces of cardboard, which is easy to replace when a company wants to change the marketing campaign. This cheap, yet very effective way of reaching the customer has been noticed by the marketers, but not the researchers, which means that the area is still pretty much unexplored within research. (Butler, 2000) The marketers have a tendency only to test their campaigns outside the store, i.e. in an unreal environment. One of the factors influencing the customers' decision making in the store, which is not present in the experimental study, is the in-store advertising clutter. Since point of purchase -advertising is a cheap, yet effective way to reach the customer it is used by most brands today. Considering the large number of brands that exist in the average retail store, it is easy to realise that most brands advertisements are not noticed and considered by the customer. (Fill, 2002)

1.2 Problem discussion

Existing theoretical information and research done within this area of markings and point of purchase signs that promote healthier varieties, is fairly limited and highly concentrated on the American market. Seymour et al (2004) review 38 individual actions that have been taken by different organisations all over the US to influence people to change their shopping habits (and lifestyle) to buy healthier alternatives (for example food availability, access, pricing and information at the point of purchase). They found that these actions where most effective when there was few alternatives to chose from in the store. Thus, more effort could be put on attention to that product and point of purchase information. Epstein at al (2006) also examines the effect of price on the decision between buying a healthy and an unhealthier product alternative. They show that the decision whether to buy a healthy or an unhealthy alternative is highly affected by the money available (i.e if the customer can afford it or not). Narhinen et al (2000) have examined the effect that health promotion has on a product, and if this effect was affected if a cheaper alternative was promoted next to it. The health content that was promoted was salt and saturated fat. The results showed sales variations in both the health promoted product, as well as on the commercial promoted product. When the competitive

“not healthy” product was actively promoted, the sale of the healthy alternative decreased significantly.

The existing practical usage of point of purchase health promotions is concentrated to markings on the products. Livsmedelsverket owns the Swedish concept the Keyhole, which is placed on products that meet certain health criteria (see Appendix I The Keyhole marking). ICA has their own concept, Gott Liv that meets certain criteria of healthiness, which also are promoted numerically on the product (ICA, 2006). In UK the Food Standards Agency tried to introduce a consistent health labelling of processed foods that put forward the salt, fat and sugar content in the product. This project has however experienced difficulties since Tesco, together with the five largest manufacturers, have said that they will not implement this system. They say that customer research has shown that it is too complicated for the customers to understand. (Lawrence, 2006) Other examples of health markings on products are “GI-index”, and the more general terms like “wholemeal bread” (see Appendix II Interview with Susanne Bryngelsson and Appendix III Interview with Therese Schultz) and no added sugar. Although there are many health marking available in today’s marketplace seven out of ten have difficulties to find healthy food in a store (ICA Nyheter, 2006). There is a conflict between different brands that all want to have the best and most attractive marking on their products. By all brands having their own marking, there is no surprise that customers are confused and get paralysed in the store. There is research conducted that show peoples’ great interest in a healthier eating, but people in today’s fast moving society do not have time to examine every product available to them in the store in order to find the best suited alternative. Society today pressure people to do more things then they have time with, which results in attempts from the people side to reduce time spent on each task. Customers therefore need help in the store to find the products that they need, fast and easy (Underhill, 2003). They want to get the best alternative served to them on a platter, so that they can move on to the next thing that has to be done or purchased. One solution to avoid the complexity, that for example Traffic Light System has been criticised for, is to serve the customer this product by marking the healthiest alternative in a product category. Additionally this should be done in a noticeable way in the store.

The authors of the thesis are interested in finding out whether it is possible to make the customers buy healthier varieties by marking these in the store. After doing research on the subject, the authors draw the conclusion that little is known about marking healthy varieties in store (and not on the product), and possible customers’ behaviour and attitudes in relation to these markings. The authors aim was to *contribute* with a *practical solution* and test it to this difficulty to find a healthier alternative in a grocery store, during the pressure from today’s society. This solution is searched for by the industry. Tesco has tried to find more simple solutions to promote the healthier products. In Sweden the in-store marketing company Retail House is trying to find new ways to change customers “unhealthy” shopping into a healthier lifestyle through promotion in store.

The theoretical contribution of this study is focused on the customers behaviour when being subjected to “yet another point of purchase communication tool”, which is different in the way that it is not trying to promote a specific brand or a product, but is informative and there to help the customer.

A product category that is often mentioned when discussing healthiness is bread. The opinions regarding what is healthy, and what is not healthy, differ depending on who you talk to. The different opinions make it harder for the customer to choose a product, thus this

section of the store is interesting for this study. Clearly there is a need in the marketplace to help the customers in their process of choosing healthy varieties in store.

1.2.1 Research question and purpose

The purpose of this thesis is to explore whether it is possible to influence customers to choose healthier varieties in store, by marking and putting forward healthier bread products. We aim to discover what impact these “healthy signs” has on the customer, in terms of four variables; attention, interest, desire and action. Through these variables we have studied the customers reactions and the degree of attention they have paid to these signs, and if this changes their behaviour.

From background knowledge and problem discussions, the following research question has been developed;

In what ways do signs of healthier varieties in store, affect and possible change, customer behaviour?

1.2.2 Target group

Two target groups. The direct target group is our tutor Ulf Johansson, Retail House, our opponents and the persons who will grade our paper and our opponents. The other target group is more general, and consist of professionals and academically connected individuals (for example academic and other researchers, professional marketers and store owners) who are interested in deeper information on ways to get customers to buy healthier varieties in the store.

1.3 Terminology

Healthy food

With healthy food we do not mean dietary food, but food that contains wholemeal, little or no sugar and fat and are following certain restriction such as the keyhole mark.

Store

The use of the word store will refer to grocery store throughout the thesis. Thus, we do not mean for example department, clothes or technical stores. Retail store however, have also been used in the thesis, however, this refer to retail stores in general.

Customer

The use of customers and consumers has been applied with purpose to differ between the actual buyer (customer), purchasing the product and the one consuming the product (consumer). It should be remembered that the customer could also be a consumer and that a consumer can be a customer. However, since the purpose of the thesis reflects on in store behaviour, the focus has been put on the customers and not the consumers.

1.4 Disposition

Chapter 1 – Introduction

This chapter will introduce the topic of the thesis by giving a background review and problem discussion, which will result in a knowledge gap. The following part will

discuss the research purpose, question and study's target group. Finally the thesis will bring into account terminology and the disposition.

Chapter 2 – Theory

This chapter aims to consider theory about consumer behaviour, decision making process as well as the selling environment. It is through these models that the quantitative and qualitative data has been analysed. The chapter ends with an adapted version of the AIDA-model that is better suited for the purpose of this study.

Chapter 3 – Methodology

This chapter aims to describe how this study has been conducted. First a review of theoretical consideration will be made. Then the work process, with preparation, data collection and data analysis will be summarised. Finally we will criticise the overall methodology and the methods used.

Chapter 4 – Empirical Data and Analysis

This chapter will present the compiled empirical data collected from the sales statistics, qualitative customer interviews as well as through observations. This data will then be analysed through the theoretical framework presented in chapter two. As a finish touch an extended AIDA-model will be presented.

Chapter 5 – Discussion

This chapter will first summarize the results from received from the study. These results will then be discussed and a few conclusions will be made. The discussion will also lead to some managerial implications as well as recommendations for future research.

Appendix

This appendix will provide the reader with further information about the Keyhole, and the interviews conducted with the industry that is referenced to in the text. The reader will also find the questions that were asked the customers (in Swedish and English) here, with different figures of the store.

2 Theory

This chapter aims to consider theory about consumer behaviour, decision making process as well as the selling environment. It is through these models that the quantitative and qualitative data has been analysed. The chapter ends with an adapted version of the AIDA-model that is better suited for the purpose of this study.

2.1 Consumer buying behaviour

In order to attain understanding of the underlying meaning of consumer behaviour, we find it essential to consider theory about consumer buying behaviour in greater terms. According to Kotler and Armstrong (2005) consumer buying behaviour refers to individuals and households who buy goods and services for personal consumption. This knowledge has been interrelated, which in turn has been essential when developing and evaluating the collection of primary data.

2.1.1 Stimulus-Response Model of Buyer Behaviour

In order to gain greater understanding and knowledge of consumer behaviour the *Stimulus-Response Model of Buyer Behaviour* has been illustrated below (see Figure 1 - Stimulus-Response Model of Buying Behaviour). This shows an understanding of how the stimuli are changed into responses inside the consumer's black box. The stimuli contain the four Ps and other major forces in the buyer's environment, such as economical, technological, political and cultural factors. All these inputs enter the buyer's black box, where they are turned into a set of observable buyers' responses such as product choice, brand choice, dealer choice, purchase timing and purchase amount. The black box however, contains two parts, *Buying Characteristics* and *Buying Decision Process*. The former deals with influences of how consumers perceive and reacts to the stimuli, while the latter affects the buying behaviour itself (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005). These will be further discussed in next section.

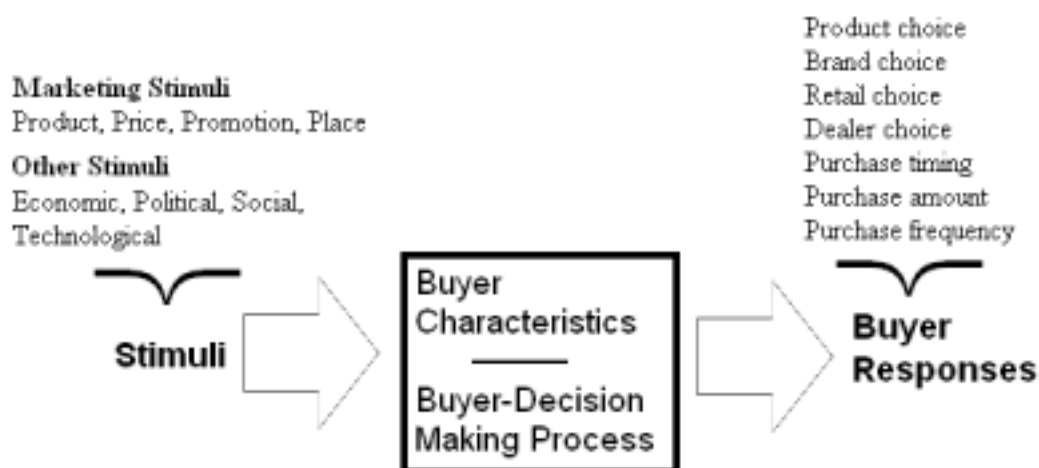


Figure 1 - Stimulus-Response Model of Buying Behaviour

2.1.2 Buyer characteristics

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2005), there are four factors influencing and affecting consumer behaviour, these are: Cultural, Social, Personal and Psychological factors. It is arguable that cultural, social and personal factors influence the buyer to buy healthy varieties in store. Hence one could claim that the healthy shopper has been influenced by characteristics, such as cultural, social and personal factors. The psychological factors motivation, perception, learning and belief and attitudes will be considered in more depth below, as the researchers find these areas most essential in relation to the focus of the study. Thus, it is arguable that psychological factors have a greater relevance in this thesis since it aims to explore whether it is possible to influence customers to choose healthier varieties in store.

Motivation

If consumers have high motivation they are more likely to engage in behaviours relevant to their goals (Hoyer and MacInnis, 2001). Nevertheless, motivation usually arises from a need that aims to be satisfied (Dubois, 2000). An example of this is, if a person is on a diet, then he or she is more likely to buy healthier products, since they have high motivation to loose weight. Hence, motivation affects how consumer process information and make decision (MacInnis et al, 1989)

Needs has been distinguish by many different researchers; for example Foxall and Goldsmith's multidimensional approach. This approach reflects changes in values and spending power and typically gives more attention to higher order (Foxall and Goldsmith, 1994).

1. *Physiological needs* (need for things that the consumer needs in its daily life)
2. *Social needs* (need for things that do not only satisfy a functional need, but also symbolises belonging in some social group or signals the user's social relation.)
3. *Symbolic needs* (need for things that signals out the users achievement, success or power)
4. *Hedonic needs* (sensory benefits, for example taste or smell)
5. *Cognitive needs* (the need for knowledge which results in search for information in for example books or from the personnel in a store.)
6. *Experiential needs* (need for consuming because of the felling the consumer gets when using the product or service, i.e. producing desired emotions)

Bread can be seen as psychological need as well as experimental need. This is because human beings need food for survival hence bread is seen as purely food. The reason why bread (or healthy bread, which is the matter in this context) can be seen as experimental need is because it makes consumers feel in a special way (McGoldrick, 2002), they might obtain a feeling of being healthy.

Involvement, which is based on the relationship between the consumer and a particular product category, is a state of motivation. Usually, it is stimulated by an object or a specific situation and brings certain types of behaviour, forms of search activities, information processing and decision making. (Dubois, 2000) Since grocery products often have low involvement, it is arguable that bread also has low involvement.

Perception

What customers buy does not only depend on their motivation but also on the nature of products and services available in their environment (Dubois, 2000). Perception is the process by which people select, organise and interpret information to form a meaningful picture of the world (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005).

Since it is impossible for a person to pay attention to all the stimuli that he or she is exposed to daily, they have selective attention. Therefore, it is of major importance for the marketers to attract consumer attention (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005).

Sensation is a major part of perception according to Dubois (2000) and consists of two variables: threshold and exposure. The first, can be related to the following question; *above what intensity of stimulus do we begin to perceive something?* (Dubois 2000), while the latter involves size, intensity, contrast, position, moving, colour etc (Dubois, 2000). Hoyer and MacInnis (2001) argue that consumers perceives through the five senses: smell, vision, hearing, touching and taste. Colour is an extremely important factor in visual perception. Research shows that depending on if a colour is deep or not, it evokes an excitement feeling for the consumer. This theory should therefore be considered due to its relevance when exploring on what level the healthy signs has affected customers. Hearing is another determining factor to a purchase as familiar music affect moods (Hoyer and MacInnis, 2001). Taste, smell and touch are other factors that easily could affect a purchase, especially unplanned purchases. This will be considered later in this chapter.

Learning

Many of the things that customers buy are simply because of habit, and that they have been learned to do so (Dubois, 2000). Learning theorists say that behaviour is learned and that people learn while acting (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005). According to Pavlov's classical conditioning most leaning is done by associations between stimuli and response. This is often used by for example advertising and product design. Instrumental conditioning says that rewards and punishments are shaping our behaviour. An example of usage of this is loyalty programs. When a person is faced with a new stimulus, they handle this by using generalisation (i.e. when a person uses familiar reference points in order to understand a new phenomenon) and discrimination (i.e. when a person does not use familiar reference points in order to understand a new phenomenon). (Dubois, 2000) Together drives, stimuli, cues, responses and reinforcement interplays and results in learning (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005). Cognitive learning mentions the importance of the thought process when experiencing things. This is practiced by marketing that tries do educate customers into doing something new. The customer and consumers memory is hard to predict since is operates in so many levels according to complicated "rules". The terms of recall and recognition is used to get a deeper understanding of the impact of a message. Recall is when respondents are asked if they remember for example an advertisement that recently has been seen in media. Recognition is when the advertisement is shown to the respondent, and they tell if they have seen it or not. (Dubois, 2000)

Beliefs and Attitudes

This stage is essential since, attitudes affect our behaviour (Hoyer and MacInnis, 2001). Attitude is a person's consistently favourable or unfavourable evaluations, feelings and tendencies toward an object or idea (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005). An example of this is that many people believe that dark bread is healthy, even if it is really not. According to Hoyer and MacInnis (2001) attitudes are based on level of involvement (consumer effort), which has been determined to be either high or low efforts. Low effort signifies that consumer does not

usually form strong beliefs or accessible, persistent, resistant or confident attitudes. Hence low effort consumers do not devote a lot of effort to process the central idea behind an advertisement. However, belief is a descriptive thought that a person holds about something. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005) Belief can be exemplified with the fact that people think that wholemeal is healthy.

If bread is seen as nutrition (psychological need) it is arguable that it has a low consumer effort, as the consumer does not care what type of bread it is as long as it is bread. If bread on the other hand is seen as experimental need, it is arguable that it is high consumer effort, since the consumer does bring to mind the beliefs and values about the “topic” when choosing bread. Due to the fact that this thesis is looking at bread as experimental need, the effort is clearly high. Although it should be remembered that grocery products has low involvement (Conner, 1993).

2.1.3 Decision making

As being discussion in chapter one, we are aiming to explore customers behaviour in relation to markings of healthier varieties in store. In order to do this, one must gain knowledge of the decision making process as well as the decision making unit. This is essential to consider in the development of this study.

2.1.3.1 Decision making process

Decision making process of a purchase that explains the process from when a need occur to actual consumption of a product or a service. Researchers often distinguish planned and unplanned purchases. According to McGoldrick (2002) unplanned purchases have been defined in terms of rapidity of the buying decision, which is influenced by the store environment, price, product characteristics, point of purchase advertising and personnel. Planned purchased however, has a more clear decision making process. Hence the decision making process looks different depending on for example what kind of product that is purchased and how many people are involved in the process of making the decision

The reason why decision making process is relevant is that it brings buyer characteristics to another level. When attained information how customers think, and what they act upon (such as motivation, ability, opportunity – also perception, learning, attitudes) it is also important to know the decision making process. What happen when customer make a purchase? Not only the reason why they do it, but also how they do it as well as influences during the process of decisions.

The buyer decision process consists of five stages (as seen in Figure 2 - Decision Making Process) these are; need recognition, information search, and evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour (Cross L, 1999)

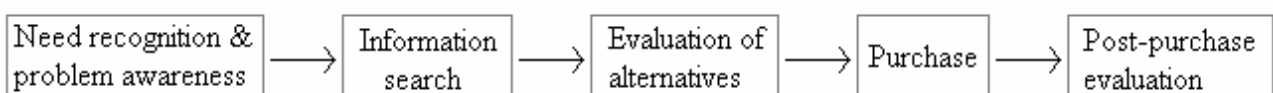


Figure 2 - Decision Making Process

Stage 1 - Need recognition

At this stage the buyer recognises a problem or a need. The need can be triggered by internal and external stimuli (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005). Internal stimuli could be when a person's normal need raises, which has been mentioned earlier. However, external stimuli could for instance be a need for a new hobby. The problem recognition phase is over when a consumer admits the reality of the need and the necessity of a corresponding purchase. Depending on the case priorities previously established can be modified or the shopping list is simply lengthened. (McFall, 1969)

Stage 2 - Information search

The second stage is information search, which contribute the consumers with extensive information about products and services that could fulfil their need or problem. As consumers perceive and gain knowledge from the information, it is arguable that these are the characteristics of buying behaviour that will influence this stage. Typically research information is passive or active. Since consumers are exposed to mass information, they usually filter the information which means that they do not pay attention to all commercial or information there are (Dubois, 2000). In addition to commercial courses, consumers might search from personal-, public- or experiential sources (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005). In turn this information supports the consumer to reach a decision (Cross L, 1999).

Stage 3 - Evaluation of alternatives

During the evaluation of alternatives stage, consumers process the information gathered to arrive at a set of final product choices. How consumers evaluate their alternatives usually depends on the individual consumer and the specific buying situation. Hence, belief and attitudes can be seen as characteristics that influence the evaluation of alternatives. Sometimes consumers use careful calculations and logical thinking, while in other situations they do little or no evaluation but act on impulse or their intuition. Also the decision could be influenced by friends or salespersons. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2005)

Stage 4 - Purchase Decision

After evaluation of alternatives, the consumers usually know what to purchase. According to Kotler and Armstrong (2005) two factors can come between the purchase intention and the purchase decision. These are *attitudes of others* and *unexpected situational factors*. The first refer to other people's opinions of the purchase, which in turn affect the consumer. If the consumer bases the purchase on factors such as income, he or she will be highly influenced if the competitor drops its price, hence this will affect the consumers decision.

Stage 5 - Post-purchase evaluation

The last stage in the decision making process is post-purchase evaluation. Consumption phase leads to a series of reaction which, in turn, can affect latter purchase decisions. The relationship between consumers' expectations and the products perceived performance often determine if the buyer is satisfied or dissatisfied.

2.1.3.2 Decision making unit

Often there is more than one person involved in the decision making process, which is called a *decision making unit* (see Figure 3 - The Decision Making Unit) (Dubois, 2000). This concept points out that the person buying the product (the customer in the store) often is not the person who has taken the purchase decision or is going to be the end user. Some of the roles shown in Figure 3 - The Decision Making Unit) could be occupied by the same person, but the point here is that they in many cases are divided between different people, which

should be taken into consideration when trying to sell a product. The person who is going to use the product does not necessarily have the same needs and wants as the person buying it. It is important to know that a well done customer research in the store does not have to result in a sales increase since the customers in many cases do not make the purchase decision. Usually there is a person who initiated the idea of the purchase, i.e. *the initiator* (Dubois, 2000). This person could for example be the child that discovers that the family has run out of cereals, and therefore discovers an unfulfilled need.

During the decision making process in a decision making unit there is also one, or more, people who influence the purchase in some way, i.e. *an influencer* (Dubois, 2000). This person plays a direct or indirect part in the decision making process, by for example giving advice about brand or quality. This person often has a role as an expert or opinion leader. Then there is one or more *decision makers* who actually make the purchase decision (Dubois, 2000). They are involved in the information search by for example asking the influencer or finding price information in other places. This person, or these persons, evaluate and select for example brand, model and time. This decision depends on for example task dividing in the family or at work, interest and expertise (Park, 1982). Then there is one person who actually makes the transaction happen, i.e. *the buyer* or customer (Dubois, 2000). This is the person who exchanges the product for money. This could for example be the parent who buys food for the entire family. *The end-user*, or the consumer, is the person who makes use of the product and its functions (Dubois, 2000). It is also this person who can evaluate its performance and perhaps initiates a re-purchase or is the influencer in the next buying process.

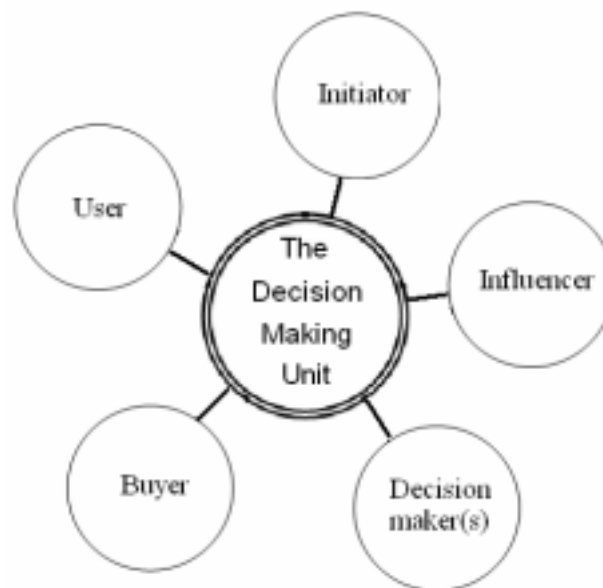


Figure 3 - The Decision Making Unit

When selling grocery products it is important to find out who in the household that makes the decision whether or not to purchase the product that is trying to be sold (Mitchel, 2004). It could for example in a traditional family be the man, the woman or the one of the children. Kenkel and Hoffman (1956) found that many couples has difficulties to describe their respective roles (amount of talking, ideas and suggestions) during a decision making process. After a while the decision making process within a relationship becomes automatic in a way that the participants do not even think of that is happening. There are some ways of solving differences in decision making without having a conflict. When dealing with larger decisions

(like buying a house) it is important first to set down some “minimum requirements” between the spouses, which results in a common goal for the product search. Smaller, more routine decisions could consciously or subconsciously be made depending on task specialisation in the home (i.e if the male takes care of the cooking, he is also responsible for the grocery shopping). The decision making could also be divided according to the importance to the spouse. (Park, 1982) The family purchase decisions are a process that is carried out both in the home as well as in the store. According to Pettersson et al (2004) parents often avoid shopping with their children since they find it stressful and exhausting. Children learn their shopping habits from their parents from an early age, which often means that a persons (or a child’s) shopping routine also reflects their upbringing and taught values. (Pettersson et al 2004) The amount of influence that a child has on the purchase decisions also depends on the product category in which the product is a part of. The opportunity for the child to influence the purchase is for example higher in cereals (Atkin, 1978) then in dinner food.

2.2 *The selling environment and the total visual merchandising process*

Convincing a customer to visit a certain store or buy a specific product is about more than just the product it self. As a customer a person is not aware of how many ways the retailer can affect for example how long you stay in a store, which path you take during your visit and what you buy. Everything around you as a customer affect the way you think and feel. By being able to manipulate these influencing factors, the retailers have much profit to gain. Therefore it is important to have control over the entire retail store. This is why *the selling environment* is becoming a more and more important part of the *Retail Marketing Mix* (McGoldrick, 2002). It is no longer enough to get the customers into the store, but the retailer also wants to keep them there for as long as possible, so that they can interest them in buying more products. Within the concept of selling environment the *Total Visual Merchandising Process* describes the environmental parts that have to be taken into consideration when building and designing a store. According to Figure 4 - The Total Visual Merchandising Process) the Total Visual Merchandising Process consists of four essential parts; store environment design, merchandise presentation, in-store customer communications and consumer senses appeal. If the retailer is working with these parts in a good way the selling environment will be more cost effective, and the store experience for the customer will be more pleasant. (McGoldrick, 2002)

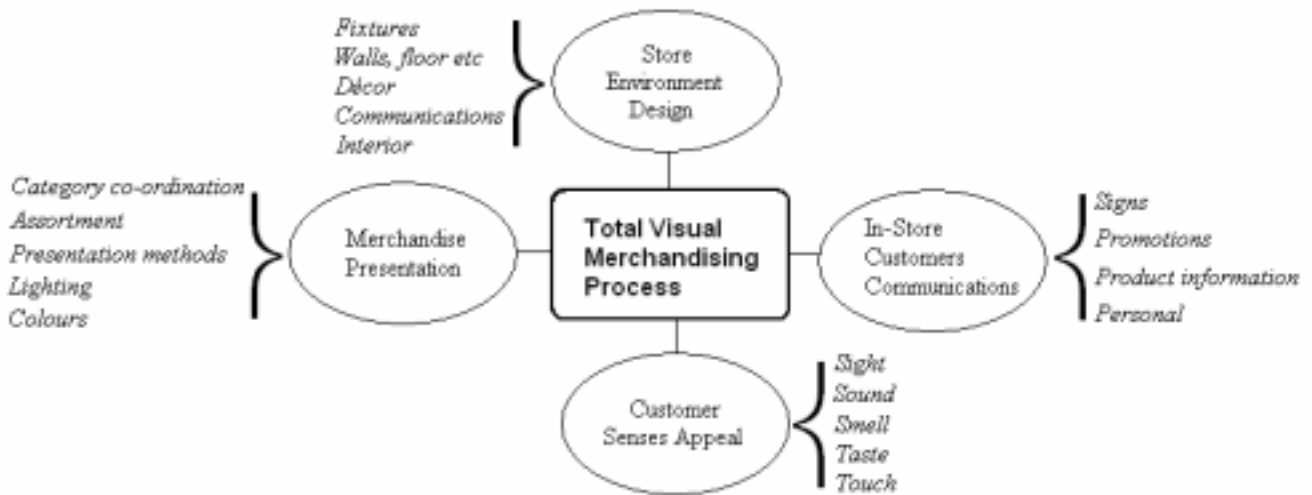


Figure 4 - The Total Visual Merchandising Process

2.2.1 Store environment design

The *Total Visual Merchandising Process* part in store environment is about showing the customer what the store is all about. According to Figure 4 - The Total Visual Merchandising Process), this section is about planning the overall store design, and environment. When looking at a store from the outside, as well as on the inside the customer makes a judgement about the products, and the experience of it. As in all other cases of trying to reaching the customer in ways that the competition can not do, the most vital thing is to get to know the target audience and what their needs and wants are. It is a question of matching the store with the customer. (Marsch, 1999)

First the store design has to fulfil some basic requirements, which the customer is expecting as basic requirements. An example of this is being able to take a shopping trolley around the store without having problems passing gondolas. (McGoldrick, 2002) Second, it is very important that all the store factors influencing the customer, inside and outside the store, all speak the same language (Chadwick, 2003). The store and its design should strengthen customers' thoughts and feeling about the quality of the products sold there (Akhter, 1994). By subjecting the customer to too many different messages (for instance, both quality and high service in a low price self service store), could lead to confusion and a feeling of uneasy. An uncomfortable customer will not enjoy the shopping experience, and therefore not be in a mood to be influenced in other ways, for example advertising in the store. The environment in the store should be a pleasant experience that encourages the customer to stay a bit longer, and buy a little bit more (McGoldrick, 2002), i.e. it should encourage spending. (Marsch, 1999) The store also has to provide the customer with information which strengthens the arguments why this store should be visited, compared to the competitors. (Baker, 1998) According to McGoldrick stores are planned and designed for one intention "to generate profits for the companies owning them by performing as affective selling environments" (McGoldrick, 2002)

By designing the store in a good way, the retailer is able to make the most of the space available, i.e. no wasted and empty areas which solely cost money. It is also possible for the retailer to influence the customer movement, and for example present new products to the customer.

Theories regarding the store design also emphasis on areas within the store where it is hard or easy to attain the customers' attention. Adams (2004) names the first few meters in a store "dead space" since the customers are still adjusting to the new environment and have in turn difficulties to acknowledge certain products and POP at this phase of the store. The retailer should use these areas to present the store concept (McGoldrick, 2002) and make an impression on the customer (Adams, 2004). Another example of useful areas is the gondola ends, which are often used for high demand goods, and other products that pull the customer into the aisle. (McGoldrick, 2002) While manipulating the traffic and customer movement it is important not to overdo this, since the store experience has to be pleasant for the customer as well.

2.2.2 Merchandise and product presentation

In the merchandise presentation part the store layout zooms in more on the details; how the categories, products and other "selling tools" (like in-store information) are organised. The ways in which the goods are presented have a huge effect on customer behaviour, such as their movement and acting.

In retail store the expression "unseen is unsold" is often thought of and lived by, by manufacturers. In order to catch the customers attention at the product category shelf there are two factors more important than others; colour and shelf-placement (Young, 2002). The most popular placement within a product category shelf is usually at or near eye-level. This is the place where the customers most often begin their search for a product. The brand getting most attention at first glance is the one at or near their eye-level, where the product contrasts the most compared to the others on the shelf. (Young, 2002) This "top-spot" is usually occupied by the product category leading brand. The top placement for brands that do not occupy this place is down right from the "top position", since the customers are most likely to move their gaze right and down after having seen the leading brand (just as they do they reading) (Young, 2002) The share of shelf space occupied by a brand is often decided according to its market share. (McGoldrick, 2002) According to Philips & Bradshaw (1993) products that take up more space are more likely to get chosen by the customer since it is more easily spotted and stand out from the rest or the products.

2.2.3 In-store customer communications

Since the competition between brands to reach the attention of the customer is getting tougher a brand only have about six seconds to convince the customer to buy their brand (Derrick, 2005), it is important for the brands to reach the customers while they are making their decision. The selling and decision zone has moved from the streets and the home to the store. (Armata 1996) The in-store communication with the customers is often called point of purchase communication, and is made through signs, graphics and personnel, according to Figure 4 - The Total Visual Merchandising Process), above. (McGoldrick, 2002)

2.2.3.1 The point-of-purchase

The point of purchase, also point of sales, is the occasion when the customer, his or her money and the products are at the same place, i.e. where the customer is able to actually buy the goods. The majority of customers entering a store today have no rock-solid shopping list and brand preferences (Nessl, 2000), which makes the communication in the store very vital for the brands represented there. One reason for planning and designing the store is actually to encourage the customers to make impulse and unplanned purchases, perhaps not thought of before entering the store. (McGoldrick, 2002) According to Armata (1996) impulse buys

account for two out of every three dollars spent in a supermarket and that customer spend 12 percent more in store that has point of purchase advertising.

Research show that well placed and expressed information at the point of purchase can lift the sales significantly. (*POPPI: Making an impression*, 2006) According to Hemsley (2005) consumers make most of their purchase decisions in the store. The figures vary from 75 percent of all decisions made in the store (Derrick, 2005) to 70 percent of all dollars spent (Armata 1996)

2.2.3.2 Point of purchase displays

Almost everything in a retail store today is trying to manipulate the customer to buy something else or additional then what they have planned in advance. By planning the displays in the store well, the retailer can influence the way in which the customer is moving, and therefore subject them to additional product categories, products and brands. (McGoldrick, 2002) The organisation of the store gondolas and other equipment is a part of the store environment design and the merchandise and product presentation, above, while the store signs in the store are a part of the in-store communication. The purpose of point of purchase displays and signs is to create a demand with the customers by attracting their attention and increasing sales of high margin lines, bulk purchases or excess stock. When competing with signs standing next to the own, other types of differentiation is demanded (Young, 2002). As mentioned above, the display and signage in the store has to fit the overall store image and the customer's preferences. (Chadwick, 2003)

The signs in the store provide both general information, such as price and how to find the different departments, and advertising; from different manufacturers which are suppose to make you buy their brand instead of the competitors. Since the majority of signs put up in the store are accompanied with other "sales enhancing factors" (for example price reduction or "BOG OFF" campaigns), it is difficult to know whether the increase in sales is derived from the signs or from some other factor (McGoldrick, 2002). Research has although shown that signs in a store, without any price reduction, can increase sales more then price reduction without any signs (Woodside et al, 1975). McKinnon (1981) found that signs which enhance the product benefit also had a large effect on sales, than price reduction had, and claims that this is something that retailers and manufacturers should take advantage of.

2.2.3.3 Point-of-purchase advertising

An increase in popularity for manufacturers to use more point of purchase advertising has resulted in an advertising clutter in store that could be compared with the advertising noise, or clutter, on television and in magazines (*Point of purchase: waste or not*, 2006). As a brand owner today you do not only have to convince the customer to pick your brand over another, but also make the retailer actually put up you advertisement in the store. The retail store point of purchase advertisement clutter has forced the retailers to cut down in-store advertisements in order not to make the customers feel disoriented and uncomfortable. Another reason why retailers often do not put up advertisements delivered to them is the fact that there is not enough room for it ("*No room for PoP*" say retailers, 2006).

The fact that the competing products are placed next to each other demands another kind of differentiation than in "above the line advertising" (Young, 2002). In order to differentiate in the right way, and make the advertising as efficient as possible, the sender of the message (the

manufacturer or the retailer) has to know who they want to reach, i.e. the target audience of the advertising (*Special report – point of purchase: find out what’s in the store*, 2005). By knowing the customers needs and wants the sender is able to push forward relevant, and attention grabbing end-benefits that will convince the customer to buy the particular brand or product (Young, 2002).

Even if the company’s product is the perfect match to the target audience’s needs and wants the fact that a product does not sell if it is not seen by the customer. If the product is going to be able to sell itself, it first has to be seen by the customer. (Nessl, 2000) This fact has made brands invest increasingly large amounts of their advertising budget in point of purchase materials. In order for these materials to work they have to stand out from the rest. (Hemsley, 2005). As mentioned earlier, Young (2002) says that “unseen is unsold”, he also claims that customers only view 50 percent of the brands in a category actively.

Point of purchase advertising has to be placed in a location where the customer is in the right mood to receive it; otherwise this expenditure is just a waste of money (Adams, 2004). When shoppers enter a store they shift from "location" to "shopping" mode. During the location mode (for example the first few meters into a store) the customer asks themselves what they need and where they can find it, while they are more ready to make purchase decisions during the shopping mode (for example gondola aisle) (Adams, 2004). It is during the shopping mode that advertisements easiest reaches the customer (Adams, 2004). Placing signs outside of the category, at so called secondary locations, work well with products that have an impulse element to them. By placing these displays and products in areas with high movement, they attract the “needs purchaser” (for example candy by the registers) (Adams, 2004). Research has also found that these secondary location signs do not only trigger impulse purchase, but also recall and recognition by the shopper when facing the brand or the product category at later times, which also is a competitive advantage. (Adams, 2004)

In order to break through the clutter, and be seen by the customer, shelf visibility is very important. According to Young (2002) the colour of the packages on the shelf and shelf placement is important. There is no colour that is generally better than the other, but it is a matter of being different from the others, but colours can signal things to the receiver. According to Lieberman (1996);

- Green increases the receivers’ sense of well being and signals growth and energy. This colour also relates to health and nature
- Red signals passion and courage, and
- Purple personifies power and richness.

The best way of being seen by the customer is to put the point of purchase advertisement in eye-level (Young, 2002) or 20 percent below eye-level (Adams, 2004), which is where the customers tend to put their focus. This place in the shelf and elsewhere in the store is often occupied by the larger brands. The fact that customers starts to focus here, does not mean that they pick this product and that other locations are unsuitable. It only means that advertisements in the wrong places will most often be totally ignored (Adams, 2004).

It takes more for a company the just advertising and a nice package to get the customer to buy the product. Once the sign has broken trough the clutter and gotten the customers attention a good sign should add the extra information needed for buying a product. It should be able to convince the customer of the extra value they will receive by the purchase (Armata 1996). In

order to accomplish this one message should be sent through all marketing channels (Chadwick, 2003). Because of the advertising message clutter in the store, it is important for the advertisers to keep the message clear and simple (Armata 1996). As an advertiser you only have a few seconds to grab the customer's attention (*Point of purchase: waste or not*, 2006), and it is important that you keep it. The customer will not select one advertisement and stand put to interpret it, but will choose another product, if the advertisement is not understood right a way (Chadwick, 2003). The less waste and messages, the greater effectiveness with the receiver of the message (*Point of purchase: waste or not*, 2006). Advertisers are coming up with more innovative ways of reaching the customer in the store (for example televisions that run campaigns over and over again) (Hemsley, 2005).

In order for the customer not only to notice the advertisement, but also to pick up and actually buy the product, it takes more than an interesting and eye-catching advertisement. Once the customer has selected the product he or she often needs some reassurance that the best choice has been made, in order for the purchase actually to take place (Young, 2002). This could for example mean more relevant information on the product. The front side of the package or the advertisement sign could contain a visual image that differentiates the product from the competitors, and catches the attention of the customer. Beside this image it should also contain two or three vital benefits that convince the customer to buy the product (Young, 2002).

Most research conducted by companies within this area has been made in "a constructed and unreal environment". By asking people to compare options next to each other in a laboratory, the company excludes many important factors, and visual stimuli's, that are vital during the point of purchase in the store. The respondent focuses too much on what the package look like and over thinks its meaning (Young, 2002). It is important to evaluate point of purchase advertising in its real environment – the store (*Special report – point of purchase: find out what's in the store*, 2005).

2.2.4 Consumer senses appeal

The store environment design also puts emphasis on the atmosphere in the store. When retail store designers shape the store, they also affect and shape the customers moods. One important tool when doing this is by appealing to the five human senses; sight, sound, smell, touch and taste. The senses are for example used to make the customer stay in the store a while longer and make unplanned or impulse purchases. (McGoldrick, 2002)

Kotler (McGoldrick, 2002) calls the first four of these sensory channels and advice that these must match each other in order to get the right atmosphere in the store (McGoldrick, 2002) i.e. all senses should be directed towards one "atmosphere goal". The visual part (sight) is manipulated by using for example colours and the lighting. The aural sense (sound) is changed by the use of for example music. A bakery in the store produces a scent of freshly baked bread, which is an olfactory tool (smell). In an ordinary retail store most of the goods are available for touching (McGoldrick, 2002). As customers we are used to this tactile sense, little do we know that it is one of the most important sources when convincing us to make an impulse or unplanned purchase Underhill (2000).

The atmosphere in the store is very important since it often affects the customers' positive or negative feelings of the store and its image. This is a very important part of the store environment design since it is the image of the store that customers spread to one another

through word-of-mouth. The atmosphere also affects the customer's mood, efficiency and the perception of the sales people. (McGoldrick, 2002)

2.3 The traditional AIDA-model

AIDA is one way of describing the purchase process made by the customer. This model is used by sales people and marketers to convince the customer to buy their product or brand. AIDA stands for Attention, Interest, Desire and Action (according to Figure 5 - The Traditional AIDA-Model). This model is about 50 years old and much has happened within marketing since the. But even though this model is a simplification of reality, it is still frequently used by marketers as guidelines, and a direction of thought. (Pickton and Broderick, 2005) AIDA gives a basic description in how consumers become motivated to act on an external stimulus and therefore explain how sales are made. (Pickton and Broderick, 2005)

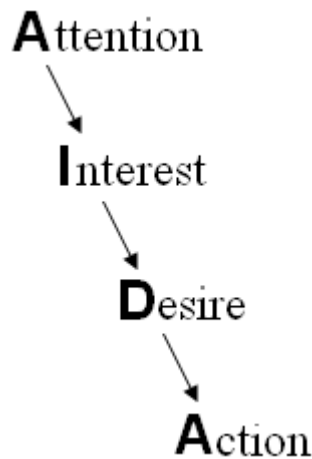


Figure 5 - The Traditional AIDA-Model

Attention

First it is important to get the customer or audience attention. If you as a brand owner do not have the customer's attention, you can not persuade them to buy anything, which means that the brand has to catch the customer's attention by any means necessary. There are many ways that this attention can be created, which many of them have been discussed during the Point of purchase part above (2.2.3.2 Point of purchase displays). There is not one universal way of getting the customers attention, but by knowing what your target group is looking for, your brand can be the one that stands out of the "advertising noise". It is important to remember that a brand only has a few seconds to convince the customer to buy their product and it is the first impression that counts. (Pickton and Broderick 2005)

Interest

Once the customers attention is caught is important to be able to keep it. This is done by making the customer interested in the product. This could be done in many ways, but the most important thing is to listen to the customer and know its needs and wants, and base the products message upon these. (2.2.3.3 Point-of-purchase advertising) As well as during the attention phase, the brand or product only have a few seconds to create interest in this stage. A brand should also be aware of the fact that customers are easily bored, and must fulfil their needs, yet leave them wanting more. (Pickton and Broderick 2005)

Desire

When a brand has got the customers attention and are interested in what it has to say, the next things to do is to create a desire for them to buy it. Desire is about creating a motivation with the customer to act and then direct them towards the next step. It is important to know both the customer as well as the competition, and differentiate your product and message according to this. (Pickton and Broderick 2005)

Action

This is the stage where the customer decide whether to buy your product or not, and take action on their desires. It is important to listen to the signals that the customer is sending whether they decide to make the purchase or not, there are lessons to be learned here. If the combination of Attention, Interest and Desire did not convince them to make the purchase, what changes could be made to them in order to make this process result in an Action instead. (Pickton and Broderick 2005)

2.4 Theoretical summary – relationship between the theories

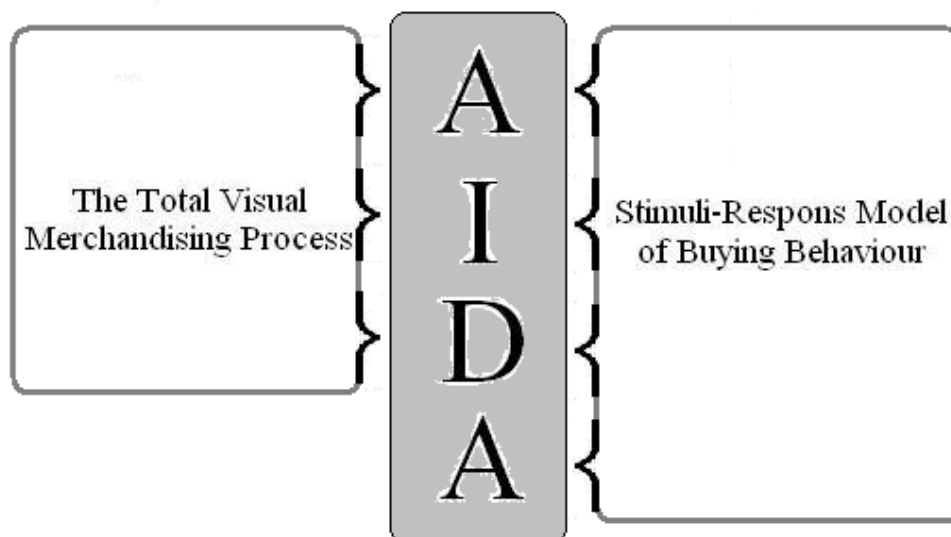


Figure 6 - Relationship between the theories

2.4.1 Modified AIDA model

The relation between the theories in this thesis can be described as Figure 6 - Relationship between the theories) (a more thorough version in Appendix XII Relationship between the theories – extended version). The individual theories have already been discussed in this chapter, while the relationships between these are described below.

Attention

By using the *Total Visual Merchandising Process* in the best possible way a retailer can almost decide where they want the customers to go. By having a well planned store layout, which leads the customers to sections of the store where you want them the most (for example an area with new products or that is not usually visited that often) by displaying these areas in better ways. Lighting is one example that can affect the customer's mood in an unconscious way. By placing product categories, that complement each other, next to one another, the

retailer can evoke impulse or unplanned purchases, by reminding the customer that they might need this as well. There are a lot of advertising in the store that is trying to get attention from the customers, but they do not all succeed however. Since there is not only one message that is striving for this attention, it is all about trying to be different from the competitors, in a way that meets the customers needs and wants. Depending on what the situation looks like there are different things that is required by the sender of the advertisement. By knowing the customer the retailer can combine for example colours, location of message and display in a way that best matches the receiver of the message, and therefore be the one that catches their attention. Another popular way of catching attention is by using the human senses in innovative and attractive ways, for example having a bakery section in the store (smell) or letting the customers taste the bread (taste).

When using the *Stimuli-Response Model of Buying Behaviour* (Figure 1 - Stimulus-Response Model of Buying Behaviour), the retailer, or the manufacturer is subjecting the customer to a new influencer (stimuli) in order to try to make them buy something else (response). A promotional stimuli wants for example to get the customers attention towards a new product, while a social stimuli wants to attract the customer by providing them with a benefit useful in their social relationships. The purpose of these stimuli's is for the customer to realise that they could have a need for this product.

Interest

When the retailer, or the manufacturer, has received the customers' attention, they have to do something to keep it as well. If the customer does not get anything from the sign they have given attention (which is a matter of a few seconds), they get bored, and continue to the next one. Therefore it is important that the point of purchase advertising and communication at this stage is informative in a way that is relevant to the customer. On order to convince them of this they have to know what the attended target groups general needs and wants are. Do the customers want a careful description of the product or do they perhaps want a few important punch lines that are important to them? This is the part of the *Buyer decision making process* where the customer searches for information about the product. At this stage the customer is still not attached to the product, which means that the persuasion from the brands point of view has to be quick, yet interesting.

Desire

In this stage the persuasion has to go a step further, and the customer has to have a strong interest and a desire for the product. This stage is also strongly affected by the buyer's characteristics, and the personal preferences, motivations and attitudes that they hold. If a product for example have four important characteristics, these four are not equally important to all potential consumers. One person could for example think that price is more important then taste in a bread, while the other thinks that healthy content is far more important then both taste and price. When the information provided by the retailer, or manufacturer, is integrated with the customers personal characteristics a desire for some products is starting to develop. In the *Buyer decision making process* the customer at this moment is evaluating the alternatives that stands before him or her. In this persuasion process it is also possible to use the five senses. Since most doubts concerning a product often disappears when a person has tried the product and is satisfied. Is a person for example is choosing between four different kinds of brad, and gets to taste them, the decision often is made easier.

The buyer characteristic learning is also very important at this stage. The things that the customer has experienced before has a big influence on the decisions they make today. If they

for example have made a radical decision to try a new product before and this decision resulted in a dissatisfied customer, they might not be as willing to try new products again but chose what they know is satisfactory. While evaluating the different alternatives in this stage, generalisation could make the customer chose a product that is not really the best one for him or her.

Action

During the last purchase related part of the *Stimuli-Response Model of Buying Behaviour's Decision making process* the customer makes the purchase decision. If the stimuli that caught the customers attention in the first step has lead to interest and desire, the response from the customer will be a few decisions regarding the product, the time and the place regarding the purchase of it (see Figure 1 - Stimulus-Response Model of Buying Behaviour). Even if the product does not make past the step of desire, there is still a change that the message could have an action effect in the future. The next time the customer comes in contact with the product, or the product category, a well done advertisement will remind them of the brand, and make them buy the product the next time instead (recall or recognition).

3 Methodology

This chapter aims to describe how this study has been conducted. First a review of theoretical consideration will be made. Then the work process, with preparation, data collection and data analysis will be summarised. Finally we will criticise the overall methodology and the methods used.

3.1 Methodological purpose

According to Easterby-Smith et al (2003) there are two major philosophies in research, positivism and social construction. The prior believes that the social world exists externally, while the latter put centre of attention on that reality is given meaning by people. The reason why positivism is more appropriate in this thesis is because it is seen as the best way of investigating human and social behaviour as a reaction to metaphysical speculation (Easterby-Smith et al, 2003). Since the research purpose is to explore customers' behaviour in the social world, it is important to be independent when exploring the phenomenon. This also means that we have, during the thesis, aimed for objectivity, since we did not want to influence the data on a higher level. Thus, positivistic studies often focus on hard data rather than opinions as in social construction therefore it is common to adopt objective methods in order to investigate the phenomenon.

Moreover, research show that positivistic view is often related to deductive approach (Saunders et al, 2003), in that matter of which the nature of the relationship between theory and research will be looked at. This approach is characterised by the fact that a hypothesis is created from knowledge of existing theory, thus findings will emerge from theory. A common characteristic of deduction is that quantitative method is used and therefore generalisation can be reached (Saunders et al, 2003). Deduction is often seen as low risk-strategy and a highly structured approach. The opposite approach, induction, starts with observations and findings, which in turn generates theory (Bryman and Bell, 2003). This means that data is collected first, which then will be followed by theory. Research showed that induction emphasis on close understanding of the research context and is in most cases related to qualitative methods. The fact that it has a flexible structure that permits changes can be seen as an advantage as well as a disadvantage. A third approach exists, which is called abductive approach and is a combination of both induction and deduction. This approach aims at gaining an understanding of a phenomenon rather than explaining it. It involves finding hidden meanings in the pattern of interpretation and using it as if it were valid to make sense of the empirical data (Alvesson and Sköldbberg, 1994).

The thesis has approached existing theory in order to make a hypothesis as can be seen Figure 7 - Work process) below.

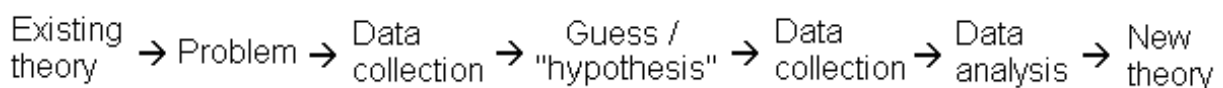


Figure 7 - Work process

While gaining knowledge in the subject in existing theory we found that some theoretical information was missing (a problem). We collected some data about this problem and ended up with our own guess or “hypothesis” about what this problem would look like with out problem solution. We thought that the bread sales would increase significantly (on our marked bread) when putting up signs marking healthier alternatives. This guess or “hypothesis” has then been tested through an experiment. The findings from the experiment have then been analysed and deduced in a new theory. Due to the fact that the study weaves back and forwards between data and theory, the thesis has clearly taken on an abductive approach (Bryman and Bell, 2003).

3.2 Research approach

There are two different approaches to assail a research problem, by quantitative and qualitative methods. The research question and problem will determine what approach to adapt accordingly after the use of figures statistics that is seen as the major difference between these two. According to Bryman and Bell (2003) quantitative research emphasis in the collection and analysis of data, whereas qualitative research emphasis on words and meanings.

Since the authors have to apply measurement in order to determine findings and result from the experiment, it is clear that a quantitative approach is needed. The advantage with quantitative studies is that it is able to examine a larger sample. Therefore, in most cases it will bring generalisation. A drawback of quantitative methods is that they can be seen as inflexible, artificial, and may be perceived as inefficient in understanding processes or the significance that people attach to actions (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Since this is a major concern in the study as the purpose is to explore customers’ behaviour in regard to signs of healthy varieties in store, it is of great importance to adapt quantitative methods in combination with qualitative methods (Easterby-Smith et al, 2003) in this study. The reason for this is that qualitative methods are able to provide in-depth knowledge and information of what is being studied. It embodies a view of social reality as a constantly shifting emergent property of individuals’ creation (Bryman and Bell, 2003).

By adopting a combination of the strategies, different perspectives on the phenomenon being investigated can be explored and analysed. In turn this leads to a richer picture due to the fact that it may lead to contradictions and confusions (Easterby-Smith et al, 2003). Another reason for applying a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is the fact that the reality being investigated may be considerable more complex than solely one approach are capable of demonstrating (Easterby-Smith et al, 2003). Three approaches to multi-strategy research have been determined: triangulation, facilitation and complementarily. Triangulation refers to the use of qualitative research to support quantitative research findings. Facilitation on the other hands means that one research strategy is employed in order to aid research using the other research strategy. The last, complementarily means that two research strategies are employed in order to fit together different aspects of an investigation. (Bryman and Bell, 2003)

We have chosen to adopt qualitative methods in order to strengthen the quantitative data hence it can be argued that we have applied a triangulation approach. The reason for this is that the thesis aims for a quantitative study as the purpose is to explore customer behaviour.

However the qualitative methods have been adopted in order to strengthen the quantitative data. This will be discussed in the following sections.

3.3 Research strategy

As mentioned earlier we are going to measure behaviour in store in relation to choice of healthy varieties and the meaning of that behaviour. To do this we have decided that we want a before and after effect study.

According to Easterby-Smith et al, (2003) research design is about organising research activities, in ways that are most likely to achieve the research aim. To be able to determine the research design, there are a couple of variables to consider that are: if the researchers are independent or involved, if large or a small sample is to be used, if we are testing theories or generating theories. In addition, a distinction between experimental designs and fieldwork methods, universal theory and local knowledge as well as verification and falsification should be made.

The authors aim to be independent in order to be able to reach objectivity. However, by adopting a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods, it should be remembered that qualitative methods are always, at some level, subjective hence the researchers are involved. Since there are two authors doing the data collection, this have been minimised in terms of discussion of data collected with each others, which in turn means that the analysis will not only be based on one individual's single opinion. (Easterby-Smith et al, 2003) Moreover, it can be argued that we used both large and small sample, since quantitative and qualitative methods have been used. When it comes to the question if we are testing a theory or generating one, it is clear that we do both, since we are undertaken an abductive approach. Next significance looks at if we should apply an experimental design or fieldwork methods this depends on the purpose of the study. According to Easterby-Smith et al (2003) experimental design provide the possibilities to measure behaviour before and after manipulation of social settings which is desirable, while fieldwork methods could for example be concerned with the complexity and particular nature of the case in question.

The last factors to consider when choosing a research design is whether the study have provide with universal theory or local knowledge as well as if falsification or verifications has been approach. Although we are undertaken a positivistic view in the social world, an experiment has been applied at one location and it is therefore arguable that the thesis has attained local knowledge rather than universal theory (which is more related to the positivistic view). We have approached the data with verifications, since we have collected data from looking at consumer behaviour in store. However, we have not solely considered unusual behaviours, but behaviours in general terms in order to be able to determine patterns.

This knowledge leads us to the following research strategy alternatives; survey, case study and experiment. The former, survey is appropriate in that sense that the researchers are independent and allow a collection of a large amount of data. However, since there are no room for qualitative data in this research design it is arguable that this design is not suitable. Since we want to measure behaviour and the meaning of behaviour, which means that we need qualitative methods as well as quantitative. Moreover, this approach is very time consuming as the designing and piloting the questioners take time as well as the analysis of the results (Saunders et al, 2003). This is yet another reason not to choose this strategy. Since

case study provides research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources, it is arguable that consumer buying behaviour could be measured in real life environment by healthy varieties in a store. (Bryman and Bell, 2003) But due to limited knowledge within the area of investigation one could argue that a case study is not possible to adapt, as there are no actual case to investigate within the selected area (see problem discussion chapter one). Furthermore, in experimental research design manipulation of social settings and measurement of behaviour in relation to the manipulation can be explored. Hence, this strategy is often used in a cause effect situation. Since we wanted to manipulate the social settings, by putting up signs in store in order to discover the affect these signs have on customers behaviour when it comes to purchase of healthier varieties, this is arguable the most appropriate strategy. Additionally, there are possibilities to determine buying patterns and changes if there are any within these patterns.

3.3.1 Experimental research design

When talking about experiment a distinction is usually made between field and laboratory experiment. The latter take place in a contrived setting, whereas field experiments occur in real-life settings. Being the most appropriate, field experiment will be applied in this study. By this approach, the authors have the possibility to test their “Health Choice” sign in real environment, the live environment, plus being able to explore customers’ real behaviour, attitudes and perception in the bread section. Since this shows customers’ behaviour in action, it is arguable that methods approached in the live environment are more reliable than methods being set in surreal environments. According to existing research, knowledge of this phenomenon in real settings are lacking (see 2.2.3 In-store customer communications), even though it offer high validity within the point of purchase communication.

There are two types of experiments these are; true experiment and quasi-experiment. Characteristics of true experimental design are manipulation, control and randomisation. Manipulation means that the researcher does something to someone of the subjects in the experiment (for example implementing signs in order to be able to explore customers’ behaviour in relation to the signs). This is often referred to as experimental intervention or independent variable. The researcher varies the independent variable and observes the effect that the manipulation has on the dependent variable. The manipulation (and the stimuli for our response) of our experiment is the Health Choice sign that we have implemented in real environmental setting in a grocery store.

Jacobsen (2000) argues that in true experiment comparison is essential. Therefore the experimental group (which is manipulated) are compared with a control group (not being manipulated). The findings will at the end, be compared between the different groups. By doing this, one could clearly see if the control group has had external influences, which in turn also have affected the findings from the experimentation group. Randomisation, however, is about to choose these groups, which ensure that these are not systematically different.

When studying human behaviour, there are variables that researchers are unable to manipulate or control (ethical and practical), in these cases the experimental designs is not appropriate (Cook and Campbell, 1979). Since our purpose was to manipulate social settings, in order to be able to determine effects of dependent variables, we argue that experimental design was not appropriate for our study. Due to the fact that we had not possibilities to have control groups because of practical reasons, such as we could not select the people that we wanted to see the signs or select people not to see the signs. Therefore, it can be argued that quasi

experiment design was more relevant for our purpose. Quasi experiment is a type of quantitative research design conducted to explain relationships and clarify why certain events happens. The purpose of quasi-experimental designs is to examine causality*, hence it facilitate the search for knowledge and examination of causality in situations in which complete control is not possible. (Cook and Campbell, 1979) The major difference between true and quasi-experiment is that the latter do only manipulate the independent variable. (Byrman and Bell, 2003) Although, quasi-experiments lacks of two properties that characterise a true experiment, randomisation and a control group, we found this approach most appropriate for our purpose. Usually an experiment contains of a before, during and after phase, but since we had strict time limitations an after phase was not possible. The reason for this was that the before and during phase are more relevant for our purpose. It should be noticed that we will use the following terms; during the experiment and after manipulation of the social setting, hence not after the experiment.

The structure of the quasi-experiment contains several methods, in order to strengthen the reliability in the study. For the quantitative method, which is our prior method, we wanted something that could measure the behaviour in terms of action. Therefore, the sales data was collected which provided useful quantitative data. Alternatives to this would have been questionnaires where customers should have ticked what bread they had bought, or collection of receipts. However, due to protection of the customers' integrity and to gain a less time consuming method, sales data was an exceptional choice. To solely collect sales data would have been very weak in terms of reliable findings. Also there would have been difficulties to draw conclusions from this short period of time. Therefore, we applied qualitative methods, in order to strengthen the sales data. The key aim for the qualitative data collection was to gain deeper understanding of the meaning behind the actual buying behaviour being determined from the quantitative data.

The alternatives that we had were focus group or in-depth interviews with selected customers in store that wanted to shop healthy. Since the authors wanted customers' spontaneous reaction and answers in the real shopping environment (Young, 2002), focus groups or in-depth interviews could not have met this requirement since they are set in surreal environments. This means that consumers' give the answers of what they believe is right or they want to do, rather than what they really do (Young, 2002). However, these methods could also be seen as rather time consuming due to the fact that interviewees would have to be available to participate, which could have cost us a lot time during the limited period of time.

It is clear that it is crucial to collect data in the real environment in order to be able to experience how customers behave. Therefore, other alternatives were to be considered when determine data collection methods. The first alternative, to explore consumers' route patterns in store, would have provided with extensive informant, being able to compare the route patterns before and after manipulation of the social setting in the store. Changes in movement in the bread section could depend on too many other things but the signs (for example a person standing in the way, or that promotional equipment had been put in the way of the normal route. We believe that differences in store movement patterns would have been to different between individuals. If this kind of method would have been to any additional use, the same people should have been used before and after the experiment. We doubt that we would get more useful information about the customer's behaviour and reactions to the signs

* Note: a causal relationship is a relationship between two variables where one variable (independent variable) is thought to cause or determine the presence of the other variable (dependent variable).

if we used this method instead. This method would therefore be too time consuming, and for no additional and extra useful benefits.

Secondly measurement of time spend in front of shelf is seen as a possible alternative since, it provides information of how long a person stands in front of a shelf when deciding what product to choose. If the time is lessening during the after experiment, the manipulation of the social setting would have assisted the customers in deciding what product to choose. The purpose of marking our healthier alternatives with the Health Choice sign is that is would be easier for the customers to find suitable bread, i.e. it should take shorter amount of time. In two weeks of experiment however, we would not get the true effect of this method (i.e. shorter time in front of the shelf), since this is a new concept that needs to be examined and trusted by the customers. Because of time limitations, this method is not suitable for us.

Moreover, we argue that the most appropriate methods to use are semi-structured interviews in combination with observations. The observations constitutes with the possibilities to gain awareness of the customers and consumers behaviour in the store, while the semi-structured interviews gain knowledge of why customers choose the bread they have. Hence these methods are arguably the most appropriate in order to measure and compare attitudes and perception towards our signs and if that, in turn, had any affects on purchase. Furthermore, the outline of the interviews is semi-structured due provide guidance to the respondents as well as room for changes in the questions as the interview proceed. Therefore both closed and open questions have been adopted (see Appendix VI Interview with customers – before experiment and Appendix VIII Interview with customers – during experiment).

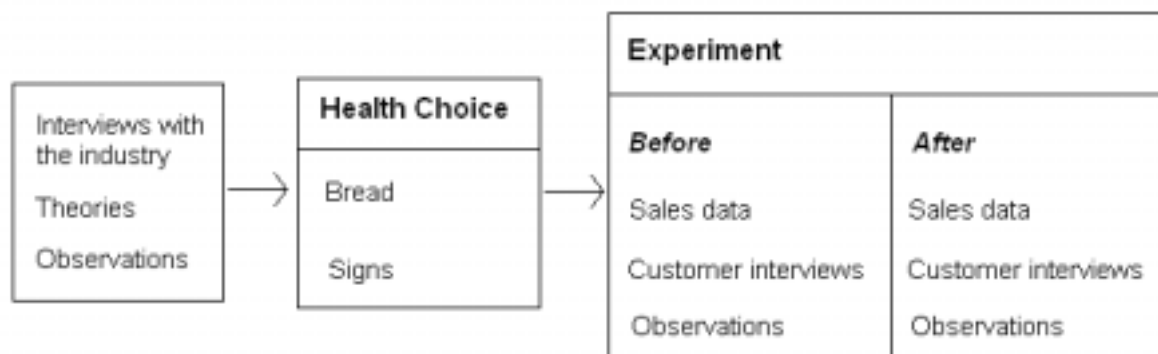


Figure 8 - Data collection methods

3.4 Preparation

In order to gain reliability in the thesis preparation of the study, the experiment as well as the data collection has been undertaken. Therefore we divided the preparation into three parts; preparation of the study, preparation for the experiment and preparation of primary data collection.

3.4.1 Preparation of the study

When starting to work on this thesis we made a timetable for the process, and put up some deadlines that had to be kept.

For us the preparation and doing research on the subject was done during the first four weeks. During week three to seven the data was collected. The data was analysed partly during the experiment, but mostly during week eight. During week nine and ten the final touches and the after work was put upon the thesis.

Due to a limited budget, limitations on secondary research were set. For instance, we did not order documents from ELIN@Lund (elin.lub.lu.se), which could have contained essential material for our study. The budget was however, expenses such as printing, travels and phone calls. Manpower is another limitation in the study. There are two researchers of this thesis, which means that the timeframe for this thesis is 20 weeks of manpower. A limited period of time, resulted in well planned schedule and considerable limitation in our experiment. Hence, the primary data collection time was four weeks (two weeks before the experiment, and two weeks during the experiment).

3.4.1.1 Secondary data

As in other studies based on an abductive research method the authors started their work process by doing research on the topic of interest. Therefore we had to explore what has been done before on this area of investigation.

Our first ambition when starting to collect data was to gain more knowledge of the area being investigated, namely the topic on markings of healthier in the store (and not on the product) in order to find a research gap. A couple of questions that we asked ourselves were;

- If this kind study had been done academically before in Sweden (or internationally)?
- If similar studies had been done before in Sweden (or internationally)?
- If this topic is something that is mentioned in academic literature at all?

We divided our information sources regarding these questions into two large categories; academic and non-academic. The academic sources were mainly;

- course and other basic marketing literature, for example McGoldrick (2002) (in order to get a basic understanding within the subject),
- LOVISA (lovisa.lub.lu.se) lead us to other literature. (the search engine for all written literature within Lund University Library)
- ELIN@Lund (elin.lub.lu.se) (a search engine for academic articles written in international journals)

The non-academic information sources were;

- Affärsdata (www.ad.se) (a search engines for articles materials written in Swedish and international journals)
- Google (www.google.se) and Aftonbladet (www.aftonbladet.se) (in order to draw inspiration for other keywords, or possibly author / studies tat had not been found in other information sources)

Keywords used in this research gap search was regarding

- Markings and signs in the store (not on the product)

- The marking of healthier varieties (in general and regarding bread)
- Marking in the store that is not commercial or promoting a specific brand

We found that this kind of study, or similar studies, had not been done before in Sweden, or internationally, i.e. this topic is a knowledge gap in current academic research (as mentioned in chapter one – introduction).

Since there had not been any specific research done within our research area, we had to break the subject down and search for these smaller areas instead. Thus, instead of looking for theories within our specific research area, we searched for theories and literature connected to this area. When doing this we used the same academic and non-academic information sources as mentioned above, but naturally change the keywords. The key words searched for in the academic sources (books and articles) were;

- Store environment, point of purchase, Consumer behaviour, Consumer decision making process, Signs and markings and different displays in the store, Signs and markings on products and Customer reaction on different colours.

In non-academic information sources we searched for;

- Health (how consumers today feel (obesity etc), Healthier varieties within food (diets, warnings from media, health trends) and Signs and markings on products and in the store.

All information that has been read and the sources used have been evaluated carefully regarding for example probability and trustworthiness. If a source or the information that is has been sending was not considered credible it has not been used. In cases that we where not sure of the credibility of the source this has been written in connection with the statement used by us.

The fact that we use basic marketing literature could be criticised since this is just one authors collected view on the marketing area in general. We have however used this information as a starting point in our research. When we found something that was of interest to us, we searched for the original source, and continued our research in this.

Using Aftonbladet, and other non-academic sort of “gossip”-information sources, is motivated by the fact that this is the information that reaches and affects our respondents and the general public. Even if the information printed in these sources often is not academically correct or based upon trustworthy sources, this still is a large influence on the customer’s perceptions. If a phenomenon is published in a majority of the daily media, many receivers of the message (the readers or viewers) consider this message a fact.

3.4.2 Preparation for the experiment

During the preparation of the experiment we brought the following aspects into considerations; contact and interviews with the industry, where to execute the experiment selection of breads as well as designing of the signs.

3.4.2.1 Interviews with the industry

In order to have a platform when marking the healthiest alternatives in the bread section we conducted interviews with people from the industry. The information gained from these

interviews provides a background knowledge which is needed to establish the experiment. The people we interviewed where;

- Susanne Bryngelsson – Swedish Nutrition Foundation (SNF) (interview summary in Appendix II Interview with Susanne Bryngelsson)
- Therese Schultz – Brödinstitutet (interview summary in Appendix III Interview with Therese Schultz)
- Michael Wieloch – ICA Supermarket Jätten at Fäladstorget in Lund (interview summary in Appendix IV Interviews with Michal Wieloch)

The main purpose of the interviews was to get a feeling of which breads we should mark during the experiment. In general we asked those questions regarding health trends in general, (their definition of it) healthy bread, markings of bread and opinions and suggestions upon our project, but there where some differences between the interviews depending on the expertise of the organization and respondent. These sources are considered trustworthy which the reason why we conducted these three interviews is.

Before the interview we had read about both the organisation that we where going to visit as well as upon the topics that where about to be discussed. From these interviews we got a get a better understanding of healthy bread, health trends and how the customers act and react. The result from the interviews are presented in the background (introduction chapter), during the marking of the bread (methodology chapter), in the analysis chapter as well as in and in Appendix II (Interview with Susanne Bryngelsson), III (Interview with Therese Schultz) and IV (Interviews with Michal Wieloch).

The interviews where held in Swedish with all respondents. We held them face-to-face with Bryngelsson and Wieloch, and over the phone with Schultz. We had chosen to interview them when they where at their work place since it was their professional opinion we where looking for. All interviews where recorded on a MP3-player (the respondents have no problems with this) and then transcribed after the interview. We recorded and transcribed the interviews since it is both possible to quote the respondents afterwards if this is the case, and it is easier to re-examine the material.

3.4.2.2 The location

Through the in-store advertising company Retail House we had the opportunity to work closely with an appointed ICA-store. The contact was first established by Retail House, but after this had been done, the contact was just up to us. Our appointed store and the location of the experiment was ICA Supermarket Jätten at Fäladstorget in Lund.

During our first meeting with the store owner, Michal Wieloch, we discussed our ideas and what was possible to do in the store. The result was that we had no limitations of the experiment in regard to the store since the store owner was very open and flexible to our ideas. Hence, the study is not going to be affected by any constraints, obligations or restrictions from either Retail House or the ICA Supermarket store.

One practical consideration of using this store is that their bread section looks different from the average bread section, which in most cases is categorised by, and according to the manufacturer. In this store, however, the store owner has divided the bread into categories of type of bread (for example all coarse- and dark bread is put together on one side of the

gondola and the white, sliced bread on the other side (see Appendix X Store layout – ICA Supermarket Jätten, Lund).

3.4.2.3 Observation

After preparation of location (i.e. the store) and industry interviews, we wanted to attain basic knowledge of the store in general. To do this we did observations in the store which included search for factors which influenced the shoppers while shopping (i.e. factors in the store environment). This knowledge was used to achieve reliable and trustworthy result in the experiment that was conducted at a later occasion. Through the observation we noticed things that affected the way that we had planned to conduct our experiment. We had for example planned to put up the signs in a bread section that the customers had to choose to go into, when search for bread. Instead we found a bread section that all customers visiting the store, had to pass. This information resulted in for example us deciding only to interview people who had already bought bread, and not all people visiting the bread section. The impact of the external factors would therefore not affect our experiment in that sense that the data is not reliable. We became more aware of other factors influencing the customers.

Moreover, we would get a perspicuous picture of the flow with customers in the store and preoperational knowledge of the bread section, which would assist and help us during the experiment. Example of this could be placement of bread, which is necessary when to select bread to the “during part” of the experiment. We considered different placements of our signs, the ceiling, the shelf, on the floor, in the beginning of the store, to find the most appropriate placement for the signs in terms of attention catching and flow of customers. They also helped us find the areas of the customer’s behaviour that would be most important to us, when explaining the sales changes during the experiment. Right from the start we noticed some important behavioural trends that later was confirmed in the qualitative data collection.

3.4.2.4 Bread selection

As mentioned above we based the selection of breads to mark on the interview with professionals from industries closely connected with health or bread.

All three professionals interviewed mentioned the same things as most important in choosing a bread;

- More wholemeal and
- less salt, sugar and fat.

These are also the criterions for bread must fulfil to be marked with a “keyhole” symbol. They also all agree on the fact that media today affect the way customers do their shopping today. (Interviews, Bryngelsson; Schultz; Wieloch) The sugar debate lately has both affected the sales in the store, as well as the future planning of the manufacturers (Interview, Bryngelsson) The current trends within the bread section is wholemeal (and is still going to be for a while), less sugar (Interview, Bryngelsson), bakeoff (or freshly beaked bread) (Interviews, Schultz; Wieloch) and flavoured bread (Interview, Wieloch). By being updated to media the retailer and manufacturer can predict what is going to be bought and what is going to remain unsold.

Depending on the categories that the bread section in this particular store is divided into, we chose to mark four different kinds of bread; one soft healthy bread, one hard healthy bread,

one toasted bread and one so called "polar-kaka". The thesis will not consider crisp bread, freshly baked, pastries and cookies, this will therefore be excluded in the experiment.

The marked bread was chosen upon the results from the interviews (more wholemeal and less salt, sugar and fat), the background information we have found upon health and bread and the fact that they are in different categories. If a person is going to buy a bread to toast at home, he or she will not care that the hard healthy bread is healthier, just that toast bread is better for their health.

Four different bread types were chosen so that selected bread could not influence the other bread in the same category, also because the markings were to be placed through the bread section and not just solely on one part of the section. Each bread met the following criteria that were determined from the industry interviews.

- The new keyhole mark
- Contained more than 50 percent wholemeal
- Little or no sugar
- Minimum fat

Certainly there are more bread in the bread section that meet these criteria, but for the experimentation to be doable and still reliable, we limit our study to four bread. In addition this was comparable and analysis could be done, in order to find patterns more clearly.

The breads that we chose to mark were;

- 100% Fullkorn (Polarbröd)
- Fullkornsstätta (Axa)
- Fullkornsbröd (Va' Gott)
- Storpack Rågkusar (Fazer)

All bread, contained more than 50 percent wholemeal (of the dry substance), little or no added sugar and were free from tempered fat and trans fatty acids

3.4.2.5 The signs

During the first meeting with Wieloch (ICA Supermarket Jätten owner) we also discussed the signs and opportunities and limitations of these. We got help from the store by printing the signs on their printer. This printer and its opportunities limited us some regarding the design, size and the time spent on designing these signs, but these drawbacks were compensated by the fact that it was for free, looked professional and provided us with the right store equipment.

We decided on the design of the signs by reading secondary material on signs, colours effect and point of purchase advertisements. Through this literature we decided on;

- **Place** – since the bread section is the first section that all customers walk into when entering the store we wanted to place the signs so that the signs are seen from the entrance (ten to 20 meters from the section), a bit into the store (one to five metres) and by the bread gondolas (less than one metre). The signs from the ceiling should make the customer more interested to visit the bread section, in

which the shelf-labels lead them to the healthiest bread. (2.2.3.2 Point of purchase displays)

- **Size** – the store offered us some opportunities and we decided on two signs hanging from the ceiling (about 40*50 cm each) and four on the shelf-label marking the breads (7,5 * 21 cm – a bit bigger than ordinary price-labels).
- **Layout** – wanted to keep it simple, with just our “concept name and key points” (do not want the customer to ignore it like “just advertising”). It should draw attention, but not be too strong. (2.2.3.3 Point-of-purchase advertising) This is also something that the store owner Wieloch mentioned as important in his store as he only uses signs that tell price or are informative in any way (Interview, Wieloch)
- **Colour** – as the main colour we chose green since it symbolises growth energy and a sense of well being. Green is also strongly associated with the environment and health. In the bottom of the sign we added a red think line in order to draw some more attention to the sign, yet not overdoing it. Red is a passionate colour that draws attention to it. (Leiberman, 1996)
- **Message** – According to Underhill (2003) a person reads three or four words in a second and a half, therefore it is important not only to catch the customers’ attention, but also make it possible to read the signs. Therefore, we decided to develop simple and forceful signs. The signs were written in Swedish. The concept name is Health Choice (Hälsovalet in Swedish) and the key arguments were “Less Sugar, Less Fat, More Wholemeal” (“Mindre Socker, Mindre Fett, Mer Fullkorn” in Swedish). This concept aims to be transferable to the rest of the store in the future.

The final designs, which also were accepted by the store and possible to make, can be seen in Figure 9 - The signs on the shelves (Swedish and English)) and Figure 10 - The signs from the ceiling (Swedish and English)). The way the signs looked in the store can be seen in Appendix V (Photos of the “Health Choice” markings).



Figure 9 - The signs on the shelves (Swedish and English)



Figure 10 - The signs from the ceiling (Swedish and English)

3.4.3 Preparation of data collection

By preparing the data collection thoroughly the risk of mistakes is minimised.

3.4.3.1 Preparation of quantitative data collection

During the first meeting with the store owner, we discussed access to the sales data. Since this was possible there was no further preparation needed for the collection of the quantitative data.

3.4.3.2 Preparation of qualitative data collection

By research collected, we got a deeper understanding of what information we wanted to get from the experiment i.e receive before and after the signs had been put up. This information is concentrated around the AIDA (Attention – Interest – Desire – Action) model (see theory chapter). This model was the foundation when we put together the questions for the customers, since we wanted information that could help us analyse our markings effect by these for factors. Besides the inspiration retrieved from the literature we also made a couple of observations in the store, in order to get some basic knowledge on how to continue and do the actual experiment. These observations where just made so that we would get to know to get an overview of the store, the flow of customers and other basic information before doing the actual research.

When doing an experiment it is important to measure the same things both before and during the experiment. We where aware of this when formulating the questions, and even though we did not use the same questions before and after we put up the signs, we do measure the same things. We presume to measure the same things before and during, but the questions where put in somewhat different ways, so that we for example would not spoil the “surprise factor” of the signs (and the customers would be more aware then they otherwise would be). We also had some additional unique questions before as well as after. As an example we wanted to find out how the customers shop in the store before the experiment, and how they reacted to the signs (if they noticed them) after the signs had been put up.

The questions we asked the customers where semi-structured and the question-form was filled in by the interviewer. We used these types of questions as we are going to explain a

phenomenon and want the customers own spontaneous description of it. During the interview we wrote down some important keywords. After the interview we wrote down as detailed information as possible, as well as some observations that might be relevant during the analysis. We tried to be as exact as possible since any errors can result in a false interpretation in the analysis. (Bryman and Bell, 2003)

3.5 Data collection

The actual experiment took place during week 14, 16, 17, and 18 (Figure 11 - The experiment and data collection). The quantitative data collection (sales data) was strengthened with semi-structured interviews and participate observations.

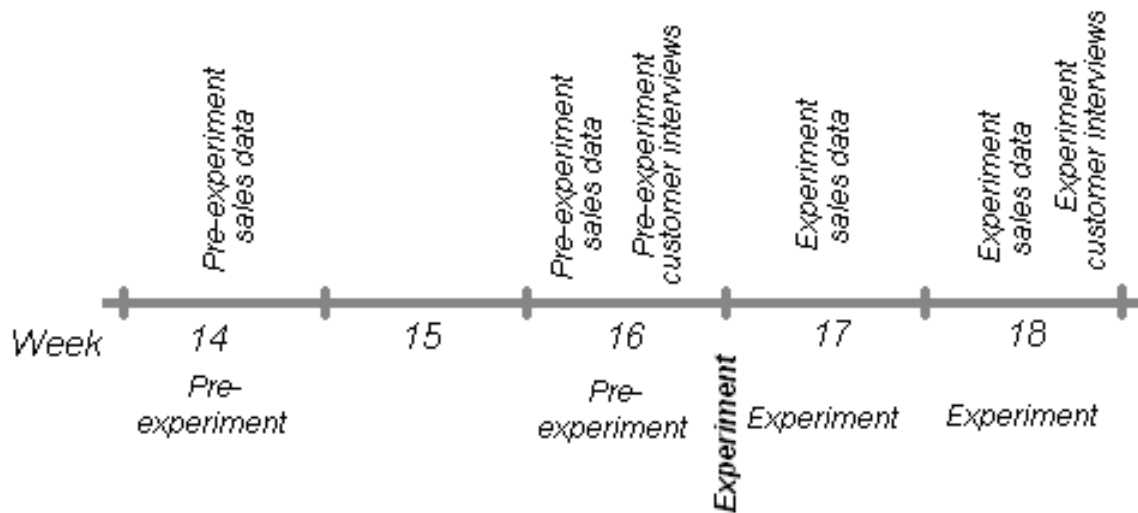


Figure 11 - The experiment and data collection

3.5.1 Quantitative data collection

The quantitative data aimed to show actions of the customers before and after being subjected to the store displays. In order to be able to illustrate this, we collected sales data from the store two week before we implemented the Health Choice signs and two weeks during the experiment. Due to time limitations there was no collection of data after the experiment to see if the marking has resulted in any long lasting changes. Pre-experiment data was collected from week 14 and 16 (see Figure 11 - The experiment and data collection). The authors have chosen not to undertake the experiment during the Easter week (week 15), since this is not a normal purchase week in retail stores. According to HUI (Handels Utrednings Institut) Maundy Thursday is the fourth biggest shopping day of the year (HUI, Påskfakta, 2006-04-06), and during the entire Easter week the sales are about 20 percent above average (HUI, När handlar vi? 2006-04-06). The data during the experiment was collected during week 17 and 18 (according to Figure 11 - The experiment and data collection). Due to limited amount of time and lack of relevance, we decided not to collect primary data after the experiment, thus after the signs have been taken down. Since we wanted to see if their behaviour were influenced or changed because of the Health Choice signs, it would have been ideal to have a longer experiment if we had longer time to collect data.

3.5.1.1 Drawbacks with method

There are a couple of considerations to be made, in order to gain greater awareness of the quantitative data collection. According to Bryman and Bell (2003) quantitative analysis often creates a static view of social life that is independent of people's lives. Moreover, they argue that quantitative research fail therefore to distinguish people and social institutions from the world of nature. However, this will be minimised due to the fact that we have applied a combination with qualitative methods.

Furthermore, we would like to point out that the Easter-week might effect the week before and after, which does not provide us with "normal" purchasing patterns. This could for instance be that some people prepare for Easter (a week) in advance.

We would also like to point out that during the time of the experiment customers could have been affect by other variables in their process of purchase than the Health Choice signs, such as campaigns in store or the weather. At the beginning of the experiment when before data was collected, it was rain and ten degrees. However during the after experimental manipulation, it was 23 degrees and sun. Since people are more likely to purchase lighter food, in warmer weather this could have a direct influence on sales data.

It should also be paid attention that the experiment was made in store, thus suppliers of bread was not involved in the project. Therefore, one could questions if the suppliers meet the demand during the experimental week. If the bread was sold out, the sales could not increase.

3.5.2 Qualitative data collection

As mentioned earlier, we have chosen to apply semi-structured interviews combined with observation when collecting qualitative data. These will now be considered in greater terms.

3.5.2.1 Sampling

The selection of respondents to the interview is based on two things. Firstly, we only interviewed people who had actually picked up a bread and put it in their basket (i.e. bought bread). This meant that we looked in the customers baskets before approaching them). The reason for this is because we wanted to know why they chose that particular bread that they had in their trolley or basket, in order to be able to determine attitudes and action behaviour (relate to sales data) in store. Secondly, we did not interview any children (people under the age of 18). Arguable people under 18 do not shop grocery on a regular basis thus they do not have a consistent shopping pattern. Except for these criterions, we randomly chose interviewees for the interviews, both during the before- and the after- experimental manipulation of collection of data. When we where done with one interview (asking the questions and taking observation notes), we continued to ask the next customer that had picked up bread. Moreover, we did not make a distinction between male and women, since we wanted the "bread shopper" - and not the gender aspect. Table 1 - Respondent age groups), shows how we have divided the different age groups in order to distinguish patterns in behaviour. The sample of the interviews was estimated to 50 before and 50 after the implementation of the Health Choice signs. Since it was voluntary to answer our questions there might be a slight difference in the share of participation between genders and age groups.

Table 1 - Respondent age groups

Age group	Age (years)
A - Younger	- 29
B - Younger middle age	30-44
C - Middle age	45-64
D - Elderly	65-

3.5.2.2 Semi structured interviews

Short semi-structured interviews have been made with customers in the selected ICA Supermarket store. The questions were posed in the bread section or just thereafter, in order to take the customer by surprise, which we argue will lead to the most accurate and truthfully answer. Considering the traffic flow during the decided times of the interviews (3 to 6 pm), we found it reasonable to think that we would be able to get three good interviews per interviewee and hour. This resulted in an estimation of ten qualitative interviews per interviewee and day. The choice not to conduct more interviews were strengthened by the fact that we made important observations at the same time.

The time of collection the interviews, were between Tuesday and Friday during week 16 and between Tuesday to Friday during week 18. Monday on both week 16 and 18 were both holidays, thus, we decided not to do interviews during this time. According to Wieloch (Interview, Wieloch) flow of customers is generally high during afternoon between 4 and 6.30 pm on weekdays and during weekends it is generally a lot of customers. Monday, Wednesday and Friday are common bread shopping days. From this information, we decided to do the interviews between 3 and 6 pm every day. The reason for this is that we wanted to have time to observe the customers in store, which could be done more carefully before 4 pm. Additionally, we had time to caught “after work”-shoppers. The reason why we did not were in the store during week 17, was that we did not want to influence the sales data during week 18, since the consumer that had not noticed the sign might change their purchase of bread the next time they are shopping grocery, i.e. next week. Furthermore by asking questions to the customers in the end of the experiment, the risk of asking the same respondent twice is reduced. As mentioned above, there is a reason to believe that customers at this ICA Supermarket visit the store more than once every two weeks, and therefore it is likely that the interviewers either would ask the same questions to the respondent twice, or that the respondent would influence his or hers purchase habits.

The discussion of the theory, as been brought into consideration earlier (2 Theory), has been used in order to develop questions for the short and spontaneous interviews with customers. We found the *buyer characteristics* were essential in order to be able to explore the buying behaviour, therefore, we posed questions such as why did you buy this particular bread?, What do you usually buy for type of bread?. Other questions were developed from the *stimuli and response model of buying behaviour*, if they had notice any markings in the store and if that in turn had affected their choice of bread. Beliefs was also considered in the process of developing questions, since this would show the attitudes of the customers, when it comes to healthy bread, hence healthy varieties in the store. During the after-experiment, we added questions about recall and recognition and showed the customers pictured of the Health Choice signs in order to see if they remembered the sign, even if they said that they did not notice any particular sign at the bread section.

Table 2 - Customer interviews before signs

Day	Interviews (no)	Interviewee
Tuesday (18 April)	10	<i>Maria and Ulrika</i>
Wednesday (19 April)	10	<i>Maria</i>
Thursday (20 April)	10	<i>Ulrika</i>
Friday (21 April)	20	<i>Maria and Ulrika</i>
Total	50	

The pre-interviews consisted of eight questions; four open questions and four closed or given alternatives while the after interviews consisted between five and nine questions depending on if the interviewee had noticed the sign or not (Se Appendix VI Interview with customers – before experiment and Appendix VIII Interview with customers – during experiment). The questions were tested on selected persons before doing the actual interviews in order to receive feedback and have the possibility for improvement of the questions

Table 3 - Customer interviews after signs

Day	Interviews (nr)	Interviewee
Tuesday (2 May)	10	<i>Maria</i>
Wednesday (3 May)	20	<i>Maria and Ulrika</i>
Thursday (4 May)	10	<i>Maria and Ulrika</i>
Friday (5 May)	10	<i>Ulrika</i>
Total	50	

Since we were two people collecting the data, it was decided to divide the interviews and observations after the schedule (Table 2 - Customer interviews before signs, Table 3 - Customer interviews after signs). In turn, we would gain objectivity, since we do not only use one individual's opinions. However, during the interviews, we took notes, which we expanded directly after the interview so that we would not forget any essential information. The reason why we did not use a MP3 player was because we aimed for a short interview and the customer's spontaneous reaction or answer. If a MP3 player was used, this could not be attained since it would have taken time to start the time recorder and to transcribe the MP3 file at a later occasion. Furthermore, we did not want the customers to be uncomfortable in any way, but feel relaxed and able to answer the questions in a truthful and honest way.

3.5.2.3 Observation

According to Saunders et al (2003) there are two types of observations; participant observations and structured observation. Participant observations discover the meaning that people attach to their actions. It can be seen as an advantage when explaining what is going on in particular social settings. By contrast, structured observations are concerned with the frequency of the actions. By applying observation, the authors aimed to strengthen the quantitative sales data from the store, and in turn explore and understand the meaning to people's actions. Examples of this, were if the customers were stressed, if they had children with them. Hence we have applied participant observation.

The time of observations was during the same period and time as the interview. Before observations was taken place during week 16 and after observation during week 18, between 3 and 6 pm. As with the interviews, we did not want to affect or influence the sales data. During the observation, we took notes of interesting and noticeable movements and behaviour in the environment. Elements that we put into focus during the observations was how people behaved in bread section, the process of how they selected their bread (for example if they knew what bread they wanted before they entered the store, or if they spend time in the bread section and read signs) and other behaviour present. The observations also contributed with selection of participants for the interviews, for example the fact that we only chose to interview people who have picked up bread in their basket.

During experimental manipulation, we also put focus on how customers behaved in relation to the Health Choice signs. For instance, if they saw the signs stopped and looked closer at the bread. The before- and after- data from the observations were then compared and analysed.

The purpose of the qualitative data from the customer interviews is to explain the difference and possible changes in bread purchase (that has been established in the quantitative data analysis). By a combination of interviews and observations, extensive information was gained during week 16 and week 18. The observations aimed to gain information of how the customers entered, moved and behaved in the bread section. In addition we also observed how the customers looked at different signs and markings and how they in turn behaved due to these signs and markings.

3.5.2.4 Drawbacks with methods

According to Bryman and Bell, 2003, there are a couple of drawbacks with qualitative methods that should be considered, such as subjectivity, difficulties to replicate and lack of transparency. The semi-structured interviews have contained a certain level of subjectivity since we, after each interview, put together the interview on paper solely with pencil and paper. The reason why we did not have any MP3 player was that we wanted to pose questions caught in the moment hence we did not want to ask them too many questions before the actual interviews due to that we wanted as honest and as “real” answer as possible. The authors discussed the findings for the observations and the semi-interviews with each others and other people for instance to store owner (sound, store design, pattern in customers buying behaviour) to minimise the subjectivity (Easterby-Smith et al, 2003).

Due to the fact that the interviews were very spontaneous (in terms of choice of respondent, length of interviews, questioned posed) it would be very difficult to replicate this exact method again. The observations however, also involved high level of subjectivity since we observed the social setting from “our view”. Although strict guidelines were made in order to lower the subjectivity, this could not be escaped, as we draw conclusion of what was being observed. Because of this, it is arguable that it is difficult to replicate. In addition there will be lack of transparency both in the interviews and the observations, since the analysis of the data will not contain all the information collected, hence also unclear how the conclusion have been reached. However, the quantitative data will minimise this problem combined with the fact that we are two researchers, thus the data must be analysed in an understandable way for both authors in order to reach to conclusions.

Furthermore, it is important to measure the same thing, in the same way before and after manipulation of social setting when doing an experiment. This is because a comparison of

changes in behaviour can be determined by measuring the same things in the same way. However, since we are not interviewing the same interviewees before and after, this can be seen as a drawback and weakness in the study. Presumably this would have resulted in different findings.

3.6 Data analysis

The findings from week 14 and 16 have then been analysed in order to be able to determine a “normal” purchase pattern on bread. The same analyses have then been applied on the weeks 17 and 18. The findings, from these two analyses were then compared in order to distinguish differences and changes in customer buying pattern. Thus, the impact of the Health Choice signs had on the sales will be revealed. This will show if the sales of the bread that was marked with Health Choice, changed in sales or remained the same.

Since the quantitative method has been our prior data collection method, this has been put into focus first, by descriptive statistics. The analysis have illustrated the percentage and number of the sales during the before and after stage of the experiment. (Easterby-Smith et al, 2003) Implementation of histograms shows sales for each week and marked bread. Moreover, we have used the data in average sales of the marked bread in relation to the entire bread section during the period of before (weeks 14 and 16) and after (weeks 17 and 18). This illustrates increases and decreases of the total sales during the before weeks and the after weeks, which can be directly linked with the Health choice signs.

Our secondary methods, which are qualitative are as mentioned before semi-structured interviews and participated observations. The aim of the qualitative analysis was to gain understanding of consumer buying behaviour and attitudes patterns, which in turn strengthens the quantitative data. This has been attained through feel and intuition analysis from both the observations and the interviews. The data have then been reflected, conceptualised and re-coding in order to find patterns in customer buying behaviour and attitudes. A categorisation of customers could also be distinguished from the interviews, such as age. Therefore, it is arguable that a grounded analysis was the best alternative when approaching the analysis. This analysis provided a holistic examination to understand the contents from where patterns and categories were determined. Content analysis, on the other hand, was not applicable since words or phrases could not be counted as we did not use a MP3 player during the semi-structured interviews but kept notes during the interview and wrote a short summary after each interview. (Easterby-smith et al 2003)

The before data have been analysed with decision making process (according to 2.2.3.1 Decision making process) and during experiment (after the signs have been put up) has been analysed through the Stimulus–Response Model of Buying Behaviour (according to 2.2.1 Stimulus-Response Model of Buyer). The difference in the customers buying behaviour before and after the signs have been put up will be analysed through an adapted AIDA-model (according to 2.5.1 Modified AIDA model).

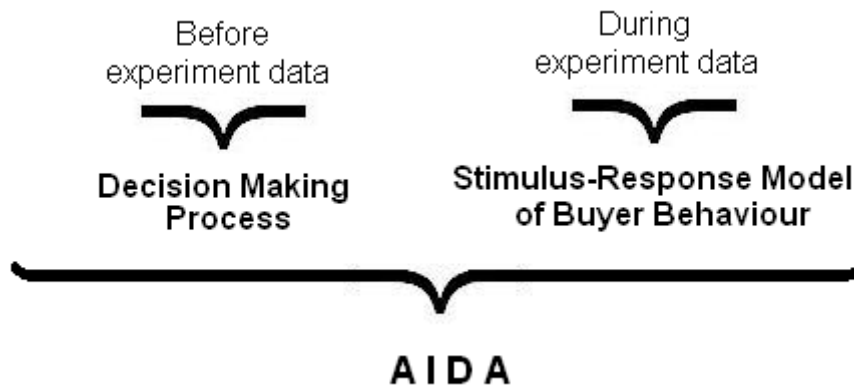


Figure 12 - Relationship between theory and empirical data

3.7 Reliability and validity on method

Every data collection method has its weaknesses and difficulties. It is most likely that whatever method for gathering data the researchers' choices it will be criticised. The researchers must therefore acknowledge the weaknesses of the method chosen and try to strengthen it to the best of their capability. That would lead to a more reliable and trustworthy study. The best way of finding the weaknesses and strengths of a study and its methods is to review its reliability and validity.

3.7.1 Reliability

According to Bryman and Bell (2003) reliability has three different meanings. First, stability and concerns whether a measure is stable over time. The second, internal reliability means that the indications that make up the scale are consistent.

High reliability is reached if the study can be re-done by another researcher with the same methods and reaches the same result (Yin, 2003). We are aware of the fact that the customers are affecting the result of the study and there would be difficulties to reach same results if the experiment were set elsewhere and during another period of time. Due to the time limitation of the study, a longer period of the experiment would have been needed in order to attain higher reliability. By doing this more significant data would have been collected which would have strengthen the stability, therefore also the reliability of the study. The reason for this is that a total of four weeks is clearly too little for an experiment of this kind, thus a minimum of three months would have been needed. However, since the signs clearly have an effect on the customer behaviour, it is arguable that a re-doing of the study can draw similar conclusions.

Since we have been exploring customers behaviour, it is arguable that it has reliability because we have collected sales data from store that is accurate hence reliable. However, due to the fact that the qualitative data involved is somewhat subjectivity, this is less reliable. Reasons for this are that people's opinions might change or the interviewers perceive the answered in a certain way. But since we are two persons doing the interview we discussed the data with each other and with the store owner in order to get more objectivity in the study

Before we performed our own study, we decided to view what other researchers had done in the past, which in turn could benefit our study. We have approach the secondary data critically, evaluating if the authors have a clear standpoint and being non-bias

We are aware of the fact that we could have, at some level, affected or influenced the respondents, for example how we formulated our questions and our own stereotyping when performing the observations. It should also be remembered that our placements in store could have affected the actions of the customers. We ourselves do not know when it could have affected the study, but by taken the possibility into account we have tried to minimise the effect of our influence.

3.7.2 Validity

A review of validity in a study is done by checking that the research question and purpose have actually been researched. To attain validity in a study, the researcher reflex on the study's theory, research question, data collection and analysis. (Yin, 2003) Strong validity increases the research credibility, which in turn leads to greater effectiveness. It is also more difficult to criticise. There are three types of validity according to Yin (2003) construct validity, internal validity and external validity.

Construct validity

When establishing construct validity the researcher reviews the actions that have been taken to review the actual data collection and research area. Reviewing the whole research phase and evaluating the procedures chosen. Strong construct validity has been reached when the research has been well planed, thought trough, structured and shown understanding for possible respondent's shortcomings. (Yin, 2003) To attain construct validity we have developed test interviews to pinpoint the correct questions, since the actual interviews with the customers are rather time limited. In addition preparation observations have also been collected in order to gain awareness of the environment where the experiment is conducted.

Internal validity

The internal validity is based on the actual study, for example if the researchers have used the right theories, if the right set of methods has been used in developing the questions with and if right persons have been interviewed (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Exploration of consumer behaviour was attained by sales data, which can be seen as an outcome action, measuring all the customers (of bread) in the store. Therefore, one could argue that the study have high internal validity. Furthermore, the semi-structured interviews in combination of the observations gain knowledge of the customers' attitudes, their perception and behaviour towards different markings in store, among others the Health Choice markings. We argue that we used the right methods and interviewed the right people (random bread customers in store). By using a combination of methods (triangulation) the study gain strong internal validity (Bryman and Bell, 2003).

External validity

If a study can contribute to the research society on a local, regional or global scale, the study has then achieved strong external validity. An example of this is when a study can contribute to its research field on a professional level or to the public. How can other researchers use the study in their research or how can the study benefit or aid the public? The research is addressed to the retailers, since they will gain knowledge about customer behaviour, trends and an alternative to promote healthy options in the store.

External Validity also refers to the ability to generalise to particular target populations, settings, times and generalising. It is arguable that the study does not apply to external validity since no sufficient numbers of interviews have been collected. The reasons for this are that there are too little time for generalisation in terms of the length of the experiment and the number collection of interviews as well as the weeks of sales data. Hence more weeks and more stores are needed in order to be able to generalise the study.

3.8 Methodological summary

In order to obtain an overview of the methodological approach, a methodological summary has been done (see Figure 13 - Methodological summary). This study has undertaken a positivistic view in a combination with an abductive approach. Quantitative and qualitative data will be used in the data collection. The research strategy that was found most appropriate in relation to the research purpose was quasi-experimental design, which means that manipulation of the social settings will be undertaken in order to gain a before and after (cause and effect) – findings. To do this, sales data have been conducted from the ICA Supermarket where the experiment was undertaken. In addition semi-structured interviews and observations were conducted. The qualitative data have strengthened in the quantitative data in terms of exploring the meaning that underlie the behaviour being determined from the sales data.



Figure 13 - Methodological summary

The respondents were chosen from the fact that they were bread customers, and were not a child. Otherwise we chose random customers since we wanted people in all ages and sex. In addition the data collected were then analysed by the modified AIDA model, which included the decision making process, the stimuli-and response model of buying behaviour and the total visual merchandising process.

4 Empirical Data and Analysis

This chapter will present the compiled empirical data collected from the sales statistics, qualitative customer interviews as well as through observations. This data will then be analysed through the theoretical framework presented in chapter two. As a finish touch an extended AIDA-model will be presented.

4.1 Introduction to the experiment

As mentioned before, we conducted a preparation observation in order to attain the right information in the store during the interviews and observations. This observation will be summarised in this section to provide essential knowledge to the experiment that will be presented and analysed later in this chapter.

As being brought into consideration in chapter two (2.2 The selling environment and the total visual merchandising process), the store environment can be regarded in terms of the total visual merchandising process (store environment design, merchandise presentation, in-store communication and customers' senses appeal), thus the observation was undertaken to gain knowledge in this area.

Regarding the store environment design and customers senses appeal, one could clearly see that the store owner wants to give the customer a pleasant shopping experience. This has resulted in that the store is easy to walk around in and easy to locate different products. The perishable goods surround the storage goods that are placed in the middle of the store (see Appendix X Store layout – ICA Supermarket Jätten, Lund). The first section in the store consists of the bread section, which makes it important to catch the customers' attention at an early stage. There are many factors that constitute to a pleasant atmosphere, such as music, sight and smell. When we did the preparation observation, we found that there was music playing from a mainstream radio station in the store, except for the vegetables and fruit section where there were sounds of birds. Since constantly new baked bread was available, this provided a wonderful smell of newly baked bread and buns at the entrance. We could not find many signs or advertisements, which was strengthened by Michal (Interview, Wieloch) who said that he only had informative signs in the store and tried to keep the store as clean from advertisements as possible. Price offers and reduced price information can obviously be found in the store. However, at the entrance, before entering the actual grocery store, there is a lot of advertisement of different gambling activities. From the observations, we concluded that many customers did not pay any attention to these activities. If the customers ignored them, (which is our conclusion of the observation), it can be argued that it is more likely that they will ignore signs and advertisements in store as well.

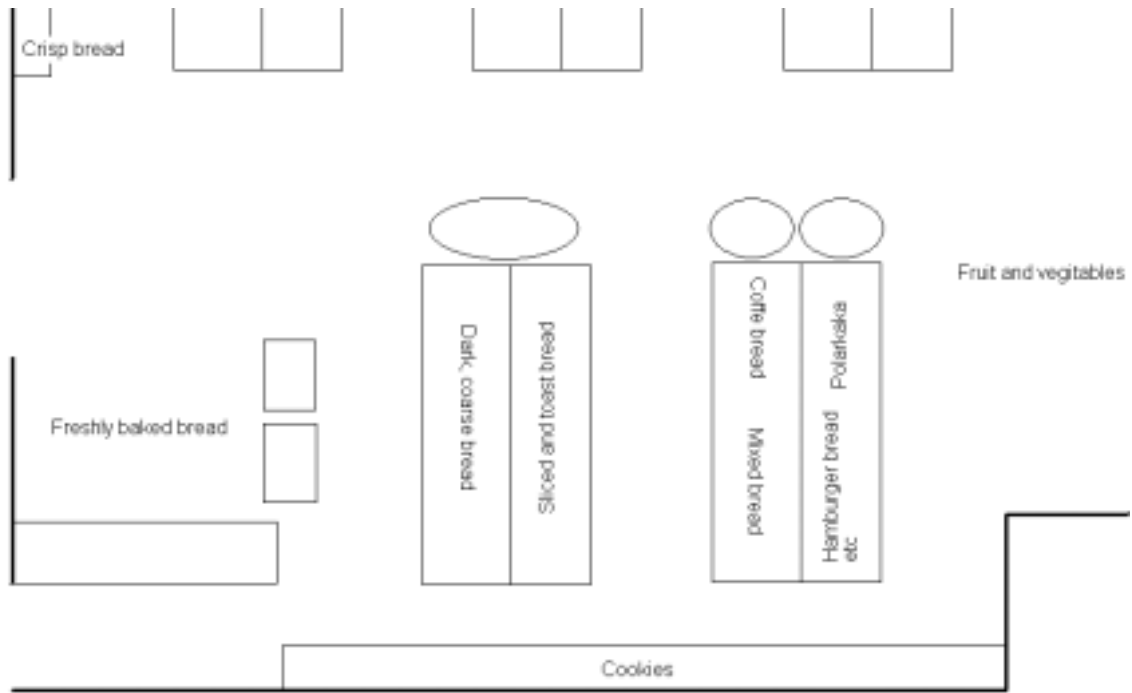


Figure 14 - Bread section at ICA Supermarket Jätten

As mentioned earlier, the bread section is the first section of the store. This means that everybody entering the store have to pass the bread section. The first part of the bread section constitutes of new baked bread and buns (see Figure 14 - Bread section at ICA Supermarket Jätten). Thereafter there are two gondolas, four shelves with pre-baked bread. The height of the shelves is from 40 cm to 180 cm. Moreover, in total there are approximately 145 different bread types excluded the pastries, see Table 4 - Bread types and amount .

Table 4 - Bread types and amount

Bread type	Amount
Dark, Coarse bread	64
Sliced bread	33
Coffee bread	15
Mixed bread	32
Polarkaka bread	28
Hamburger bread etc.	9
Other	8
Total	189

There are also special offers on the gondola ends, with campaigns and special offers. Next to the bread section there is for example crisp bread, cookies, fruit and vegetables (see Figure 14 - Bread section at ICA Supermarket Jätten)

4.2 Experiment: Before

The quantitative data for weeks 14 and 16 have been put together in the table below. It shows the actual sale of the selected breads before putting up the signs, as well as the percentage that these hold of the total bread sale. Since the actual number of bread sold will depend upon the total bread sales, it is relevant to also look at the percentage that the marked bread had of the total bread sale before the signs were put up. In addition, the average sale of week 14 and 16 are illustrated in the table.

Table 5 - Bread sales (during week 14, 16 and average)

Bread	Week 14		Week 16		Average week 14 & 16	
	Number of bread	Percentage of total bread sale	Number of bread	Percentage of total bread sale	Number of bread	Percentage of total bread sale
100% fullkorn (Polarbröd)	8	0,23	11	0,31	9,5	0,27
Fullkornsstätta (Aza)	7	0,20	10	0,31	8,5	0,24
Fullkornsbröd (Va' Gott)	9	0,26	4	0,11	6,5	0,19
Storpack rågkugar (Fazer)	8	0,23	8	0,23	8	0,23
Total (marked bread)	32	0,91	33	0,94	32,5	0,93
Total (all bread)	3 517	100	3 501	100	3 509	100

The total sales of bread during week 14 was 3 517 and during week 16 it was 3 501. The average sold bread during the both weeks was 3 509 number of breads.

In order to see the difference in sales for the different bread, a histogram has been illustrated below. It shows that *Fullkornsbröd* had the highest bread during week 14 and *100% Fullkorn* during week 16. The bread that sold the most in average during both week 14 and 16 was *100% Fullkorn*. The sales of *Fullkornsbröd* varied most during these two weeks while *Rågkugar* remained the same in sale.

The qualitative data collection aimed to gain deeper understanding of customers' shopping attitudes and behaviour. What did the customers do, and why? The semi-structured interviews were divided into three themes; bread consumption, bread section and markings on bread. Additionally, the participated observation aimed to strengthen these interviews as well as the quantitative data, since there are questions that cannot attain all information that we needed, such as how they behaved, what they looked at, what kind of mood they are in.

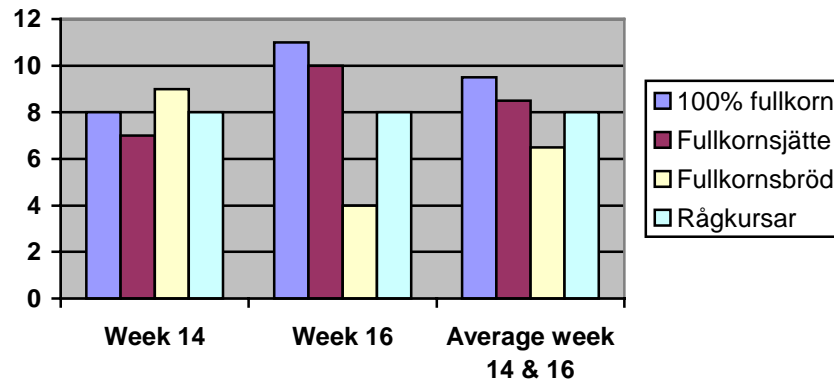


Figure 15 - Bread sales per week (14, 16, average)

As mentioned in the chapter three, the interviewees were randomly collected. The respondents of the before data were 33 female and 17 male, a total of 50 persons. Thus it is clear that most interviewees are female. The spread of ages differed, but the majority were in the middle age between 45 - 64 years as been showed in Table 6 - Respondents before the experiment).

Table 6 - Respondents before the experiment

Age group	Female	Male	Total
A (- 29)	5	6	9
B (30 - 44)	11	4	15
C (45 - 64)	14	3	17
D (65 -)	2	4	6
Total	33	17	50

To the first question *Why did you choose this bread?* the majority of the people being interviewed chose bread that they preferred due to the taste. There were a couple of people that bought the bread because it was a healthy alternative or freshly baked. A few also said that they bought it because of the price (i.e. cheap bread). A couple of people also answered that they bought the bread for someone else. Responses such as “the wife’s decision” (man, age group C), “buying for my older mum the bread must be easy to chew because she has bad teeth” (woman, C), “no added sugar bread a combination of that I am a diabetic and the family likes it” (woman, age group C) were common answer. From observations, we could see that children often were a big part of the decision process. There were people in the ages between 30-44 (B) that purchase bread for their children, one customer said they “the reason I am choosing this bread is because my son likes it”.

Table 7 - Respondents that bought bread for someone else (week 14 and 16)

Age group	Female	Male	Total
A (- 29)			
B (30 - 44)	3	2	5
C (45 - 64)	2	1	3
D (65 -)	1		1
Total	6	3	

What kind of bread do you usually buy, and why? most respondents answered that they liked variation and bought mixed types of bread. In general terms dark and coarse bread were favourites. The combination of the taste and healthy was popular as well. Fresh bread was also a common answer among the interviewees. This was strengthened by the observations, where we could determine that many people bought new baked bread. The reason for this they said, were because it was fresh and because of the price (buy three pieces for ten SEK).

Many of the interviewees usually shop at the store every time although they do not buy bread every time they shop grocery (*How often do you visit the store and How often you purchase bread*). The majority buy bread one to two times a week and change bread every third time they purchase bread. The reason and how often they changed bread was answered in the next question. Most customers said that they usually choose bread after what they want for the moment, hence taste is very important. Commonly the customers varied their purchase of bread between four to five different types. Clearly, elderly people do not change bread very often if they do it at all. It is more likely that younger people change the type of bread, then for several of reasons, for instance

- Tired of the taste
- Recommended by friends/colleagues
- Want to try something new
- Try to eat healthy

Questions about the bread section contained questions such as *Do you find any problems with the bread section?* To this question more respondent answered no. They could easily find the bread that they were looking for and were pleased with the fact that the bread section is categorised after bread type and not suppliers. Some respondents (age group D), said that they had difficulty to read the bread, as the shelf is quite high (180 cm). In addition, from the observation we could distinguish that some people had difficulties to find what they were looking for. When we asked them why the most common answers were:

- The bread was out of stock
- First time in the store
- The bread was moved to another place
- Not used to the bread section after the re-structure

The following questions were about markings on bread and signs in the bread section. In order to answer these questions we have to strengthen the interviews with observations, since many customers do not think of their own behaviour. Hence the interviews strengthened the observations. Most people paid attention to the price signs, since they could benefit from it, in

terms of buying cheaper products. This can be linked with attention in the AIDA model. The fact that it is an offer or reduced price, it is arguable to draw the customers' attention. Furthermore, since the customer found this low price as a benefit, it creates interest.

When it came to the markings on the products, customers were mainly aware of the keyhole mark. Wholemeal was also an important marking according to the customers. The reason for this is because they are "healthy" or "recommended". No added sugar was also a common response, which they argue was because of the taste and healthiness.

What does actually leads to action? Clearly there must be a need in order for consumer to purchase bread hence one could argue that the need is the centre of the purchase. Furthermore, the customer must feel that the product that he or she is going to buy will actually fulfil that need; for example in terms of taste or healthiness. Who is making the decision is another important question to consider. In age group A it seems like it is most common that the individual is doing it by themselves, or together with their partner. However in group B and C the bread purchase decision is often influenced or decided by the children or the rest family. In these cases it is not uncommon that one type of bread is bought for each family member. In group D and in some cases also in group C, it is no longer a decision but more as a habit, as they usually buy the same bread and have difficulties to adapt to new types of bread. In addition, we got an impression that most people are very health conscious, and buy somewhat healthy bread. The customers are aware of the keyhole mark, which guide them through the choice of bread, but also wholemeal, no added sugar, and fresh bread. In turn, the preferences of bread that customers have, can lead to action if these preferences can be fulfilled.

Other factors that influence action could be availability in store, or offers in the store. If a customer has planned to buy a particular bread, and when he enter the bread section that particular bread is out-of-stock, it is likely that they do unplanned purchase.

4.3 Experiment: After

The quantitative data for weeks 17 and 18 have been put together in the table below. As in table two, this table shows the actual sale of the selected breads, as well as the percentage that these hold of the total bread sale. Further, this table will also present the percentage that the marked bread had of the total bread sale, but this time after the signs have been implemented. In addition, the average sale of week 17 and 18 are illustrated in the table.

The total bread sale and the total sale of the marked bread decreased from week 17 to week 18. The total bread sale decrease from 3 791 to 3 547 breads, which is a total decrease of 6.45 percent. The sales of the marked bread however, decreased from 49 bread to 39 bread, which means a decrease of 20.4 percent. This shows that the sales of the marked bread decreased significantly.

Table 8 - Sales of bread (week 17, 18 and average)

Bread	Week 17		Week 18		Average week 17 & 18	
	Number of bread	Percentage of total bread sale	Number of bread	Percentage of total bread sale	Number of bread	Percentage of total bread sale
100% fullkorn (Polarbröd)	17	0,45	15	0,42	16	0,44
Fullkornsjätte (Åxa)	7	0,18	7	0,20	7	0,19
Fullkornsbröd (Va' Gott)	12	0,32	8	0,23	10	0,27
Storpack rågkugar (Fazer)	13	0,34	9	0,25	11	0,30
Total (marked bread)	49	1,29	39	1,10	44	1,20
Total (all bread)	3791	100	3547	100	3 669	100

According to Figure 16 - Bread sale per week (week 17, 18 and average)) the bread that sold the most was *100% Fullkorn* which was on average 16 breads per week. When the total amount of sold bread decreased the sale of this bread also decreased. *Fullkornsjätte* sold the same both weeks, with seven breads. The sale of this bread does not decrease then the total bread sale decreases. This could mean that it is the same people who buy this bread each week. The sale of both *Fullkornsbröd* and *Storpack Rågkugar* decreased when the sale of total bread decreased. *Fullkornsbröd* had an average sale of ten breads. *Storpack Rågkugar* had an average sale of 11 breads.

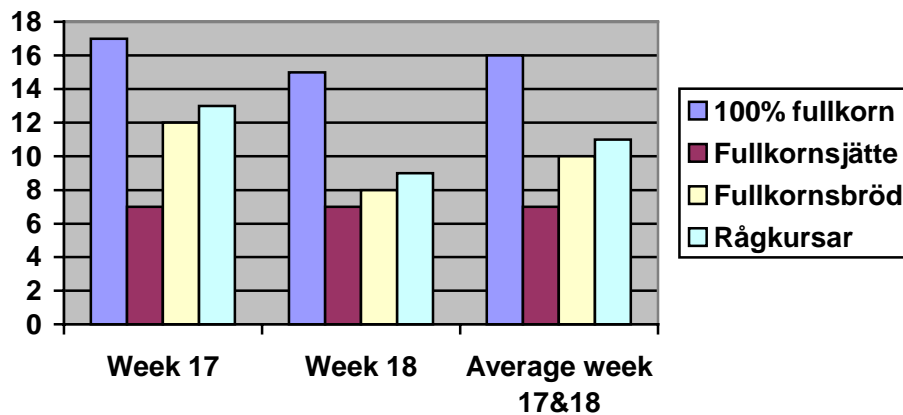


Figure 16 - Bread sale per week (week 17, 18 and average)

The qualitative data that we collected after the signs were implemented was that aimed to explore the customers' behaviour in relation the Health Choice signs. The observations and interviews were structured in terms to see changes, if any, and influences of this stimulus. As before, the questions posed to the customers were divided into three themes; bread consumption, bread section and markings on bread as before. However, since the signs Health Choice has been put up, the interview contained additional questions.

The qualitative data collection differed in the number of men and women being interviewed. As can be seen in Table 9 - Gender share in experiment), there are more men during the after interviews than before, although it is not a significant difference. The spread of ages differed, but the majority were in the middle age between 30-44 years during the after period of the experiment.

Table 9 - Gender share in experiment

Gender	Before signs		After signs	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Men	17	34	20	40
Women	33	66	30	60
Total	50	100	50	100

To the first question *why did you buy this bread*, the majority of the respondents said that it was because it tasted good. Many of them combined this answer with the fact that it was a habit, and that they normally do this. Another common answer that many respondents gave was that they bought it for someone else (see Table 10 - Respondents that bought bread for someone else (week 17 and 18)). Example of this is;

- An older parent that has trouble chewing (woman, age group B)
- A younger child that has trouble chewing, or the fact that (woman and man, age group C)
- The other family member normally eats this or has requested this bread (woman, age group C).

Table 10 - Respondents that bought bread for someone else (week 17 and 18)

Age group	Female	Male	Total
A (- 29)	1		1
B (30 - 44)	6	2	8
C (45 - 64)	1	1	2
D (65 -)		1	1
Total	8	4	12

The age group that made the most purchases for someone else was the one with respondents between the ages of 30 and 44, a total of eight out of 50. Within the age group B, women bought bread on behalf of someone else three times more than men.

That fact that the bread was healthy was also a frequent answer in combination with habit and taste, for example

- It is healthy and I usually buy it (woman, age group B), or
- It both tastes good and is healthy (woman, age group A).

To the question what kind of bread do you usually buy, the respondents most common answer were dark and whole meal bread. A couple of people also answered white sliced bread. Many respondents point out that they liked variation and bought mixed types of bread depending on

the situation. It was more common that the men did their shopping according to a shopping list, while the females knew what kind of bread to buy without a shopping list.

Before the customers are able to make a decision or choice, buyer characteristics and buyer decision making process are important to bring into consideration. Psychosocial characteristics could not be obtained through observations or interviewees, however personal, social and cultural were attained although to a certain extent. As mentioned earlier, one could see clear patterns in age differences. The younger age group (A) was more open to changes and to try new bread. The younger middle age and middle age made their decision of bread from the families' perspectives, which mean that the buyer was influenced by social factors. Moreover, interviews showed that cultural factors influence the buying behaviour, for instance the importance of healthiness. A few respondents that not had Sweden as their country of origin were influenced by his or hers country's traditions. Some people perceived bread as purely food, while other people perceived it as a complement with a meal, or something that should be healthy.

When asking the questions *if the find any problems in the bread section*, most respondents, with only a few exceptions, answered "no, it was easy to find what I was looking for". Since these answers were similar to the before data, it is arguable that customers, in most cases buy bread that they are familiar with. Hence many customers know where to look and find what they are looking for, which in turn means that they do not find any problems with the bread section because they know where to look.

On the question whether *the customers usually pay attention to any markings or signs in your decision of bread?* most respondents said that they did not look for anything in particular. Of those that looked for something special on the package the most frequent answer was that they looked for certain keywords on the package like wholemeal or no added sugar. Some of the respondents said that they actively searched for the keyhole mark. This did not mean that the other respondents did not care about the keyhole. Other stated that they did not look for anything in particular on the package, but it was good is there was a keyhole mark on it.

On the question *Did you notice any markings/signs in the bread section*, a large majority of the respondents, about 41 out of 50, said no. Many of these where stressed and claimed that they where looking for their specific bread, and was in a hurry. This was also confirmed by the observations that many of the customers know where their bread is in the bread section and go there straight away. Many of the respondents that arrived to the store after work where stressed and just bought the things on their shopping list.

Table 11 - Recall and recognition of the signs

Age group	Female		Male		Total	
	Recall	Recognition	Recall	Recognition	Recall	Recognition
A (- 29)	1	2	2		3	2
B (30 - 44)	1	3	2	1	3	4
C (45 - 64)	1	1		1	1	2
D (65 -)	2			1	2	1
Total	5	6	4	3	9	9

If the respondents had not noticed the markings at first (according to the question above), we showed them pictures of the signs. A few of them, ten out of 50 recognised them. They said that they have seen the signs, but they were of no interest to the respondent at the time, which is why they forgot them. A few comments on why they did not recall the signs at first were;

- that they looked for some other kind of bread at that time, and therefore did not find the signs relevant or interesting (woman, age group B), or
- never looks for healthier varieties, and therefore did not find the signs relevant or interesting (male, age group D)

There were a few respondents however that found the signs interesting and said that they perhaps would consider, look closer at or actually buy their healthier alternatives the next time. By those who noticed and recalled the signs, which was nine respondents, were not affected or influenced by them. The reasons for this were among others;

- they claimed if they wanted to buy healthy bread they knew what bread to buy, without looking at any signs (man, age group B)
- they always buy a particular bread by habit and were not interested in changing bread (woman, age group D)

However, there are a couple of the respondents that noticed the signs, but since they had their centre of attention elsewhere, they did not read or paid much attention to it. An example of this was customers with a shopping list, since they were more likely to ignore signs and advertisements being displayed in the store. Hence it is easier to reach non-shopping list customers since they are more aware of POP and signs in the store. To reach shopping-list customers, one must regard methods that involves outside store behaviour. For the people that did change bread because of the signs said that they found the signs interesting, easy to read and understand. Some also added that they thought the signs provided a clear message and helped them to find the healthiest alternative fast.

Since nobody of the respondent noticed the sign from the ceiling, this clearly lowered the chances to influence and affect the customer behaviour and purchase choice. A couple of the respondent paid attention to the sign on the shelves however, there were more people that saw the sign, not reading it. This can be seen as a drawback, since the customers must read the signs if there are to have any impact at all (Underhill, 2003). From the interviews and observation, we could see that the reason for this were mainly because the customers were stressed, or looking for specific bread (not reading signs but skimming bread packages on the shelves). The customers that saw the signs said that the sign was clear and easy to read and understand. One person said that the colour of the signs strengthened the power of healthiness. Although these customers had positive attitudes towards the Health Choice signs they did not buy their usual bread, instead of the marked breads. Why is this? Are they afraid of testing something new? Were the signs not trustworthy enough? When we asked them why, they could not really answer, but some said that they might consider it and buy next time, since they are more aware of the signs from now on. Could it depend on that the signs were unfamiliar and therefore created difficulties for the customers to be really influenced by? The time from entering the bread section to leaving was perhaps too short for the customers to see, read, understand and be influenced by the sign.

The buyer decision making process is also vital to the buyer response. As being discussed in the Theory chapter (2.1.3.1 Decision making process), a purchase starts with need recognition and problem awareness. This was mostly the case according to the respondents a they bought bread when they need it or wanted it. The information and evaluation of alternatives appeared in some cases, but mostly the buyer need what type of bread to buy before entering the store. However, this could be a reasons why they did not paid any attention to the signs of the Health Choice. Furthermore, we found that customers were stressed and hurried through the store hence this could also be seen as a major reason not paying attention to the signs. Thus, the Health Choice signs did not influence or affect buying behaviour directly, and were not related to product or brand choice. However, being exposed on a larger scale this could have a positive effect on customers wanting to shop healthier.

4.4 Experiment analysis

A common pattern that can be determined from our data collection, is that most shoppers are female and in the middle ages. First and foremost, they purchase bread because they like the taste. Secondly because it is healthy, hence dark and coarse bread is popular. In addition no added sugar and wholemeal bread are also of huge interest for the customers. 30 percent of the respondents were aware of and paid attention to the keyhole mark when shopping bread. Although all customers did not choose the bread because of its healthiness, they had a positive association when talking about the keyhole mark. Moreover, it should be recognised that the keyhole mark was something that they were familiar with and trusted.

The quantitative data showed that the bread sales increased on three out of the four Health Choice-marked bread (according to Figure 17 - Average bread sale (in percent, during week 14 & 16 and 17 & 18)). The table illustrates that the “after” weeks had in average higher sales than the “before” weeks.

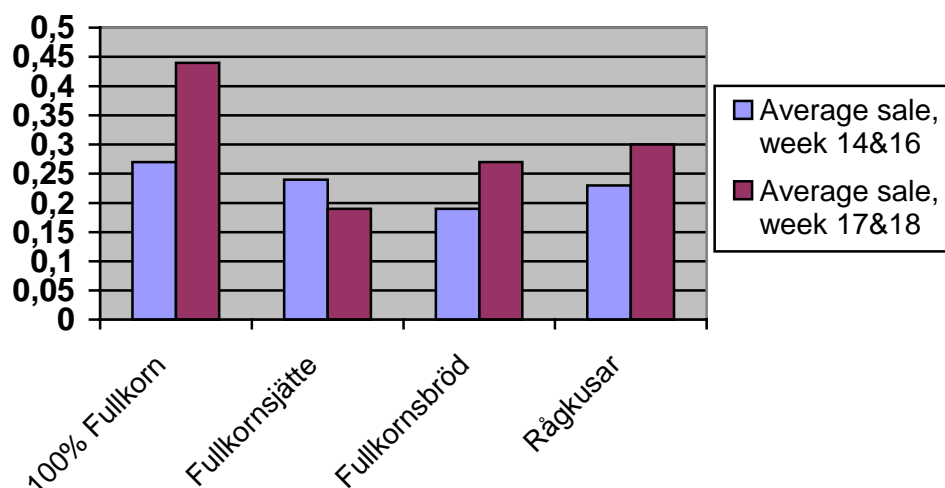


Figure 17 - Average bread sale (in percent, during week 14 & 16 and 17 & 18)

The Figure 18 - Change in sales (in percentage of the difference after and before) shows the percentage in change of total sales during weeks 14 and 16, and 17 and 18. The bread that clearly increased the most was *100% Fullkorn*, that increased by 68 percent. Conversely, *Fullkornsjätte* had the lowest change, and decreased (by 17 percent) in sales from the first

period. The reason for this could be that the bread was out of stock the last week of the experiment (findings from observations). Another reason for this could be that the bread were placed on the bottom shelf, and was hard to notice for the customers. In total, the sales of the marked bread increased from the before-period to the after-period by 35.4 percent.

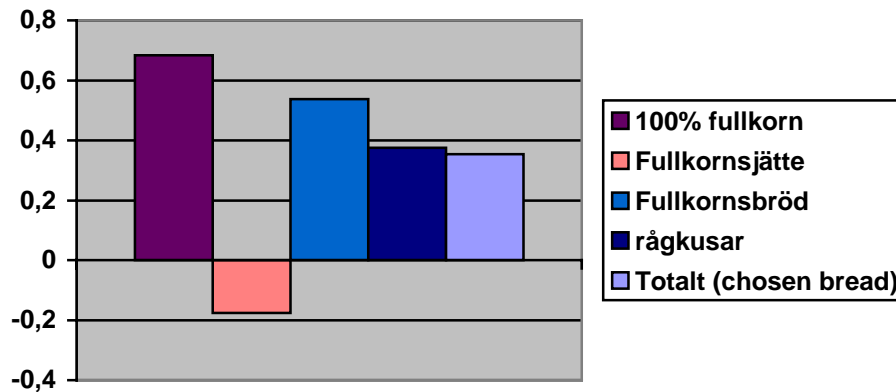


Figure 18 - Change in sales (in percentage of the difference after and before)

Before we put up the signs, about four out of five looked for some sort of health marking in the bread section (for example the Keyhole, Wholemeal or no added sugar), which means that there was a large interest potential for our type of marking. After we had put up the Health Choice-signs about one out of three respondents noticed them. On half of these respondents, one out of six, the signs had made such an impact that they remembered it without any help from the interviewer (recall). The most frequent comments on the signs were that it was an interesting and good message since it was simple and easy to understand, thus the interest for the signs and its message was high. The desire to buy the product was lower than expected after hearing how many people was interested in the message. The respondents said that it was an interesting and very good thing to mark these breads, but it was meant for someone else than themselves, since they already knew about the healthy bread. They said that the signs were for stressed people who did not have the time to find a good bread or did not know anything about healthy bread. The desire to buy the marked bread was therefore low, and only seven out of 50 had thoughts about trying the concept sometime. Only three of our respondents (about six percent) actually bought one of the marked breads. The reason why they did it was because the signs had shown them a new interesting bread, that they became interested in. They were very clear with stressing that they bought the bread because they liked it, not just because of the signs.

The data showed that none of the respondents who bought bread for someone else had noticed the signs. This result made us think more about the concept of decision making unit (see 2.1.3.2 Decision making unit).

Is it possible to affect the person, who has the role of buyer, with signs and advertisements in the store, if they are not the decision maker (see Figure 6 - Relationship between the theories)? If the person who visits the store has a shopping list with items that has to be bought for other person, do they ignore all kinds of point of purchase influence then? Do we have to reach other people (outside the store), in a different way in order to affect the buyers in-store behaviour? If this is really the truth, then it is probably not true that at least 70 percent

of all purchase decisions are made in the store. Hence, in store behaviour is not the same as decision making.

Much of what has been brought into consideration in the analysis so far can be related to the AIDA model in the theory chapter (Figure 6 - Relationship between the theories) and in Appendix XII (Relationship between the theories – extended version). For instance, during the *preparation* section above we discussed *The Total Visual Merchandising Process*. In the analysis of qualitative data, before and after the manipulation of the social setting, the *Stimuli and Response Model of Buying Behaviour* was brought into account. To gain deeper understanding in how customers become motivated to act on an external stimulus this shows an understanding of how customers behave in store, this will now be connected with the modified AIDA process.

Attention

As being discussion in chapter two (2.4.1 Modified AIDA model), it is essential to have the customers' attention if possible going to persuade the consumer to buy anything, but what catches the customers' attention? In the bread section where we did our observations and interviews, we found that low prices and offers catch the customers' attention. Due to the fact that the signs only has a few seconds to convince the customer to buy the product, it must be advantageous for the customers. During week 16, there was an offer of new baked buns, "three buns for ten SEK". An estimation of 45 percent of the customer stopped and had a closer look and many of them bought the product. During week 18 it was another offer, "newly baked bread for ten SEK". A low price, a good offer and placed in a way the caught the customers attention.

When entering the store, the first thing that appeared in the store, was the first shelf of bread (see Figure 14 - Bread section at ICA Supermarket Jätten), Appendix X (Store layout – ICA Supermarket Jätten, Lund) and Appendix XI (Photos of the store and the store environment)). One could argue that this layout in the store was attention catching, as many people stopped and choose bread from this shelf.

From the before data collection, it could be determined that a third of the respondents paid attention to the keyhole mark. It is also a third that pay attention to the wholemeal symbol. The respondents that looked at both the keyhole and wholemeal symbol were seven customers. These customers constitutes for 14 percent of the total interviewees. Additionally, it was 17 people, 34 percent, that said that they did not pay attention to any markings on products.

Table 12 - Respondents attention towards markings before experiment

Marking	Respondents (no)	Respondents (%)
Keyhole Mark	15	30
Wholemeal symbol	15	30
Combination of Keyhole mark and Wholemeal	7	14
Do not look at any markings	17	34
Total number of respondents; 50		

As mentioned earlier, 41 out of 50 did not pay any attention to the Health Choice signs. This means that only 9 respondents saw or paid any attention to the signs. The reasons why only a few people saw them depended on several reasons, external influences in the store and external influences outside the store. If the consumer for example was stressed, it was less likely that they noticed the signs as they had their centre of attention on the products rather than the shelf. From the interviews, we found that many of the interviewees saw the signs, but they did not read it, or spend much time to “understand” them, instead they ignored them. When we asked why they did not read them, they said that it was not the bread or criteria they were looking for, or that they did not have time to read them. The respondents that had paid attention to the signs stated that they were easy to read and understand this in turn created interest.

Of the respondents, there were no one that had noticed that sign from the ceiling. This means that these signs had not any impact on the customers. However, the signs on the shelf were for some people more difficult to notice than others, since not all customers look at the entire shelf (just on the section or spot he or she searches for breads). In turns this could have had a negative effect on the experiment.

Interest

The next step in the AIDA model is interest. This is what is gained to keep the customers' interest.

From the observations it is arguable that the smell of new baked buns created interest of new baked bread. An appealing packaging can also be seen as an interest catching factor in the bread section. The interviews strengthened these points “it looks to taste good and it is healthy” (woman, age group B) and “it smelled new baked buns, I had to buy it” (woman, age group B). A couple of the respondents said that they chose the particular bread, because they had bought it before and because they knew it had a good taste. This recognition created an interest for the customer.

The interest of the signs was not as high as predicted. However, the respondents who paid attention to the signs and read them claimed that there were interesting since it was easy to understand the message. Further, they added that if they were looking for healthy bread alternatives, it would have created even more interest to them. This means that a sign is not really interesting until the customer connect with it. The signs must be of interest for the customers, for instance meeting the purpose or need of their shopping. Many respondents liked the idea of the signs, and said it was a good idea for lazy and stressed people. However, the respondents thought that they themselves already knew what bread to purchase, and would therefore not use the signage. This answer is questioned by the authors since is it known within marketing that it is embarrassing to admit (for a customer) that you buy something because of marketing. This means that they might still find the signs useful even though they do not admit it. Another thing that was noticed is the fact that the customers must read, understand and feel connected to the signs if interest is to be created.

Desire

During the desire stage, motivation is created that leads to a desire to purchase the product. Generally this is created at the shelf, if the customers are unsecured in his or her choice of bread. For the customers that know what type of bread to buy before entering the store, the desire has been created at an earlier stage.

In relation to the Health Choice signs, the message, “less sugar, less fat, more wholemeal” could create a desire to the customers if this fulfil there shopping purpose, or their need. Moreover, at this stage the customers usually look closer at the product to make up their own mind. Is this really something for me? Since most customers, look at markings such as wholemeal and no added sugar, it is arguable that the signs provide interest desire for the customers as it provides just this.

Action

At this, final stage, the customers decided whether to purchase the product or not. We have measured purchase in sales as seen earlier, in this chapter (see Table 5 - Bread sales (during week 14, 16 and average) and Table 8 - Sales of bread (week 17, 18 and average)). The Figure 19 - Bread sale (week 14, 16, 17 and 18)), below, illustrates the individual bread’s sale each week. *100% Fullkorn* has the higher sales during week 17 with 17 breads. As been mentioned before, this bread is also the bread with the highest increase during all four weeks. *Fullkornsjette* on the other hand almost remain the same with a little exception during week 16, in total sale. Moreover, *Fullkornsbröd* has the lowest sale during week 16 out all the four breads.

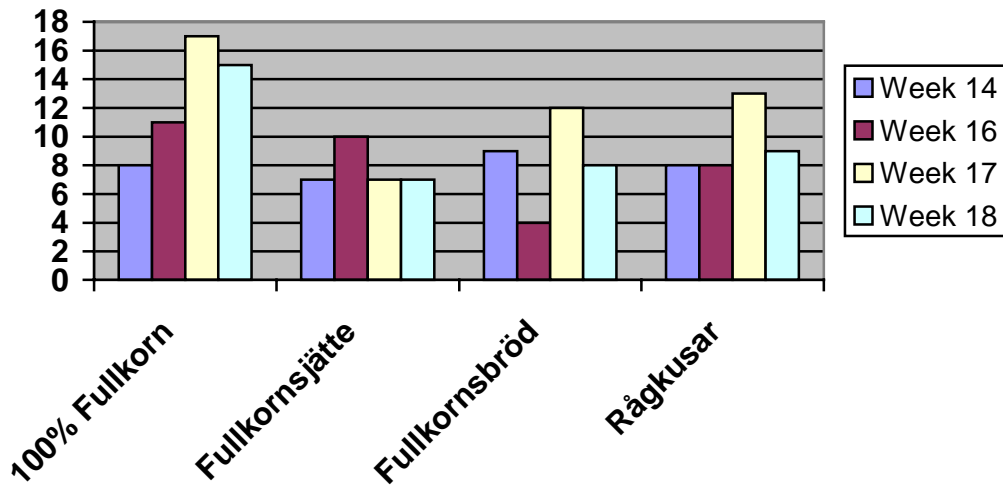


Figure 19 - Bread sale (week 14, 16, 17 and 18)

Although the sales of *100% Fullkorn*, *Fullkornsbröd* and *Rågkusar*, increased in sales, many of the respondents choose another bread, hence not all decision making process leads to action. Even though many customers read and understand the signs, which also lead them to desire they chose not to purchase the bread. Why did not they buy it? Why did they choose another bread?

When we asked them that question, most respondent answered that they bought the other bread of habit, because they usually buy it. Other respondents answered that the bread did not fulfil their current purpose. However, they added that next time when they are more aware of the sign, they might try it. This means that the customers will be more receptive to the sign next time they do their bread shopping due recognition and recall of the signs, but also because they have been able to attain more knowledge of the signs. Moreover, customers being stressed in a bread section, do not have time to read and understand signs, if they had knowledge of this particular sign in beforehand, perhaps this would have led to that they had looked after the sign, rather than ignoring it on the shelf. Thus, the outcome would have been

affected and in turn differed. Further, the trustworthiness could be questioned. Since the customers do not know by which criteria this signs has been made up from, lack in trust could have led to decision of not buying the marked product.

To conclude this analysis, it is essential to not only influence the customers in store, but also before they enter the store (see Figure 20 - Modified AIDA model). This is because many of the decision have been made beforehand, by themselves, or someone else they buy bread for (see chapter two, *decision making unit* and table four and seven). If the customers could be involved at this earlier stage, it is more likely that they will be influenced. Moreover, by starting the process of influencing on the customers before entering the store, the customers are also more likely to be affected since the process is longer.

Likewise, it is important to be aware of that there are a “post-store” stage in the AIDA model as well, determining what will happen after the purchase (see Figure 20 - Modified AIDA model). If the customers are satisfied, it is likely that they are not receptive for influences since they will purchase the same product again. If they, on the other hand is dissatisfied, they either want to try something new which will make them receptive to information in and outside the store or they might want to make a safe choice by purchasing something that he or she is already familiar with. Making a safe choice leads to that the person might not be receptive for other information. This is because they have strongly decided to buy a bread that they are familiar with and like. Hence we argue that the marketers need to come outside the store, and influence external influencing factors in order to be able to reach the customers at an early stage.

But when are the customers receptive to signs, and how can full attention be achieved? According to our study the event happens according to Figure 20 - Modified AIDA model. If the customers have not recently been dissatisfied with a bread, but yet are bored with the one, or the ones, that they buy today, they are likely to look for other alternative. When looking for other alternatives, they are receptive to influence from information sources in the store (for example our marking). They are also receptive to in store information if they for example has received “buying order” from someone else that are open to suggestions (for example that they should buy a dark, healthy bread without sugar).

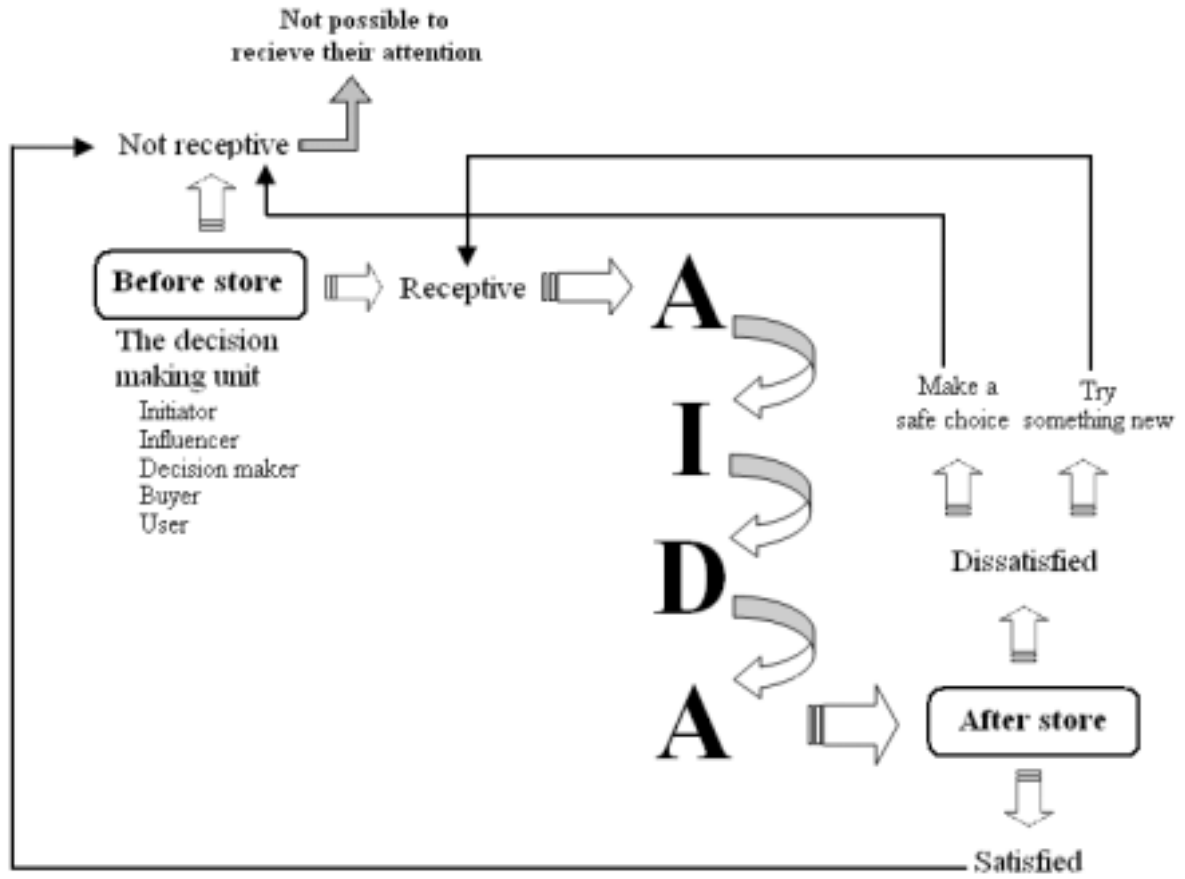


Figure 20 - Modified AIDA model

5 Discussion

This chapter will first summarize the results from received from the study. These results will then be discussed and a few conclusions will be made. The discussion will also lead to some managerial implications as well as recommendations for future research.

5.1 Summary of study

The quantitative data showed that the bread sales increased on three out of the four Health Choice-marked bread when we had put up the signs (according to Figure 21 - Average bread sale (in percent, during week 14 & 16 and 17 & 18)). One reason why the fourth bread did not increase, might be that it was sold out, and that the manufacturers did not increase the amount of bread after demand. Another reason could be that the bread, and the Health Choice-sign was placed at the bottom of a shelf (approximately 40 cm from the ground) and was therefore not noticed by the customer.

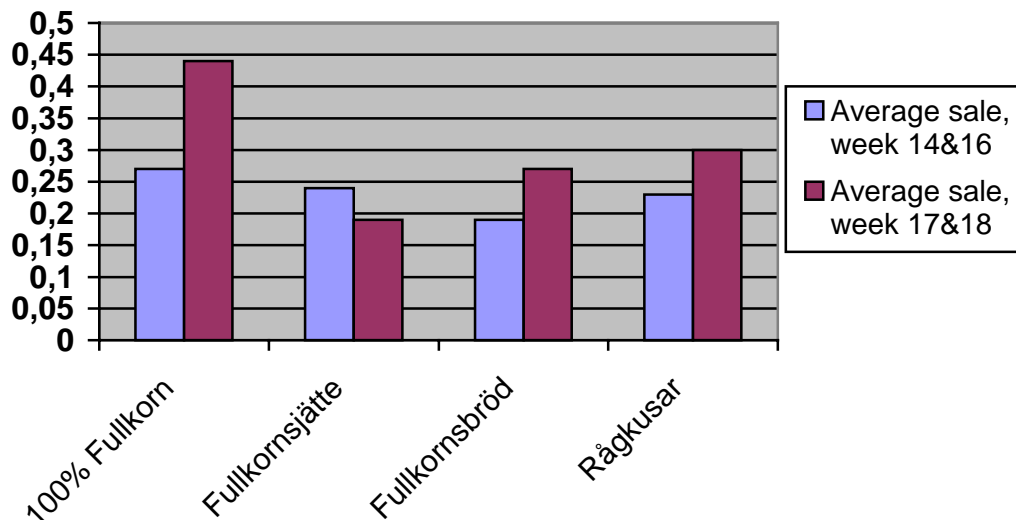


Figure 21 - Average bread sale (in percent, during week 14 & 16 and 17 & 18)

Before we put up the signs, about four out of five looked for some sort of health marking in the bread section (for example the Keyhole, Wholemeal or no added sugar), which means that there was a large interest potential for our type of marking. When we had put up the Health Choice-signs about one out of three respondents noticed them. On half of these respondents (one out of six) the signs had made such an impact that they recalled them without help from the interviewer. The most frequent comments on the signs were that it was an interesting and good message since it was simple and easy to understand, thus the interest for the signs and its message was high. The desire to buy the product was lower than expected after hearing how many people was interested in the message. The respondents said that it was an interesting and very good thing to mark these breads, but it was meant for someone else than themselves, since they already knew about the healthy bread. They said that the signs were for stressed people who did not have the time to find a good bread or did not know anything about healthy

bread. The desire to buy the marked bread was therefore low, and only seven out of 50 had thoughts about trying the concept sometime. Only three of our respondents (about six percent) actually bought one of the marked breads. The reason why they did it was because the signs had shown them a new interesting bread, that they became interested in. They were clear with stressing that they bought the bread because they liked it, not just because of the signs.

The fact that there were that many people (at least one out of ten) who bought bread on behalf of someone else (child, spouse or perhaps parent) caught our interest. However, none of the respondents who bought bread for someone else had noticed our signs. This result made us think more about the concept of decision making unit (see 2.1.3.2. Decision making unit). Is it possible to affect the person, who has the role of buyer, with signs in the store, if they are not the decision maker as well (see Figure 3 - The Decision Making Unit and Figure 20 - Modified AIDA model)? If the person who visits the store has a shopping list with items that has to be bought for other people, do they ignore all kinds of point of purchase influence then? Do we have to reach other people (outside the store), in a different way in order to affect the buyers in-store behaviour? If this is really the truth, then it is arguable not true that at least 70 percent of all purchase decisions are made in the store. Hence, in-store behaviour is not the same as decision making, although they are interrelated with each other.

We also found that younger people vary their bread purchase more than elderly people. Younger people often have three to five different breads to choose from when they are going to buy bread, and the decision on which to purchase is made upon “what they feel like”. This means that younger people are more likely to be influenced by signs and markings. Middle age people are harder to affect since they often buy bread for more than just themselves (for example for children or spouse). Elderly people most often buy the same bread every time they visit the store, which is a habit nearly impossible to break.

5.2 Discussion of study

When we began with this study, we expected to get results that showed a significant change in bread sales after introducing the Health Choice-signs. In one way we thought that if we only got the customers attention they would think that our idea was interesting and therefore buy the bread. After this study we have realised that this is not the case. The AIDA-model, and getting a customer to buy a new product, is so much more complex than getting the customers attention through stimuli, and then waiting for the action as a response. To get the customer from point A (attention) to point A (action), the sender of the message has to know the receiver better than the competition, in order to make the product and the message as attractive as possible. As mentioned before, there is a lot of competition on the market today. By creating a generally interesting message which catches people attention the sender is perhaps able to take the receiver from a normal mode to A, and then to I (interest). By catching the customer’s attention, in many cases their interest is also caught. Getting the receiver from point I to point D (desire) is harder, since the message then has to correspond to the pre-determined “rules” that the customer has. These rules are determined by the customer’s buyer characteristics (see 2.1.2 Buyer characteristics), like perception and attitudes, but also which role it has in the decision making unit (2.1.3.2 Decision making unit). If the buyer thinks that all healthy bread is disgusting, then it does not matter what we say on the sign, because the buyer will not desire the product anyway. If the buyer is not the consumer, then it is likely that they will not care as much about the sign that they will actually start to desire it or the products it promotes. It is possible that more than just one product gets

to the D-stage, which most likely mean that customer has to choose between the products. Once the customer has bought the product it is important to make sure that they buy it again. Maybe a satisfied customer will not look for other product alternatives, but automatically go for that same product again, which makes it harder to signs to get the attention of these customers. However, if the customers is not that satisfied, and is looking for variation, their attention might be easier to get.

Marketers should think more about getting to know the customer, then just obtaining their attention. It is easier to obtain the customers' attention if they for example find out;

- what they are looking for in the store (importance of different product attributes),
- what decisions they can make (are they buying the product for someone else or is the decision up to them) and
- what they have on their mind at that important moment (are they stressed, tired or perhaps broke).

By getting to know the customer it will become easier to take them to the next step in the AIDA-model.

Another problematic issue when trying to communicate to and convince a customer to buy our product, is that they might already be caught in (and satisfied) some other product's or brand's AIDA-model. How do we get through to a satisfied customer, who is not looking for some other product? And the other way around; how do we keep customers that is caught in our AIDA-model from giving attention to other competing products?

5.3 Reflections after the study

In this study we used three different methods in order to solve the problem we stood in front of; sales data, observations and customer interviews. The sales data was used to see if the bread sale changed after putting up the signs, while the observations and customer interviews where conducted in order to explain the change. An increase in the sales of the marked bread could be confirmed by the sales data. This increase in sales could however not be confirmed that strongly by the interviewed customers. Only three out of the 18 that had seen the signs bought the bread, which was less then we wished, and hoped for.

Thus, the *sales data* showed a change in customer behaviour (an over all sales increase in our breads with 35,4 percent while the sale of total bread was 4.6 percent), while the *observations* showed no change in the customers' behaviour in the bread counter. The *customer interviews* did not show any change in behaviour, because of the signs. The people who actually bought some other bread because of the signs (three out of 50) said that the signs showed them a new type of bread, but that they bought it because of the bread itself. If there was a noteworthy change in the bread sales, but this could not be explained by the people we interviewed or observed, *what else could have affected the sales data?*

One reason why we did not find the same affect on customers we interviewed (as shown in the sales data) could be that they where not the same kind people that was affected by the signs and actually bought the bread. We interviewed customers in the store during the most crowded times (between 3 and 6 pm, during working days), but perhaps our intended target group, and the customers who where actually affected by the signs, do their grocery shopping

in the mornings or during the weekends. This is likely since people shopping during these times have more time to spend in the store (i.e. not so stressed to get home to the family). We, however, chose to do the customer interviews during these times, since the observation sample would be larger, and we would get a more extensive “correct picture” than if we just interviewed customers in the mornings or just randomly during the week. This means that the customer actually could have bought the bread because of the signs, but we did not interview these people.

An external reason why there was a change in sales, which was not seen during the interviews or observations, is the weather. Before we had put up the signs the weather in Lund was cold and cloudy, but when we had put up the signs, the weather changed to sun and about 22 degrees Celsius. This could result in a change of bread buying habits (for example eating “lighter” bread when feeling that the summer is closing up) or shopping habits (feeling stressed and do not want to go around in the store, i.e. does not see the signs).

For greater impact with the customers there are three variables that could be changed; the time the signs were put up, the information that reached the customers and the placement of the signs. According to Wieloch (Interview, Wieloch) the customer flow and the things that they purchase look very different from week to week. In order to get the best results the signs should be placed in the store for at least two salaries periods. Depending on the amount of money that the customers have available to spend, the customer prioritises different things. In order for the customer to trust the signs, and therefore accept the concept, they need more information about it and a trustworthy source that ensures that it is safe. If the information about this new concept had first been published in media, then the customers would both know what it was and what it stood for. There would also be a recognition effect when entering the store. The fact that the interest for the concept is created outside the store makes more people look for the signs. It is also with noticing that the customer only noticed the signs on the shelf label, and not the ones in the ceiling. It is important to find out more about where people look when they enter a store. In this particular store, there is much advertising right outside the entrance, and only informative advertisements inside of it. According to our interview with Wieloch (Interview, Wieloch) after the experiment the attention that the signs caught would have been greater if they had been spread over larger parts of the store (for example in the meat section as well), since this concept is suitable for all parts of the store. In addition, this would also increase the possibilities that the customers recalled the signs at a later stage in the store, since he or she have experienced the store environment and therefore bring more attention to other things in the store, such as signs.

The fact that many customers' decisions are made outside the store, changes the way we now think about getting the customers' attention. Many buyers in the store are not receptive to advertising since they have already made their decision (or someone else has made it for them). In order to reach these consumer groups, that are just the buyers in the decision making unit, the sender of the message has to reach outside the store into for example the home, and influence the decision maker. Through this study we did not gain more in depth knowledge about this, but enough to realise the importance of it.

During the last weeks of our study, Hemköp started to promote and implemented a similar concept throughout the store in order to aid the customers in their choice of healthier varieties. This strengthened the fact that this type of concept is currently demanded in the marketplace.

5.4 Conclusions

In what ways do signs of healthier varieties in store, affect and possible change, customer behaviour?

It is reasonable to believe that we did not change the customers' behaviour from buying an "unhealthy" bread to instead choosing a "healthy" alternative by marking the products with "Health Choice". We can however say that we changed some customers' behaviour from buying one healthy bread, to another healthy bread. The customer probably regarded this new purchase as healthier than the first one.

During the study we realised that there was a big interest for health and markings, since the majority of the respondents look for some sort of health marking on the package (for example the Keyhole or Wholemeal). Health is not the deciding factor for the majority of the respondents when choosing bread, though, but taste is more important.

Since none of the customers noticed the sign from the ceiling, it is safe to say that it was not placed at the right spot. The signs placed on the shelf label got the attention from a third of our respondents. Most of the respondents thought that this was an interesting concept, but this was expected by us when asking the question, since it is a norm to answer healthy questions in a positive way. We also found that younger people vary their bread purchase more than elderly people, which makes it easier to reach the person, the younger they are (when comparing elderly, middle age and younger age groups).

By putting forward four products as a healthier alternative in the bread section, we succeeded in increasing the sale of three of them. It is not entirely safe to say that this increase in bread sales is directly related to the Health Choice signs, since the customer interviews and observations made did not confirm this fact. The customers who had seen the signs, and bought one of the marked bread, was however careful to explain that the signs had just helped him or her find the bread, not made them buy it.

During the study we realised that there were many people who were not "available to give attention" to our signs. There was a large group of people that bought bread for someone else but themselves, which meant that the flexibility to buy any bread that they wanted was limited. The buyer in this case was not the same as the decision maker. None of the respondents that bought bread for someone else noticed our signs, which strengthens our point that this group builds shields towards external stimuli's that try to make convince them into buying something else than intended. Another unreachable group was the respondents who answered that they always bought that bread, and that it was a habit. Breaking through that routine and satisfaction is hard, and the buyer has to be convinced that this alternative is better than the other in order to risk the already known satisfaction.

The conclusions that we can ascertain is that the customers are influenced at some level by the Health Choice signs, but it is clear that more significant data are needed in order to make a more generalised conclusion. However, this could be attained by a longer period of time for the experiment. Moreover, we draw the conclusions that this concept will be found in stores

in the future since there is a need for this type of assistant in the marketplace (Hemköp is one example of this).

5.5 Practical and theoretical knowledge use

The practical usage of the knowledge gained from this study is concentrated to the fact that not all customers in the store are receptive to point of purchase communication. It is important for the sender of a message to be aware of the role that the customer has in the decision making unit. We discovered that none of the people who bought products for someone else noticed our Health Choice signs. This meant that they could not make the same decisions as they would have if they were both the buyer and the decision maker in the decision making unit.

It is also important for practitioners to get to know the decision maker better, regarding their personal characteristics. What are their perceptions, their hierarchy of preferences regarding different product attributes and what role does he or she have in the decision making unit. All these factors play an important role in deciding how to reach the customer. There are some factors that get the customer to point A (attention), and others that attract them to I (interest), and then D (desire) and finally A (action). If the sender of the message are not aware of these factors, and treat them in the right way, they will never get the customer to buy something because of a sign. Once the customer has bought the product (action) it is important to keep him or her as a satisfied customer, so that no other brand will come and take them and their attention away (see Figure 20 - Modified AIDA model).

It takes more than just a sign from retailers' or manufacturers' point of view to convince the customer to start buying healthy products instead of unhealthy products. It is much easier to convince customers who already buy healthy products, to change product within that category.

The signs in the store regarding health draw attention to that section if there is any interest in health with the customer to begin with, i.e. it does not attract attention with people who have no interest in health. People who are interested in health, do not just accept the concept, but often make their own judgement to whether this concept (and product) is better than the one they usually buy.

5.6 Future research

To future research, we will first and foremost recommend to place the same type of experiment during a longer period of time, in order to obtain significant data which in turn can lead to a definite conclusion. At least three months are needed in order to accomplish this.

Another proposal for future research is to look at the same issue adopting other methods, such as in-depth interviews. This approach will gain knowledge of the customers' attitudes and perception towards healthy markings and varieties in store. However this approach solely is very vague since it does not take all factors affecting the customers' behaviour in store into consideration.

There are some factors that could be changed during future research upon the same subject, and knowledge area as this one. One is to mark more sections of the store with the same Health Choice marking, since this is a concept that is suitable for all parts of the store. By marking more sections of the store the recall and recognition will build the concept stronger with the customer, and thereby also build the trustworthiness that was discussed above (3.7 Reliability and validity on method). Example of sections to mark is the meat section, pasta and ketchup. The experiment could also be done for a longer period of time, and therefore give a greater trustworthiness. The signs could be redone to see if the attention was lacking because of lacks in the design or placement. More customers could be asked, but still keep the spontaneous touch, by keeping the interview short.

As been discussed earlier, the importance to reach the customers before entering the store is essential. By looking at this, one could gain more knowledge in how to influence and affect their behaviour in store.

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Appendix

Appendix I. The Keyhole marking

The Swedish marking “the Keyhole” (Nyckelhålet) has been a registered brand in Sweden since 1989. The brand is owned and managed by Livsmedelsverket which is a governmental authority that has the responsibility to manage and coordinate the control of provisions in Swedish. It is their task to ensure that the customers buy safe provisions with a high quality, that the handling of the provisions is “honest” and that the Swedish people have good eating habits.

The Keyhole is suppose to make it easier for the Swedish consumers to eat healthy, by marking healthier varieties on the product. It can be found in three different settings; on pre-packaged provisions, on menus for example restaurants and well as on recipes on entire meals. The Keyhole marking is optional and free of charge, but since this in a popular and trusted marking with the consumer, it is also very popular among Swedish manufacturers. The user of the marking (i.e. the manufacturer) is responsible for the following of the regulation surrounding the marking. The local government for environment and health protection (Kommunala Miljö- och Hälsoskydds nämnden) is responsible for controlling that the manufacturers and their product are living up to the regulations.

Until about a year ago only fat and fibres were regulated by this marking. Last year (the first of June, 2005) an upgrade was made to the regulations, in which for example sugar and salt limitations were added as well. Both the “old” and the “new” Keyhole will be valid during the transition period until the 30th of November 2006. In the regulation there are criterions that needs to be fulfilled for 26 provision categories (for more information see http://www.slv.se/upload/dokument/In_English/Food_regulations/2005_9_Particular%20Symbol.pdf)

Soft bread belongs to provision category 20 which says that the bread must have an;

- maximum fat content 7g/100g,
- total mono- and disaccharides maximum 10g/100g
- maximum sodium content 600mg/100g and a
- dietary fibre minimum 4.5/1000 kJ (1.9 g/100 kcal).

Year 2005 Livsmedelsverket applied for registration of the brand in the rest of Europe as well.

(www.slv.se)



Figure XX: The old Keyhole



Figure XX: The new Keyhole

Appendix II. Interview with Susanne Bryngelsson

The interviewee

Susanne Bryngelsson work at SNF (Swedish Nutrition Foundation[†]). SNF was founded in 1961 with the purpose to promote scientific research within nutrition and areas connected to this. They should also promote the practical use of new this knowledge, and should function as a bridge between the commercial provision industry and the academic nutrition research within above mentioned areas. Their most important task is to act advisory in questions regarding marking and marketing of provisions and functional foods with health enhancing statements. The organization has about 40 companies and organization as member.

The interview

Date of the interview: 2006-04-10

Time of the interview: 10.00 – 11.00

Place: SNF, Ideon, Lund

Summary of interview

Bryngelsson thinks that the biggest bread, and food, trend at the moment is wholemeal, which can be seen in the fact that manufacturers try to put wholemeal in everything (for example bread, pasta and cookies). This trend started in 2003, when wholemeal was introduced into the “health enhancing statements regulations” as having a positive affect in reducing heart diseases

Why is wholemeal considered healthy? It has been proved that it decreases the risk for heart diseases. Research has not been able to show what it is wholemeal that has this affect, but it is often said that is it the whole meal component fibre that causes this. The fibres is said to have a general health enhancing affect on a person. Bryngelsson is entirely convinced about this, but thinks that there could be other wholemeal components, or the person’s general lifestyle, that help fibres with this.

When describing a “healthy bread” she says that there are no better or worse breads for a person’s healthy, but it is the combined lifestyle, and food habits that determine whether a person lives healthy or not (i.e. the health is not in the individual products, but in the overall combination of these). But she has to chose some “healthy parameters” she says that wholemeal, fat and sugar is important. White soft bread has their advantages as well, but is not rich on vitamins and minerals, mostly just starch. Sugar and starch is almost the same thing regarding nutritious substance and energy. She stress that there are many reasons to limit the intake of sugar though.

Sweet bread is something that is special for the Swedish people, while other parts of Europe have less sugar, and other flavours on the bread. Bryngelsson says that sugar rich food in general is something commonly existing in Sweden (for example ketchup and mashed potatoes). Many product categories are trying to remove sugar at the

[†] <http://www.snf.ideon.se/>

moment, but it all has to be replaced with other sugar replacements in order to keep the same taste, which the customers are looking for.

Dark bread that is dark because of the wholemeal is more healthy than white bread. But today there are white bread, white much wholemeal, and coloured dark bread with low wholemeal content. It is not known if some important wholemeal ingredient disappears when the colour is removed.

The concept of GI (glycemic index) is used in an unserious way today, in media and by many manufacturers and marketers. GI tells what blood sugar value the individual has after a meal (because the product contains carbohydrates that is taken up by the body and is turned into sugar). The research that shows that GI has a health-improving effect is often quite coincidental, and there is a need for more focused and deeper studies. Many of the studies say that products with a low GI also contain a large amount of fibres, which means that we don't know if it is the blood sugar or the fibres that "do the trick".

The bread industry has decided that a bread has to contain more than 50 percent wholemeal (of the dry substance) in order to call a whole meal bread. The healthiest bread should probably contain this amount of wholemeal and fulfil the keyhole criteria. Theoretically it is reasonable to say that the breads with the "old keyhole" is less healthy than the ones with the "new keyhole". She thinks that consumers think that the keyhole stands for a "healthy product", but then perhaps do not know that much more about it.

Another trend among food products at the moment is innovation. The manufacturers are trying to differentiate themselves in new ways.

She also recommends us to talk to Therese Schultz at Brödinstitutet for further information about bread.

Appendix III. Interview with Therese Schultz

The interviewee

Therese Schultz works at Brödinstitutet[‡]. Brödinstitutet (founded in 1957) is an organisation that aims to increase the bread consumption in Sweden, by promoting its role in a healthy diet. They say that a person should eat at least one slice of bread to each meal. They have the Scientific council for bread (Vetenskapliga rådet för bröd) together with Livsmedelsverket (see Appendix I The Keyhole marking), SNF and the scientific circle within the area.

The interview

Date of the interview: 2006-04-18

Time of the interview: 13.00 – 13.30

Place: over the phone, interviewee in Stockholm.

Summary of interview

The markings on bread today consist;

- the Keyhole; by Livsmedelsverket. Looks at wholemeal, fat, sugar and salt, after new rules in 2005. Marks bread that is considered healthy to the general public.
- “Wholemeal bread”; by the bread industry. More than 50 percent wholemeal in the dry substance, the industry does not however say what wholemeal is. The percentage wholemeal should be put on the package.

The bread trends with customers today are highly affected by marketing, health and sales. The biggest trends are bake-off (freshly baked in the store or to make in the oven at home) and healthy bread.

The healthiest breads today, according to Schultz are the ones that have the Keyhole on them, and is called “wholemeal bread”. If the bread contains the Keyhole symbol the consumer get enough fibres. It does not matter if the bread contains 60 or 90 percent fibres, but it is the entire lifestyle, and the consumption over a longer times that counts.

[‡] <http://www.brodinstitutet.se/>

Appendix IV. Interviews with Michal Wieloch

The interviewee

Michal Wieloch is the store owner of ICA Supermarket Jätten at Fäladstorget in Lund. He has earlier had other stores in both Trelleborg and Malmö.

The interview one (before the experiment)

Date of the interview: 2006-04-26

Time of the interview: 10.00 – 11.00

Place: at ICA Supermarket Jätten, Fäladstorget, Lund.

Summary of interview

The trends in this store (and other stores that he has insight into) today shows an increase in healthy and store-baked bread. Bread flavoured with for example olives, tomatoes and herbs are also increasing in popularity. The bread that is least bought is the “old-fashion” bread (for example bitter sweet bread) that only is bought by elderly people. The bread consumption (and consumption in general) are highly affected by media today. What is said in media (even if it is not entirely true) affects sales with a way (for example the bird flue and the sales of chicken).

It is popular with white bread in Lund, in Malmö it is a lot of bread in general, while it is healthy bread that is most purchased in Trelleborg. The “Gott Liv” marking has increased bread sales.

New layout on the bread section in this store, introduced a new weeks before the experiment took place. Before; bread exposure from customers from above, arranged by the manufacturers. Now; bread is put up on gondolas, exposed from the front, divided into bread type categories (for example coarse bread, white sliced bread and pasteries). The purpose is to make it easier for the customers to find the type bread that they are looking for.

The product category arrangement is that perishable goods are put by the walls, and the storage goods are put in the middle of the store. The reason why the bread section is put in the beginning of the store is that it is a natural purchase that customers make almost every time they visit the store.

The customer flow in the store is the strongest between 4 pm and 6,30 pm in general. The days with the highest customer flow in the store is Friday and Saturday. The highest bread sale days are Monday to Wednesday. The largest manufacturers deliver bread every day, while the smaller deliver every other day.

The most common markings on bread today are, according to Wieloch, the keyhole, wholemeal and non-sweetened. He does not think that people in general look that much at the Keyhole.

The markings and signs in the store today is limited (only price and informative signs from the manufactures), since Wieloch thinks that the customer is tired of this. Additionally he wants to keep the store clean and provide an enjoyable environment.

Wieloch thinks that our concept is a good idea for the customers that wants help finding a healthier alternative (like the Keyhole), but do not have the time to put that much effort into it. It should be simple and quick to find this alternative. The design should be kept simple and informative, so that is will not be takes as “just commercial”.

The interview two (after the experiment)

Date of the interview: 2006-05-05

Time of the interview: 11.00 – 11.15

Place: at ICA Supermarket Jätten, Fäladstorget, Lund.

Summary of interview;

Wieloch thinks that the concept “Health Choice” and the keywords (“Less sugar, less fat, more wholemeal” is a very good idea. He does not think that the true effect of the concept has started yet.

Furthermore, Wieloch claimed that in order to notice this effect the signs should have been put up over a period of two months (which also means two salaries). People shop different in the various week of a month, which can not entirely be seen in two weeks. He does not think that people see, and believe in a sign the first time they see it, but needs to see it a couple of times in order to recognise and recall it, and hence accept the concept. This is strengthened by him also thinking that it should have been put up in more than one place in the store at the same time (for example the meat and pasta sections). Another reason why the true effect of the signs has not been seen yet is that the customers do not really know what it stands for. The concept needs regulations and rules for the markings, which the customer easily can find and read up on.

Appendix V. Photos of the “Health Choice” markings

(Photographs by Ulrika Persson)



Figure 22 - The ceiling sign (from 10 metres)



Figure 23 - The ceiling sign (from 5 metres)



Figure 24 - The ceiling sign (from 1 metres)



Figure 25 - The shelf marking



Figure 26 - The shelf marking



Figure 27 - The shelf marking

Appendix VI. Interview with customers – before experiment

Bread consumption today

Bread bought by the customer

Why did you buy this bread?

.....
.....
.....

What kind of bread do you usually buy?

.....
.....
.....

- | | | |
|--|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Wholemeal | <input type="checkbox"/> Dark bread | <input type="checkbox"/> Without sugar |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Toasted bread | <input type="checkbox"/> White, sliced | <input type="checkbox"/> White, non-sliced |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Crisp bread | <input type="checkbox"/> Freshly beaked | <input type="checkbox"/> Other..... |

How often do you buy bread? Why?

In general

.....
.....

In this store

.....
.....

Do you buy bread each time you go grocery shopping? Why?

.....
.....
.....

How often do you change the type or brand of bread you buy? Why?

.....
.....
.....

This bread section today

What do you think about this bread section today?

Any problems or difficulties?

.....
.....
.....

Markings and signs today

Have you noticed any markings or signs in this bread section?

Which?

Did it affect you buying behaviour? In what way?

.....
.....
.....

Do you usually look for markings on the bread when you buy bread today?

For example the Keyhole, wholemeal or GI

.....
.....
.....

General information

Age group

- A (- 29)
- B (30 - 44)
- C (45 - 64)
- D (65 -)

Gender

- Female
- Male

**Appendix VII. Interview with customers – before experiment
(Swedish)**

Bröd konsumtion idag

Vilket bröd har du valt att handla?

Varför har du valt det här/de här bröden?

.....
.....
.....

Vad handlar du vanligtvis för bröd och varför?

.....
.....
.....

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Fullkorn | <input type="checkbox"/> Mörkt bröd | <input type="checkbox"/> osötat |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Rostbröd | <input type="checkbox"/> Ljust, skivad | <input type="checkbox"/> Ljust, oskivat |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Knäckebröd | <input type="checkbox"/> Nybakat | <input type="checkbox"/> Annat..... |

Hur ofta handlar du bröd?,

I allmänhet

.....
.....

I den här butiken

.....
.....

Köper du bröd varje gång du handlar? Varför?

.....
.....
.....

Hur ofta brukar du ändra typen av bröd so du handlar, och varför byter du bröd (om du gör det) ?

.....
.....
.....

Brödavdelningen idag

Vad tycker du om den här brödavdelningen idag?

Ser du några problem eller svårigheter?

.....
.....
.....

Markering och skyltar idag

Lade du märke till någon markering eller skylt i bröдавdelningen?

Vilken?

Påverkade skylten dig på något sett? Fick den dig att ändra vanor?

.....
.....
.....

Brukar du titta/leta efter några speciella markeringar när du handlar bröd?, Vilka brukar du iså fall titta på och varför?

Till exempel nyckelhålet, fullkorn, GI

.....
.....
.....

Allmän information

Åldersgrupp

A (- 29)

B (30 - 44)

C (45 - 64)

D (65 -)

Kön

Kvinna

Man

Appendix VIII. Interview with customers – during experiment

Bread consumption today

Bread bought by the customer

Why did you buy this bread?

.....
.....
.....

Markings and signs today

Have you noticed any markings or signs in this bread section?

No

The interviewer shows some pictures of the Health Choice-signs.

Do you recognise there markings or signs?

No

Yes

Comment

.....
.....

Continue on questions on “Yes” below

Yes

Where?

From ceiling

On shelf

On product

Health Choice

Health Choice

Keyhole

Other.....

Keyhole

GI

GI

Other.....

Other.....

Did you think that the marking or sign was interesting?

In which way?

.....
.....

Did the marking or sign change your choice of bread?

Did the customer change bread? Why?

.....
.....

Did the marking make it easier for you to chose a healthier variety?

Why? In which way?

.....
.....

Do you usually look for markings on the bread when you buy bread today?

For example the Keyhole, wholemeal or GI

.....
.....
.....

What kind of bread do you usually buy?

.....
.....
.....

- Wholemeal Dark bread Without sugar
 Toasted bread White, sliced White, non-sliced
 Crisp bread Freshly beaked Other.....

This bread section today

What do you think about this bread section today?

Any problems or difficulties?

.....
.....
.....

General information

Age group

- A (- 29)
 B (30 - 44)
 C (45 - 64)
 D (65 -)

Gender

- Female
 Male

Pictures shown to the customers

From the ceiling



On the shelf



Appendix IX. Interview with customers – during experiment (Swedish)

Bröd konsumtionen idag

Vilket bröd har du valt att handla?

Varför har du valt det här/de här bröden?

.....
.....
.....

Markering och skyltar idag

Lade du märke till någon markering eller skylt i bröдавdelningen?

Nej

Intervjuaren visar bilder på Hälsovalet skyltarna

Känner du igen de här skyltarna/markeringarna?

Nej

Ja

Kommentar

.....
.....

Om ja, fortsatt med följande frågor

Ja

Var?

Från taket

Hälsovalet

Annat.....

På hyllan

Hälsovalet

Nyckelhålet

GI

Annat.....

På produkten

Nyckelhålet

GI

Annat.....

Väckte skyltarna intresse? På vilket sett?

.....
.....

Påverkade skyltarna dig på något sett?, Hur?

Bytte du bröd? Hur fick det dig att byta bröd?

.....
.....

Anser du att skyltarna underlättade för dig att välja ett nyttigt alternativ i butiken?
Eller skulle ha gjort det om du såg skyltarna tidigare? På vilket sätt?

.....
.....

Brukar du titta/leta efter några speciella markeringar när du handlar bröd?, Vilka brukar du iså fall titta på och varför?

Till exempel nyckelhålet, fullkorn, GI

.....
.....
.....

Vad handlar du vanligtvis för bröd och varför?

.....
.....
.....

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Fullkorn | <input type="checkbox"/> Mörkt bröd | <input type="checkbox"/> osötat |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Rostbröd | <input type="checkbox"/> Ljust, skivad | <input type="checkbox"/> Ljust, oskivat |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Knäckebröd | <input type="checkbox"/> Nybakat | <input type="checkbox"/> Annat..... |

Brödavdelningen idag

**Vad tycker du om den här brödavdelningen idag?
Ser du några problem eller svårigheter?**

.....
.....
.....

Allmän information

Åldersgrupp

- A (- 29)
 B (30 - 44)
 C (45 - 64)
 D (65 -)

Kön

- Kvinna
 Man

Bilder som visas för konsument

Från taket

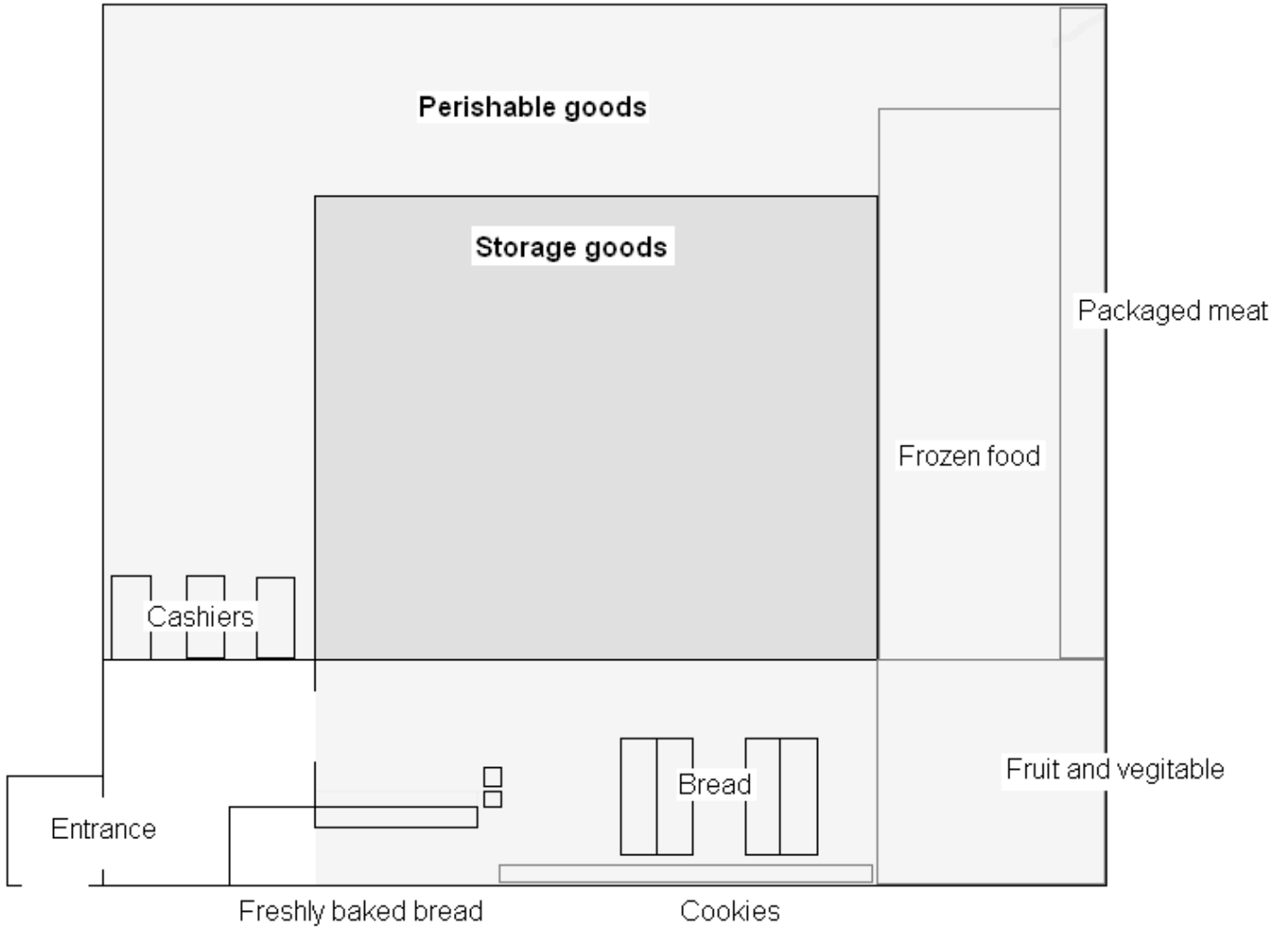


På hyllan



Appendix X. Store layout – ICA Supermarket Jätten, Lund

ICA Supermarket Jätten, Lund



Appendix XI. Photos of the store and the store environment

(Photographs by Ulrika Persson)



Figure 28 - The bread section



Figure 29 - The store entrance and the bread section

Appendix XII. Relationship between the theories – extended version

