Master´s Thesis

Beyond the Aisles: Enhancing the Shopping Value of a One-Stop Shop with New Services

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Abbreviations

S-D logic	Service-Dominant logic
G-D logic	Goods-Dominant logic
SOR-Model	Stimulus Organism Response Model
W2U	Willingness to Use

ABSTRACT

This study explores how shopping value in one-stop stores, especially hypermarkets, can be improved by new services. It identifies additional service offerings that go beyond the traditional product-based approach. Given the dearth of literature on new services in grocery retailing, this study relies on Mehrabian and Russel's (1974) stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model as a basic framework.

Using an explorative mixed-methods approach, the study begins with a qualitative phase in which semi-structured interviews are conducted to uncover consumers' everyday problems. These findings serve as the basis for designing innovative services.

In the subsequent quantitative phase, the study tests the theoretical framework by introducing participants to three different services in an experimental study. Based on the manipulation of the cognitive fit of services, various relationships between variables such as retailer confusion, perceived convenience, shopping value, retailer image, and willingness to use were examined.

Results highlight the central role of cognitive fit, perceived convenience, and retailer confusion as key factors in shopping value, emphasizing its significance in shaping the retail landscape. This research not only identifies novel service opportunities for hypermarkets but also demonstrates the efficacy of a mixed-methods approach in addressing the evolving needs of consumers and the retail sector. The study provides also valuable insights for retailers seeking to differentiate themselves and enhance the shopping value.

Keywords: SD-logic, Service, One-stop shop, SOR-Model, Cognitive fit, Convenience, Shopping value

1. Introduction

The retail industry is evolving rapidly, and consumers' expectations are changing. Today's consumers are looking for more than just a place to buy products; they want a shopping experience that is seamless, convenient, and personalized (Pine & Gilmore, 1998; HDE, 2018). In response to these changing needs, one-stop shops have emerged as a popular destination for consumers seeking a broad range of products and services under one roof.

While assortment is a critical component of any retail store, it is still becoming increasingly difficult for food retailers to position themselves due to the increasing similarity. Hence, customers are frequently faced with the same product offerings at similar prices, and differences in operating hours and location are less significant than they used to be (Hummel & Savitt, 1988). This trend highlights the need for retailers to differentiate themselves by implementing unique and valuable service offerings, which aligns with Berry (1986), who argues that "retail businesses are service businesses." The research field has acknowledged the importance of service in retailing, which highlights that the focus on service can give a grocery retailer a competitive advantage and positively impact customer loyalty, which in turn has a positive impact on profits (Chaudhuri & Ligas, 2009; Lusch et al., 2007; Karpen et al., 2015; Briggs, Deretti, & Kato, 2020).

Therefore, this paper aims to explore service opportunities for one-stop shops in food retailing, which are typically large-scale formats such as supercenters, hypermarkets, or large supermarkets that attract customers through a one-stop shop convenience principle (Carpenter, 2008). The objective is to identify services that will enhance the shopping value and subsequently increase the revenue for the store. By doing so, this thesis aims to provide insights and recommendations to the retail industry by suggesting new service opportunities. The focus here is mainly on large-scale stores emphasizing offline grocery retailing, as this remains inherent in practice despite the growth of online retailing (HDE, 2018; 2022)

Regardless of the importance of services in the retail industry, there is limited research on the value creation for the customer through services. Previous research has primarily focused on the impact of in-store services on customer satisfaction (Wang, 2021) and customer loyalty (Chaudhuri & Ligas, 2009), whereby the understanding of service is limited to effective merchandising of goods, payment methods (O´Cass & Grace, 2008), omni-channel service offerings (Jones et al., 2022) and service delivery by employees (Briggs et al., 2020).

Limited attention was given to a broader view of services due to a lack of a comprehensive understanding of customer needs in a one-stop shop environment. This lack of clarity hinders the ability of retailers to make informed decisions about additional service offerings. Therefore, the problem that this study aims to address is:

Which additional services can a one-stop shop offer to enhance its Shopping value?

To address this gap in knowledge, the thesis at hand undertakes a mixed-methods study of service opportunities for one-stop shops, which consequently can enhance the shopping value. By doing so, the thesis provides a solid foundation for future research and offers practical recommendations for the retail industry.

1.2 Outline of the Thesis

This thesis explores the extension opportunities with services of a one-stop shopping principle by linking different subject areas. The theoretical part is based on a literature review of existing sources such as textbooks, journal articles, and current statistics. The focus is on the service marketing literature connected with retailing. In Chapter 3, the methodology of the empirical work is reported including a philosophical discussion, research design, and quality criteria of the study. Chapter 4 continues with the first study, presenting the method, sampling, questionnaire, data collection, and data analysis. Chapter 5 systematically presents the research findings, which are then discussed in Chapter 6. Consequently, Chapter 7 explains the process of integrating the data from Study 1 into Study 2 and outlines the formulation of hypotheses. Subsequently, in Chapter 8, the structure of the second study is explained, which paves the way for an in-depth analysis of the results in Chapter 9 and a comprehensive discussion in Chapter 10. The penultimate chapter, Chapter 11, addresses meta-interferences and offers insights into the implications and limitations of this study. The thesis ends with a conclusion that summarizes the main findings and contributions of this study.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Course of Argumentation

The theoretical foundation of this research project is built upon the service-dominant logic, which underlines the importance of service provision as a means of creating value (Lusch et al., 2007). Within the retail sector, value creation has been shown to depend on several factors, including shopping trip value and in-store value. Thereby, new services can increase the shopping value. To better understand the consumer's behavioral response to new services, the Stimulus-Organism-Response (SOR) Model is explained, which also outlines the subsequent structure of the paper, as illustrated in Figure 1. Following the logic of this model, the stimulus is described at the beginning, which in this case is the change in the one-stop shop. On the organism level, this paper introduces the construct of retailer shopper confusion as well as the concept of convenience. Lastly, on the response level, retailer branding, as well as the shopping value, are discussed. Finally, a theoretical framework is developed, which sets the stage for investigating the potential of one-stop shops to enhance the shopping value by offering additional services beyond traditional product offerings.

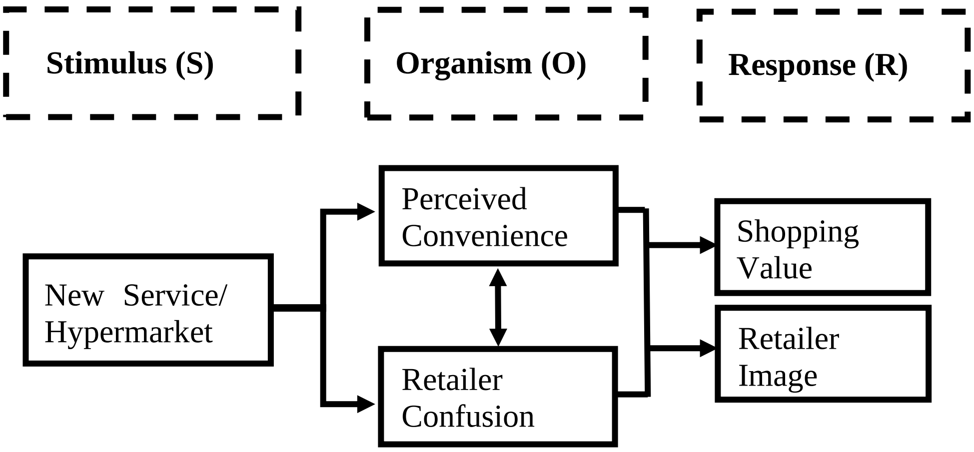

Figure 1: Structure of this Thesis

2.2 Service in Retailing

Generally, three characteristics describe a service and distinguish it from a product (Rust & Oliver, 1993, p.9). First, services are relatively intangible (Rust & Oliver, 1993, p.6), which means that while services are not physical objects that can be seen, touched, or felt like products, they do have tangible aspects that are involved in their delivery. This tangible aspect can vary depending on the service being offered, with some services having a greater degree of tangibility than others (Shostack, 1977). In a restaurant, for example, a customer purchases a physical meal (tangible) that must be cooked and delivered (intangible service) (Rust & Oliver, 1993, p.7). Second, services are relatively inseparable, which means that they cannot be produced and stored, on the contrary, services can only be produced and consumed simultaneously (Rust & Oliver, 1993, p.7). For instance, at a concert, production, and consumption can only occur simultaneously. Moreover, thirdly, services are relatively heterogeneous as they frequently involve the interaction of the service provider and the customer, whereby the situational conditions can only be standardized to a certain degree (Rust & Oliver, 1993, p.8).

However, the term "service" is frequently mentioned in the retailing literature, although authors often interpret the term differently. O'Cass & Grace (2008, p.522f.) define service as "*the effective merchandising of goods, provision of payment and delivery options and the provision of information regarding store merchandise*." From this definition, it is clear that service is seen more as a kind of "add-on" to the goods sold, which should help to sell even more goods. Saarijärvi et al., (2014), see service from a different perspective. Their understanding goes beyond the understanding of service as just an add-on to products. Through their lenses, service is seen as a value creator for the consumer and less as a tool to sell even more goods.

These two perspectives on the term "service" are very different, with the authors following a different logic. The first article sees the term “service” through the Goods-Dominant (G-D) logic and the second through the Service-Dominant (S-D) logic. This understanding is essential for discussing service, as it creates a theoretical perspective on service. Therefore, both perspectives will be explained and related to retail below.

2.2.1 Goods-Dominant Logic

Vargo and Lusch (2004) have initiated a fundamental shift in the service concept in marketing with their view, the so-called Service-Dominant (S-D) logic. Before that moment, the Goods-Dominant (G-D) logic prevailed in the literature (Lusch et al., 2007).

The Good-Dominant logic (G-D) focuses on exchanging tangible goods (Williams, 2012). The purpose of marketing, according to the G-D logic, is to sell more of the output (Vargo & Lusch, 2008), whereby the competitive advantage is "*seen to be a function of utility maximization through embedding value in products by superior manipulation of the Four P's, with an assumed passive consumer in mind*" (Lusch et al., 2007, p.6). Service has a subordinate role in this view, which is either used as an aid to the production of goods (Fisk et al., 1993), seen as "value-added" activities to goods (Dixon, 1990), or even counts as an intangible product (Lusch et al., 2007).

2.2.2 Service-Dominant Logic

The S-D logic provides an opposite view. Here, it is not the product that has value for the customer but the service transmitted with it. The product is only a transmitter of the service, whereby after the logic, it is not the product the consumer acquires. It is more the advantages and services the customer seeks (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). In addition, the value of a service is not solely created by the company but is also influenced by the consumer, making the latter a co-creator of value (Vargo & Lusch, 2004; Williams, 2012). The consumer is therefore seen as an operant (intangible, dynamic) resource who possesses specific knowledge and skills and can co-create value by combining the resources provided by the company with other resources, such as their capabilities to use, maintain, or repair (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). An example is Ikea furniture, where the consumer co-creates value by assembling the furniture themselves or a customer at the hairdresser who co-produces through instructions (Lusch et al., 2007). Marketing's role in the S-D logic is to create an exchange with mutual benefit (Vargo & Lusch, 2008), with strategic collaboration giving marketing greater latitude than the 4Ps (Lusch et al., 2007).

In the S-D logic, the service component has a unique role and is a decisive factor in the competitiveness of a company. As a result, service influences sustainable competitive advantage (Lusch et al., 2007). This means for the one-stop shop that, the retailer must build an understanding of how to serve the customer even better and "*focus on co-creating new kinds of* *value and service experiences with customers and, in all likelihood, sell at prices considerably in excess of their competitors that, on the surface, might appear to operate in the same business or market"* (Lusch et al., 2007, p.16).

However, in accordance with the S-D logic, value co-creation extends beyond the customer alone and encompasses an entire network (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). A network is a complex set of actors and relationships, including customers, suppliers, intermediaries, and other stakeholders contributing to the value-creation process.

The S-D logic assumes that value is co-created through interactions between customers and service providers, as well as between service providers and other partners, whereby here, the term value co-production is used (Lusch et al., 2007). Networks enable these interactions by establishing channels for the exchange and dissemination of information, resources, and knowledge. Through those interactions, the development of the service ecosystem can be enhanced (Lusch et al., 2007). The great advantage that retailers have over producers and other market participants in the network is the direct interaction with the customer, which is why the retailer: "*may be positioned best to develop a core competence in market sensing*" (Lusch et al., 2007, p.17).

However, "*there has been relatively little theoretical progress in understanding "service" as a stand-alone variable*" (Lusch et al., 2007, p.6), which is why a theoretical framework will be developed in the following, which should represent an attempt to explain how new services in the environment of food retailing are perceived by consumers. A suitable theoretical model for approaching this topic is the Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) model of Mehrabian & Russell (1974) from the field of environmental psychology, which describes how the physical environment influences customers' behavior. This approach can explain many behaviors in a store, such as the *„exposure to a broad or narrow range of retail offerings"* (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982, p.37), which is why this model is perfect for the underlying research question in this work.

2.3 SOR – Model

According to the model, as shown in Figure 2, an observable stimulus (S) triggers internal unobservable arousal in the organism (O) that eventually leads to an observable response (R). In terms of shopping behavior, a certain piece of information (S) can lead to an emotional state (O), which finally influences shopping behavior (R) (Grossbart et al., 1990). In this regard, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) argue that behavior can be classified as approach or avoidance behavior.

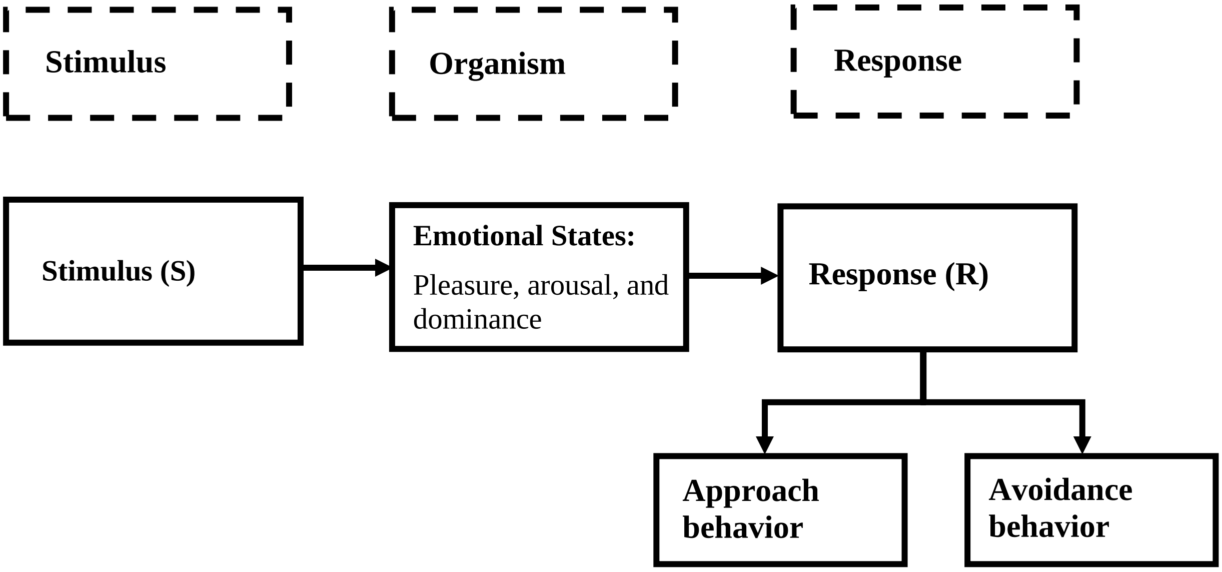

Figure 2: SOR-Model adopted by Mehrabian and Russell (1974)

In the organism, respective stimuli can evoke different affective states, whereby Mehrabian and Russell (1974) distinguish between three states: pleasure, arousal, and dominance (PAD). Pleasure refers to the extent to which a consumer experiences positive emotions such as happiness, joy, or satisfaction in a store environment. Arousal indicates the excitement, stimulation, alertness, or activation a person feels in response to the environment. Dominance reflects the perceived degree of control and behavioral constraints the physical environment imposes (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). However, it should be noted that the dimension of dominance is often overlooked in studies due to insufficient empirical evidence to support its influence on affective responses (Donovan et al., 1982).

Upon application of the Mehrabian & Russell (1974) model to the retail context, it becomes evident that the respective behavioral response is determined by the internal evaluations of an individual consumer (Jain & Badare, 2011). Depending on the affective states in relation to the arousal and pleasure states in the organism, a person reacts with avoidance or approach behavior, whereby an overall positive affective state leads to an approach reaction, and a negative state causes avoidance reactions (Donovan et al., 1982).

On this basis, it can now be said that the environmental change of the one-stop shop, by adding a new service, represents the stimulus (S) that triggers certain processes in the consumer/ organism (O), which consequently influences the behavior (R). For example, if a customer perceives a high shopping value from their shopping experience, they are likely to have positive emotional responses, such as enjoyment or satisfaction towards the store (Babin et al., 1994). This can lead to positive behaviors, such as repeat visits or positive word-of-mouth (Jones et al., 2006).

However, to better understand the stimulus on customers, which in this work is the change of a one-stop shop by adding new services, it is necessary to first explore the concept of the one-stop shop. Therefore, the following chapter will provide an overview of the one-stop shop concept.

2.4 One-Stop Shop

In the realm of retailing, the concept of a "One-Stop Shop" has become increasingly popular in recent years, with consumers who prefer to shop exclusively in one-stop shops (HDE, 2018). A one-stop shop refers to a retail store or website, like Amazon (Marketplace Analytics, 2016, online), that offers a wide range of products and services, such as groceries, clothing, electronics, household items, and more, all under one roof. Thus, one of the key advantages of a one-stop shop is convenience (Carpenter, 2008) as through the offering of a wide range of products and services, consumers must no longer travel to multiple locations to find everything they need, which saves them time and effort (Messinger & Narasimhan, 1997).

The influence of assortment size on consumers has already been investigated in numerous studies in the retail literature (e.g., Chernev, 2003; Oppewal & Koelmeijer, 2005; Briesch, Dillon, & Fox, 2013; Chernev et al., 2015; Gao & Simonson, 2016).

In terms of assortment size, a rough distinction can be made between two store types, the supermarket, and the convenience store (Nilsson et al., 2014). In this context, supermarkets have a wide variety of categories other than food, such as clothes, books, electronics, banking services, etc. (Messinger & Narasimhan, 1997; Nilsson et al., 2014). However, this definition also applies to supercenters or hypermarkets, which, like supermarkets, offer general merchandise in addition to groceries (Walmart, 2005, online; Carpenter, 2008). A precise delimitation between these store types cannot be drawn from the literature; for example, the terms "hypermarket" or "supercenter" are used as synonyms (Chen & Grenn, 2009), or large supermarkets are classified as large-scale retail formats on the same level as hypermarkets are (Reutterer & Teller, 2009). In general, hypermarkets are larger than supermarkets in terms of sales area and average merchandise offered (cf. Neumeier & Kokorsch, 2021). Despite these variations, all those store types try to position themselves in a way that they can leverage the one-stop shopping convenience (Messinger & Narasimhan, 1997). Convenience stores, on the other hand, are smaller in terms of sales area and offer a smaller assortment of foods or specialize in a particular product category (Nilsson et al., 2014).

Thereby, the shopping trip type has an important influence on the consumer's choice of store type. The literature essentially distinguishes between the major trip and the fill-in trip (Kahn & Schmittlein, 1989; 1992; Walters & Jamil, 2003; Reutterer & Teller, 2009), which are defined based on whether the total expenditure or size of groceries is above or below the average expenditure on groceries, respectively (Reutterer & Teller, 2009). Thereby, the empirical study by Reutterer and Teller (2009) showed that consumers see greater utility in large-scale retail formats compared to smaller retail formats when they make a major trip and, conversely, see greater utility in smaller retail formats compared to large-scale formats when they make a fill-in trip.

The focus of this paper will be only on hypermarkets or large supermarkets, as they can exploit the one-stop shopping convenience due to their large assortment. For clarity reasons, in this work, only the term Hypermarket will be used as a representative of a one-stop shop in grocery retailing. However, it is not only the assortment size that is important; also, services can give grocery retailers a competitive advantage and positively impact customer loyalty, which in turn positively impacts profits (Briggs et al., 2020).

Furthermore, as previously stated, the provision of new supplementary services can contribute to shopping convenience by consolidating multiple offerings under one roof, thereby reducing the need for customers to travel to different locations, which saves them time (Messinger & Narasimhan, 1997).

Additionally, convenience encompasses not only the time variable but also the effort variable (Yale & Venkatesh, 1986; Brown & McEnally, 1992; Gehrt & Yale, 1993; Seiders et al., 2000; Berry et al., 2002), whereby effort refers not only to the physical level but also to the emotional and cognitive processes (Berry et al., 2002). For this reason, the convenience construct is classified on the organism level (O) and will be explained more concretely in the following.

2.5 Convenience

The meaning of the term "convenience" has evolved over time from simply describing products (Copeland M. T., 1923; Kelley, 1958; Holton,1958) to becoming a unique concept with two primary factors delivering convenient service to the customer: (1) timesaving and (2) effort minimization (Yale & Venkatesh, 1986; Brown & McEnally, 1992; Gehrt & Yale, 1993; Seiders et al., 2000; Berry et al., 2002). Time and effort are regarded in the marketing literature as non-monetary opportunity costs (Bender, 1964). The convenience provided by a retail service creates the possibility for the redeployment of time and effort towards alternative activities, thus incurring an opportunity cost that is not reflected in monetary terms (Bivens & Volker, 1986).

The timesaving aspect of convenience has been extensively studied in the marketing literature, highlighting the subjective perception of time, which on the one hand, is influenced by the individual time orientation, perceived time scarcity, and sensitivity to time-related issues (Graham, 1981; Hornik, 1982; Shimp, 1982; Bergadaa, 1990; Durrande-Moreau & Usunier, 1999;) as well as situational factors whereby for instance waiting time can influence the service evaluation and satisfaction negatively (Maister, 1985; Laurette et al., 1989) Furthermore, Holbrook & Lehmann (1981) classified time to work and non-work roles, giving an understanding of noneconomic behavior (Feldmann & Hornik, 1981).

Effort influences as well the perceived convenience (Seiders et al., 2000) and satisfaction (Lovelock, 1983). The concept of effort-saving pertains to reducing cognitive, physical, and emotional exertions that consumers must undertake while purchasing goods and services (Berry et al., 2002). Consequently, retailers can enhance the shopping value through improvements in convenience (Beauchamp & Ponder, 2010).

In order to enhance comprehension of the concept of convenience, researchers in this domain have delineated several distinct types of convenience. Three types were identified in marketing literature, which are predominant in the more recent literature: service convenience (Berry et al., 2002), retail convenience (Seiders et al., 2000; Clulow & Reimers, 2009; Reimers, 2014), and online convenience (Beauchamp & Ponder, 2010; Jiang et al., 2013). These categories serve to differentiate between types of convenience that may be encountered in the context of service interactions or retail transactions, respectively.

However, all these constructs of convenience are multidimensional (Yale & Vanekatesh, 1986; Brown & McEnally, 1992; Gehrt & Yale, 1993; Berry et al., 2002; Clulow & Reimers, 2009; Beauchamp & Ponder, 2010; Jiang et al., 2013; Reimers, 2014) and will be explained in more detail below.

Retailer Convenience

Seiders et al., (2000) propose four distinct dimensions of convenience relevant to retailers: (1) access convenience, (2) search convenience, (3) possession convenience, and (4) transaction convenience. This framework has been empirically tested by Clulow and Reimers (2009) in the case of shopping centers and by Reimers (2014) in a broader range of retail settings. The four dimensions are summarized in Table 1.

Convenience Dimensions	**Description**
Access convenience	Access convenience refers to the ease and speed at which consumers can reach a retailer, regardless of channel.
Search convenience	Search convenience is the ease and speed with which consumers can identify and select products they want to buy. Effective customer systems, store design, etc., can influence it.
Possession convenience	Possession convenience refers to the speed and ease consumers can obtain desired products.
Transaction convenience	Transaction convenience is characterized by the speed and ease with which consumers can complete or modify transactions.

Table 1: Convenience Dimensions according to Seiders et al., (2000)

Shortly after the development of the retailer convenience concept, Berry et al. (2002) introduced the Service Convenience construct, which shares similarities with retailer convenience. However, this construct is applicable to all services and represents service convenience.

Service Convenience

The authors define convenience as the duration and exertion commonly invested in acquiring or utilizing a service. According to Berry et al., (2002), non-financial expenses in the form of time and effort occur across five stages of the service flow process, namely (1) decision convenience, (2) access convenience, (3) transaction convenience, (4) benefit convenience and (5) post-benefit convenience. The dimensions are summarised in Table 2.

Convenience Dimensions	Description
Decision convenience	Ease of making decisions about the service, such as service options, pricing, and features.
Access convenience	The convenience of accessing the service, including location, hours of operation, and ease of scheduling.
Transaction convenience	Conveniences of the service transaction, such as payment options and speed of service.
Benefit convenience	The convenience of using the service and receiving benefits, such as speed, reliability, and quality.
Postbenefit convenience	The convenience of post-service activities, including returns, repairs, and customer service support.

Table 2: Convenience Dimensions according to Berry et al., (2002)

It is worth noting that the service convenience dimensions are relevant to all grocery stores, as per the Definition of the Service-Dominant logic (S-D logic): „*All Economies Are Service Economies*" (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, p.10). Moreover, as all businesses provide some form of service to their customers, thus, allowing to apply the concept of service convenience to both goods and service providers (Berry et al., 2002).

Online Convenience

As online shopping convenience is one of the main reasons to buy online (Ahmad, 2002; Jayawardhena et al., 2007), online shopping convenience has become increasingly relevant in retailing research. Additionally, since stores with multichannel services perform better (e.g., sales, growth, and competitive position) than stores without (Pozzi, 2013; Jones et al., 2022), considering the multichannel potential is equally important.

Researchers have examined various dimensions of online convenience. Beauchamp and Ponder (2010) tested a set of convenience dimensions, entailing: (1) access convenience, (2) search convenience, (3) transaction convenience, and (4) possession convenience, that are common to both online and offline shopping and confirmed the relative importance of each dimension from the perspective of online and offline shoppers. Later, Jiang et al., (2013) developed five categories of online convenience based on the consumer buying stages, including (1) access,

(2) search, (3) evaluation, (4) transaction, and (5) possession/post-purchase convenience. The dimensions are summarized in Table 3.

Convenience Dimensions	Description
Access	Time and space flexibility, accessibility of websites, availability of products and brands.
Search	Ease and efficiency of searching and finding products and information.
Evaluation	Availability and clarity of product information, reviews, and ratings.
Transaction	Ease, speed, and security of online payment and checkout processes.
Possession/post-purchase	Speed and reliability of delivery, tracking options, returns, and after-sales support.

Table 3: Convenience Dimensions according to Jiang et al., (2013)

Finally, the dimensions were empirically confirmed by Durate et al., (2018), who showed that the dimensions of possession, transaction, and evaluation have a more significant influence on online shopping convenience perception. However, it is essential to mention that consumers may find it challenging to differentiate between the various dimensions of retail convenience, as they are interconnected with each other. Consumers often perceive retail convenience holistically, focusing on the overall benefit of time and effort savings (Beauchamp & Ponder, 2010).

With the increasing competition in the retail industry, businesses are now focusing on providing added value to their customers by offering convenience in their shopping experience (Berry, 2001; Beauchamp & Ponder, 2010), which can be achieved through new services (Saarijärvi et al., 2014). However, offering a particular service in the hypermarket can be perceived negatively by the consumer if the service is not congruent with the hypermarket (Noseworthy et al., 2011). In the retailing literature, this is referred to as “retailer confusion” (e.g., Mitchell & Papavassiliou, 1999; Walsh et al., 2007; Wang & Shukla, 2013; Garaus et al., 2015, 2018) which is related to the phenomenon of the so-called “schema” (Beverland et al., 2006).

2.6 Retailer Shopper Confusion

Before the retailer shopper confusion is discussed, it is necessary to discuss how information is processed. While the SOR-Model addresses the affective processes in the organism, the so-called cognitive processes in the organism (O) take place at the same time (Kroeber-Riel & Gröppel-Klein, 2019, p.53).

Cognitive processes are processes in which the individual takes in, processes, and stores information (Kroeber-Riel & Gröppel-Klein, 2019, p.52). The information rate here is the "*total amount of information per unit time*" (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974, p.235), with more information leading to more comprehensive cognitive processing. In this context, according to Berlyne (1960), the information rate is influenced by four structural properties: (1) variety, (2) novelty, (3) complexity, and (4) conflict.

However, in order to process information quickly and efficiently, the human brain uses a so-called “schema.” Schemas are standardized preconceptions about how a thing typically looks like and what properties it possesses (Kroeber-Riel & Gröppel-Klein, 2019, p.268), with psychology, agreeing that it is the basis for complex human information processing (Grunert, 1996; Seel, 2003).

If a feature or other information does not match the schema, schema incongruence occurs (Kroeber-Riel & Gröppel-Klein, 2019, p.269), whereby slight deviations from the schema are associated with positive product evaluations, while extreme deviations from the schema tend to lead to negative evaluations (Noseworthyet et al., 2011). Related to the environment of a store, consumers evaluate store design according to its appropriateness (Bitner, 1992; Babin & Babin, 2001). For this thesis, this means that new services can be congruent or incongruent with the store's schema. Incongruence can influence the consumer's evaluation of the service (Sujan, 1985; Cohen & Kunal, 1987; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989), whereby in general, people try to avoid mental imbalances according to consistency theory (Gbadamosi, 2009; Cronley, Mantel, & Kardes, 2010; Kroeber-Riel & Gröppel-Klein, 2019, p.221), which explains the negative evaluation of extreme deviations (Noseworthy et al., 2011). If incongruities occur in the retail sector, this can lead to retail shopper confusion, which has an impact on perceived shopping value (Garaus et al., 2015). New services can also deviate from a certain schema and lead to incongruence, which is why the consideration of the retailer shopper confusion is essential.

The retailer shopper confusion construct has been widely studied in psychology and marketing literature (Chauhan & Sagar, 2021), laying the foundation for consumer confusion in the marketing literature by Jacoby (1974) with the development of the information overload paradigm.

Different authors have conceptualized consumer confusion differently, leading to varied definitions in the literature. However, recent research has attempted to separate the confusion construct from its antecedents and considers a three-component view consisting of cognitive, affective (emotional), and behavioral (conative) dimensions (Garaus et al., 2015; Fitzgerald et al., 2019; Chauhan & Sagar, 2021).

The cognitive component necessarily deals with confusion due to the cognitive load that increases more than the information processing capability of the human mind, consequently leading to the consumer feeling distressed and inefficient (Mitchell & Papavassiliou, 1999). As Chauhan & Sagar (2021) argue, based on numerous empirical studies, not only information overload but also information similarity and ambiguity can lead to consumer confusion. The individual or the situation further influences the confusion. Examples of those situational and individual factors are illustrated in Table 4.

Personal Factors	**Sources**
Cognitive style, involvement, and brand experience	Foxman et al., (1992)
Prior experience/knowledge	Foxman et al., (1990); Brengman et al., (2001)
Consumer decision-making style	Sprotles & Kendall (1986)
Situational Factors	
Physical environment, social environment, temporal environment, and task definition	Belk (1975)

Table 4: Situational and Individual Factors

The affective dimension reflects emotions like anxiety, fear (Hall-Philipps & Shah, 2017), anger (Walsh et al., 2007), and frustration (Mitchell & Papavassiliou, 1999) caused because of confusion.

The conative dimension of consumer confusion refers to the restricted behavioral intention, rather than the actual behavior, during a confused state because of a feeling of loss (Dogu & Erkip, 2000) and helplessness (Massara & Melara, 2010). This dimension represents the tendency for a shopper to feel unfulfilled with their shopping task or to abandon their purchase while experiencing confusion, which was found in the context of online shopping (Garaus, 2018).

Finally, the definition of consumer confusion can be derived from this context for the work, which follows the definition of Fitzgerald et al., (2019). Consumer confusion is the temporary uncomfortable cognitive state of mind with emotional (affective) and cognitive components in which consumers lack a comprehensive understanding of marketplace stimuli and, thus, restrict their behavioral (conative) intention.

Consequently, the negative feelings during the state of retail confusion have a negative effect on consumer satisfaction (Mitchell & Papavassiliou, 1999; Matzler et al., 2011; Wang & Shukla, 2013) and consequently reducing customer loyalty (Mitchell & Papavassiliou, 1999) as well as decreasing the perceived shopping value (Babin & Attaway, 2000; Garaus et al., 2015).

This means the retailer is responsible for getting the information content right for the consumer and creating an environment where elements fit together coherently. Furthermore, as Wobker et al., (2015) found for grocery retailers, building trust can reduce the negative outcome of confusion.

The retailer's branding is one way to reduce search costs (relieving the cognitive dimension) and build trust (Burt & Davies, 2010). Further, Burt & Davies (2010, p.869) argue that the consumers: „*generally refer to a specific (named) company or a store – we rarely say "I am going to the superstore", "to the convenience store" or "to the clothes shop."*

Since the retailer brand evokes certain expectations in the consumer, this impacts the satisfaction level (Hansen et al., 2011), which in turn affects the shopping value (Davis & Hodges, 2021). Therefore, retailer branding can be assigned to the response level of the SOR-Model, as it can influence the emotional and behavioral responses of the organism toward the stimulus.

The emotional and behavioral responses of the organism towards the store can vary based on their perception of the retailer's branding. For instance, if a customer has a positive perception of the retailer's branding, they are likely to have positive emotional responses, such as trust or loyalty, towards the store (Burt & Davies, 2010), which can lead to positive behaviors. Moreover, retailer branding can create expectations about the store's quality, price, and service level, shaping the customer's perception and evaluation of the store's offerings (Baker et al., 2002). The overall perception of a retailer's brand and the expectations that it creates in the minds of customers is known as the retailer´s image (Burt & Davies, 2010). Since this understanding is essential for the research question of this thesis, the concept of the retailer image will be discussed in the next chapter.

2.7 Retailer Image

In general, the American Marketing Association defines the term brand as: *„a name, term, design, symbol or any other feature that identifies one seller's goods or service as distinct from those of other sellers."* (American Marketing Association, 2023, online)

A significant difference, however, between a product brand and a retailer brand is that retail brands are more multi-sensory than product brands and have more opportunities to create their brand image, for example, by adding new services, product prices, etc. (Ailawadi & Keller, 2004). Image is, consequently, as already mentioned before, the way the customer perceives and defines a brand. In the retail context, this is also called the store image (Marineau, 1958). A relationship exists between the store image and the attitude toward store brands.

As the store serves as a point of interaction with customers, it plays a crucial role in building trust and establishing the retailer's brand image, in addition to the brand name (Burt & Davies, 2010). Through customers' experiences with the retailer, the store effectively becomes the retailer's product (Kasulis & Lusch, 1981; Porter & Clycomb, 1997). Furthermore, studies have demonstrated that the quality of the store atmosphere and the store itself positively impact consumers' perception of the store brand's quality (Vahie & Paswan, 2006).

Ailawadi & Keller (2004) identified the most important factors influencing the retailer's image and categorized them into five points: (1) access, (2) in-store atmosphere, (3) price and promotion, (4) cross-category product/service assortment, and (5) within-category brand/item assortment. The research question in this paper focuses on point four in particular. However, since a concrete explanation of all points would go beyond the scope of this paper, the points are summarized in Table 5.

Influencing factors	Description
Access	Access refers to the location of a store and the distance consumers need to travel to shop there. It used to be a key factor in store choice, but the location is becoming less important with suburban sprawl, online retailing, and new retail formats (Bell et al., 1998).
Store atmosphere	Different elements of a retailer’s in-store environment can influence consumers’ perceptions of a store’s atmosphere.
Price and promotion	The image of a retailer is influenced by pricing factors such as the average level of prices, the amount of price variation over time, the frequency and depth of promotions, and whether the retailer positions itself as EDLP or HILO.
Cross-category assortment	The store image is significantly influenced by consumers' perception of the breadth of different products and services a retailer offers under one roof.
Within-category assortment	The store image is significantly influenced by consumers' perceptions of the depth of a retailer's assortment within a product category, making it a key driver of store choice.

Table 5: Influential factors according to Ailawadi & Keller (2004)

Esbjerg & Bech-Larsen (2009) use a different approach to retailer branding based on the S-D logic. They use the term retailer brand architecture and argue that this metaphor has greater potential in the retail setting compared to the manufacturer setting, where it has mainly been applied before. Retailers typically offer thousands of different brands and services, leading to a more complex brand architecture than manufacturers. “*The development of retailing formats involves the design of physical structures and, compared to manufacturers, retailers furthermore have more freedom to combine (but often less freedom and capability to produce) the elements (products and brands) used to build the brand architecture.” (*Esbjerg & Bech-Larsen, 2009, p.415)

Furthermore, they acknowledged that prior research was conceptualized from an internal management perspective rather than from a consumer perspective, neglecting the co-creation of the brand architecture by the customer (Esbjerg & Bech-Larsen, 2009). That is in line with Chun and Davie (2006) and Tarnovskaya et al., (2008), who argue that the goal of the corporate brand is to create meaning and value through relationships, including customers, employees, and other stakeholders. This is underlined by the S-D logic, which highlights the role of networks and their role in the value-creation process (Vargo & Lusch, 2004; Lusch et al., 2007).

Roggeveen et al., (2021) consider not only the retailer's identity but also the customer himself and highlight the importance of retailer-consumer identity congruence. This means that the retailers: „*must both effectively convey their own identity and resonate with consumer identities that are most congruent with that brand" (Roggeveen et al., 2021, p.82f.).*

From the S-D logic, it is clear that any service creates value for the customer, which makes the consideration of value from the consumer's point of view in the shopping domain essential for this paper. Consequently, in the framework of this paper, the concept of shopping value, allocated to the Response Dimension within the SOR-Model, is discussed as a final point.

2.8 Value Creation in Retailing

Zeithaml (1988, p.14) defines the perceived value of the consumer as an *„overall assessment of the utility of a product (or service) based on perceptions of what is received and what is given."* In other words, perceived value is the trade-off between what the consumer has to give and what the consumer gets in return.

However, Davis & Hodges (2021) argue that the perceived value resulting from shopping is a complex construct composed of several dimensions. Hence, it is not enough to evaluate shopping value only regarding goods and services offered; intangible and emotional costs and benefits must also be considered (Holbrook, 1986). According to Holbrook (1986) and Babin et al., (1994), shopping value is a multidimensional outcome of the shopping process, whereby research has already demonstrated that shopping value is a significant determinant of key outcome variables, including satisfaction, attitudinal loyalty, word of mouth communications, the share of purchases (Carpenter, 2008a), and re-patronage intention (Hirschmann & Holbrook, 1982). Thereby Davis & Hodges (2021) have shown that the overall shopping value consists of the shopping trip value and the in-store shopping value.

2.8.1 Shopping Trip Value

Babin et al., (1994) suggest two dimensions of the shopping trip value. On the one hand, the "hedonic value" refers to the emotional and experiential benefits a customer receives from a shopping experience (Bellenger et al., 1976). This includes the pleasure, excitement, and fun customers experience while shopping and the social and aesthetic benefits of the shopping environment. Customers motivated by hedonic values tend to prioritize the experience and enjoyment of shopping over practical considerations as Langrehr (1991, p.428) stated: "*People buy so they can shop, not shop so they can buy*."

"Utilitarian value," on the other hand, refers to the practical and functional benefits a customer receives from a shopping experience (Batra & Olli, 1991). This includes the efficiency, convenience, and cost-effectiveness of the shopping experience and the utility and functionality of the products being purchased (Babin et al., 1994). Customers motivated by utilitarian values tend to prioritize practical considerations over the experience and enjoyment of shopping. Those customers also see shopping more as a work (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), and the value for the shopper may only appear if the consumer successfully completes the desired task (Babin et al., 1994).

This is especially relevant for grocery stores where customers prioritize convenience, low prices, variety, and shopping speed (Esbjerg & Bech-Larsen, 2009). Although the convenience aspect is assigned to the utilitarian shopping value, it also influences the hedonic shopping value, with Reimers & Chao (2014) arguing that convenience can serve as a prerequisite to a satisfying recreational shopping trip.

However, understanding both hedonic and utilitarian value is essential for retailers, as it can help them create shopping experiences, products, and services that deliver both types of value. Nonetheless, May (1989) argues that it is not only the products and services that create value for the consumer but also the store itself. This is in line with Davis & Hodges (2021), who have shown, as already mentioned, that the overall shopping value consists of the shopping trip value and the in-store shopping value. Thereby, it is not only the merchandise or service that influences the customer; it is also the store atmosphere, which may be more influential than the product itself (Kotler, 1974). This is why the in-store shopping value will be discussed next.

2.8.2 In-Store Shopping Value

The perceived value in retail stores is based on the products, services, and other in-store elements that fulfill their wants and needs (Davis & Hodges, 2012). As a result, consumers evaluate their shopping experiences based on these factors, which contribute to fulfilling their shopping motivations and shape their perceptions of the overall shopping experiences (Davis & Hodges, 2012).

Nevertheless, this approach is deemed inaccurate because in-store shopping value is a multidimensional construct (Kerin et al., 1992). Different environmental elements in a service environment elicit different affective responses from consumers (Tai & Fung, 1997) and influence their shopping behavior (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) and satisfaction (Davis & Hodges, 2012). Baker (1986) has broken down the environment of a service setting into three components: (1) ambient elements (e.g., lighting, temperature, and music), (2) design elements (e.g., Color, furnishings, and spatial layout, and (3) social elements (e.g., other customers, service personnel). However, the mode of action of the three mentioned categories, according to Baker (1986), is not target-oriented for the research objectives of this thesis. It's more important to figure out how individual new service offerings create value for the customer.

In line with this approach, the next chapter will explain the theoretical framework on which the research in this work is based.

2.9 Conclusion and Framework

From the processes and interrelationships described above, an overall picture can now be constructed that is ideally suited to address the research question. As mentioned at the beginning, this thesis is based on the SOR-Model proposed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974). The stimulus (S) in this model refers to a new service that is being offered by a hypermarket, which is then perceived by consumers (O). This perception triggers various processes in the organism (O), such as decision-making processes that are based on the perceived information as well as the consumer's prior experiences (see, e.g., Homburg & Giering, 2001).

The constructs of retailer confusion and convenience offer explanatory models for consumers' decision-making behavior. While retailer confusion focuses on cognitive processes (Mitchell & Papavassiliou, 1999), convenience cannot be solely attributed to either affective or cognitive processes. However, it is noteworthy that these constructs share very similar dimensions (Compare Figure 3 and Figure 4).

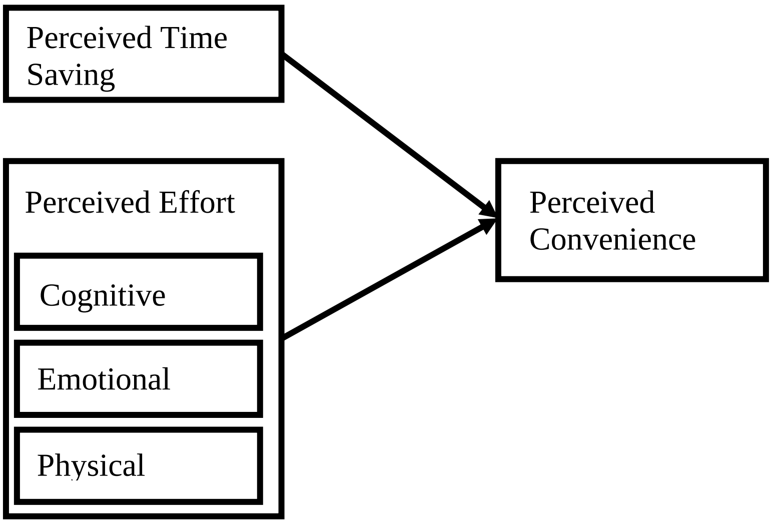

Figure 3: Convenience Construct

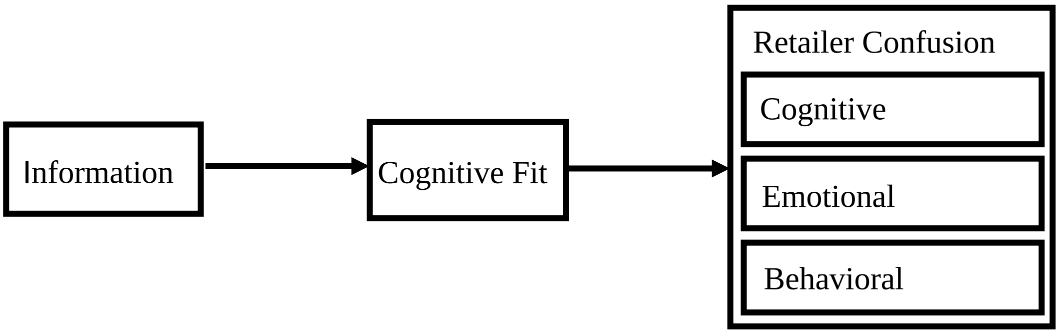

Figure 4: Retailer Confusion Construct

One distinguishing feature is the time dimension that is applied in the convenience construct, which is not explicitly addressed in the retailer confusion construct. However, since the information rate is essential in the retailer confusion construct, which is defined as the "*total amount of information per unit time*" (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974, p.235), it can be argued that time also plays an essential role here.

Furthermore, in the effort dimension, the convenience construct focuses on the reduction of any cognitive, affective, and physical processes. Retailer Confusion approaches from the other side and considers the impact of too much or inconsistent information (cognitive fit), which leads to cognitive overload and consequently to consumer confusion. However, this also means that convenience is affected by the increased cognitive load triggered by cognitive fit, as it requires more cognitive effort from consumers. Hence, if a service is too complex, the increased cognitive load does not save the consumer time or effort and can lead to the perception that the service is less convenient. Based on these facts, it can be said that the consideration of cognitive fit is relevant for both constructs. Therefore, the cognitive fit is seen as a variable affecting both constructs convenience as well as retailer confusion.

The cognitive fit, as well as both constructs, consequently have an influence on the perceived shopping value, which consists of hedonic and utilitarian aspects. Furthermore, the SOR-Model posits that a consumer's attitude towards an object is established in response to the stimulus and subsequent cognitive processes (Kroeber-Riel & Gröppel-Klein, 2019, p.43), whereby the term “attitude” is seen as a synonym for “image” (Kroeber-Riel & Gröppel-Klein, 2019, p.198). These two factors, in turn, shape the perception of stimuli.

However, the SOR-Model also states that the reaction phase is followed by either approach or avoidance behavior (Donovan et al., 1982). To measure this behavior, following the study of Wang et al. (2019), who also has done research on a new service (ride-sharing service), the variable willingness to use (W2U) is used, as it is well suited to measure the response behavior of a new service.

Here, a high willingness to try a service can be interpreted as approach behavior and a low willingness as rejection behavior.

From these insights, the theoretical framework of this work is derived, which is illustrated in Figure 5.

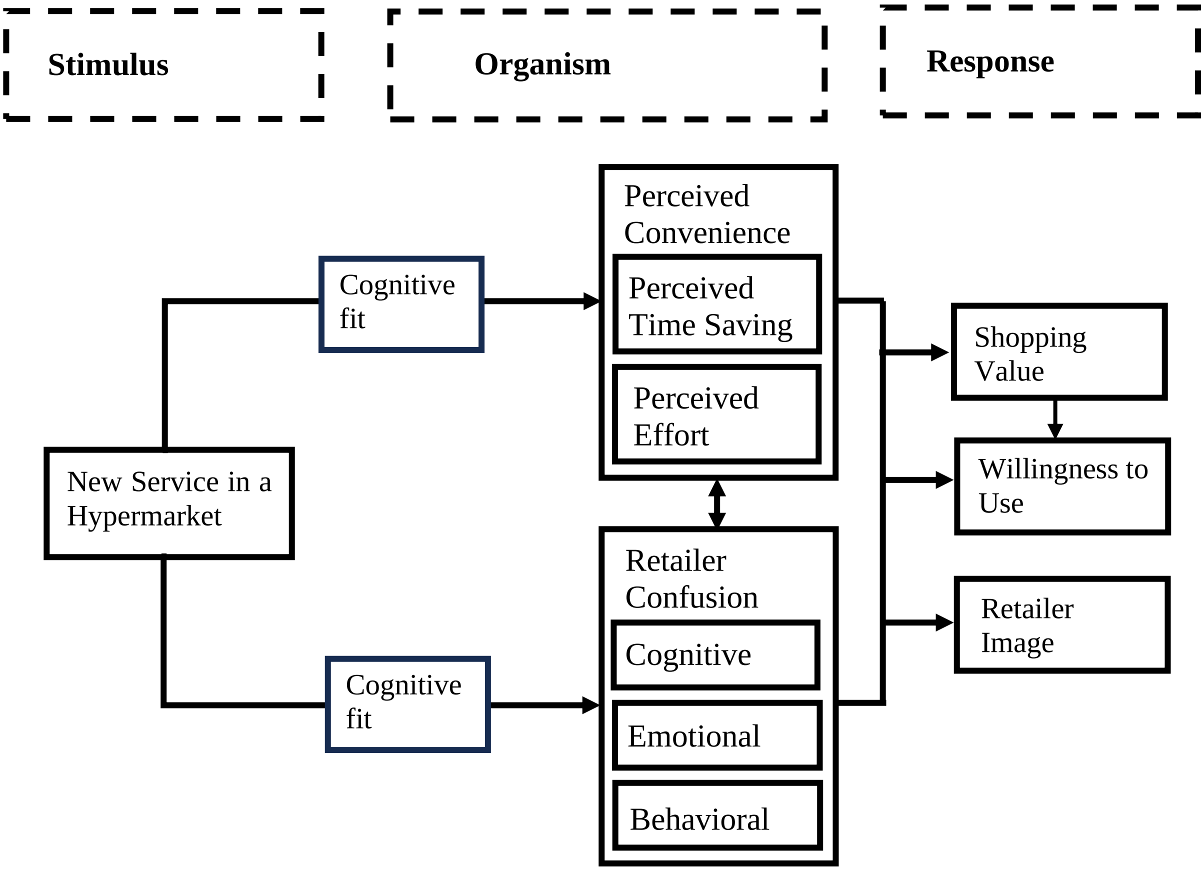

Figure 5: Theoretical Framework

However, finally, it is the customer who shapes the retailer's requirements. „*Consumers seek to choose a format and price level that best suits their needs in a given shopping situation. Because a retailer can survive only if it can profit from providing a given mix of services, consumers ultimately determine the market formats. Therefore, it is essential to examine the services required by consumers as they proceed through the customer journey."* (Gauri, et al., 2021, p.44)

The above quote serves as an accurate reflection of the overall objective of this thesis by investigating the services required by customers to enhance the shopping experience of a one-stop shop. In the subsequent section of this paper, the methodology used for the research project will be outlined in detail, including the research design, data collection methods, and data analysis techniques.

3. Methodology

This chapter intends to explain the mixed-methods approach in this thesis. Initially, a brief discussion will be presented regarding the philosophical point of view as well as the chosen research design. Subsequently, a section on research design and quality criteria will follow.

3.1 Philosophical Discussion

On a philosophical level, the mixed-methods approach has been rejected for a certain period by scholars due to the assumption of the incompatibility thesis, as the paradigms (worldviews) of quantitative (positivist paradigm) and qualitative research (constructivist paradigm) differ significantly, as the integration of qualitative and quantitative methods was considered impossible (e.g., Smith, 1983; Sale et al., 2002). However, this assumption has been discarded as researchers have demonstrated the effectiveness of integrating both methods (Greene, 2015).

A more concrete delineation of the different paradigms was provided by Guba & Lincoln (2005). Especially the pragmatic perspective is a suitable paradigm for the mixed-methods approach (Tashakkori et al., 2021, p. 61f.), which is also adopted in this work. From an epistemological standpoint, pragmatists can adopt various positions, aiming to find the one best suited to address the research question (Tashakkori et al., 2021, p. 67f.). The same applies to the ontological standpoint, as pragmatists do not solely adhere to a single understanding of reality (i.e., either subjective reality or objective reality) but recognize that reality is composed of multiple perspectives (Tashakkori et al., 2021, p. 70f.).

In the present study, the combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods enables a comprehensive understanding of complex causation and processes in consumers' daily lives (qualitative) and applies these findings to a specific population. However, whether the results can be generalized *"is to be made by the reader of the research study and not the researcher"* (Tashakkori et al., 2021, p. 72f). The primary objective of this research is to provide valuable insights from the customer side which can ultimately enhance the shopping value. This approach is aligned with the paradigm of pragmatism, which strives to fulfill the purpose of each research study and contribute to improvements in various fields (Tashakkori et al., 2021, p. 63). To ensure a better understanding and enhance the clarity of the research methodology, the research design for this study will be explained in detail in the next chapter.

3.2 Research Design

This work aims to find service opportunities that can extend the one-stop shop by answering the research question:

RQ1: *Which additional services can a one-stop shop offer to enhance the Shopping value?*

To explore different service opportunities that the consumers would value in a one-stop shop, a mixed-methods approach with an explorative character will be chosen in this thesis.

The mixed-methods approach provides several benefits, including the ability to comprehensively address specific research problems using both quantitative and qualitative methods (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.17f.) Integrating multiple research strategies and data sources enhances the validity and reliability of the results as it allows for triangulation of data and the exploration of complex phenomena (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, S. 301). Combining different methods also enables researchers to gain a deeper understanding of the research topic and identify potential contradictions and limitations in the findings.

The use of a mixed-methods approach is particularly important for this research question since a single method would not be sufficient. A purely qualitative approach would identify specific services but would not provide a representative sample, while a quantitative approach alone may not capture the full complexity of customer needs. Thus, utilizing mixed-methods social research can provide a more comprehensive and robust approach to investigating the research question and can consequently deliver relevant suggestions for practice to ultimately enhance a one-stop shop.

According to Creswell and Plano (2018), the field of mixed-methods research encompasses three core designs: convergent designs, explanatory sequential designs, and exploratory sequential designs.

Convergent designs involve the simultaneous collection and integration of both quantitative and qualitative data. Researchers can obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the research subject by combining multiple perspectives and insights (ib.).

Explanatory sequential designs, on the other hand, follow a sequential order of data collection and analysis. Initially, quantitative data is collected and analyzed, then qualitative data is employed to explain or extend the quantitative findings. This design allows researchers to delve deeper into the research topic by utilizing qualitative data to provide additional context and insights (ib.).

Exploratory sequential designs also adopt a sequential approach to data collection and analysis. However, in this design, qualitative data is initially collected and analyzed to generate hypotheses or explore phenomena. These hypotheses or phenomena are then further examined through quantitative means. This design enables researchers to employ qualitative data to identify potential research directions and inform the subsequent quantitative analysis (ib.).

Specifically, this study employed an exploratory sequential research design (Creswell, 2014, p. 276) comprising two distinct phases. The first phase involved conducting qualitative research, while the second phase was dedicated to quantitative research. The qualitative phase utilized semi-structured in-depth interviews to comprehensively understand the research question guided (Nohl 2017, 15ff.). The second phase tested and validated the knowledge gained from these interviews through quantitative measures. The research design is illustrated in Figure 6:

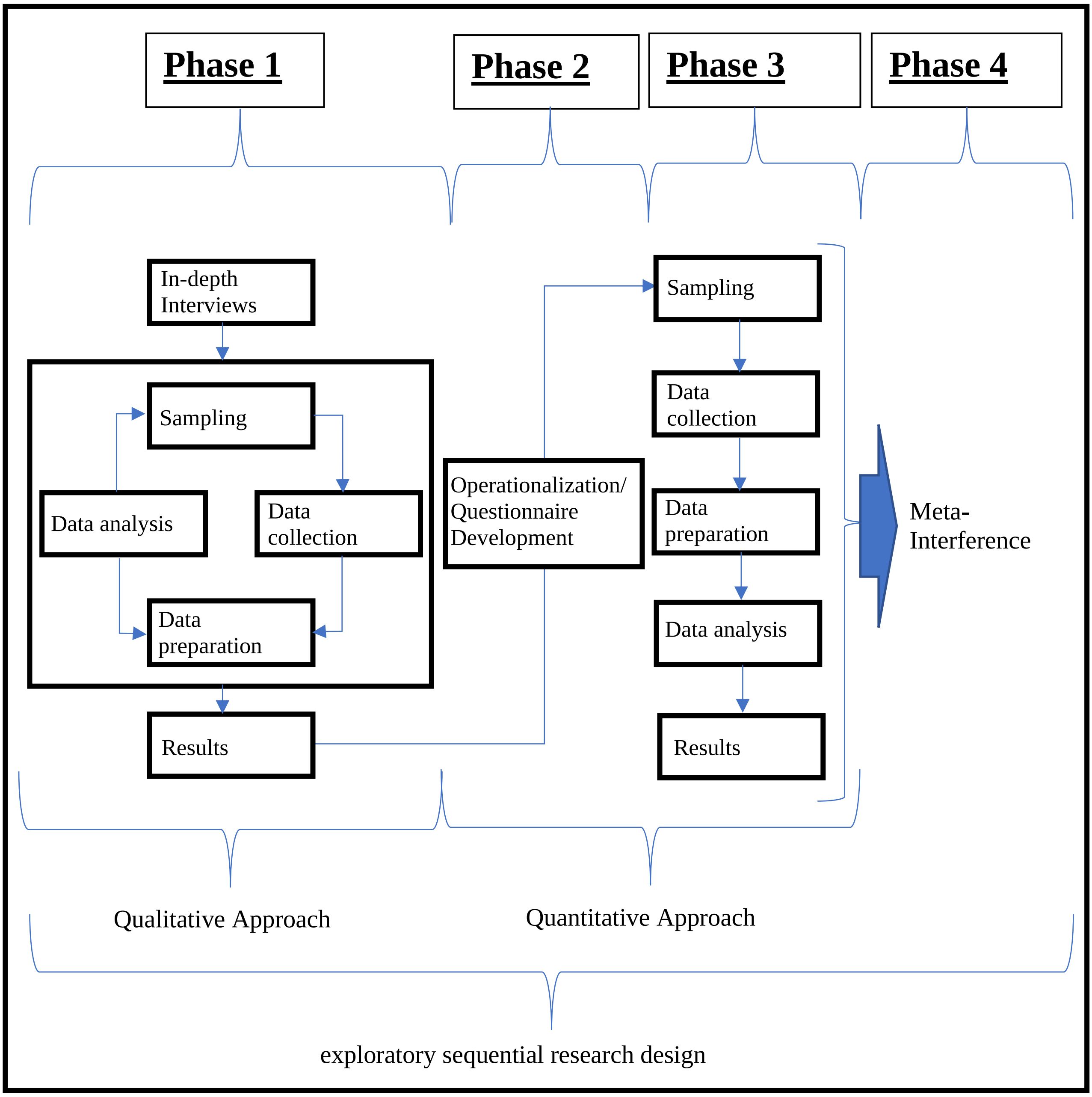

Figure 6: Research Approach for this Thesis based on Döring & Bortz (2016, p.27)

To guarantee a good quality of research, not only the quality criteria of quantitative social research as well as the quality criteria of qualitative social research have to be considered in a mixed-methods approach, but also the specific quality criteria of mixed-methods research. These will be explained in the following.

3.3 Quality Criteria of the Mixed-Methods Approach

In this research project, the quality of the mixed-methods approach was ensured by adhering to the six quality criteria identified by Hirose and Cresswell (2023). They synthesized six core quality criteria for empirical mixed-methods research from recent diverse sources. These criteria include the following:

1. Advance a rationale for the use and appropriateness of mixed-methods methodology.
2. Name and identify the type of mixed-methods design and present a diagram of it.
3. Write quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-methods questions or aims.
4. Report the quantitative and qualitative data separately.
5. State the use of integration in a joint display.
6. Discuss how meta-inferences and value resulted from the integration analysis.

Quality criteria 1 and 2 were fulfilled in the previous chapter. To enhance comprehension, it is important to explain quality criterion six. Metainferences *„refers to the inferences drawn from the quantitative analysis, the qualitative analysis, and finally, the inferences that transcend both databases"* (Hirose & Cresswell, 2023, p.24). Inference, in that context, refers to the interpretations and conclusions based on the results of the data analysis (Tashakkori, Johnson, & Teddlie, 2021, p. 297).

Overall, the sixth quality criterion ensures that the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data is appropriate and that the resulting overall interpretation is coherent and consistent.

4. Study 1

Figure 5 illustrates the testing of new services within a hypermarket setting. To accomplish this, an essential step is to identify the specific services consumers desire. However, to generate these new service options, it is necessary to research which services the consumer requires. Therefore, the first study focuses on understanding consumer needs by investigating their daily problems. This investigation serves as the basis for generating potential services that aim to address and mitigate these problems. With this approach, it is also possible to create services that are less associated with grocery shopping, thereby minimizing the risk of overlooking other service opportunities not associated with hypermarkets that have the potential to enhance the overall shopping value.

Hence, the intention of the first study is to use in-depth interviews to find out which problems consumers have during their daily lives, which led to the following research question for the first study:

RQ2: *Which problems do consumers encounter in everyday life?*

4.1 In-Depth Interviews

In-depth interviews are a suitable method to explore the customer's perspectives and perceptions due to the richness of information that can be gathered (Daymon & Holloway, 2010, p.220; Walle, 2015, p.69). The strength of qualitative interviews is the flexibility during the interview process, which allows new questions to be raised spontaneously (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.372). To ensure this flexibility, a semi-structured interview guide is used. This has the advantage of introducing a certain structure and consistency into the interview process, which ensures that certain topics can be covered. At the same time, the semi-structured interview guide leaves room for flexibility, thus, allowing the interviewer to spontaneously deviate from the guideline in order to ask in-depth and additional questions. Consequently, valuable information can be gained that might otherwise have remained undiscovered (Walle, 2015, p.72f.; Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.372). This makes the method well-suited for the purpose of the study.

When creating the questionnaire, attention was paid to the rules, according to Döring & Bortz (2016, p. 403). These are summarized in Table 6.

Since the goal is to identify concrete events or challenges from daily life, the critical incident method is suitable for the design of the questionnaire. This method aims to identify specific incidents or events that are highly significant for people and influence their satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Magerhans, 2016, p.334).

When using the critical incident method, participants are asked to describe specific situations or events in which they were particularly satisfied or dissatisfied with a product, service, or organization. These are called "critical incidents" and can include both positive and negative experiences. The goal is to gain deeper insights into people's experiences, needs, and problems (ib.).

Therefore, the critical incident method is suitable for the initial study design, as it captures the problems and obstacles in people's daily lives by asking people about their critical incidents. This can provide valuable insights from which services can be derived that could be implemented in a hypermarket to solve these problems.

Rule	Description
1	Simple and direct language was used to ensure that the Interview questions were easily understandable.
2.	Limit factual questions (Factual questions about the person were asked at the end, avoiding the creation of a structured questioning situation).
3	Open questions were mainly used to encourage customers to describe their behaviors and experiences.
4	"Why" questions were avoided as those questions can drive the respondents into a corner.
5	Leading questions were avoided.
6	Closed questions were used only when necessary for filtering guidance.

Table 6: Interview Guideline Creation according to Döring & Bortz (2016, p. 403)

After the first questionnaire was completed, a pretest was conducted to identify any inconsistencies and comprehension errors, which were subsequently corrected. The questionnaire underwent two additional pre-tests, amounting to three iterations until the interview guide was finalized. In line with the qualitative research methodology employed, a circular approach is implemented, wherein the questionnaire is further refined after the initial round of interviews, considering any identified inconsistencies or missing aspects (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.32).

4.2 Sampling

As the aim of the study is discovery rather than confirmation, it is important to achieve a high variability in the sample group to gain more data. This is particularly relevant when the aim of the research is to create theoretical categories rather than to confirm facts (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The approach used to determine the sample size in this study is "theoretical sampling”. This approach involves gradually developing the sample based on theoretical insights that emerge during the empirical analysis rather than selecting the sample at the outset of the study, as is commonly done (Przyborski/Wohlrab-Sahr 2014, 181). This approach finds its roots in the methodology of Grounded Theory, as initially proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). However, it is important to note that while Grounded Theory aims to formulate new theories, the primary objective of this study is to uncover and examine diverse perspectives, rather than develop a new theory (Meyer & Reutterer, 2009, p.241). Given the limited knowledge in the research field about the services that customers regularly use in hypermarkets as well as their daily life problems, theoretical sampling provides a more flexible and responsive approach to developing the sample. However, in line with the literature, it is advised to conduct around 12 interviews lasting approximately 30 minutes each, or an equivalent number such as six interviews of around one hour (Rowley, 2012, p.263). To ensure methodological rigor, this study aligns with these suggested requirements. Hence this approach guarantees that the right number of interviews is conducted until the saturation of information is achieved. Therefore, if any novel perspectives on the research question arise beyond the initial 12 interviews, further interviews will be conducted until no additional novel perspectives emerge (Meyer & Reutterer, 2009, p.242).

To ensure variability and thus include as many different opinions as possible, the interview partners are recruited on the basis of the family life cycle, according to Lansing and Morgan (1955). There are six main groups of households, which are differentiated according to their consumption behavior:

(1) Young*, single
(2) Two young adults with no children**
(3) Two young adults with children
(4) Two older adults with children
(5) Two older adults with no children
(6) Older, single

“Young” means the head of the spending unit is under 45 years; hence old means the head of spending is 45 or over.

*** “Children” means children under 18 years*

Lansing and Morgan (1955) also distinguish groups by the age of the children (under six and older 6). However, for this study, those six groups are enough, as the focus lies on the exploration of daily problems, whereby such a detailed segmentation is not essential. Hence, special care is taken during recruitment to ensure that at least two interview partners from each life phase are represented.

It is important to note that the interviews for this study will be conducted in the German-speaking area, with participants being interviewed in their native language. This decision was made to ensure that participants could fully concentrate on the content of the interviews. Conducting the interviews in English could potentially introduce biases as participants may be more focused on language comprehension. Moreover, using a non-native language could create discomfort for participants, leading to potential limitations in the level of detail provided in their responses.

4.3 Data Collection

The empirical data for the first study is collected through interviews. Participants are recruited via the researcher's network using messenger services to gauge their interest in participating. To minimize the potential influence, participants are only informed that the study focuses on surveying their everyday lives. Once the interview appointments and locations are finalized, the interviews commence. Prior to the beginning of each interview, participants are informed about the recording and storage procedures, establishing transparency, and ensuring informed consent (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.366). After the completion of each interview, the audio recordings are transcribed (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.367). The transcribing process will be explained in the subsequent section.

4.4 Data Preparation

After conducting the interviews, the data is initially organized by creating transcripts (Rowley, 2012). The interviews are transcribed into a Word document following the principles of Mergenthaler & Stinson (1992). Given that the interviews are not subjected to software-based analysis, the transcripts do not require any adaptations for software compatibility (Mclellan, Macqueen, & Neidig, 2003). Additionally, as the interviews primarily focus on the problems that consumers have rather than motives or feelings, emphasis is neglected in the transcripts. Nevertheless, concrete rules based on Mclellan et al. (2003) are established prior to transcription to ensure consistent transcripts. The rules are summarized in Table 7.

Rules	Description
1	Nonverbal sounds were typed in parentheses, for example: (short sharp laugh).
2	Mispronounced words were transcribed as the individual said them.
3	Slang and grammatical errors were not removed.
4	If an incorrect or unexpected pronunciation caused difficulty in understanding the text, the correct word was written in parentheses after it.
5	Filler words such as hm, huh, mhm, yeah, oh, ah, and ahah were transcribed.
6	Interview texts were written in small letters.

Table 7: Rules for Transcription based on Mclellan et al. (2003)

4.5 Data Analysis

To analyze the data, the conventional content method is used based on established coding frameworks and thematic analysis techniques. The selection of conventional content analysis is based on its suitability for the study due to limited existing research literature (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Moreover, this method allows for the development of categories and themes that emerge from the data itself without being constrained by preconceived categories (Kondracki & Wellman, 2002).

Data analysis follows a sequential and iterative approach, adhering to the principles of the hermeneutic circle (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.603). Each interview transcript is processed from beginning to end, and multiple passes are made to refine the initial understanding and gain clearer insights into the meanings of individual passages within the broader context of the text (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.603).

Upon reading the text, qualitative data analysis commences with the coding process. Coding involves segmenting the entire dataset, or selectively important sections, into meaningful units. These units of analysis range from small text segments (such as individual words or word groups) to larger units (such as sentences or paragraphs) (ib.).

Each unit of analysis is examined to identify its content-related characteristics, The interpretation of each passage is performed in the context of the research question, and a code is assigned to summarize or explain its properties within the qualitative data material.

Codes represent the first level of abstraction from the data yet remain closely connected to the original text. Throughout the qualitative data analysis, efforts are made to achieve greater abstraction by consolidating similar codes into higher-level categories (ib.).

Given the exploratory nature of the study, which is part of a mixed-methods design, a coarser coding strategy is deemed appropriate (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.604). This approach facilitates a broader exploration of themes and ensures a comprehensive collection of data, allowing for the generation of potential services.

The adopted approach enables a systematic analysis of the qualitative data, providing the foundation for the subsequent development of specific services that serve as stimuli within the theoretical framework. The results of the qualitative data will be discussed in the subsequent chapter.

5. Findings of Study 1

In the findings section, to ensure clarity and confidentiality, pseudonyms have been employed for all interviewees. These pseudonyms are listed in Table 8. This practice aims to maintain the privacy of the participants while facilitating easy identification and comprehension of the interview excerpts.

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Relationship status	Kids
Sarah	Female	Under 45	Single	0
Emily	Female	Under 45	Two young adults	0
John	Male	Under 45	Two young adults	1
Valentina	Female	Under 45	Two young adults	0
Jessica	Female	Over 45	Single	2
Michael	Male	Over 45	Two older adults	1
Olivia	Female	Over 45	Two older adults with	0
Sophia	Female	Under 45	Two young adults	1
David	Male	Over 45	Two older adults with	0
Eva	Female	Over 45	Two older adults	2
Elena	Female	Over 45	Single	0
Mia	Female	Under 45	Single	0

Table 8: Overview of the Interviewees

A total of 82 relevant text passages were extracted from the 12 conducted interviews. The description of the individual participants can be found in Table 9. Systematic coding was applied to the transcriptions of these interviews, utilizing two distinct code categories. The first category aimed to identify the areas where these burdensome activities or tasks occurred, utilizing codes such as “Household activities,” “Shopping activities,”, etc. The second category focused on exploring psychological aspects related to the organism level as discussed in Chapter 2 of this paper. This category aimed to capture experiences of burden and fatigue associated with specific tasks, employing codes such as “Effort,” “Physical Effort,” “Emotional Effort,” “Cognitive Effort,” and “Time Constraints. Table 9 shows all the codes used for both groups as well as some quotes assigned to those codes.

Code 1 – Area	**Code 2 – Organism**	**Example of a quote with the respective codes from groups 1 and 2**
Body care activities – Chapter 5.1	Time constraints	*“I always say that I'm going to cut my hair, but I never do it because this is on the other side of the city and it takes some time and I don't want to […] waste that time just with my hair because yeah, that's something secondary”* (Mia)
Household activities – Chapter 5.2 • Cooking – Chapter 5.2.1 • Laundry – Chapter 5.2.2 • Cleaning – Chapter 5.2.3 •Pets – Chapter 5.2.4 •Others – Chapter 5.2.5	Effort	*“If his dog sitter is sick this makes the challenge or if he himself is sick”* (Sarah)
Health activities – Chapter 5.3	Emotional effort	*“The problem with me is this enjoyment that degenerates. Last time, for example, I ate a whole pack of peanut flips, 3 gummy bear packs […], and then I was annoyed the next day because I then somehow felt sick”* (Jessica)
Shopping activities – Chapter 5.4	Physical effort	*“Or big grocery shopping instead of just going once a week or once every two weeks I do small shopping for the week or for the day […] because I don't have time or enough strength if I don't go by car to take all this stuff* “(Mia)
Social activities – Chapter 5.5	Cognitive effort	*“Nah, it's just deciding where to go. So now in September, I had 3 choices for me, and I have now […] finally chosen one”* (Elena)
Sports activities – Chapter 5.6	Motivational issue	*“I would like to do more sports, so mentally it would be my thing to say I do sports every, every second day at least […] It is, I think, a bit of an inner laziness that you then have to overcome”* (Michael)
Technical device activities – Chapter 5.7		
Mobility activities – Chapter 5.8		
Administrative activities – Chapter 5.9		

Table 9: Used codes

For clarity reason, the results of study one are presented based on the respective areas (code 1) in which difficulties were encountered.

As 11 out of the 12 interviews were conducted in German, it is important to mention, that all quotes presented in this section have been translated into English. For this purpose, the website DeepL.com was used, with some quotes slightly adapted to ensure comprehensibility (DeepL, 2023).

5.1 Body Care Activities

This category encompasses all activities related to the maintenance of one's physical appearance. Analysis of the interview quotes revealed that the " Body care activities" category is associated with various aspects of burden, with each individual dimension of the convenience construct being mentioned. For instance, the *quote "Well, not that, but it annoys me that I have to do it [...] but it actually annoys me that I have to go there [..]"* (Jessica) exemplifies the physical effort involved in traveling to obtain beauty-related services. Consequently, this travel activity becomes a source of annoyance, resulting in emotional effort.

Furthermore, another interviewee emphasized the influence of time constraints, leading them to delay visits to the hair salon more frequently due to its distant location, which consumes time that could be allocated to other tasks. The role of time also holds significant importance within the convenience construct.

5.2 Household

The Household category encompasses all tasks and responsibilities related to home management, including those involving family members, partners, or pets. Due to the diverse nature of this topic, it has been further divided into subcategories: (1) Cooking, (2) Laundry, (3) Cleaning, (4) Pets, and (5) Others.

5.2.1 Household – Cooking

The task of cooking within the household presents several challenges. One key challenge is that cooking is sometimes perceived as a chore. Respondents must decide what they want to eat, leading to cognitive effort when creativity or knowledge is lacking. As highlighted by Valentina, *"Maybe that's another thing, cooking is just annoying from time to time [...] Just thinking about what you want to eat, that's kind of the first point."* Jessica also views the process of deciding what to cook as burdensome.

Emotional effort can also be associated with cooking. For instance, Jessica expresses a strong dislike for cooking, stating, *"What I'm not interested in at all, for example, is cooking; I hate cooking."* This sentiment of *"hate"* generates emotional costs, partly influenced by different food preferences within the family. The presence of varying preferences makes it challenging for the person to decide on suitable meals.

Time constraints pose another challenge when it comes to cooking. People need to allocate time for meal planning and preparation. Michael also identifies time as a hurdle, which ultimately compromises the preparation of healthy meals. *"You come home from work at three, quarter past three and then quickly need to prepare lunch. And then, at that moment, there's the task of cleaning, washing, and cutting some great salad, which often gets neglected. I already see this as a challenge when it comes to cooking fresh meals with more salad[...]."* This time constraint prevents the fulfillment of the desire to eat healthier, resulting in emotional effort.

5.2.2 Household – Laundry

Another activity falling under the Household category is laundry-related tasks, which were mentioned in 11 instances.

One issue pertaining to laundry is the need for time management to ensure that it is completed before a specific time and that clotheslines or drying racks are cleared in a timely manner. Mia also shares time-related problems regarding laundry and shoe cleaning. Mia mentioned that she has ”a *long list of tasks that cannot be completed’’* due to time constraints. Consequently, tasks such as shoe polishing or mending holes in clothing are neglected.

Another challenge involves the physical effort associated with sorting and folding laundry. Individuals report that it takes a long time as they need to sort and fold the laundry from the laundry basket, which is time-consuming and physically demanding. Additionally, hanging up and taking down clothes require physical effort, as the respondents express the issue with clothes getting stuck, making the activity more difficult.

Furthermore, folding laundry is described as emotionally taxing. Interviewees express that they do not enjoy it and even hate it, particularly when it comes to folding bedsheets. As Valentina stated, *"Clothing is still manageable, but folding bedsheets, I hate folding them."* Ironing is also described as an additional task that requires emotional effort. Individuals express their dislike for this activity.

5.2.3 Household – Cleaning

In the Household category, tasks related to cleaning are also included, and it has been found that time constraints pose a significant issue in this domain, particularly when it comes to cleaning the bathroom, which is perceived as a time-consuming task. As expressed by one participant, *"What I'm avoiding is the bathroom, it's very time-consuming"* (Emily).

Physical effort is another barrier to cleaning tasks. Activities such as loading and unloading the dishwasher, doing laundry, and taking out the trash are considered physically exhausting. Additionally, one interviewee emphasizes the task of washing dishes, stating, *"The washing-up afterward, […] that is also something I hate, especially the washing-up of pots and pans, which do not come into the dishwasher, that is annoying"* (Valentina). This quote illustrates the emotional effort associated with this activity.

Cleaning windows also requires physical effort, and for one interviewee, time becomes an additional factor. This activity is particularly challenging when there is a small child present, as the parent does not want to spray window cleaner around the child.

On the other hand, two other interviewees (Olivia & David) did not mention specific effort or time problems associated with the cleaning tasks. However, both emphasize that they do not enjoy these tasks but recognize them as necessary obligations. *"House cleaning, cleaning tasks [....] It's not fun. It's just a compulsory duty […]* " (Olivia).

5.2.4 Household – Pets

Tasks related to pet care within the household were just mentioned three times. One challenge arises when caring for pets requires additional effort, particularly in situations where the dog sitter or the pet itself falls ill. These circumstances can increase the effort required to provide appropriate care. For instance, Sarah stated: "*Then I have to find an alternative either I do home office, or I drive my dog to my parents, or I drive him to another dog care."*

Moreover, purchasing special pet products can also entail physical effort. Individuals mention the need to buy specific foods for their pets, such as "*Proper parrot food [...] that is only available at the specialty store"* (Emily). Acquiring these products often necessitates extra effort, such as driving to specialty stores or specific locations to find the required items as Emily mentioned: *"and then I went extra to the special store"*.

5.2.5 Household – Others

Tasks such as repairs or gardening were categorized as "Others" due to their infrequent mentions, yet they still present challenges.

Gardening, while rarely performed by the individual themselves and often delegated to others, is still perceived as unpleasant: "*I don't like gardening at all [...] I always rather let my ex-husband do that*" (Jessica), which is why this activity has also been coded with emotional effort. Additionally, the inconvenience of certain errands, such as visits to the recycling center as stated by David: "*I had to go to the recycling center last week, that was actually no particular difficulty, but the opening hours of the recycling center are so bad so I had to adjust my day accordingly."* can be considered an aspect of emotional effort.

Furthermore, Do-It-Yourself (DIY) projects and household repairs were found to require effort and consume time. In particular, when it comes to repairs, one participant mentioned relying on the assistance of others due to a lack of craftsmanship. This reliance on external help evokes feelings of frustration and dependency, reflecting emotional effort.

5.3 Health

This section includes all activities related to maintaining overall health.

Within the nutrition topic area of the health category, respondents face various pressures. Participants reported neglecting regular exercise routines due to physical effort and time constraints. Additionally, they acknowledged the challenge of overindulging in unhealthy foods, leading to emotional distress and physical discomfort the following day. Overcoming the urge to continue consuming unhealthy foods poses a conscious challenge. Moreover, some respondents struggle to translate their knowledge of healthy eating into practice. Overall, maintaining the discipline required for daily healthy eating and sufficient exercise proves to be a difficult task. Consequently, personal fitness goals and weight management tasks are often postponed.

Another aspect mentioned by another participant pertains to mental health. This individual expressed uncertainty about their future direction and career path, stating, *"[...]I will never reach the goal to be what I think I want to be because it is constantly changing, and that is always a bit exhausting because there is always something restless in me"* (Emily). This statement implies emotional and cognitive effort as they grapple with the challenges of finding a concrete direction and experiencing a sense of restlessness.

By examining these narratives, it is evident that individuals face emotional, physical, and cognitive efforts when striving to maintain their health, both in terms of nutrition and mental well-being.

5.4 Shopping

The analysis of the transcripts unveiled diverse challenges and exertions linked to food and clothing shopping, wherein all participants exclusively referenced grocery shopping, and only one individual made mention of clothes shopping.

One participant mentioned their dislike for clothes shopping and their preference for second-hand stores due to their aversion to fast fashion. Additionally, Mia pays attention to sustainability when shopping for food, actively seeking products with minimal plastic packaging. Consequently, the person sometimes needs to travel long distances to find such products, resulting in physical effort. Furthermore, this participant expressed a desire to make bulk purchases rather than frequent shopping trips, but the lack of a driver's license prevents them from doing so, as they lack the means to transport larger quantities of groceries *("Enough Strength,"* Mia).

For the remaining participants, the focus was primarily on the activity of purchasing food and beverages. One person viewed the entire shopping process as unpleasant, considering it to involve many unnecessary steps. As stated by Jessica*, "[...] You drive there, then you have to load everything into your shopping cart, then you have to take it out again at the checkout, then you have to put it back into the car, then you have to take it out of the car again, so that you can put it back in again at home afterward, which then also totally annoys me [...]. I find that this way until this food is finally once in the refrigerator is too long for me [...] and somehow that annoys me.*" This quote illustrates both the physical and emotional effort experienced during the shopping process. However, this person also expresses a preference for in-store shopping to personally select the products rather than online shopping, with which those steps could be avoided. A similar sentiment is echoed by Sophia, who stated, "[…] *the stress is coming when paying, but this would happen anyway, whether the baby is with me or not. First putting everything out, then pay, and then taking everything back again*."

The emotional effort is also evident for Valentina who said: "*It's just annoying when the fruit and vegetables when there are just no good things left anymore [...] or when you go just late shopping there is partly some rotten stuff [...] that's just annoying"*. This leads to frustration and dissatisfaction. Similarly, Michael faces the challenge of wanting to buy fresh products but is limited by time constraints, resulting in frustration.

These findings highlight the various challenges and efforts individuals experience during the shopping process, including physical effort, emotional strain, and frustrations related to product availability and the overall shopping experience.

5.5 Social Activities

The topic of social activities encompasses all the leisure pursuits that respondents engage in with others during their free time. The findings reveal that this area is associated with various efforts.

Some participants expressed difficulty in establishing new social connections and expanding their social activities. They may feel hesitant or not open enough to approach new people. While there is a desire to meet new individuals, it takes emotional effort and possibly the support of familiar people to make these social interactions effective.

Cognitive effort is also evident when planning social activities. Making decisions about where to go or what activities to partake in necessitates thoughtful consideration and decision-making. As Elena mentions, even in the context of planning a vacation, there is a need for thought and deliberate choices to create enjoyable social experiences.

5.6 Sports

The findings reveal that sports activities are accompanied by various challenges, including physical effort, time constraints, motivation problems, and a lack of information.

Participants highlight that physical exertion and limited time hinder their ability to engage in regular exercise. Convenience and time constraints influence their decision to opt for less physically demanding activities, such as driving, instead of walking or biking.

Motivation issues are also identified as a barrier to sports participation. Participants mention factors such as laziness, lack of knowledge about suitable activities, or the absence of a sports club or group they feel comfortable with. One participant specifically notes that the distance to sports facilities also impacts their motivation, as Elena said: "*Yes, in the area the offer is quite rare, I had to use the car again and I just know my inner laziness to get back in the car, to go somewhere after work and to be active. This is often difficult for me to motivate myself"*.

Moreover, some participants expressed a lack of information regarding suitable sports or uncertainty about which activities would be suitable for them whereby Mia said, *"It would be easier if I had a coach or someone to tell me what to do because I have no idea"*. This uncertainty and lack of knowledge require cognitive effort as individuals must actively seek out information, research different sports options, and make informed decisions about which activities align with their preferences and goals. This additional cognitive effort adds to the challenges faced when engaging in sports activities.

5.7 Technical Devices

Five relevant text passages were assigned to the category of technical devices. These passages mention difficulties or problems encountered with various devices.

In one case, it was mentioned that the integrated milk frother in a coffee machine had broken, which is why Emily: *"were actually also at the store for consumer electronics and have asked* *there*". Although Emily did not specifically mention any trouble associated with this incident, it was coded as physical effort due to the extra effort required to travel to the store.

Interviewee 12, Mia, also experienced difficulties with a defective cell phone: "*I had some issues with my phone. It was not charging. I had to go and give it back for repair. It was a battery problem as I use the phone every day in that case, I had to take the time to go to a repair station. But for example, if I had an issue with my other stuff, I wouldn't do it as fast as I did".* While the emotional effort is not elaborated upon, it can be inferred that feelings of anxiety or annoyance may have arisen due to the defective device and the pressure to have it repaired promptly. Therefore, this text passage was coded with the word "Effort".

The same person also reported a broken microwave, which has not been replaced yet due to the high cost and lack of time to find a suitable alternative.

Furthermore, John encountered problems with a charging cable: "*When my phone does not charge because I have plugged it in incorrectly. I have a charging cable that can only be plugged in from one side and sometimes I plug it in the wrong way round and then I get annoyed*". This incident illustrates the emotional effort associated with the frustration caused by the mistake.

5.8 Transportation

In the domain of Transportation, the findings reveal the presence of difficulties and efforts. Emotional efforts arise from encountering blocked roads, searching for parking spaces, and crowded trains. The stress resulting from excessive human contact can also pose a challenge.

Furthermore, participants described situational events where additional effort is required. For instance, dealing with a flat bicycle tire caused by broken glass demands extra effort to fix the problem and resume usage. Similarly, maintaining a mode of transportation such as a car also involves physical effort. One participant mentioned the need to clean the car and remove leaves or dirt, which involves both time and physical effort.

In a specific instance, Jessica described the challenging situation of a car breakdown: "*The car broke down on Sunday and now of course I didn't have the food at home that I would have needed".* As the participants also had no food at home during that time, they had to rely on someone else. This situation was perceived as exhausting by the person.

Unique situations or activities not related to transportation were also mentioned by other participants. These will be further explored in the subsequent chapter.

5.9 Administrative Activities

Administrative tasks can be classified into public administrative tasks and private administrative tasks. Public administrative tasks are obligatory for everyone, while private administrative tasks arise from individual circumstances.

Regarding public administrative tasks, the task of tax declaration was reported by two participants. It was characterized as an unpleasant and cognitively demanding task.

In the realm of private administrative tasks, participants mentioned various distinct tasks. Most of them were bureaucracy-related matters, such as office affairs, insurance issues, and “complex technical requirements” like online banking. An example was given where switching to online banking resulted in the participant no longer receiving Mastercard statements by mail. Resolving this issue required a visit to the bank branch to find an alternative solution. Dealing with bureaucracy and complex tasks engenders both cognitive and emotional effort.

Bureaucratic tasks were also mentioned by John and Michael, with both struggling more with time constraints than complexity, often leading to procrastination.

Another time-related challenge emerged in the context of planning a wedding. The person expressed that this activity was highly time-consuming.

The task of planning a birthday was categorized as cognitively demanding. John aimed to organize a memorable birthday celebration for his daughter, which he described as *"not an exceptionally difficult task"* but it rather involved questions like "*How do I approach this? How do I do this best?"*

Finally, learning a new language, in this case, Russian, was identified as a cognitive effort. The individual reported difficulties in finding suitable language courses and sought assistance with grammar-related inquiries.

6. Discussion

The findings presented in this study show the problems encountered by consumers in their daily lives, thereby addressing Research Question 2 (RQ2): *Which problems do consumers encounter in everyday life?* An overview of the problems mentioned with the corresponding codes can be found in Appendix A1.

As this research adopts a qualitative approach, the focus lies on exploring and understanding these problems rather than establishing their generalizability. Furthermore, the qualitative research serves as a foundation for the subsequent quantitative phase, where service will be empirically tested in the context of the mixed-methods approach.

Hence, in this chapter, the empirical results are discussed and analyzed, focusing on the identification of key themes and insights derived from the qualitative analysis. The primary goal of this discussion is to identify and discuss potential services that can effectively address the identified challenges and alleviate the burdensome or tiring activities faced by consumers.

To derive potential services, each code from Group 1 is combined with a code from Group 2. This combination aims to link the identified challenges or efforts with the relevant domains in consumers' lives. By making these connections, potential services can be derived that directly address the identified burdensome or tiring activities.

However, since the elaboration of each service would go beyond the scope of this paper, services are to be divided into clusters. This ensures that at least one service from different areas is surveyed in the questionnaire. The greater diversity makes it possible to capture a broad spectrum of customer preferences.

This process is repeated for each code combination, resulting in a range of potential services that a hypermarket can implement to address the identified challenges and alleviate the burdensome or tiring activities faced by consumers. These findings will serve as a valuable foundation for further investigations in Study 2 and the overall mixed-methods approach. Subsequently, the integration of these findings into Study 2 is explained.

6.1 Well-Being Services

The first cluster encompasses topics related to "well-being," as indicated by the frequency of mentions regarding activities associated with health, sports, social engagement, and personal hygiene. Participants highlighted sports as a prominent activity contributing to their well-being, alongside cultural pursuits such as theater visits. The perceived connection between a well-groomed appearance and enhanced well-being was evident through the emphasis on personal hygiene and sports activities. A sense of well-being was seen as fostering mental health, making these activities crucial components of this cluster. However, participants also acknowledged various challenges that impact their well-being pursuits.

For sports, motivational issues, time constraints, and the distance to sports facilities were cited as common challenges. It is obvious that the problem of removal of sports facilities can be solved with a sports center in a hypermarket. Similarly, challenges were recognized in body care activities, which require emotional effort and adherence to healthy practices. Additionally, it is worth noting that participants also mentioned the difficulties of following a healthy diet. Challenges associated with giving up unhealthy foods and the need to apply their knowledge of healthy eating in practice were highlighted. One service to solve this problem could be a nutritional advice service in the hypermarket, which accompanies the customer while shopping and advises on healthy eating.

6.2 Household Services

The second cluster comprises topics related to household activities. Due to the prominence of this area in the interviews and the diversity of challenges mentioned, it was classified as a cluster based on its size and similarity. Upon reviewing the codes from the second group (perceived burdensome associations) it becomes evident that all the mentioned codes are represented in this cluster.

One prominent activity in this cluster is laundry, which was frequently mentioned by participants as a source of emotional and physical effort, as well as time constraints. Laundry services, which already exist but not in hypermarkets, can be effective in alleviating this burden for consumers. Similarly, repair tasks that evoke emotional effort also fall within this domain.

Another significant area within this cluster is cleaning tasks. Participants identified emotional and physical challenges, as well as time constraints, associated with household cleaning. While outsourcing cleaning to professionals is an option, not everyone can afford this service. Here, retailers can provide affordable physical support solutions such as ergonomic cleaning tools, efficient cleaning aids, or other services that assist individuals in completing cleaning tasks effectively within a limited time.

Cooking-related challenges are also part of this cluster, encompassing physical, emotional, and cognitive effort, especially the problem of meal planning and not knowing what to cook. This problem could be solved by offering ready-to-use grocery bags containing all the ingredients required for a specific recipe, along with instructions, hypermarkets can provide a convenient and time-saving solution for consumers.

Additionally, the challenges associated with Do-It-Yourself (DIY) projects and household repairs can be assigned to this cluster, which was found to require effort and consume time. In particular, when it comes to repairs, one participant mentioned relying on the assistance of others due to a lack of craftsmanship. This reliance on external help evokes feelings of frustration and dependency, reflecting emotional effort.

To address these challenges, the introduction of a “Craftsman Agency Service” within a hypermarket could offer a potential solution. This service could connect customers with skilled craftsmen who can assist with household repairs and DIY projects, thereby alleviating the emotional effort and time constraints associated with these tasks.

These challenges of the cluster reflect the wide range of difficulties individuals face in their daily household activities, including cooking and DIY repairs. These insights provide valuable information on potential areas where hypermarkets can support their customers in alleviating these challenges to enhance their overall household experiences.

6.3 Sustainability Services

The Sustainability cluster encompasses all activities related to maintenance, repairing, recycling, or activities where sustainability was emphasized for instance secondhand shopping due to sustainability reasons. These activities tasks that elicit both emotional and physical effort. In the context of technical devices, time constraints were also mentioned, adding another dimension to the challenges faced by consumers. In essence, the process of deciding how to maintain something generates emotional effort, while the actual execution of maintenance, such as cleaning a car, requires physical effort.

To address the challenges associated with maintaining technical devices and vehicles, a service that offers on-site repair capabilities in-store or through partnerships with authorized service centers is proposed. This service aims to reduce consumers' emotional burden by streamlining the search process for repair solutions and alleviating physical effort by having professionals perform the repairs. By offering repair services within the hypermarket, consumers can save time and effort that would have been required to travel to external repair shops.

Moreover, considering the challenge of visiting a recycling center, which some participants found burdensome due to inconvenient opening hours and the extra effort required for travel, an alternative solution within the hypermarket premises, such as an on-site recycling station, could be explored. This would not only minimize the emotional effort associated with recycling but also promote sustainability.

6.4 In-Store Services

The last cluster encompasses all challenges related to shopping activities. While some of these activities could have been assigned to the household cluster, it is essential to examine services specifically tailored to the grocery stores, as they hold greater potential for practical implementation. Notably, the challenges within this cluster pertain to physical and emotional effort, as well as the element of time. For certain individuals, the entire process of food retailing represents a physical burden, and online shopping is not a preferred alternative, as they prefer personally selecting their food items in-store.

To address this burden while still providing customers with the opportunity to browse and select products in-store, a Shop & Deliver Service can be introduced in a hypermarket. This service would enable customers to shop for their groceries in-store, but instead of carrying the bags themselves, they can conveniently hand them over to the store for delivery.

This service aims to mitigate the physical and emotional effort associated with shopping for groceries by offering a hassle-free solution for customers. This service aligns with the preferences of those who prefer in-store shopping while also catering to the need for assistance with carrying heavy grocery bags.

Understanding customers' preferences and willingness to utilize the suggested services will provide valuable insights into the effectiveness and potential impact on the shopping value.

However, the derived services are too many in number to test them all in this thesis. Hence, in the next chapter, it will be argued which of the services are going to be tested in the second study.

6.5 Conclusion

In this research, the study underscores the potential for innovation in the realm of one-stop shopping through the introduction of new services. The selected services, three in total, are intentionally diverse and not directly linked to groceries. This approach facilitates a more precise exploration of the theoretical framework. The deliberate choice of three services aims to ensure that each service can undergo comprehensive individual analysis, with each study able to accommodate sufficiently large sample sizes, thereby effectively representing the scope of this research.

Within the well-being domain, the study acknowledges the potential of sports activities and beauty concierge services to address relevant issues. Nevertheless, concerns arise regarding the feasibility of implementing such services within existing hypermarkets due to space constraints. Moreover, questions surrounding the innovative aspect of such services in grocery stores emerge, given that analogous services like hairdressing are already established in conventional shopping centers. This could affect the perception of the novelty or uniqueness of such services in a hypermarket. Therefore, the problem of nutrition is chosen as the focus of this cluster.

To address the challenge at hand, the first service proposed for hypermarkets is “Personalized Health Coaching”, with a primary emphasis on nutrition. This service aims to empower individuals to make informed dietary choices and overcome emotional obstacles hindering the adoption of healthier eating habits. By offering tailored guidance, hypermarkets can assist customers in enhancing their well-being and realizing their health objectives. The emphasis on nutrition aligns with the recognition of challenges associated with unhealthy dietary practices and the necessity to promote healthier eating behaviors. Notably, no grocer offering a comparable service was identified through research, underscoring the potential for novelty and distinctiveness in this domain.

Within the "Household" cluster, a service designed to facilitate challenges related to cooking was initially considered. However, since this service also pertains to food, similar to the first service, it was deemed unsuitable. Instead, the study identified services such as the provision of ergonomic household appliances to streamline household tasks. Regrettably, this service was also excluded due to its predominant in-store delivery model, mirroring that of the first service. In light of the research's goal to ensure maximum divergence among the selected services, the concept of a handcraft agency was chosen as a suitable replacement.

This decision was influenced by several factors, including the fact that a significant portion of this service does not occur within the physical store, and it can also be delivered online. These attributes set it apart significantly from the first service, rendering it particularly suited for the exploratory approach.

The third service selected for further study comes from the "Sustainability" cluster and takes the form of a recycling center. This choice is based on the service's capacity to offer both individual and social benefits, distinguishing it from the other two services, and is therefore included in study two.

In summary, this research identifies and delineates three distinct services for in-depth analysis. The in-store services cluster is excluded from this examination due to its close association with grocery retailing, which is incongruent with the research's theoretical framework and exploratory nature. Nevertheless, the other services represent viable alternatives as well for improving the one-stop shop concept that can be further explored in subsequent research. However, all the derived services which will be incorporated into the survey are illustrated in Table 10.

Cluster	**Selected Service**	**Description**
Well-Being Services	Personalized health coaching	This service aims to assist individuals in making informed dietary choices and overcoming emotional barriers to adopting healthier eating habits. By providing personalized guidance
Household Services	Craftsman Agency	This service facilitates customers in connecting with skilled craftsmen at a hypermarket, enabling them to seek expert assistance for various tasks or projects.
Sustainability Services	Recycling Center	This service enables customers to conveniently dispose of various items, including broken electrical devices, old clothing, batteries, and other recyclables, at the store's recycling center.

Table 10: Selected Services for the Questionnaire

Understanding customers' preferences and willingness to utilize the suggested services will provide valuable insights into the effectiveness and potential impact on the shopping value. However, before presenting the questionnaire, the hypotheses for study 2 are formulated.

7. Data Integration and Hypotheses Formulation

The findings obtained in Study 1 serve as an important basis for Study 2, for which hypotheses must be formed beforehand in this chapter. These hypotheses are formulated to empirically test the theoretical framework, including consumer confusion, perceived convenience, and overall evaluation of the shopping value. The identified service opportunities form the basis for this approach by incorporating the three services from the different groups discussed in the previous chapter into the questionnaire.

The literature shows that consumer confusion has been developed on the information overload paradigm (Jacoby, 1974). Consumer confusion originates due to the cognitive load that increases beyond the information processing capability of the human mind, leading to the consumer feeling distressed and inefficient (Mitchell & Papavassiliou, 1999). However, it is not just the quantity of information that leads to consumer confusion; information similarity and "ambivalent, misleading, or inadequate" information can also contribute to it (Chauhan & Sagar, 2021).

Environmental psychology, the origin of the SOR model, is also concerned with information perception and cognitive processing. To reiterate, cognitive processes involve the individual taking in, processing, and storing information (Kroeber-Riel & Gröppel-Klein, 2019, p.52). The information rate here refers to the "total amount of information per unit time" (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974, p.235), with more information leading to more comprehensive cognitive processing. Moreover, environmental psychology also considers the factor of "novelty" and “conflict” which involves stimuli or information that the consumer has not yet encountered, or which cause an inner conflict, impacting the information rate (Garaus et al., 2015).

This aligns with the schema phenomenon, where the brain uses pre-existing mental frameworks to process information quickly and efficiently. However, when the brain encounters a service, it is not familiar with, it cannot rely on a schema, necessitating more information processing initially. In other words, the more unfamiliar an environment is perceived by consumers, the higher their individual perceived information rate. This factor is particularly important to consider when introducing a new service. Additionally, it is essential to note the factor of congruence with schema. Slight deviations from the schema are associated with positive product evaluations, while extreme deviations tend to lead to negative evaluations (Noseworthy et al., 2011).

Following schema theory, it can therefore be assumed that services that are conceptually closer to the grocery store (schema), i.e., have a better cognitive fit, are less likely to lead to confusion. Based on these facts, the first hypothesis for the second study is derived:

H1a: Services perceived as conceptually closer to a hypermarket will result in lower confusion compared to services perceived as conceptually further away.

On the other hand, by bundling multiple offerings under one roof, the need for customers to visit various locations is reduced, saving them time (Messinger & Narasimhan, 1997). Supermarkets or hypermarkets leverage this advantage by positioning themselves to provide one-stop shopping convenience (Messinger & Narasimhan, 1997). However, perceived convenience is influenced not only by time savings but also by effort savings. Effort savings refer to the reduction of cognitive, physical, and emotional effort (Berry et al., 2002). Moreover, assortment size is not the only important factor; services can also give grocery retailers a competitive advantage and positively influence customer loyalty, which in turn positively affects profits (Briggs et al., 2020). Providing new complementary services can contribute to shopping convenience by bringing multiple offerings under one roof. Thus, this construct represents the opposite of retailer confusion. Nevertheless, similar to consumer confusion, the question arises whether services that are conceptually less close to grocery are perceived as convenient. Therefore, the following hypotheses are derived:

H2a: Services perceived as conceptually closer to a hypermarket will be perceived as more convenient than services perceived as conceptually further away.

H2b: The greater the perceived convenience of a service, the lower the retailer's confusion.

However, it is essential to consider that retailer confusion reduces shopping value, as evidenced by Garaus et al. (2015). Additionally, the literature indicates that consumers in grocery stores prioritize convenience, low prices, variety, and shopping speed (Esbjerg & Bech-Larsen, 2009), reflecting the utilitarian dimension. Nevertheless, Reimers & Chao (2014) showed, that convenience contributes not only to utilitarian but also to hedonic value. Consequently, the hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H3a: An increase in retailer confusion leads to a lower hedonic value.

H3b: An increase in perceived convenience leads to a higher hedonic value.

When offering a new service, it is essential to consider which retailer offers it. This is because the retailer's brand evokes certain expectations in the consumer, impacting the satisfaction level (Hansen et al., 2011) and, in turn, affecting the shopping value (Davis & Hodges, 2021). For instance, if a customer has a positive perception of the retailer's branding, they are likely to have positive emotional responses, such as trust or loyalty, towards the store (Burt & Davies, 2010), which can lead to positive behaviors. Moreover, retailer branding can create expectations about the store's quality, price, and service level, shaping the customer's perception and evaluation of the store's offerings (Baker et al., 2002). If these expectations do not match, e.g., if the service does not match the store, this may lead to retailer confusion. Hence, if retailer confusion is lower in this context, the image might fit the service better, leading to the following hypothesis:

H4a: When there is a decrease in retailer confusion, there will be a stronger alignment of the retailer's image with the service.

As mentioned above, customers prioritize convenience in a grocery store (Esbjerg & Bech-Larsen, 2009). Since a new service can contribute to this convenience and thus influence the perception of a store, a similar hypothesis can be formed here:

H4b: When consumers perceive the higher convenience of a service, the alignment of the retailer's image with the service will be stronger.

For grocery retailers, establishing a clear reason for customers to choose their store is crucial (Hansen et al., 2011). One strategy is to improve the perceived service output while maintaining current price perceptions (Hansen et al., 2011). From a pricing perspective, Grewal et al. (1998) demonstrated that perceived acquisition value influences consumers' willingness to buy. Notably, acquisition value aligns with Zeithaml's (1988) definition of value, encompassing perceptions of what is received and given.

However, since this study deals with hypothetical services and prices are yet to be determined, it is more appropriate, following Wang et al. (2019), to examine the willingness to use rather than the willingness to pay. Perceived convenience, confusion, and shopping value may influence the willingness to use a service. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H5a: The willingness to use a service decreases when retailer confusion is higher.

H5b: There is a positive relationship between the perceived convenience of a service and the willingness to use it.

H5c: The willingness to use a service increases with higher perceived shopping value.

The ten hypotheses derived all relate to the theoretical framework and are illustrated in Figure 7.

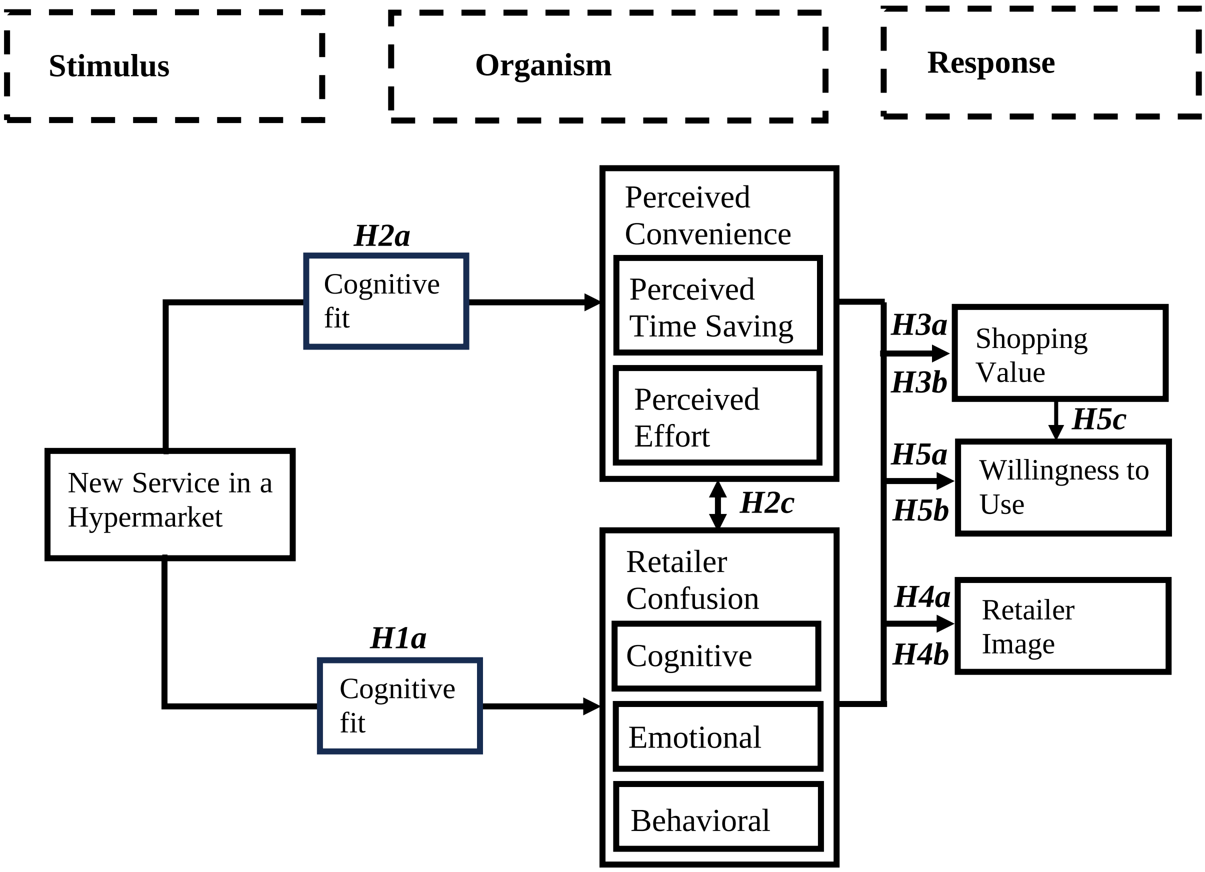

Figure 7: Theoretical framework with hypothesis

8. Study 2

This chapter outlines the research methodology, sampling, data collection process, and the survey instrument used to assess consumer perceptions of the proposed services in a hypermarket. Valuable insights are gained through the collection and analysis of data from a diverse sample of customers. The findings from this study shed light on the potential value of introducing new services in a hypermarket setting and offer valuable implications for retailers aiming to enhance their customers' shopping value. Consequently, the research question of this thesis:

Which additional services can a one-stop shop offer to enhance its shopping value?

is answered through the gained data.

8.1 Study Design

From the theoretical framework, it can be seen that the cognitive fit of a service has an impact on the subsequent constructs of convenience and retailer confusion. Thus, following the theoretical framework, the aim of the second study is to investigate the effects of cognitive fit, i.e., the conceptual proximity of a service to a hypermarket, on various constructs discussed in the theoretical section. The various services identified in the first study form the basis for this study. To achieve this, hypotheses were formulated to investigate the causal relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

For the investigation of this objective, an experimental study is considered the most appropriate. Experimental studies generally aim to investigate theoretically based causal influences of one or more independent variables on the expression of one or more dependent variables. The independent variables represent the causes, while the effects are measured through the dependent variables (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 194).

To enable an experiment that allows unambiguous causal conclusions, at least two study groups must be formed that are subjected to different treatments. Subsequently, these groups must be compared about the effects of interest (ib.).

For the investigation of the causal hypothesis in this thesis, three groups are first formed which are subjected to different treatments. The differential treatment is carried out by presenting different services, in particular the different cognitive fit, i.e., conceptual proximity, of each service to the hypermarket. This is ensured by using three different services for the questionnaires, as explained in Chapter 6. Hence, this represents the experimental manipulation of the independent variable, with participants being randomly assigned to the respective groups.

In an experimental setting, it is also crucial to work with precisely comparable groups (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 196). In this study, the participants consisted of visitors to a hypermarket in a moderately sized German-speaking town. However, there are two types of confounding variables to consider in an experiment (ib.). Firstly, there are person-related confounding variables, such as systematic differences in the personal characteristics and backgrounds of participants in different study groups. To mitigate these person-related confounders, experimental studies involve participants who are similar in sociodemographic traits, and in all cases, random assignment of participants to study conditions is employed (ib.). The former could not be guaranteed in this study, as data collection occurs in a hypermarket, where participants are recruited ad hoc, precluding the selection of participants based on sociodemographic traits. However, this problem can be counteracted with larger group sizes (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 196)

Secondly, study-related confounding variables represent the second category. These may include differential treatment of various study groups unrelated to the independent variable (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 196). To counteract this factor, standardized questionnaires were utilized, with all explanations and instructions presented therein, thus minimizing the researcher's influence on participants. The questionnaire will be presented in the next section.

8.2 Questionnaire Development

The standardized questionnaire employed in this study is comprised of five distinct parts (see Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 406). The questionnaire begins with a title and an instruction section, which includes relevant guidelines and contact information. Subsequently, the core of the questionnaire contains various blocks tailored to the hypotheses, with psychometric scales utilized to operationalize individual constructs (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 407). These psychometric scales consist of multiple items or indicators measured on a 5-Likert scale, ranging from "agree completely" to "neutral" in the middle to "disagree at all," adapted from existing literature. In addition, an "N/A" field was added for each item, as it was frequently noted in the pretests that this would improve the questionnaire.

Before evaluating individual services based on diverse criteria, information regarding food shopping is initially requested. Then, the presentation of the service, in the form of a poster, follows. For each service tested, the "cognitive fit" is assessed at the outset, gauging the extent to which the service aligns conceptually with a grocery store. This evaluation utilizes the scale developed by Garaus et al. (2015) and modified for this study. Retailer confusion is measured using the scale from Fitzgerald et al. (2019), comprising a total of six items targeting cognitive and emotional components.

Due to the hypothetical nature of the services being tested, established scales like Berry et al.'s (2002) service convenience or Seiders et al.'s (2000) Retailer Convenience constructs, involving dimensions such as access and transaction convenience, were deemed unsuitable. Instead, convenience is operationalized following Reith (2007), Ettinger (2009), and Hehle (2011), who measure the overall convenience of a shopping experience.

Retailer image is another aspect assessed within the content question blocks. However, given the multidimensional nature of retailer image, which is affected by various influences, including factors such as store atmosphere (Ailawadi & Keller, 2004), the Overall Attractiveness Scale according to Teller & Reutterer (2008) is used to measure the image. Specifically, Retailer Attractiveness is assessed both prior to and following the presentation of the service.

Subsequently, the shopping value of each individual service is queried, incorporating hedonic and utilitarian shopping value dimensions. Each dimension is measured using scales from Wang et al. (2019), with the hedonic and utilitarian scales sourced from Sweeney & Soutar (2000) and Hwang & Griffiths (2017), respectively. Finally, participants are also queried regarding their willingness to utilize the service in the event of its availability within a hypermarket. For this purpose, the "Willingness to Use" scale based on Venkatesh & Davis (2000) is used.

These psychometric scales are consistently applied in all questionnaires. A detailed composition of the scales is provided in Appendix A4.

It is also important to note that all questions in the survey are tailored to the hypermarket where the data collection took place. This approach was chosen because most consumers are unlikely to be able to distinguish between hypermarkets and supermarkets. The consistent reference to the store name is intended to ensure that respondents focus exclusively on evaluating services and are not cognitively burdened by the question of what exactly a hypermarket is. Furthermore, since the survey is conducted in a particular hypermarket, it can be assumed that respondents imagine or are influenced by this market, even without naming the specific store. This influence can also be ruled out by this approach.

Finally, statistical information is collected, including questions related to gender, age, and household size, following the framework established in the first study of this thesis (Chapter 4.2), based on the family life cycle classification developed by Lansing and Morgan (1955). The questionnaire concludes with a farewell and an expression of gratitude.

8.3 Sampling

In quantitative research, a fundamental distinction is made between probabilistic and non-probabilistic sampling methods. Probabilistic sampling is primarily employed in population-descriptive investigations, emphasizing the global representativeness of the sample (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 310). However, non-probabilistic sampling methods are more commonly employed in experimental studies (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.197).

Non-probabilistic sampling procedures can be differentiated into random sampling and non-random sampling. Randomness occurs when each unit in the population has the same probability of being selected during the sampling process. (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 305f). In this study, the population is defined as all potential customers of the hypermarket in which the experiment is conducted.

The sampling method used is opportunistic or ad hoc, whereby individuals who are readily available or easily accessible at the time of the survey are included in the sample (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 305f.). The purpose of randomization, specifically the random allocation of participants to their respective groups, is to minimize systematic differences among groups in terms of various psychological and social characteristics (ib.)

Prior to conducting the study, an a priori test power analysis is performed to ensure high test strength and significance testing with a Mean Effect Size and a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$. The analysis indicates that a sample size of at least 50 participants in each group is necessary to conduct for instance a t-test (Cohen, 1988). Considering the potential for the individual independent variables to have only a small effect size due to the complexity involved in perceiving and evaluating a store, the researchers opt for a sample size based on a medium effect size, as resource constraints and time limitations would make achieving a larger sample size in the upper three-digit or 4-digit range unfeasible (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 241f.).

8.4 Data Collection

Data collection for this study is carried out using a "delivery and collection survey" conducted in a face-to-face setting in a hypermarket in a moderately sized German-speaking town. This method involves administering a standardized paper-pencil questionnaire to the respondents present at the location (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 413f.). To ensure clarity and eliminate any potential ambiguities, participants are provided with a brief information text before completing the questionnaire. The use of standardized procedures aims to minimize experimenter bias, enhancing the reliability of the data gathered (ib.).

One notable advantage of this data collection approach is its high response rate, approaching nearly 100%, owing to the immediate return of completed questionnaires on site (ib.). Subsequently, during the digitization process, any faulty questionnaires can be readily identified and excluded from the analysis.

The selection of this data collection method is primarily driven by considerations of simplicity and cost efficiency. By conducting the survey on-site, it allows for the recruitment of a sufficient number of participants in a timely manner (ib.). These factors, combined with the method's standardized nature, contribute to the overall efficiency of data collection for the study.

Prior to conducting the main survey, a pretest phase was conducted to refine and improve the content and structure of the questionnaire (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 411). A sample of eight people participated in this pretest. They were asked to complete the initial version of the questionnaire and provide feedback on its clarity, comprehensibility, and relevance.

The feedback received during the pretest phase played a crucial role in improving the quality of the questionnaire. Particular attention was paid to removing ambiguities and refining the wording of the questions. Valuable insights from the pretest participants were incorporated into the final version of the questionnaire.

8.5 Data Preparation

Data preparation for this study involves the manual recording of the respondents' completed questionnaires using pen and paper. To transform the data into a digital format, the responses are transferred to an identical digital questionnaire, with careful attention given to ensuring completeness and plausibility of the answer patterns, adhering to the guidelines provided by

(Schendera, 2007). Questionnaires that do not meet the specified requirements are excluded from the dataset.

After data collection, the information is imported into SPSS for further analysis. Before conducting any analytical procedures, the data undergoes a standardization process to achieve consistency in its format. To maintain a reliable and coherent database, duplicate values or multiple rows of data are removed (Schendera, 2007). This diligent data preparation phase ensures the accuracy and integrity of the information used in subsequent analyses.

8.6 Data Analysis

The data analysis for this study adheres to the approach outlined by Döring & Bortz (2016, p. 616f.) and is concisely described below. The initial step involves the application of descriptive statistics to characterize the study sample (ib.). To enhance clarity, the data is being presented in tables and graphs, facilitating a clear and informative representation. Before proceeding with the actual analysis, a data inspection is undertaken to gain a comprehensive understanding of the facts and relationships within the dataset, ensuring accurate and reliable evaluation (ib.).

Given that this study aims to provide explanations, the research hypotheses are subsequently subjected to statistical significance tests (ib.). As previously mentioned, the SPSS program is being utilized for this purpose. Prior to conducting the tests, the data is checked to ensure compliance with statistical assumptions. The ensuing statistical results are being interpreted, and any limitations inherent in the study are being properly acknowledged and highlighted (ib.). This rigorous analytical process ensures that the study's findings are robust and appropriately interpreted while acknowledging the constraints and boundaries of the research.

9. Analysis of the Results of Study 2

In the following section, the results of the experimental investigation will be evaluated. Initially, a descriptive analysis of the entire sample will be conducted, also considering the demographic characteristics of each experimental group. Subsequently, data analysis will be carried out using statistical analysis through SPSS, followed by hypothesis testing.

9.1 Descriptive Analysis

The study was conducted over a four-day period, from August 09, 2023, to August 12, 2023, within a hypermarket situated in a moderately-sized German-speaking town. The hypermarket was located within a shopping mall.

A total of 240 participants were engaged in the survey, with each of the three groups comprising 80 participants. The data digitization process involved meticulous verification of completed questionnaires for both completeness and logical coherence. This scrutiny led to the identification of 19 questionnaires displaying either incomplete responses or uniform selections across all answers. Consequently, a valid dataset of 221 questionnaires was established. The precise distribution of this refined sample is detailed in Table 11.

Experimental Group	Amount	Share
1	73	33%
2	75	34%
3	73	33%
Total	221	100%

Table 11: Distribution of participants according to experimental groups

The minor deviations in group sizes due to the sorting out of the non-valid questionnaires can be considered negligible.

For further descriptive analysis, the demographic characteristics of the sample were examined, consisting of gender, age, household size, and highest level of schooling

Experimental Group		Male	Female	Divers	Total
1	Quantity	33	40	0	73
	% within the Group	45%	55%	0	100%
2	Quantity	33	42	0	75
	% within the Group	44%	56%	0	100%
3	Quantity	27	45	1	73
	% within the Group	37%	62%	1%	100%
Total	Quantity	93	127	1	221
	% within the Group	42%	57.5%	0.5%	100%

Table 12: Distribution according to gender

As displayed in Table 12, the distribution of gender data reveals that 42% of respondents identify as male, while 57.5% identify as female, and 0.5% represent diverse gender identities.

In both groups 1 and 2, the distribution of gender remains balanced. However, in group 3, a noticeable predominance of female participants is observed. Consequently, the aggregate proportion of females slightly surpasses that of other gender identities, with individuals embracing diverse gender identities accounting for a minor fraction.

The analysis of the age distribution within the experimental groups shows median values of the age data in the range of 37 to 49 years. The comparatively small deviations between the minimum and maximum age values, as well as the low average variations and standard deviations between the groups, suggest that hardly any significant deviations can be observed regarding the age of the subjects within the different groups.

Experimental Group	Median	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Average variation
1	49	45.3	18	83	16.9
2	37	40.68	18	78	17.3
3	47	46.1	18	84	18.1

Table 13: Distribution according to age

When the composition of the experimental groups is categorized by age, it is noticeable that in group 2 the age group from 18 to 29 years is most strongly represented, which explains the comparatively lower median in this group. Apart from this exception, the age distributions in the groups are quite similar (see Figure 8).

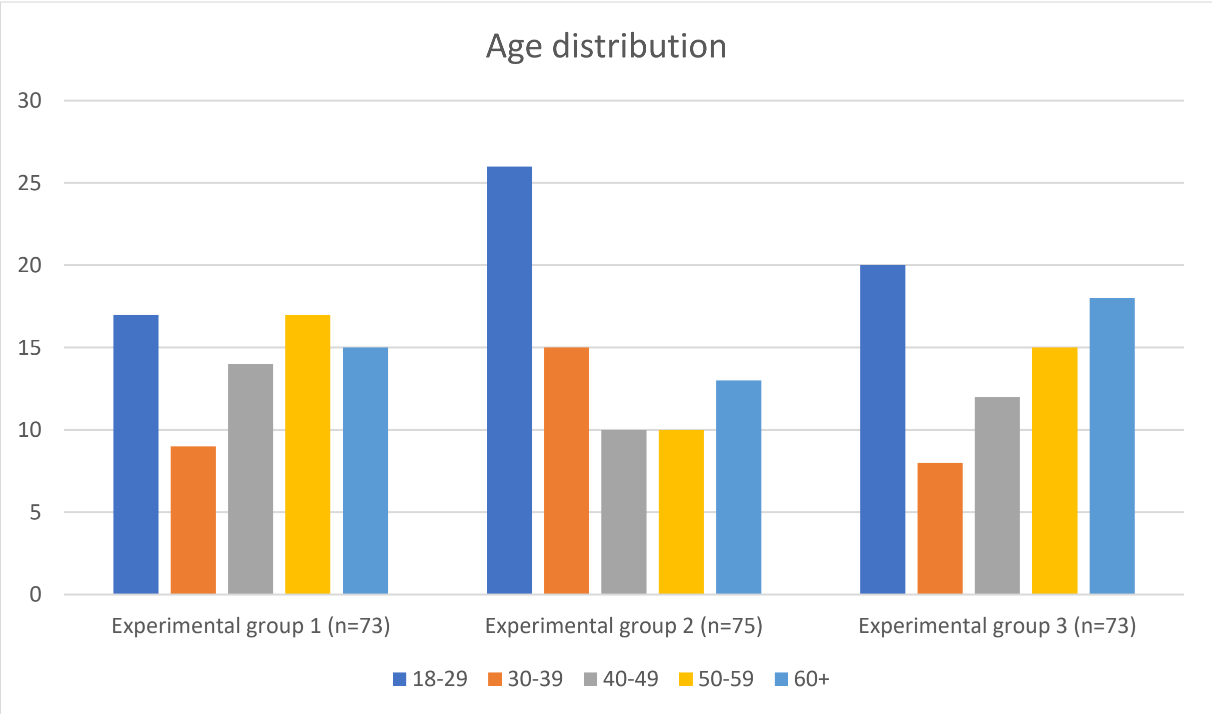

Figure 8: Age distribution

In addition to age, household size was also recorded, similar to the qualitative part of this paper. The largest group, "Two adults without children," includes a total of 97 persons (44%), followed by the "Two adults with children" group with 63 persons (29%). The single household with 32 persons (14%) and the household with "several adults" with 20 persons (9%) are relatively similarly represented. The household type "One adult with children" is the least represented with eight persons (4%).

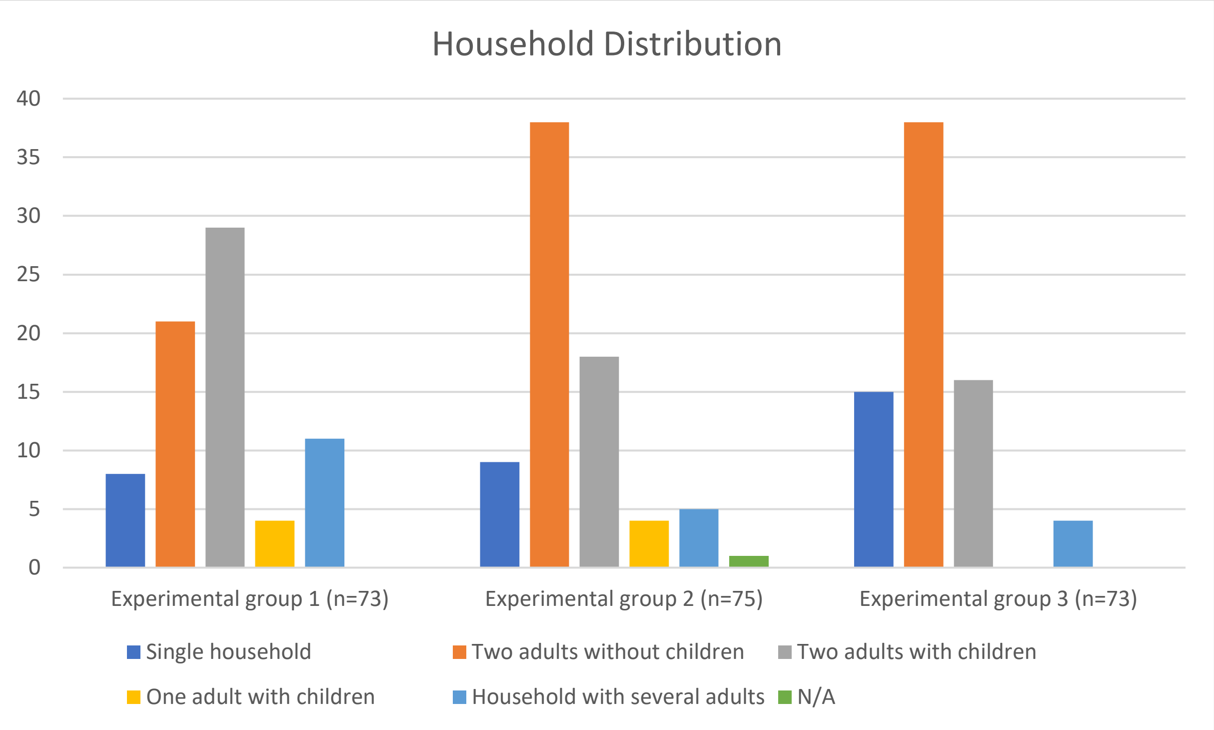

Figure 9: Household Distribution

Finally, data were collected on the highest level of education. The distribution in the three groups is relatively similar. The largest group with 70 persons (32%) has a university or college degree, followed by persons with a High School Diploma (59 persons, 27%), and the group "Apprenticeship with vocational school" (53 persons, 24%) 23 persons (10%) indicated graduation from a Technical Commercial School, while the two groups "Other degree after High School Diploma" with nine persons (4%) and "Compulsory School" with seven persons (3%) represent the smallest groups.

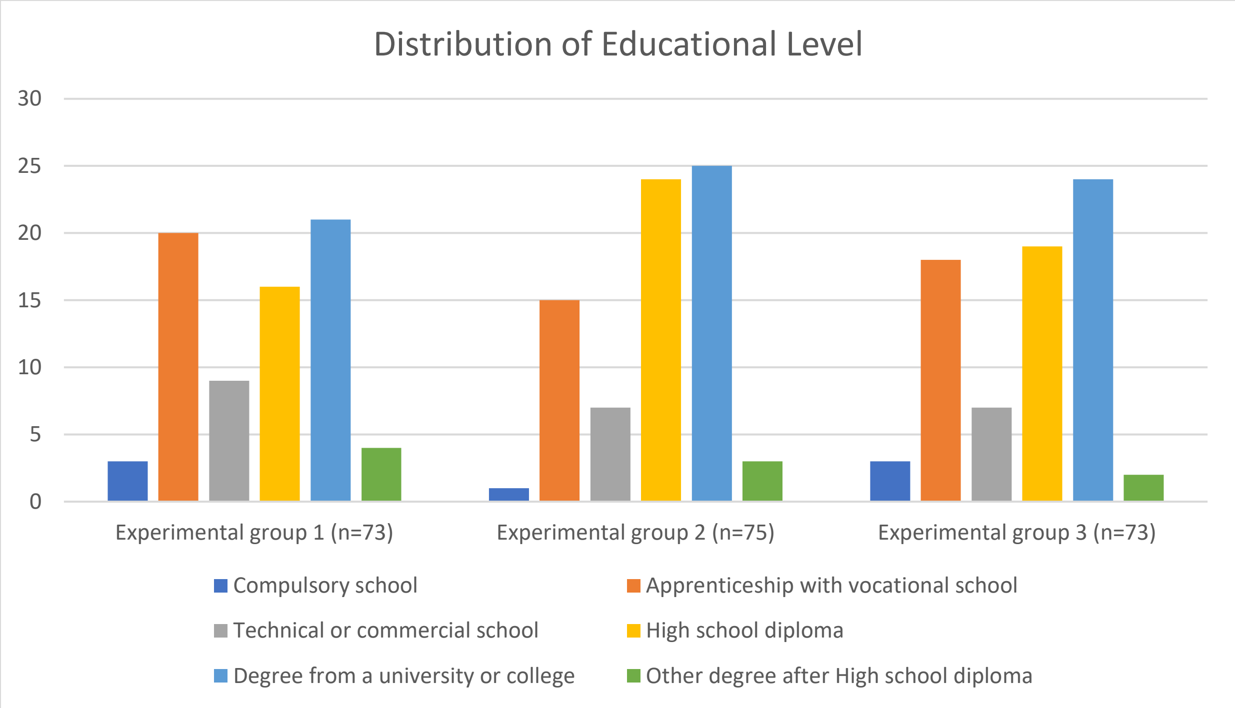

Figure 10: Distribution of Educational Level

9.2 Data Analysis

To present the data analysis clearly, this chapter is divided into three parts: (1) manipulation check, (2) premise testing, and (3) hypothesis testing.

9.2.1 Manipulation Check

To assess the effectiveness of the manipulation variables used, the cognitive fit of the different services is compared using an analysis of variance (ANOVA). Successful manipulation of the variables can only be established if there are significant differences among the groups.

However, before conducting the ANOVA, it is essential to ensure that the data and the study meet specific requirements. These requirements encompass factors such as interval scaling and the independence of measurements (Field 2018, p. 324). These assumptions were carefully considered during the planning phase of the study and have proven to be accurate. Furthermore, it is necessary to assess datasets for normal distribution and variance homogeneity (Field 2018, 331ff).

Nevertheless, first, because outliers were found in the boxplot analysis, the data set was adjusted for them, after which another ANOVA was conducted.

Subsequent checks for normal distribution revealed that all service groups did not adhere to normality (Shapiro-Wilk Test, Group 1, $p = 0.007$; Group 2, $p < 0.040$; Group 3, $p < 0.045$). However, this deviation is less problematic because, according to Lunney (1970), single-factor ANOVA is relatively robust to this violation above a group size of $n > 40$. Variance homogeneity was tested as well, using Levene's Test, which indicated unequal variances ($p = 0.031$). Consequently, the analysis proceeded using the Welch-Test, which is robust to such assumption violations (Field, 2009, p. 379).

The analysis illustrates that the cognitive fit decreases across the three services, moving from Service 1 (Craftsman Agency) ($M = 3.37$, $SD = 0.96$) to Service 2 (Personalized Health Coaching) ($M = 2.21$, $SD = 0.72$), and finally to Service 3 (Recycling Center) ($M = 2.06$, $SD = 0.89$). It is essential to note that the coding scale ranges from 1 = fits very well to the hypermarket to 5 = Doesn't fit at all to the hypermarket. The results of the Welch-Test demonstrated statistically significant differences in the cognitive fit, i.e. among the three services ($F(2, 137.658) = 42.359$, $p < 0.001$).

The effect size, represented by Eta-squared (η^2) which is analogous to the R-squared value in regression analysis (Backhaus et al., 2016), amounts to 0.315. This indicates that 31.5% of the cognitive fit can be explained by the variations among the different services. Following Cohen (1988), effect size boundaries are defined as 0.01 (small effect), 0.06 (medium effect), and 0.14 (large effect). Hence, according to this rule, there is a large effect.

Due to the absence of variance homogeneity, post-hoc analysis was conducted using the Games-Howell post-hoc test (Field, 2009, p. 388). The Games-Howell post-hoc test revealed significant differences in the cognitive fit between Service 1 and Service 2 ($p < 0.001$) and between Service 1 and Service 3 ($p < 0.001$). However, no significant difference was observed between Service 2 and Service 3 ($p = 0.498$). On average, cognitive fit decreased from Service 3 to Service 1 (-1.30, 95%-CI[-1.67; -0.93]) and from Service 2 to Service 1 (-1.15, 95%-CI[-1.49; -0.81]), indicating that the recycling center service is conceptually closest to a hypermarket, followed by the service of personalized health coaching.

However, the group comparison reveals that groups two and three do not exhibit statistically significant differences from each other. This suggests that the manipulation of the cognitive fit variable did not have a significant effect in this context. Nevertheless, in an experimental study design, the use of two groups can still provide the foundation for drawing causal conclusions (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p. 194). Since the services of the recycling center and the craftsman's agency service show significant differences in terms of cognitive fit and exhibit the largest disparity in mean values in the group comparison, these two groups will be selected for hypothesis testing. As the aim of the experiment was to investigate the influence of the cognitive fit, this selection is consistent with the focus of the study and allows the hypotheses, and thus the theoretical framework, to be tested and evaluated.

The hypotheses are tested using a t-test as well as a linear regression analysis. As with ANOVA, certain assumptions must be met to perform those statistical analyses. These premises are discussed in the following chapter.

9.2.2 Premises Testing

A linear regression analysis was employed in this study to test the hypotheses. Linear regression is a statistical technique used to estimate or predict values of the dependent variable and to quantitatively describe and explain relationships (Backhaus et al., 2016, p. 64). Given the highly theoretical nature of the theoretical framework, the primary objective of the regression analysis in this study was to describe and explain quantitative relationships. Specifically, the aim was to assess the influence of various metric-scaled independent variables on metric-scaled dependent variables.

In addition to the regression analysis, a t-test was performed for two specific hypotheses, namely H1a and H2a. These analyses were conducted in accordance with the theoretical framework presented in this study, which posits that the cognitive fit of a service has a direct influence on perceived convenience and retailer confusion. In this regard, the t-test is an ideal method for these analyses because it's well-suited for situations where one independent variable is manipulated in two different ways whereby only one outcome is measured, aligning perfectly with the goals of this research (Field, 2018, p.324).

The application of the t-test was limited to these two hypotheses, and the procedural details are presented in the respective sections dedicated to these hypotheses.

Before conducting the regression analyses, it was imperative to ensure the reliability of the measurement scales employed in this study. Cronbach's alpha values were computed for each construct which represents the average correlation between all individual items regarding content (Döring & Bortz, 2016, p.271). The results are summarized in Table 14.

Construct	Cronbach Alpha
Retailer Attractiveness in general	0.728
Cognitive fit	0.899
Ultraistic value	0.845
Hedonic value	0.885
Retailer Confusion	0.840
Convenience	0.902
Retailer Attractiveness related to service	0.798

Table 14: Cronbach's alpha of the respective constructs

These values exceeded the widely accepted threshold of 0.7, indicating a high level of internal consistency (Huber et al. 2014, 42). Furthermore, it is noteworthy that the internal consistency was exceptionally strong for most of the constructs, with values surpassing 0.8 and even reaching very high levels for constructs with values exceeding 0.9 (Blanz, 2015).

However, it is important to note that linear regression analysis relies on several assumptions that must be met to ensure the validity of the results. These assumptions are outlined in Table 15 and will be discussed in detail to assess the adequacy of the regression analysis.

Premises	Description
1. Linearity	The relationship between the independent and dependent variables should be linear.
2. Completeness of the model	The model should include all relevant independent variables that influence the dependent variable, ensuring that no crucial factors are omitted.
3. Homoscedasticity of Residuals	The variance of the residuals should be constant across all levels of the independent variables, indicating consistent variability in the data.
4. Independence of Residuals	The residuals should be independent of each other. If the residuals are not independent, this leads to autocorrelation
5. No Linear Dependence Between Independent Variables	There should be no exact linear relationship among the independent variables, as this can lead to multicollinearity issues.
6. Normal Distribution of Residuals	The residuals should follow a normal distribution.

Table 15: Premises according to Backhaus et al., (2016, p.111)

In this study, simple linear regression analysis was employed to investigate the influence of individual independent variables on the corresponding dependent variables except for hypothesis H5c for which multiple linear regression with two independent variables was performed. Consequently, premise five, which refers to independence between independent variables, was observed only for hypothesis 5c. Multicollinearity can be determined by the VIF value (variance influence factor). If the VIF value is below 0.1 or above 10, this is a strong indication of multicollinearity (Backhaus et al., 2016, p.104). The VIF values for the hedonic and utilitarian values are 1.422, which is why there is no indication of multicollinearity.

Premise two was satisfied, as the variables were predefined in the hypotheses and were analyzed accordingly.

To address potential outliers that could introduce bias into the statistical analysis, established procedures were followed. Outliers, defined as cases where the observed values deviated from the expected values by more than three standard deviations, were identified (Wiggins, 2000). In univariate analyses, these outliers were detected using Casewise Diagnostics in SPSS, with the default setting of a variance greater than -/+3. Subsequently, affected cases were removed from the dataset, and a new regression analysis was conducted.

Following the identification and handling of outliers, the linearity of the relationships between variables, as per premise one was assessed. Visual inspection of dot plots revealed that, in all cases, the data points closely approximated the zero line, indicating a linear relationship.

Premise 6, which refers to the normal distribution of the residuals, was fulfilled for hypotheses, H2b ($p = 0.624$), H4a ($p = 0.576$), H4b ($p = 0.114$), and H5c ($p = 0.657$), while hypotheses H3a ($p = 0.043$), H3b ($p = 0.018$), H5a ($p < 0.001$), and H5b ($p = 0.007$) do not satisfy the assumption of normal distribution. However, it is essential to note that linear regression analysis remains relatively robust to small violations of these assumptions, rendering it a flexible and versatile analytical method (Backhaus et al., 2016, p. 111).

Furthermore, Backhaus et al., (2016, p. 111) argue that significance tests remain valid irrespective of the distribution of residuals when the number of observations is sufficiently large ($N > 40$). In this study, the sample size ($N = 146$) exceeded this threshold, allowing the procedure with the analysis even in the presence of this premise violation. To assess the normal distribution of residuals, Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were conducted, which determine whether the sampling distribution of means exceeds a 5% significance level. Rejection of the null hypothesis (H_0) suggests a parametric data distribution (Field 2018, p. 249).

The premise of homoscedasticity of the residuals was tested using Glesjer's method (Backhaus et al., 2016, p. 111). This premise assesses the uniformity of residual variance. Heteroskedasticity, the non-uniform distribution of residual variance, violates the assumptions of linear regression. To detect heteroscedasticity, residuals were visually plotted against predicted values of Y. In cases of equal variance, scatter plot points should be evenly distributed across the horizontal axis without forming triangular patterns. This test was applied to all hypotheses, and no evidence of heteroscedasticity was found for any of them except for Hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5c.

However, recognizing that visual inspection can be subject to individual interpretation, an additional test for heteroskedasticity was conducted using Glesjer's method, involving a regression of the absolute residuals against the regressors (Backhaus et al., 2016, p. 104). The significance level was set at $\alpha = 0.05$. In all instances, except for hypotheses 5a (F1, 145 = 11.34, $p < 0.000$), H5b (F1, 142 = 18.91, $p < 0.001$), and H5c (F2, 141 = 6.18, $p = 0.002$), the null hypothesis (indicating heteroskedasticity) was rejected. To address this issue in hypotheses H5a, H5b, and H5c, a square root transformation ($\sqrt{X_i}$) was always applied to the respective independent and dependent variable (Backhaus et al., 2016, p. 104; Field 2018, p. 153f.). After data cleansing to remove outliers, a regression analysis was conducted on the transformed data, and in this case, the homoscedasticity premise was satisfied. All relevant values can be found in Table 16.

Hypothesis	ANOVA-Output
H2b	F(1, 140 = 0.40, p = 0.524)
H3a	F(1, 144 = 0.18, p = 0.670)
H3b	F(1, 141 = 0.80, p = 0.370)
H4a	F(1, 138 = 0.03, p = 0.860)
H4b	F(1, 143 = 0.17, p = 0.678)
H5a	F(1, 145 = 0.33, p = 0.565)
H5b	F(1, 142 = 0.38, p = 0.537)
H5c	F(1, 142 = 1,48, p = 0.229)

Table 16: Results from Glesjer's Method

Finally, the dataset underwent an examination for autocorrelation and independence of the residuals (premise four). Autocorrelation, the dependency of residuals on each other, can introduce bias in the estimation of regression coefficients' standard errors, thus affecting the determination of confidence intervals for these coefficients. While autocorrelation is typically associated with time series data (Backhaus et al., 2016, p. 105), it is not a concern in this study. Nevertheless, autocorrelation was assessed using the Durbin/Watson statistic. A Durbin/Watson statistic value near two suggests the absence of autocorrelation. Utilizing the Durbin-Watson table, it was determined that, at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ and with 150 observations involving one independent variable, the lower uncertainty range falls between 1.72 and 1.75. Consequently, it can be reasonably assumed that no autocorrelation exists up to a value of 1.75, while definitive conclusions cannot be drawn within the range of 1.72 and 1.75 (Backhaus et al., 2016, p. 106).

Durbin-Watson statistics were calculated for each hypothesis using SPSS, and no autocorrelation was found in the residuals in all cases except for hypotheses H2a and H5a. However, as mentioned above, this violation of the assumption is negligible due to the study design. The corresponding values are displayed in Table 17.

Hypothesis	Durbin/Watson-Statistic
H2b	1.812
H3a	1.693
H3b	1.811
H4a	1.775
H4b	1.921
H5a	1.610
H5b	1.892
H5c	1.811

Table 17: Durbin/Watson - Statistic

With the comprehensive discussion of these premises completed, it can continue to a more detailed examination of each individual hypothesis.

9.2.3 Hypothesis Testing

In this section, the results are presented in connection with the hypotheses. Hence, for clarity reasons, each hypothesis will be presented as a distinct heading, followed by the presentation of its respective findings.

Hypothesis 1: Services perceived as conceptually closer to a hypermarket will result in lower confusion compared to services perceived as conceptually further away.

As previously mentioned in the Premises Discussion, a t-test was conducted for this hypothesis. Like the regression analysis, several assumptions must be met for the t-test including the requirement of interval scaling and independence of measurements. These assumptions were carefully considered during the study's design phase, thus fulfilling these assumptions (Field 2018, 326). Furthermore, it is necessary to assess datasets for normal distribution and variance homogeneity (Field 2018, 331ff).

Nevertheless, first, because outliers were found in the boxplot analysis, the data set was adjusted for them, after which another t-test was conducted. The results showed that the dataset for both Groups exhibited a normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk Test, Group 1, $p = 0.222$; Group 2, $p = 0.054$). An examination of variance homogeneity using the Levene Test indicated equal variances could be assumed ($p = 0.076$).

Analysis of the t-test shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the high (recycling center) and low (Craftsman Agency) cognitive fit groups, with a mean score of 3.78 for the recycling center and a mean score of 3.34 for the craftsman agency, the recycling center ranked 0.44 lower overall in retailer confusion (95% CI[-0.68, 0.18]), $t(137) = -3.446$, $p < 0.001$).

Effect size is measured using Cohen's d. To interpret this value, Cohen (1988) suggests that from 0.20 one speaks of a small effect, from 0.50 of a medium effect, and from 0.80 of a strong effect. For hypothesis H1a, the value is 0.74, which is why the effect strength is medium.

Hypothesis 2a: Services perceived as conceptually closer to a hypermarket will be perceived as more convenient than services perceived as conceptually further away.

Again, since services directly impact convenience according to the theoretical model, an additional t-test was performed to compare services in terms of perceived convenience.

The same methodology was applied, mirroring the approach used in the initial t-test. The first step involved data cleansing to identify and remove outliers, employing Boxplots as previously described (Bortz & Schuster, 2010). Subsequent checks for normal distribution revealed that all service groups did not adhere to normality (Shapiro-Wilk Test, Group 1, $p = 0.007$; Group 2, $p < 0.003$). However, this deviation is less problematic because, according to Bortz & Schuster (2010), the t-test is relatively robust to this violation above a group size of $n > 30$. Variance homogeneity was also tested using Levene's Test, indicating equal variances could be assumed ($p = 0.163$).

The results of the t-test demonstrated statistically significant differences in perceived convenience among the two services $t(136) = 4.459$, $p < 0.001$). The mean score for the recycling center of 1.92 and the mean score of 2.55 for the craftsman agency was 0.62 lower for perceived convenience (95%-CI[0.34, 0.89]). Cohen´s d was calculated at 0.81, indicating that a high effect size can be observed for these variables.

Hypothesis 2b: The greater the perceived convenience of a service, the lower the retailer's confusion.

This hypothesis posits that higher perceived convenience leads to lower retailer confusion. The analysis reveals that perceived convenience indeed has a significant impact on "retailer confusion" ($F(1, 145) = 4.585$, $p = 0.034$). The beta-value of -0.314 indicates a negative effect of perceived convenience on retailer confusion, with a high level of statistical significance ($p<0.001$). The R-squared (R^2) of 0.031 indicates that approximately 3.1% of the variation in confusion can be explained by perceived convenience. However, the model exhibits a weak goodness of fit with an R^2 of 0.031, as described by Cohen (1988).

H3a: An increase in retailer confusion leads to a lower hedonic value.

The results for hypothesis H3a indicate that the predictor "retailer confusion" had no significant effect on hedonic value ($F(1, 145) = 2.871$, $p = 0.092$) leading to a rejection of the H_o-Hypothesis. The R-squared (R^2) of 0.020 suggests that only approximately 2.0% of the variance in hedonic value can be explained by the induced confusion of a service offered in a hypermarket. Cohen (1988) characterizes an R^2 of 0.020 as a low-variance explanation.

H3b: An increase in perceived convenience leads to a higher hedonic value.

Hypothesis 3b posits that perceived convenience is positively related to hedonic value. The results for the regression model yielded statistical significance ($F(1, 141) = 154.386$, $p < 0.001$). The beta-value of 0.724 indicates a strong and significant positive effect of perceived convenience on hedonic value. The R-squared (R^2) of 0.524 indicates that approximately 52.4% of the variance in hedonic value can be explained by the perceived convenience of services offered in a hypermarket. In this case, the model exhibits a high goodness of fit with an R^2 of 0.524, as defined by Cohen (1988).

Hypothesis 4a: When there is a decrease in retailer confusion, there will be a stronger alignment of the retailer's image with the service.

For Hypothesis 4a, a statistically significant relationship was identified ($F(1, 138) = 45.056$, $p < 0.001$). The β-value of -0.497 shows that there is a negative effect of retailer confusion on retailer image ($p<0.001$). The R-squared of 0.247 indicates that approximately 24.7% of the variance in retailer image can be explained by retailer confusion. According to Cohen (1988), an R^2 of 0.247 corresponds to a moderate variance explanation. Therefore, Hypothesis 4a is supported, as a significant influence was found, albeit with moderate strength.

Hypothesis 4b: When consumers perceive higher convenience of a service, the alignment of the retailer's image with the service will be stronger.

A significant relationship was also found for Hypothesis 4b, which posits that perceived convenience is positively related to the strength of the alignment of the retailer image with the service ($F(1, 145) = 25.157$, $p < 0.001$). The β-value of 0.483 indicates a positive effect of perceived convenience on retailer image ($p<0.001$). The R-squared of the model was 0.149, suggesting that about 14.9% of the variance in retailer attractiveness can be explained by the perceived convenience of offered services in a hypermarket. According to Cohen (1988), an R^2 of 0.149 indicates a moderate goodness of fit.

H5a: The willingness to use a service decreases when retailer confusion is higher.

The analysis reveals a significant association between the predictor "retailer confusion" and the dependent variable "willingness to use" ($F(1, 145) = 4,860$, $p = 0.029$). The R-squared (R^2) of 0.032 suggests that approximately 3.2% of the variance in the W2U variable can be explained by the retailer's confusion about a new service to a hypermarket. Hence, according to Cohen (1988), the model demonstrates a weak goodness of fit with an R^2 of 0.032. The β -value supports this assumption of a negative relationship between the two variables with a β-value of - 0.188, which means that retailer confusion affects the willingness to use (W2U) negatively.

Hypothesis 5b: There is a positive relationship between the perceived convenience of a service and the willingness to use it.

The study also reveals a significant relationship for Hypothesis 5b with a β -value of 0.644, which posits that perceived convenience has a positive effect on W2U ($F(1, 142) = 83.065$, $p < 0.001$). The R-squared (R^2) of the model is 0.370 indicating that approximately 37.0% of the variance in the W2U variable can be explained by the perceived convenience of a service in a hypermarket. The model maintains a high goodness of fit with an R^2 of 0.370 in accordance with Cohen's (1988) criteria.

H5c: The willingness to use a service increases with higher perceived shopping value.

Finally, the relationship between perceived shopping value, with utility value and hedonic value as independent variables, and W2U was examined. Once again, a significant relationship was found between shopping as a predictor and W2U ($F(2, 142) = 82.033$, $p < 0.001$). The R-squared (R^2) of 0.539 suggests that approximately 53.9% of the variance in the W2U variable can be explained by the perceived utilitarian and hedonic value of a service in a hypermarket. The model retains a high goodness of fit with an R^2 of 0.539, following Cohen's (1988) criteria. In examining the individual contributions of the independent variables, both utilitarian and hedonic values were found to be significant predictors of W2U. The hedonic value was particularly influential ($p < 0.001$) with a substantial standardized beta coefficient of 0.597. This indicates that for each unit increase in hedonic value, there is a significant increase in W2U. Utilitarian value also played a significant role ($p = 0.002$) with a beta coefficient of 0.213, although to a slightly lesser extent.

Based on the hypotheses tested, the relationships between the different variables within the theoretical framework can be illustrated, as shown in Figure 11. The values shown represent the Cohen's-d and beta values, respectively, and serve as a measure to quantify the influence of each independent variable on the associated dependent variable. Additionally, Table 18 provides an overview of the hypotheses with the associated main statistical values.

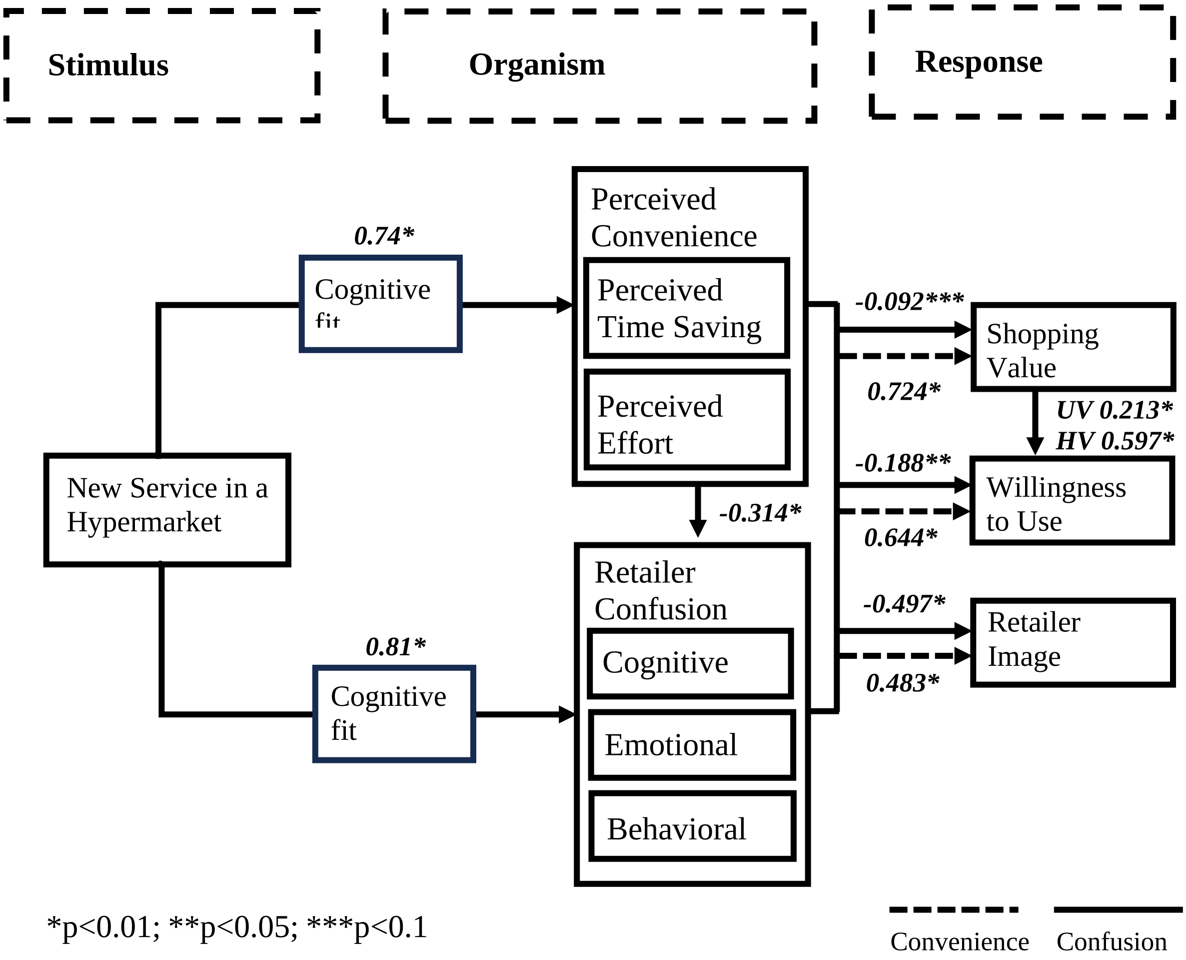

Figure 11: Theoretical framework with associated effect sizes

Notes: The two values above the cognitive fit represent Cohen´s d value. All other values represent the β-value.

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Significant Relationship (F-Statistic)	Cohen´s d/ R^2	Strength (Cohen, 1988)
H1a Accepted	Cognitive fit	Retailer Confusion	Yes t(137) = -3.446,p<0.001)	0.74	Moderate
H2a Accepted	Cognitive fit	Perceived Convenience	Yes t(136) = 4.459,p<0.001)	0.81	High
H2b Accepted	Perceived Convenience	Retailer Confusion	Yes F(1,145)=4.585,p<0.001	0.031	Low
H3a Rejected	Retailer Confusion	Hedonic Value	No F(1,145) =2.871,p=0.092	0.020	Low
H3b Accepted	Perceived Convenience	Hedonic Value	Yes F(1,141)=154.386,p<0.001	0.524	High
H4a Accepted	Retailer Confusion	Retailer Image	Yes F(1,138)=45.056,p <0.001	0.247	Moderate
H4b Accepted	Perceived Convenience	Retailer Image	Yes F(1,145) = 25.157,p<0.001	0.149	Moderate
H5a Accepted	Retailer Confusion	Willingness to Use	Yes F(1,145)=4.860,p =0.029	0.032	Low
H5b Accepted	Perceived Convenience	Willingness to Use	Yes F(1,142)=83.065,p<0.001	0.370	High
H5c Accepted	Shopping Value	Willingness to Use	Yes F(2,142)=82.033,p <0.001	0.539	High

Table 18: Statistical data of the respective hypotheses

10. Discussion

The manipulation check conducted on the cognitive fit variable revealed a significant difference between the two specific groups, with the recycling center being perceived as conceptually closer to a hypermarket than the craftsman agency. The data collected from various groups were utilized to address the ten hypotheses formulated for the empirical study which will be discussed subsequently.

The results of the t-test for Hypothesis H1a ($t(137) = -3.446$, $p < 0.001$) reveal a significant difference in retailer confusion between the two groups where cognitive fit was manipulated. The effect size, indicated by Cohen's d ($d = 0.784$), suggests a substantial practical significance. This underscores the impact of cognitive fit on consumer perceptions of retailer confusion. Specifically, when the cognitive fit is tailored to align with consumers' mental scheme, it results in reduced confusion when compared to situations with a lower cognitive fit.

From the literature, it's already known that factors like variety, novelty, complexity, and conflict influence retailer confusion (Berlyne, 1960). Based on the study's design, it can be inferred that retailer confusion primarily arose due to “conflict.”

As the values have shown, the cognitive fit of the craftsman agency is lower. Because consumers cannot easily envision this service in the store, a certain dissonance arises, leading to retailer confusion. While the factor 'novelty' may also play a role here, as this service does not exist yet, this argument makes less sense, as from this perspective, both services should exhibit higher confusion, given that the recycling center service is also novel.

Parallel to retailer confusion construct in the theoretical framework is convenience, on which cognitive fit also has a significant effect (H2a). This indicates that consumers tend to perceive a service as more convenient when it closely aligns with the hypermarket context, as posited in H2a. Again, the average mean values for cognitive fit, as determined through ANOVA, were calculated to be $M = 2.21$ for the recycling center and $M = 3.37$ for the craftsman agency. For the Recycling center, with a mean value of 2.21, it can be asserted that the service has a higher conceptual proximity to a consumer market, albeit with a slight deviation

Notably, despite this moderate deviation, the service continues to demonstrate substantial explanatory power. This phenomenon finds its rationale in the schema theory, wherein stimuli that deviate only modestly from established schemas tend to elicit more favorable evaluations. Conversely, more extreme deviations from schema often result in less favorable assessments

(Noseworthy et al., 2011). The present study reaffirms this relationship, as evidenced by the notably robust explanatory power exhibited by the model.

In conclusion, an observed inverse relationship between perceived convenience and retailer confusion emerges in this study (β - value = - 0.314). Consequently, when consumers perceive a service as convenient, it corresponds with decreased retailer confusion. Subsequently, consumers tend to find the service more convenient when confusion is less pronounced or absent. This can be explained by the fact that both constructs consist of similar dimensions, such as the emotional and the cognitive components, which makes these constructs a kind of counterpart. It is important to note, however, that the strength of this relationship is weak.

In addition, however, it is noteworthy that each model from the regression analysis incorporating the variable of retailer confusion exhibits relatively low explanatory power, except for hypothesis H4a, which has moderate explanatory power (see Table 18).

An explanation for this could be that the services under examination are purely hypothetical in nature, and the informational content associated with the perceived service may not be as pronounced as that of a real-world service offering. Consequently, the service may exert a comparatively lesser influence on the consumer, thus resulting in less confusion.

This could also be the reason why hypothesis H3a was rejected, as the literature shows that retailer confusion has an impact on shopping value (e.g., Garaus et al., 2015).

The opposite is true for perceived convenience. The acceptance of hypothesis H3b aligns with the research findings of Reimers & Chao (2014), emphasizing the integral role of convenience in shaping hedonic value. This alignment is further confirmed by a high β-value (β-value = 0.724). Of particular interest is the observation that these results hold for both the recycling center and the craftsmen's agency, although both services predominantly exhibit characteristics associated with utilitarian value. This finding challenges the clear distinction made in the conventional literature between utilitarian and hedonic value and suggests that services with utilitarian attributes may also elicit hedonic value consequently, it underscores the need to consider both value dimensions simultaneously, as focusing on one value alone is insufficient.

Considering hypotheses 4a and 4b, it can be inferred that the perceived convenience and confusion of a service have an impact on the match between the image of the retailer and the services offered. This implies a significant impact of perceived convenience and service-related retailer confusion on the overall perception of the retailer's image. Notably, these two constructs can be seen as opposing forces, as evidenced by the β-value. Retailer confusion is linked with a negative influence on the image, while convenience exerts a positive influence, highlighting their contrasting roles in shaping consumer perceptions.

Further, it is essential to explain the observed relationships of the behavior. As previously discussed, the response phase in the Stimulus-Organism-Response (SOR) model is followed by either approach or avoidance behavior (Donovan et al., 1982). In this study, this dynamic was operationalized through the willingness to use a service. An increased willingness to use a service is interpreted as approach behavior, whereas decreased willingness represents avoidance behavior. In this context, noteworthy associations were identified for retailer confusion, perceived convenience, and shopping value.

It is important to acknowledge that retailer confusion has a relatively limited explanatory power, characterized by a low level of explanatory power. However, the negative influence observed indicates that a higher willingness to use a service is associated with reduced retailer confusion. In terms of the SOR-Model, this means that services that cause confusion are more likely to elicit avoidance behavior.

Parallel to the counterpart of retailer confusion, perceived convenience turns out to be a crucial factor. A higher level of perceived convenience corresponds to a higher willingness to use a service. Consistent with the SOR-Model, this means that increased perceived convenience favors approach behavior.

Finally, it is essential to study the concept of shopping value, positioned within the response phase of the SOR-Model, given its direct influence on behavior. This paper confirms this relationship, notably through model H5c, which demonstrates a substantial explanatory power. This observation highlights the effectiveness of shopping value in explaining shopping behavior.

While utility has a lower coefficient compared to hedonic value, it remains a crucial factor for W2U. Its importance suggests that consumers attach great importance to the functional utility of services in a hypermarket. This result is consistent with previous research emphasizing the importance of efficiency and effectiveness in retailing (Esbjerg & Bech-Larsen, 2009).

Conversely, the significant influence of hedonic value on W2U is particularly striking. This finding suggests, as already discussed under the convenience aspect, that consumers are not only motivated by pragmatic considerations when using a hypermarket service. Rather, they are looking for pleasant and emotionally satisfying experiences. In essence, consumers are attracted to services that provide not only the practical benefits they need but also the pleasurable aspects they desire.

All in all, these findings underscore the necessity to take a comprehensive view of shopping value by understanding it as an integrated construct that includes both utilitarian and hedonistic variables. From the consumer's perspective, these values are perceived holistically and form a unified framework that shapes their perceptions and behavior.

Finally, to answer the research question, it can be concluded that the theoretical framework of this study has identified several significant relationships among various variables that are crucial when considering new services in the hypermarket context.

The manipulated variable cognitive fit significantly influences both the construct retailer confusion and perceived convenience, suggesting that consideration of cognitive fit or conceptual proximity is essential for the introduction of new services in a hypermarket market.

This perspective should take center stage when examining new services, especially when trying to answer the question, *"Which additional services can a one-stop shop offer to enhance its shopping value?"*

Additionally, this study also showed that the construct convenience proves to be an important influencing factor, as all β-values with this variable (except confusion) were relatively high. Hence, the role of convenience in shaping shopping value cannot be overstated.

Hypothesis 3b showed the importance of perceived convenience on shopping value, especially hedonic shopping value. Services that are perceived as more convenient are associated with a higher willingness to use them, confirming that customers value convenience highly. This aligns with the notion that customers seek convenience as a crucial factor in determining the value they derive from their shopping trips. Moreover, it could also be shown that shopping value has proven to be suitable for measuring behavior in the form of willingness to use a service, whereby a high willingness to use can be interpreted as approach behavior.

The construct of Retailer Confusion yielded significant relationships. However, these were weak, which is why they should rather be measured when a service is already in place, as this construct is less suitable for hypothetical services. It is also interesting to see that the two constructs Retailer Confusion and Convenience influence each other. Although this negative relationship was weak, it still shows that the constructs are to some extent mutually exclusive. This relationship can be explored in further research.

To address the research question again, based on the data from this study, it can be concluded that the Recycling Center, with a higher cognitive fit, greater convenience, and lower confusion, aligns more effectively with a hypermarket than a craftsman agency.

One reason for this assessment may lie in the nature of the "problems" that both services aim to solve. A Craftsman agency aims to reduce the search costs for a craftsman. It is possible that the perceived effort required to visit a hypermarket appears greater than conducting a similar task online. Additionally, the infrequency of a consumer's need for a craftsman, compared to the disposal of waste, may lead to the consumer perceiving the problem of finding a craftsman as less significant or less cumbersome.

Conversely, this differs from the Recycling Center service. The act of disposing of materials is more common in everyday life compared to household repairs, which may explain the difference in the perceived convenience of these two services. Furthermore, individuals might find it easier to postpone minor household repairs than waste disposal, as the latter has more immediate consequences if neglected. The urgency and frequency of these tasks in daily life can influence customers' perceptions of convenience. Thus, due to its frequent utilization, consumers can save additional trips by implementing this service within a hypermarket. This visible benefit for consumers could explain the cognitive fit of a service in a hypermarket.

In conclusion, the Recycling Center service presents an opportunity to expand the concept of a one-stop store and enhance the shopping value for consumers. It can also be suggested from this argumentation that services with the potential to improve daily life tend to have a higher cognitive fit, influencing perceived convenience, which in turn affects shopping value and retailer image.

11. Meta-Interferences

This chapter explains once again in the context of meta-interference how the qualitative data was incorporated into the quantitative study. At the same time, the findings are summarized and possible implications for retailing are derived. Finally, the limitations of the experimental study are explained.

11.1 Meta-Interference

At the beginning of this study, the focus was on the concept that services in the grocery retail sector offer a pathway for retailers to reposition themselves and differentiate from comparable competitors. Given the limited attention paid to new services in grocery retail within the literature, a theoretical framework was derived from the field of environmental psychology, specifically Mehrabian and Russel's (1974) Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) model. This framework provided the foundation for an exploratory approach aimed at answering the research question: "Which additional services can a one-stop shop offer to enhance its Shopping value?"

Subsequently, various concepts, such as perceived convenience, retailer confusion, shopping value, and retailer image, were explored, which potentially influence consumer behavior or could explain the perception of new services in a hypermarket setting. These relationships were to be empirically investigated in the subsequent research phase.

To address this research question, an exploratory mixed-methods study was designed, incorporating both qualitative and quantitative components. Grounded in the Service-Dominant (S-D) logic, a fundamental aspect of the theoretical framework, this approach recognized consumers as co-creators and co-producers of value creation. Additionally, given the lack of research on new services, the study design was uniquely suited to answer the research question.

In the first study, a semi-structured interview guide was developed with the primary objective of uncovering common everyday problems faced by individuals. Through a heterogeneous sample, diverse perspectives were gathered, forming the basis for the second study. Analyzing these interviews, numerous everyday problems were identified, which, in turn, served as the foundation for design services.

To integrate these qualitative insights into the second study, relevant data were carefully selected, a crucial step in a mixed-methods approach. Given the causal nature of the study, services were selected that differed as much as possible in terms of cognitive fit and were not currently offered in any grocery store. Therefore, to test the theoretical framework, three different services were selected that met the above-mentioned criteria.

Before implementing them into the second study, hypotheses were derived based on the literature and the theoretical framework, explaining the relationships between various variables designed to address the research question. These variables, resulting from the hypothesis derivation, aimed to answer the study's central inquiry.

In this methodological approach, an experimental study design was used. In a questionnaire, the participants were each presented with one of the three services, after which they were asked about the constructs outlined in the theoretical framework (Cognitive fit, retailer confusion, perceived convenience, Shopping value, Retailer image, and willingness to use). A total of 221 complete datasets were collected.

In a separate chapter, the methods of analysis used were described in detail and the results were discussed. Apart from Hypotheses H3a, all hypotheses were accepted. Based on these results, the research question "What additional services can a one-stop store offer to increase its shopping value?" was successfully answered. The combination of qualitative and quantitative research phases proved indispensable to answering this question effectively.

11.2 Implication

In this chapter, the theoretical and practical implications that can be derived from the empirical investigation conducted will be discussed.

The findings from this study underscore the significance of cognitive fit in shaping consumers' perceptions of convenience and retailer confusion within the retail environment. Hence, when designing new services, retailers should consider cognitive fit as a key element of their strategy. This involves conducting consumer research to understand the mental models and expectations of their target audience. This insight extends the existing literature on retail management by emphasizing that the congruence of services with the primary retail function positively affects consumer perception and shopping value.

The study also highlights the central role of perceived convenience in influencing consumer behavior, aligning with prior research on consumer behavior. Future studies could further examine the identified services from Study 1 in relation to the various dimensions of convenience (Berry et al., 2002).

Furthermore, the relationships between the retailer's image, retailer confusion, convenience, and shopping value expand the understanding of the interplay between these different constructs. These connections can be further explored in additional research.

Moreover, the study contributes to the development of a multidimensional approach to shopping value by considering various factors such as convenience, confusion, retailer image, and willingness to use. This multifaceted perspective enriches the theoretical foundations of shopping value, emphasizing that shopping value is not solely based on price or utilitarian aspects but is influenced by a combination of factors.

For practical purposes, an important finding is that the recycling center services scored a higher cognitive fit. Consistent with the established theoretical framework, this higher cognitive fit leads to increased perceptions of convenience. Consequently, it contributes to improved shopping value. This finding not only represents a potential opportunity for retailers but also highlights the potential for further improving the overall shopping value by introducing new services that are aligned with consumers' cognitive expectations.

Furthermore, the derived services from Study 1 are also highly relevant to practical applications, as they offer an alternative means for hypermarkets to reposition themselves and enhance shopping value. These services can be found in Appendix A2.

11.3 Limitation

The empirical study also has some limitations. The qualitative study involved twelve interviews with a heterogeneous sample. Although efforts were made to ensure diversity, the sample size may still be limited in capturing the full spectrum of consumer perspectives.

Another potential limitation of the qualitative study pertains to the possibility of underrepresentation of certain everyday problems. While efforts were made to comprehensively explore consumer experiences and daily challenges, it is essential to acknowledge the inherent limitations of human memory. Participants were asked to recall and articulate their everyday problems during interviews, which may have been influenced by memory recall biases. Some everyday problems may not have been mentioned or explored in depth simply because they were forgotten or deemed less salient by participants over time. Consequently, the qualitative study may not capture the full spectrum of daily problems that consumers encounter.

Future research should be mindful of this limitation when interpreting the findings and consider supplementing qualitative data with other research methods, such as longitudinal studies or diaries, to mitigate the potential impact of memory-related biases on data collection and analysis.

Further, only three specific services from the qualitative phase were integrated into the quantitative study to test the framework. While these services were selected based on various criteria, there may be other potentially relevant services that were not included. This omission could impact the completeness of the results.

For study two it is important to mention that the results of the experiment conducted are not representative due to the selection and drawing of the sample. The participants of the quantitative study were recruited in a single consumer market. This may lead to site-specific biases and limit the external validity of the results. Future studies could benefit from a greater variety of sample locations to increase the representativeness of the sample.

Finally, it is important to mention that the study focused primarily on the variables of convenience, retailer confusion, utility and hedonic value, and willingness to use additional services. Other factors that may influence shopping value, such as price, emotional factors, or personal characteristics, were not examined in depth. Future research could consider a broader range of variables.

12. Conclusion

This study was primarily focused on identifying service possibilities for a one-stop shop, offering hypermarkets opportunities to differentiate themselves beyond their product offerings. Moreover, the aim was to highlight services that extend beyond in-store offerings, an area that has received relatively less attention in the existing literature. To achieve this goal, a theoretical framework was constructed intended to answer the research question. The mixed-methods approach facilitated the creation of services where consumers played the role of co-producers. The fusion of these services with the theoretical framework was then examined in study two. The study shows that the cognitive fit that was manipulated influences perceived convenience and retailer confusion. These critical relationships between those constructs underscore the central role of cognitive fit in shaping consumer perceptions in the retail landscape. Moreover, the results of the regression analysis clearly showed that perceived convenience is a key determinant of shopping value, underscoring the paramount importance of convenience in the ever-evolving retail landscape. This finding suggests that matching retail services to conceptual proximity not only enhances convenience but subsequently also increases shopping value.

Most importantly, the study showed that consumers are receptive to innovative services that enhance their shopping value, presenting opportunities for practitioners to differentiate themselves in new ways.

In essence, this research provides valuable insights for grocery retailers seeking to differentiate themselves and elevate their shopping value proposition. By understanding the dynamics between consumers, new services, and the retail environment, retailers can make informed decisions to better meet consumer expectations and preferences, ultimately strengthening their position in the competitive retail landscape.

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Appendix

A1 – Derived Problems from Study 1

Area Code	Effort Type Code	Problem Description
Body Care Activities	Physical & Emotional Effort	Traveling to obtain beauty-related services is annoying.
Body Care Activities	Physical E. & Time constraints	Delaying visits to the hair salon due to distant location.
Household – Cooking	Cognitive Effort	Perceiving cooking as a chore and needing to decide what to cook.
Household – Cooking	Emotional Effort	Emotional dislike for cooking due to different food preferences.
Household – Cooking	Emotional Effort	Time constraints affecting meal planning and preparation.
Household – Laundry	Time constraints	Need for time management in completing laundry tasks.
Household – Laundry	Time constraints	Neglect of tasks like shoe polishing due to time constraints.
Household – Laundry	Physical E.	Physical effort in sorting, folding, hanging, and taking down laundry.
Household – Laundry	Emotional E.	Emotional dislike for folding laundry, especially bedsheets.
Household – Laundry	Emotional E.	Emotional effort associated with ironing tasks.
Household – Cleaning	Time constraints	Time constraints associated with cleaning, particularly the bathroom.
Household – Cleaning	Physical E.	Physical effort in tasks like loading/unloading the dishwasher and washing dishes.
Household – Cleaning	Emotional E.	Emotional effort in tasks like rinsing pots and pans.
Household – Cleaning	Physical E &., Time constr.	Physical effort and time concerns in cleaning windows, especially with children present.
Household – Cleaning	Emotional E.	Disliking cleaning tasks but recognizing them as necessary obligations.
Household – Pets	Physical E.	Increased effort when caring for pets due to illness

Area Code	Effort Type Code	Problem Description
Household – Pets	Physical E.	Physical effort in purchasing special pet products, especially those not readily available.
Household - Others	Emotional E.	Perceiving gardening as unpleasant is often delegated to others.
Household - Others	Emotional E.	Inconvenience of certain errands like visits to the recycling center.
Household - Others	Emotional E. & Time const.	DIY projects and household repairs require effort and time.
Household - Others	Emotional E.	Reliance on external help for repairs leads to frustration.
Health	Physical E &, Time constr.	Neglecting regular exercise due to physical effort and time constraints.
Health	Emotional & Physical E.	Overindulging in unhealthy foods leads to emotional distress and discomfort.
Health	Cognitive & Emotional E.	Challenges in resisting unhealthy food urges and translating healthy eating knowledge.
Health	Emotional & Physical E.	Difficulty maintaining discipline for healthy eating and exercise routines.
Health	Time constr.	Postponing personal fitness goals and weight management tasks.
Health	Emotional & Cognitive E.	Uncertainty about future direction and career path leads to emotional and cognitive effort.
Shopping	Physical E., Time constr.	Neglecting regular exercise due to physical effort and time constraints.
Shopping	Emotional &. Physical E.	Overindulging in unhealthy foods leads to emotional distress and discomfort.
Shopping	Cognitive & Emotional E.	Challenges in resisting unhealthy food urges and translating healthy eating knowledge.
Shopping	Emotional & Physical E.	Difficulty maintaining discipline for healthy eating and exercise routines.
Shopping	Time constr.	Postponing personal fitness goals and weight management tasks.

Area Code	Effort Type Code	Problem Description
Shopping	Emotional & Cognitive E.	Uncertainty about future direction and career path leads to emotional and cognitive effort.
Social Activities	Emotional E.	Difficulty in establishing new social connections and expanding social activities.
Social Activities	Emotional E.	Emotional effort is required to approach and interact with new people.
Social Activities	Cognitive E.	Cognitive effort in planning social activities and making decisions.
Sports	Physical E. Time constr.	Physical exertion and time constraints hinder regular exercise.
Sports	Emotional E.	Motivation issues include laziness, lack of knowledge, and distance to sports facilities.
Sports	Cognitive E.	Lack of information and uncertainty about suitable sports require cognitive effort.
Sports	Physical E.	The integrated milk frother in the coffee machine broke, requiring a trip to the technology store.
Technical Devices	Emotional & Physical E.	Difficulty with a defective cell phone, potential emotional effort inferred.
Technical Devices	Time constr.	The broken microwave was not replaced due to cost and time constraints.
Technical Devices	Emotional E.	Frustration with a charging cable plugged in incorrectly.
Transportation	Emotional E.	Emotional effort from blocked roads, parking searches, crowded trains, and stress from human contact.
Transportation	Physical E.	Dealing with a flat bicycle tire caused by broken glass requires extra effort.
Transportation	Physical E. Time constr.	Obtaining and maintaining transportation, like cleaning a car, involves physical effort and time.
Transportation	Emotional E.	Car breakdown leads to reliance on others, perceived as exhausting.
Administrative Activities	Cognitive & Emotional E.	Tax declaration is characterized as unpleasant and cognitively demanding.
Administrative Activities	Cognitive & Emotional E.	Bureaucracy-related matters, office affairs, insurance, and complex technical requirements.
Administrative Activities	Time constr.	Time-related challenges in dealing with bureaucratic tasks.

Area Code	Effort Type Code	Problem Description
Administrative Activities	Time constr.	The time-consuming task of planning a wedding.
Administrative Activities	Cognitive E.	Cognitive demands in planning a birthday celebration.
Administrative Activities	Cognitive E.	Learning a new language, difficulties in finding suitable courses.

A2 – Derived Services from Study 1

Area	Service	Description
Beauty	Beauty Concierge Service	On-site beauty treatments, consultations, and personalized beauty advice. Trained beauty professionals can be available to provide services such as hairstyling, makeup application, skincare consultations, and product recommendations.
Grocery Shopping	Shop & Deliver service	This Service allows customers to shop for their groceries in-store, but instead of carrying the bags themselves, they can conveniently hand them over to the store for delivery.
Grocery Shopping	Unpacked food stations	Providing unpacked food stations for customers.
Grocery Shopping	Extended assortment in-store	Offering an extended assortment virtually in-store.
Health	Personalized Health Coaching	Providing nutrition and health coaching.
Cooking	Pre-prepared Meal Kits	Ready-to-use grocery bags with ingredients for specific recipes.
Cooking	Personalized Recipes	Providing personalized recipes for consumers.
Laundry	Laundry Pickup and Delivery	Laundry pickup and delivery service, including shoe cleaning.
Cleaning	Time-Saving Cleaning Solutions	Offering time-saving cleaning products or services.
Cleaning	Physical Support and Assistance	Providing ergonomic cleaning tools, aids, or on-demand cleaning assistance services.
Pet	Extended Assortment in-store	Offering an extended assortment virtually in-store for pet-related products.
Household - Others	Handyman Services	Offering handyman services or partnerships with craft providers.
Social activities	Social Connection Facilitation	Creating platforms or events for social connections among individuals with similar interests.
Sport	Sport Facility	Providing sports facilities in the hypermarket.

Area	Service	Description
Technical device	Device Rental and Loaner Programs	Introducing rental or loaner programs for temporary device access during repairs.
Technical device	Convenient Repair Services	Offering convenient and efficient repair services for technical devices within stores or through authorized service centers.
Transportation	Device Rental and Loaner Programs	Introducing rental or loaner programs for temporary device access during transportation-related issues.
Transportation	Alternative Transportation Options	Collaborating with ride-sharing or public transportation providers to offer alternative transportation options (unexpected disruptions, people without a driver's license)
Bureaucracy	Expert Consultation Services	Establishing partnerships with experts in various fields for consultation services such as tax consultants, legal advisors, birthday planners, or language instructors.

**These services were all derived from the everyday problems of the respondents*

A3 – Presented Services in Study 2

Poster 1

Retailer XY

Recycling Center

NEW!

For a greener future!

- With the Recycling Center, we offer you the opportunity to recycle all household materials in an environmentally friendly way.
- Whether electronics, batteries, clothing, plastic, glass, or paper bring everything to the recycling station at our Store.
- We take care that all waste is disposed of in an environmentally friendly way.

Visit our reception now and get informed!

Poster 2

Retailer XY

Personalized Nutritional counseling

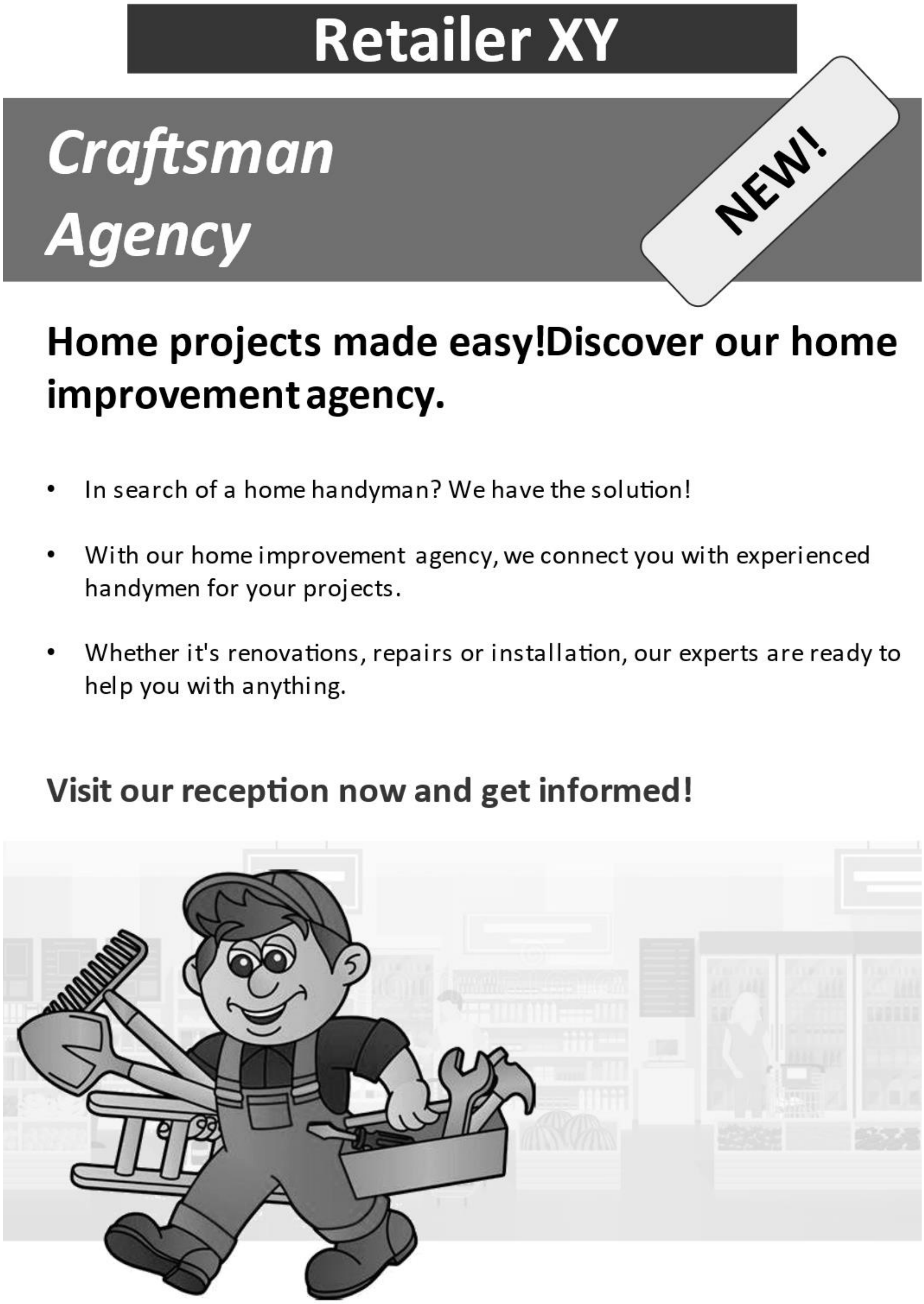
NEW!

Enjoy health – with our personalized nutritional advice!

- With our personalized healthadvice, we help you make informed nutritional decisions.
- Our experts start at the grocery store and help you choose the right groceries to make it easier to implement a healthy diet at home.
- We consider your personal preferences so that healthy eating becomes a pleasure.

Visit our reception now and get informed!

Poster 3



**All posters were translated into English. In the survey, all posters were presented in German. For reasons of traceability, the posters in this work are only shown in black and white. In the questionnaires, they were colored.*

A4 – Questionnaire

Used Scales

Variable	Cognitive fit
Items	The following statements relate to your personal perception of how well the "Service X" fits to this Hypermarket. To what extent do the following statements apply to you? (From 1 – fully agree to do not agree at all = 5) 1. The offer fits well with this Hypermarket 2. The offer is typical for this Hypermarket 3. The offer is a good example of services in this Hypermarket
Scale	Likert Skala: - 1 = Fully agree - 2 = agree - 3 = Neutral - 4 = Do not agree - 5 = Do not agree at all - 0 = N/A
Source	Garaus et al., (2015)

Variable	Retailer Confusion -1
Items	The following statements refer to the personal benefit of the "Service X" offer. To what extent do the following statements apply to you? 1. It is difficult to say what the offer will do for me 2. I am not sure if the offer is useful for me
Scale	Likert Skala: - 1 = Fully agree - 2 = agree - 3 = Neutral - 4 = Do not agree - 5 = Do not agree at all - 0 = N/A
Source	Fitzgerald et al., (2019)

Variable	Retailer Confusion - 2
Items	The following statements relate to the personal benefits of the offer of "Service X". How well do the following words describe your feelings when you imagine the offer at this Hypermarket? 1. confused 2. uncertain 3. irritated 4. annoyed
Scale	Likert Skala: - 1 =Describes fully my feelings - 2 =Describes my feelings - 3 = Neutral - 4 = Does not describe my feelings - 5 = Describes at all not my Feelings - 0 = N/A
Source	Fitzgerald et al., (2019)

Variable	Convenience
Items	The following statements relate to the perceived convenience of "Service X". To what extent do the following statements apply to you? 1. All in all, I find the offer convenient 2. The offer saves me time and effort 3. The offer is stress-free 4. All in all, the offer is trouble-free
Scale	Likert Skala: - 1 = Fully agree - 2 = agree - 3 = Neutral - 4 = Do not agree - 5 = Do not agree at all - 0 = N/A
Source	Reith (2007), Ettinger (2009), and Hehle (2011)

Variable	Utilitarian Value
Items	The following statements relate to the personal benefits of "Service X". To what extent do the following statements apply to you? 1. The offer would save me money 2. The offer would bring me economic benefits 3. The offer would improve my everyday life
Scale	Likert Skala: - 1 = Fully agree - 2 = agree - 3 = Neutral - 4 = Do not agree - 5 = Do not agree at all - 0 = N/A
Source	Sweeney & Soutar (2000) and Hwang & Griffiths (2017)

Variable	Hedonic Value
Items	The following statements refer to the usefulness of "Service X". To what extent do the following statements apply to you? 1. I would enjoy the offer 2. The offer appeals to me to want to use it 3. The offer would relax me
Scale	Likert Skala: - 1 = Fully agree - 2 = agree - 3 = Neutral - 4 = Do not agree - 5 = Do not agree at all - 0 = N/A
Source	Sweeney & Soutar (2000) and Hwang & Griffiths (2017)

Variable	Retailer Overall Attractiveness
Items	The following questions refer to this Hypermarket which offers the "Service X" 1. How satisfied would you be with this Hypermarket that offers this service? 2. Does this Hypermarket that offers this service meet your expectations? 3. Thinking of an ideal grocer, how close does this Hypermarket which offers this Service, come to this ideal?
Scale	Likert Skala: - 1 = Fully satisfied/Fully/very close - 2 = Satisfied/No/close - 3 = Neutral/Neutral/Neutral - 4 = Not satisfied/Yes/Not close - 5 = Not at all satisfied/Not at all/not close at all - 0 = N/A
Source	Teller & Reutterer (2008)

Variable	Willingness to Use
Items	The following statement refers to your willingness to use the "Service X" in this Hypermarket. To what extent do the following statements apply to you? 1. I intend to try the offer when it is available
Scale	Likert Skala: - 1 = Fully agree - 2 = agree - 3 = Neutral - 4 = Do not agree - 5 = Do not agree at all - 0 = N/A
Source	Venkatesh and Davis (2000)

Demographic Data

Variable	Gender
Items	Please indicate your gender:
Scale	3 Levels (Single-Choice) - Male - Female - divers

Variable	Age
Items	In what year were you born?
Scale	Open Text field

Variable	Household
Items	Please check the box that applies to your household:
Scale	6 Levels (Single-Choice) - Single household - Two adults without children - Two adults with children - One adult with children - Household with several adults - N/A

Variable	School education
Items	What is your highest completed school education?
Scale	6 Levels (Single – Choice) - Compulsory school - Apprenticeship with vocational school - Technical or commercial school - High School Diploma - Degree from a university or college - Another degree after High School Diploma

**The questionnaire was translated into English. The questionnaire was distributed to the participants in the German language.*