AN EMPIRICAL CROSS-SECTIONAL SURVEY OF FOOD RETAIL INTERNATIONALISATION IN TAIWANESE HYPER, SUPER, AND TRADITIONAL MARKETS

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Abstract

This doctoral thesis presents the findings from an empirical cross-sectional survey of food retail internationalisation in Taiwanese hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. A critical review of the works of Dupuis and Prime (1996) reveals erratic sales performance of hypermarkets operating in Taiwan and in other Asia-Pacific countries since 1989; this sales trend may be linked to lack of understanding of Taiwanese shopping preferences and choices (Burt and Carralero-Encinas, 2000). This led to the research question: *"Can global food retailers using hypermarket store formats achieve and sustain their competitive advantage in emerging economies such as Taiwan".* This led to statement of research objectives with the overall aim to investigate how global food retailers using a hypermarket store format can successfully operate in the Taiwanese food retail market. These objectives were achieved by adopting a phenomenological research philosophy and a mix of focus group interviews and questionnaires (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005; Saunders et al., 2007). The primary data were presented and analysed using both qualitative and quantitative techniques through employed Microsoft Excel and SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

The thesis identified six critical factors: (1) facility convenience, (2) shopping environment, (3) convenient products, (4) price incentive, (5) convenient services, and (6) shopping convenience which impact Taiwanese store patronage. The results of the factor and cluster analyses reveal that 'facility convenience' (with the highest alpha coefficient value of α = 0.748) has the greatest impact on five Taiwanese shopping clusters: (1) Value shoppers, (2) Environment shoppers, (3) Efficient shoppers, (4) Leisure shoppers, and (5) Convenient shoppers. Hypothesis and chi-square tests revealed a relationship between the factors and clusters, which represents sources of competitive advantage for each store format, and formed the bases for constructing a conceptual framework for retail internationalisation in Taiwan. The framework is the thesis' major contribution to knowledge in providing better understanding of Taiwanese consumer patronage of store formats - this has series implications for global food retailers in the broad area of food retail internationalisation.

The major limitation of the thesis relates to the fact that there is a limited extent to which the conceptual framework could be generalised across emerging economies in the Asia-Pacific Region. The issue of generalisability led to identification of the following two key areas for further research:

- *Testing the conceptual framework by widening the sample size to cover other cities in Taiwan and other emerging markets. This would make the framework more relevant to the Asia-Pacific Region.*
- *A comparative study to identify trends in grocery shopping behaviour involving hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Europe and Asia.*

Acknowledgement

This thesis investigated the preferences and choices of Taiwanese grocery shoppers in order to identify the critical factors impacting on their store patronage. My ability to complete the thesis was due mainly to the advice and support from many close family and friends in Taiwan and the United Kingdom.

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Dedication

"This work is dedicated to the memory of my great grand parents and future members of my family"

Contents

List of Abbreviation

DGBAS: Directorate General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics, Taiwan

FDI: Foreign Direct Investment

GIO: Government of Information Office, Taiwan

MIO: Ministry of Information Office, Taiwan

MOE: Ministry of Economic Affairs, Taiwan

MOI: Ministry of Interior, Taiwan

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Chapter One

Introduction to the Thesis

1.1. Introduction

This first chapter of the thesis is introductory in nature and provides the rationale for choosing to undertake empirical research on the consumers who patronise the food retailing sector in Taiwan. The thesis title: “An empirical cross-sectional survey of retail food internationalisation in Taiwanese hyper, super and traditional markets” is the outcome of personal interest in the development of food retail marketing in Taiwan and other emerging economies in the Asia-Pacific region vis-à-vis the impact of global food retailers introducing hypermarkets in competition with local traditional market formats which have existed for many generations. It is in this context that the research question: “Can global food retailers using hypermarket store formats achieve and sustain their competitive advantage in emerging economies such as Taiwan?” was developed. To address this research question, this thesis conducted an empirical consumer research survey, in Taiwan, to assess if hypermarket retailers are capable of building sustainable competitive advantages that will allow them to capture and sustain a significant market share from a large market segment in emerging markets.

Section 1.2, provides the research background in the context of hypermarket development in both major developed markets and emerging markets. Section 1.3, highlights the gap in the area of retail internationalisation that underpins the research question and objectives, leading to the evaluation of the impact of hypermarkets upon consumer behaviour in emerging markets. Section 1.4, provides the research context – the Taiwanese food retail market. Section 1.5, establishes the links between the thesis research gap, research question and research objectives. Section 1.6, provides the structure of the thesis.

1.2. Background of the research

1.2.1. Internationalisation of large food retailers

The growth of the food retailing industry has played and is playing an important role in retail internationalisation generally and is one of the largest industries in the economies of all the industrialised countries (Myers and Alexander, 2007). Empirical evidence indicates that international retailers currently emphasise the importance of taking advantage of the opportunities that are available for expansion into the newly developing marketplaces (Gielens and Dekimpe, 2007).

With reduced political and economic barriers, the emergence of a number of new markets in the Asia-Pacific region and Eastern Europe created attractive market opportunities for retail internationalisation in the 1990s. Despite the existence of physical distance, empirical data in the literature show increasingly that Western retail firms are continuing to seek to expand into these markets (Rogers et al., 2005; Gielens and Dekimpe, 2007). A diversity of political, economic, social and cultural environments are influencing the ways in which firms are applying different methods to effect entry into these markets (Alexander and Silva, 2002). Examples can be seen in the case of Tesco, who through the acquisition of a warehouse store from Makro (a Dutch warehouse discounter) sought entry into Taiwan, while Carrefour sought to achieve access through effecting a joint venture with a local retail giant, President Group (Palmer, 2005).

Such fundamental shifts in trading policy by large retailers as they sought entry into the newly emerging markets during the 1990s have stimulated much attention in the literature. The erosion of international barriers, particularly in Europe with the establishment of the Single Europe Market in 1992, facilitated the expansion of retail operations across national boundaries (Burt, 1993). Such opportunities not only attracted growth of food retailers but facilitated European retailers in the internationalisation of their businesses (Kamath and Godin, 2001). Examples of this abound in research into the development of large food retailers that focuses on Eastern Europe and the Asia-Pacific region. This research provides examples of successful retail internationalisation alongside failures (Rogers et al., 2005; Myers and Alexander, 2007).

In recent international retail activities, the EU, US and Japanese food retailers have shown their interest in emerging markets. Numerous reasons have been provided for such a shift in policy. Some are related to geopolitical changes in Eastern Europe and the dramatic economic growth in the East Asian Tigers (i.e., Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore and South Korea). Yet others are associated with retailers having had some previous operational experience in international marketplaces, while others again are related to the limitation of growth opportunities in the home market (Alexander and Morlock, 1992; O'Connor, 1997; Arnold and Fernie, 2000; Burt et al., 2003).

The major retailers, particularly those situated in the US, EU and Japan, have sought to exploit opportunities within the emerging markets by concentrating their effort in expanding in the direction of internationalisation. Appendix A shows the world's top 25 grocery retailers in terms of their global sales and the number of countries of operation, ranked by 2007 net sales. It is apparent from these statistics that for some leading retailers, international operations represent a significant proportion of their activities and group incomes.

First, in terms of geographic expansion, it transpires that thirteen international grocers have operations throughout over ten countries and four leading EU retailers (i.e. Carrefour, Metro Group, Schwarz Group and Casino) have operations in over 20 countries. It is worthy of note that these companies are all food retailers rather than speciality providers. It becomes evident that European retailers are more dependent on the foreign markets which would seem to imply a limited growth opportunity within their domestic market. Consequently, indications are that international expansion of sales in foreign markets are factors that are becoming strategically important among the leading retailers. Despite this, it should be noted that the home market is still the major source of sales revenue for most international retailers. It is evident from Appendix A that US and Australian retailers are both heavily dependent on the home market. Two US and one UK leading retailer operated, during the period reviewed, in their domestic market alone. Essentially, this reveals that the movement towards internationalisation particularly by American companies is in the initial stages only; any retailers who enter into international markets briefly, without sufficient overseas experience and without the competitive position that others possess could experience difficulties and problems in the longer term (Palmer, 2005). Finally, for those top 10 leading retailers, 7 of the 10 have hypermarket store formats operating in overseas markets and the hypermarket store format is the major retail format for most European retailers when operating in overseas markets.

1.2.2. The rise of the hypermarket and its impact

The introduction of the first hypermarket is described by Burt (1986, p. 54): “In June 1963 the first hypermarket in France was opened at Saint-Genevieve-des-Bois by the

Carrefour company. The arrival of this innovation and the associated techniques of self-service, discounting, and mass scrambled merchandising through large area units, was to have a profound impact on the retail sector….” Attributes such as free admission, fixed item prices, explicit labelling, a wide assortment, item return policies, advertising, various customer services, low margins, among others, have contributed to making the hypermarket a successful retail outlet throughout France (Burt, 1986). External factors, such as demographic trends which proved to be favourable to the development of hypermarkets, coupled with the passive support of the national government for the modernisation of distribution and retailing systems, contributed to national growth and development on a hitherto unimagined scale (Cliquet, 2000). All these reasons continue to contribute to the continued growth of hypermarkets in France, where they are now dominant, and greatly influenced their later expansion into international marketplaces.

Dupuis and Prime (1996) argued that the success of the hypermarket format is based on three major features, i.e. large spaces selling both food and non-food items, low prices and large car parks. However, the success of the hypermarket in the French domestic market has led to a reaction from small retailers and has resulted in the French government’s imposition of legal restrictions on the further development of large retail outlets (Burt, 1984). This, in turn, leads to an understanding of the need for those retailers most affected by the policy changes exporting the concept of hypermarket operation into international marketplaces.

It is evident that, through the exploitation of domestic diversity and by innovative techniques like the introduction of global information management systems, hypermarkets pursue the long term aims of expansion, not only within national boundaries but internationally as well (Burt, 1994). Furthermore, the entry of the hypermarket concept into international markets not only changes retailing competitive structures but also alters consumer shopping behaviour (Kamath and Godin, 2001). For example, the entry of Wal-Mart into the UK is said to have led to price reducing competition, to the benefit of consumers, among the large retail chains in that country (Arnold and Fernie, 2000).

1.2.3. Is the hypermarket losing its appeal in the global marketplace?

At the end of the 1980s hypermarket retailers began seeking, through international expansion, the optimisation of profits by accessing foreign niche markets. The hypermarket retailers were active and successful in developing new stores in Southern Europe, Central and South America and in the Asia-Pacific regions (Alexander and Myers 1999; Farhangmehr et al., 2001). This success was not, however, matched in other ventures in the US. It has been hypothesised that a number of factors influenced this lack of success. Possible reasons could be a lack of understanding of consumer behaviour in the US which, when coupled with the inability to achieve the economies of scale they require to maximise profit with low costs (Seiders and Tigert, 2000) that success became difficult to achieve. This could explain why the French retailers, namely Carrefour, Auchan, Giant Family and Leedmark, after making inroads into the US market, having had similar experiences arising from lack of knowledge about local competition, unfamiliarity with the environment and the socio-economic climate of the country, all later withdrew (Tordjman, 1988; Muñiz-Martínez, 1998; Cliquet, 2000).

The experiences of the hypermarkets given as examples would seem to indicate that migration into already well developed countries with intense modern retail systems, such as in the US, is not a successful way to proceed. The experience of the hypermarket in newly developed markets (Dupuis and Prime, 1996), where it is possible to demonstrate a competitive advantage and reduce the competitive power of existing retail outlets, appears to indicate that hypermarkets succeed much better in less well developed countries. However, signs are emerging that the hypermarket concept is progressively losing its appeal in the global marketplace. A report from Castrillo et al. (1997) indicates that hypermarkets in continental Europe are gradually losing their market share to other competitive rivals. The combined effects of market saturation, restrictions on new store opening, and the proliferation of other retail outlets are making it difficult for hypermarkets to retain their dominant position.

Moreover, hypermarkets also have to face troubling issues in the Asia-Pacific region. The experience of the leading hypermarket retailer, Carrefour, where a drop in sales in Taiwan, poor annual returns in South Korea and Japanese markets led to its finally pulling out from the Japanese market in 2005 and expressing the intention to sell out its hypermarket chain in South Korea points to the growing disenchantment of consumers with the hypermarket format. Moreover, in Eastern European markets such as Poland, Slovakia, Turkey and the Czech Republic, hypermarkets also face a similar situation (Rogers et al., 2005). These phenomena might suggest that the hypermarket concept is progressively losing consumer appeal when compared with other retail store formats.

However, there is a paucity of literature that provides any empirical research regarding the recent emergence of these issues and little research that addresses causes or explanations for the decrease in sales, profits and market share in overseas markets or factors that underlie success/failure in international processes. Despite the fact that there are many opportunities that exist in the newly developed markets, comparatively little research has been undertaken to explain these effects.

1.3. The research gap and question

The analysis of success/failure in retail internationalisation has only recently been raised as a subject of interest and has until now been based on observational evidence in the retail sector in general (Williams, 1992a; Alexander and Quinn, 2002) or on individual cases (Palmer, 2005; Rogers et al, 2005), and may be considered to be a western viewpoint due to the research having been concentrated in developed markets only. It could be said that such research may produce valuable information about market orientation of individual firms in developed markets; however, studies of the processes involved in retail internationalisation within overseas markets, in particular in newly developed markets, are required. Although not many firms consider globalisation, it is becoming apparent that adaptation to local conditions is an important requirement to operate in overseas markets (Dawson, 1993; McGoldrick and Blair,1995). This factor has received little attention. This thesis seeks to address these issues by focusing on the competitive advantage of international food retailers and the attitudes of consumers and their consequent behaviour in the context of overseas' environments.

Authors such as Dupuis and Prime (1996) have developed an initial conceptual model of analysis of the key success/failure factors in retail internationalisation and proposed that the success/failure of the hypermarket format outside of its original market comes from the hypermarket concept, channel mix and the context of the retailing environment. According to Dupuis and Prime (1996, p. 32) any retail system is deeply grounded in four dimensions:

1. *the consumer (location, equipment, shopping habits);*
2. *the retail store: concept and retailing mix (core business, assortment, localisation, price, communication, human resources management);*
3. *the channel mix: relationship management with both internal channels (retail store, staff, central purchasing) and external channels (suppliers, wholesalers, other partners);*
4. *the environment: public opinion, and the economic, political, legal, competitive and technological environments.*

Environmental differences in retail internationalisation have been mentioned as generating costs, risks, and barriers for internationalising retail firms. Some of the most important differences that have been identified already are: governmental regulatory practices and policies, economic development, the socio-cultural environment, psychological differences in relation to consumers and administrative skills (Davies, 1995; Dupuis and Prime, 1996; Alexander, 1997; O'Grady and Lane, 1997; Evans et al., 2000; Palmer, 2005). Other scholars argue that there is still a need for a better understanding of the internationalisation aspects of retailers' practices in different institutional environments. For instance, Sparks (1995) indicated that performance in the foreign market requires further investigation of when retailers established their operation in the overseas market. Arnold (2000) argued that there is a need to understand the effect of the overseas environment on the internationalisation process. Wrigley and Currah (2003) showed that Royal Ahold suffered strong challenges when seeking to transfer that firm's normal trading practices to Latin America.

One aspect of the foreign environment that has been overlooked is that which refers to the influence of environmental factors on the evolution of retail structures and consumer behaviour and their effect on the competitive advantage of the international retailers. Burt and Carralero-Encinas (2000) suggested that store image is the most important provider of competitive advantage when a retail store is established overseas. In the research on store image, scholars focused their concerns on what it is that draws shoppers to one store rather than another. Early approaches emphasise distance as the determinant factor of consumer's store patronage (Kunkel and Berry, 1968), while according to Doyle and Fenwick (1974) with urbanisation and a more mobile population in the 1970s, the convenience of the location was no longer the overwhelming factor in store choice. Progressively, factors such as relative prices, variety of goods sold, reputation for product quality, store layout and convenient parking facilities became key determinants in developed countries. Bartels (1981, p. 23) points out that "….with industrialisation, economic systems and personal behaviour in developing countries tend to become like those in already developed countries". This argument deduces that consumer behaviour in developing countries will eventually be similar to those in developed countries.

On the other hand, there are many examples in the literature showing that diverse political, economic, social and cultural environments, as well as their historical evolution, shape different retail structures and consumer behaviours. Kumcu (1987) suggested that consumer behaviour is shaped by income level, demographic, social and psychological characteristics and consumption patterns. Over time, therefore, according to Kumcu (1987), consumers in various societies may have extremely different characteristics which influence the retailing competitive position. In addition, it can be argued that consumer shopping habits are based on the lifestyle of the consumer which in turn is largely shaped by personal experience and environmental factors (Kelly, 1991). Therefore, it becomes debatable as to whether store image, in the case of newly emerging retail stores, influences consumer behaviour or whether consumers do their shopping according to their lifestyle choices. This becomes an important question in investigating the processes of retail internationalisation when seeking to identify the level of adaptation to the local situation that is required to ensure success.

The issues that shed light upon success/failure of the retail internationalisation process, in the absence of empirical evidence, have been studied under different conceptual models and speculated upon by many researchers (Tordjman, 1988; Treadgold, 1990; Burt, 1991; Dawson, 1993; Pellegrini, 1994; Sternquist, 1997; Evan et al., 2000; Quinn and Alexander, 2002; Gielens and Dekimpe, 2007; Myers and Alexander, 2007). It can be argued that much of the literature which documents and explores retail internationalisation has neglected to show the influence of the host market's environmental factors. This is a view supported by other researchers, notably, Dupuis and Prime (1996) and Myers and Alexander (2007) who while proposing that the success or failure of the hypermarket outside of its original market stems from the hypermarket concept, also hypothesise that cultural, socio-cultural, psychological, and business distance could play important roles in retail internationalisation. This suggests that when a firm internationalised a retail store in a different cultural context, its original competitive advantage might be affected by environmental factors. It is the latter understanding that initially informed in this thesis.

1.4. The research context – Taiwan food retail market

This thesis explores the relationship between store attributes and consumer preference behaviour linking it to the competitive advantages of hypermarket internationalisation in the Taiwanese food retail market. An introduction to the Taiwanese food retail market is provided here.

1.4.1. Historical development of the food retail market up to the 1980s

The traditional markets

The oldest food retail markets and food distribution channels in Taiwan are known as the traditional markets. The traditional markets are commonly referred to as “wet markets” and usually operate in the ground floor of a building where booths are rented to individual retailers to sell fresh meat, vegetables and fruits as well as ready-to-eat food items. Roadside grocery stores and free stalls are other forms of retail format which come under the category of traditional market, i.e., individual vendors set up roadside stores or stalls to sell food items which are similar to those sold in the traditional markets. These roadside vendors tend to congregate around the traditional markets to share the benefit of aggregation of the food shopping population (Hsu and Chang, 2002). This is due to many early traditional markets in Taiwan having been located around temples and along central streets with high traffic flow and resident populations (Trappey and Lai, 1997a). Because most of the vendors are not equipped with refrigeration and storage, the quantities sold are limited and consequently they tend to operate only in the morning. There are few promotions in the traditional markets. However, consumers do haggle over the price or seek to gain complimentary vegetables, thus establishing a friendly camaraderie with the vendors in the process (Su, 1989; Cai, 2002).

The supermarket

The development of supermarkets within the Taiwanese food retail market was very slow in the early, developmental, stage in the 1970s. The products sold in the supermarket comprised packaged or very little fresh food, all at a higher price than in the traditional markets. The operation was small, and usually consisted of a single storey in the early growth stage (Shih, 1996; Syu, 2001; Ou, 2002). Support from the local authority, the increase in household income and the familiarity of consumers with the supermarkets, which offered a comfortable and hygienic shopping environment with longer opening times, quickly led to the rapid development of supermarkets during the 1980s. The introduction of Western-style supermarkets from Hong Kong and Japan has further accelerated their growth. The organisational operation of the supermarket was similar to that of the chain store and used computer aided management applied by trained professionals in supermarket retailing (Syu, 2001).

However, the growth of sales has begun to slow down as competitive rivalry is intensifying, influencing the slower development of supermarkets since the 1990s. Moreover, the competition from the hypermarkets is vigorous and the supermarkets are at a competitive disadvantage, lacking similar economies of scale or an equally efficient, smaller central distribution system (Ou, 2002). These factors coupled with the density of Taiwan’s population, the scarcity of land, and current zoning laws all favour the development of hypermarkets over supermarkets. Hypermarkets do not require multiple outlets in the same area or central distribution and thus they minimise personnel and product handling costs by combining storage space with retail floor space. At the same time, low price competition from the hypermarkets and the rapid increase in the number of convenience stores has forced the supermarkets to lose their market share year upon year. Under these competitive environments, some small scale supermarkets have been forced to go out of business or merge with other supermarket chains in the 1990s (Syu, 2001).

1.4.2. Rise of the hypermarket

Niche opportunities in overseas markets encouraged the French leading hypermarkets to invest in the Asian market (Alexander, 1990; Williams, 1992b). Carrefour was the first hypermarket retailer to invest in the Asian market, and Taiwan was its first market. The first hypermarket was established at the end of 1989. As discussed earlier, the French hypermarket concept is based on three major features: large premises selling both food and non-food items, low prices, and large free car parks. In Taiwan, hypermarket retailers quickly adapted this concept to the local situation. Initially, hypermarkets were very simply decorated and factory-like in appearance, located in rural industrial areas and providing only limited facilities for shoppers (Jhang, 2002). However, store attributes, manifesting in such features as a large free car park, and expansive shopping area, offering a variety of assorted products, along with overall cost advantages as compared to other food retail outlets led to the hypermarket bringing a new shopping experience that attracted the Taiwanese and successfully penetrated into their markets. In addition, according to Prime and Dupuis (1996), the ability to adapt to the local environment and choose a good joint venture partner led to the successful integration of the hypermarket concept into the Taiwanese retail market.

A noticeable change in the growth of hypermarket activity since the year 2000 has seen the trend towards construction of newly developed hypermarkets located in areas of higher population density within the metropolitan region, and a consequent marked increase in competition. Some external factors may throw light upon such changes. These include the introduction of the two-day weekend which created a need for a family shopping destination. Also political innovation by the government, which introduced new regulation regarding land usage, benefited the development of large stores in urban areas (Yang and Li, 2003). Moreover, new joint ventures were set up between European hypermarket retailers and Taiwan’s local retailers which, in turn, brought more competitive rivals to the hypermarket industry. All of these factors led hypermarket retailers to develop a store image consistent with the contemporary urban lifestyle of Taiwan, delivering a customer pleasant and secure shopping experience.

Table 1.1
A summary of the development of the food retailing market in Taiwan

Period	Developing trends in the food retail market
1960s	1. The traditional markets were located around temples, train stations, bus stations, business districts and local executive authorities; and places where people congregate frequently. 2. The traditional free stalls and grocery stores were located along the streets in communities.
1970s	1. The farm supermarkets were established by the local farmers' association with support from local government. 2. Small scale supermarkets were developed in a regional manner. 3. The concept of the convenience store was established in 1979 and operated along chain store lines. 4. The market share of the traditional markets decreased owing to the emergence of supermarket.
1980s	1. Western style supermarkets were established by Hong Kong and Japanese retailers. 2. The chains of convenience stores enjoyed fast growth and replaced the traditional grocery stores. 3. Dutch warehouse store, Makro, and French hypermarket store, Carrefour, were established in1989. 4. The market share of the traditional market was reduced further.
1990s	1. The Far East hypermarket store was established in 1990; and set a joint venture with Géant (France) as Fe- Géant in 2000. 2. The Rt-MART hypermarket store was established in 1996; and set a joint venture with Auchan (France) in 2001. 3. The hypermarkets and convenience stores continue to open new stores and enjoy a fast growth rate. 4. The supermarkets, facing intensified competition from the hypermarket and seeing reduced in market share were forced into a consolidation stage; many small scale local supermarkets were closed. For example, the Park'N Shop (Hong Kong) supermarket chain store ended its operation in 1996. 5. The development of traditional markets was at a standstill.
2000~Now	1. Tesco (UK) established its first store in 2000 and introduced the 24 hours operation concept. 2. The competition between hypermarkets became intensified; a warehouse store retailer, Makro, ended operation on February 10, 2003; a local hypermarket retailer—KaoMart declared bankruptcy on November 27, 2003 3. Since the year 2000, the annual growth rate of the hypermarkets has continued to decrease and their market share returned to the level of 1996, this in turn forced hypermarkets into the consolidation stage. 4. The supermarkets kept their market share by consolidation and introducing a new form of up-market store. 5. The traditional markets were renovated and modernised by local and central government.

Source: Chen, (1997); Dǒng, (1997); Trappey, and Lai, (1997a); Syu, (2001); Cai, (2002); Ou, (2002); China Times (2003).

The developing processes of the food retail sector in the Taiwanese market from the 1960s up until the present day have been summarised in Table 1.1 indicating that the traditional markets dominated the food retail market in the 1960s. However, the emergence of supermarkets threatened the market share of the traditional markets in the 1970s. The rapid development of the supermarkets further reduced the market share of the traditional market and forced many traditional corner stores to become convenience stores in the 1980s. From their emergence in the 1990s, hypermarkets rapidly expanded, thus posing a threat to the development of the supermarkets, while the traditional market remained at a standstill.

From 2000 onward, competition within the food retail market intensified. An international warehouse store retailer, Makro, ended its operation disadvantaged by its location and the intensification of low-price competition from the hypermarkets (Taipei Times, 2003). Hypermarket retailers have since slowed the speed at which they have opened new stores. The hypermarket and supermarket are now in a stage of consolidation. At the same time, traditional markets are also undergoing renovation, being modernised by central and local governments.

1.4.3. Evidence that the hypermarket may be losing its attraction for Taiwanese consumers

The emergence of the hypermarket has resulted in a consolidation within the Taiwanese food retail market and led to changes in governmental policy and in consumer shopping habits. However, since 2000 hypermarket retailers have faced problems in Taiwan. They need to sustain their market share and to restore vitality to their retail stores. Empirical data show that although the hypermarkets had noticeable growth in the food retail market between 1996 and 2000 in Taiwan, in the past few years, their sales have flattened, their annual growth rate has dropped and their market share is being put under pressure.

Table 1.2
Sales, growth rate and market share of the general merchandise
(Shown by department stores, supermarkets, convenience stores and hypermarkets)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
General Merchandise	356,662	399,967	446,165	486,306	543,377	593,289	620,773	622,833	644,794	689,950	711,057
Annual growth rate (%)	16.93	12.14	11.55	9.00	11.74	9.19	4.63	5.07	3.53	7.00	3.05
Percentage of total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Department stores	128,858	145,060	157,034	156,691	170,882	185,773	193,111	172,411	169,328	191,092	201,557
Annual growth rate (%)	13.20	12.57	8.25	-0.22	9.06	8.69	3.97	11.42	-1.79	12.85	5.47
Percentage of total	36.13	36.27	35.20	32.22	31.45	31.31	31.11	27.68	26.26	27.70	28.35
Supermarkets	55,604	61,423	66,270	72,236	75,719	75,682	78,265	75,857	79,842	85,133	86,842
Annual growth rate (%)	8.82	10.47	7.89	9.00	4.82	-0.05	3.41	-1.46	5.25	6.63	2.00
Percentage of total	15.59	15.36	14.85	14.85	13.93	12.76	12.61	12.18	12.38	12.34	12.21
Convenience stores	49,203	59,695	71,164	84,805	101,129	110,489	122,987	141,778	153,802	163,768	178,312
Annual growth rate (%)	18.13	21.32	19.21	19.17	19.25	9.26	11.31	10.69	8.48	6.48	8.88
Percentage of total	13.80	14.92	15.95	17.44	18.61	18.62	19.81	22.76	23.85	23.74	25.08
Hypermarkets	65,460	77,497	89,830	108,198	110,431	129,124	136,671	141,680	143,040	139,698	139,883
Annual growth rate (%)	29.70	18.39	15.91	20.45	19.54	16.93	5.85	3.66	0.96	-2.34	0.13
Percentage of total	18.35	19.38	20.13	22.25	23.80	25.49	25.78	22.74	22.18	20.25	19.67

Note: a. Source: Department of Statistics, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Taiwan, 2006
b. Units: Million NT dollars; %
c. Other retailing sectors not counted in this table, accounted for 14.69% in 2005.

From Table 1.2 above, it is observable that the annual growth rate of the Taiwanese food retail market exhibits a slow downward trend, which can be accounted for in two ways. First, over recent years, the Taiwanese population growth rate seems to have stagnated; in part due to many young and middle-aged adults moving to Mainland China because of career-related issues (around one million, estimated by DGBAS, 2005). Second, despite the fact that families' disposable income has increased due to Taiwan's economic progress there is no visible increase in expenditure for food (DGBAS, 2005), and, with all the recent health and diet fashions and the trend toward eating out, much of the households' expenditure on food in retail outlets has decreased, a phenomenon which has given rise to the expression among economists that “food consumption is income inelasticity”, i.e. the food demand will not be greatly affected by the income.

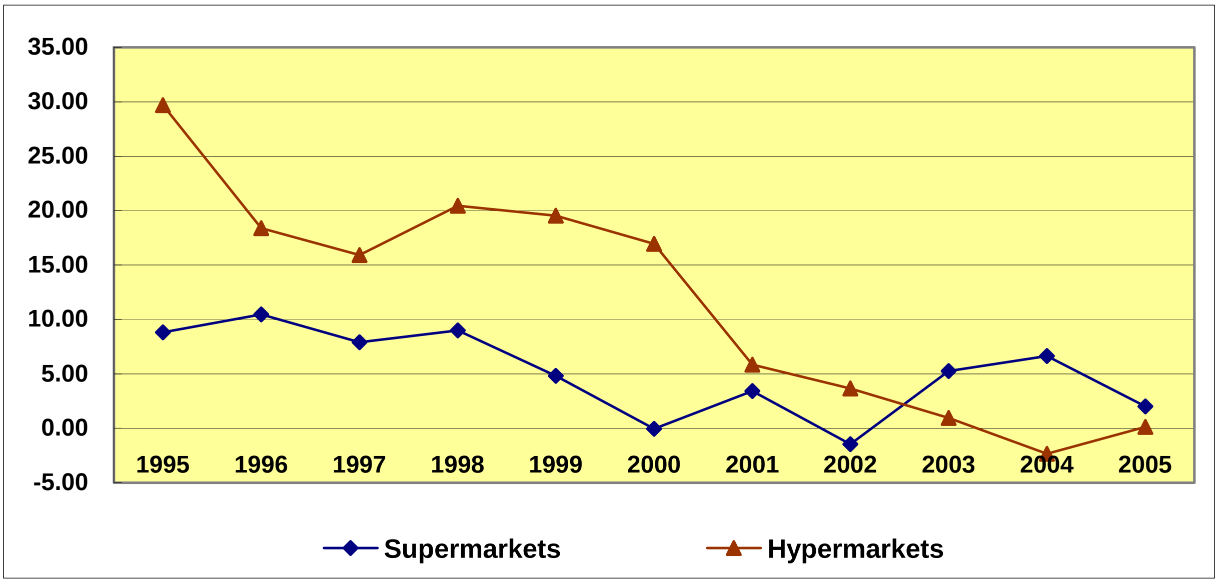
This slow growth has resulted in increased competition in the Taiwanese food retail market over the last five years. In the 1990s the annual growth rate for general products was always around 10% or more (see Table 1.2). In the hypermarkets, growth rates averaged over 20% at times. However, after the year 2000, growth rates began to decline. This led to confrontation between various retailers, actively expanding locations and intensifying competition in order to maintain their growth rate, by targeting each other’s consumers. This in turn led to the intensifying of competition between hypermarkets and supermarkets. The result of active expansion and competition can be seen in certain large retail stores getting larger and the concentration of markets.

Extraction of data from Table 1.2, Figure 1.1 shows the annual sales growth rate of the hypermarkets and supermarkets. The annual sales growth rate of the hypermarket has significantly reduced since the year 2000. Although the number of hypermarkets increased between 2000 to 2005, the small annual sales growth rate confirms that the average sales of a single hypermarket are decreasing. In the supermarket industry, stores have been struggling on very slow annual sales growth rate over the period 2000 to 2005. Moreover, the sales of hypermarkets have fallen to third place in the general merchandise industry. From 2000 to 2005, the percentage of the total has slowed down to 19.67% and the annual growth rate declined to -2.34% in 2004 and 0.13% in 2005. This is comparable to the record from 1995 to 2000, in which the average growth rate was above 20% (Table 1.2). A commercial report from Chang

Hwa Bank (2002) suggests that the hypermarket stores in Taiwan are reaching saturation point and the sector is poised for decline. Furthermore, the combined percentage of department stores and hypermarkets has been around 55% from the period 1995 to 2001. These data show that the percentage has dropped below 50%. This might suggest that the proportion of the Taiwanese who prefer to shop at large formats is declining.

Figure 1.1

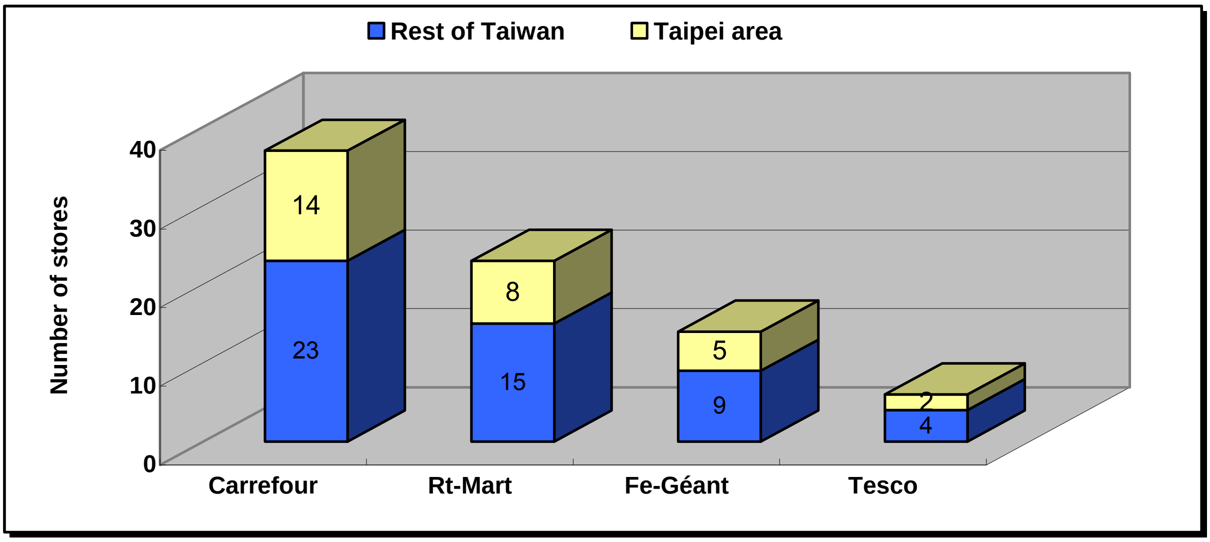
Annual sales growth rate of supermarkets and hypermarkets Unit: %



Source: Department of Statistics, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Taiwan, 2006

Figure 1.2 shows the store number and distribution of hypermarkets in Taiwan. There were 80 hypermarkets in Taiwan by the end of 2005. The total number of hypermarkets in the Great Taipei area was 29, which is 36.25% of total hypermarkets in Taiwan. Carrefour has 14 outlets and Rt-Mart has eight outlets in the Great Taipei area. The Great Taipei area has the highest sales, store numbers and average single store sales. This suggests that the Taipei metropolitan area is the most important market.

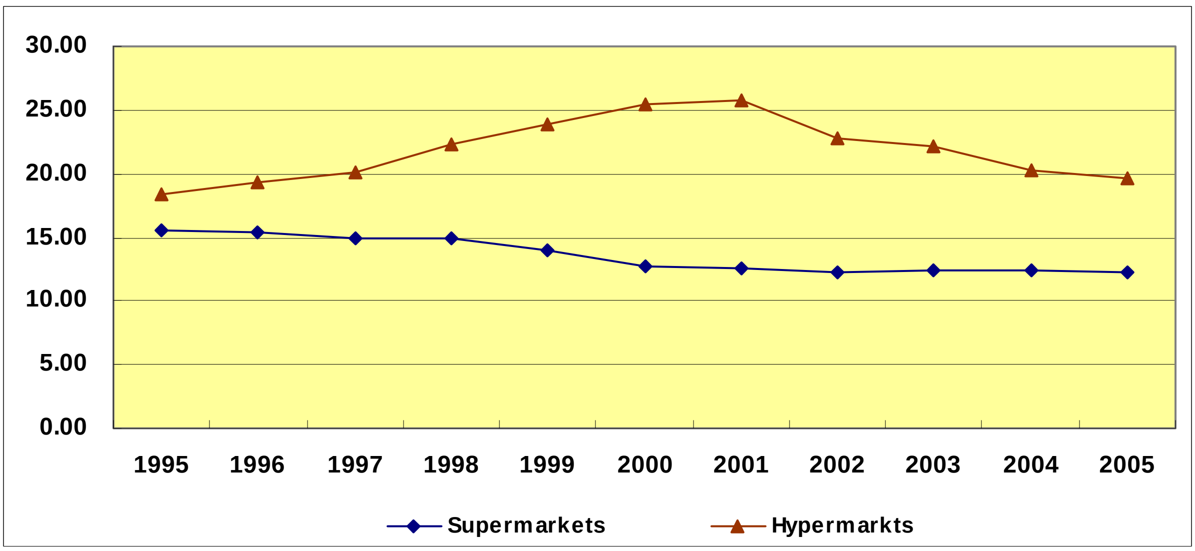
Figure 1.2
Distribution of the hypermarket store in Taiwan at the end of 2005



Source: Collected from the annual reports of the companies,2006.

Furthermore, when giving consideration to the percentage totals from Table 1.2 between the supermarkets and the hypermarkets: the supermarkets have seemed to keep their market share since 2000, while the hypermarkets have lost their market share and returned to the level of year 1996. Figure 1.3 below demonstrates this phenomenon.

Figure 1.3
Market shares of the supermarket and hypermarket in percentage



Source: Department of Statistics, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Taiwan, 2006

By reconsidering the food retail market in Taiwan, three important lines of evidence reveal growing pressure on hypermarket development. First, the major hypermarket retailers in Taiwan may not be able to increase their market share without making acquisitions due to it being difficult to find a suitable location to develop a new store (Chang Hwa Bank, 2002). Between 1995-1999, the hypermarket sector had an annual growth rate of 15% to 25% a year. Since 2000, the annual growth rate has slowed drastically and market share has declined from a high of 25.78% in 2001 to 19.67% in 2005. Secondly, low levels of differentiation in the core products and services provided seems to be a characteristic in the Taiwanese food retail market, this is especially the case in the hypermarkets, where any new product or service can be quickly and easily mimicked (Hou,2000). Examples of this include rebates, low-price own-labels and customer loyalty schemes (Huang et al., 2001). The result is that all the hypermarkets from Carrefour to Rt-Mart, Fe-Géant, and Tesco, all have large car parks and customer food courts, with similar sales floor areas and own-label goods, comprising identical brands. As a result of the high degree of similarity between these hypermarkets, consumers have no perception of loyalty toward any one brand (Huang et al., 2001). Third, hypermarket retailers are searching for good store locations in metropolitan areas in order to reach a larger customer base (Sýu, 2002). This can explain, why in recent years, hypermarkets have gradually expanded from the outskirts of the metropolitan areas into the metropolitan heartlands. However such investments result in expensive assets accompanied by lower returns. These developments are markedly different from those demonstrated in other countries, where consumers have shown a tendency to abandon the supermarkets and traditional markets in closer proximity to their homes in favour of suburban hypermarkets, which sell cheaper products (Farhangmehr et al., 2001).

All the above evidence would appear to point to an understanding that the hypermarket formula is losing its appeal to Taiwanese consumers; evidence of the decreasing market share provides significant weight to this conclusion. Therefore how to sustain its market share becomes the current major mission of every organisation. This research, therefore, aims to solve problems and issues regarding the development of the hypermarket sector, search out those factors which influence consumer patronage behaviour and provide strategic considerations and approaches for international food retailers, particularly in the hypermarket sector of the Taiwanese food retail market.

1.5. Link between the thesis research gap, research question and research objectives

The results of the above discussions clearly suggest that there is a research gap defined in terms of a need for further research on consumer behaviour to help global food retailers such as Carrefour understand the preferences and choices of shoppers in host markets in order to achieve and sustain competitive advantage over their rivals. In the context of emerging markets such as Taiwan, research on store image first focussed upon department stores and supermarkets, and later considered hypermarkets (Huang et al., 2001). For example, Huang et al. (2001) compared consumer store image between convenience store and hypermarket, exploring how store attributes have had an influence upon consumer store patronage. They suggest that consumers view store facilities, convenience for shopping, large assortment, promotion and service as the major factors that influence the patronage behaviour of Taiwanese consumers.

Taiwanese consumer patronage of the hypermarket format appears to be largely due to the hypermarkets providing facilities which are most suitable for family shopping activity. Ting and Chen (2002), who used unstructured telephone interviews to survey Taiwanese consumer store image regarding the hypermarket concluded that the decisive factors influencing consumer patronage of hypermarkets can be summarised into ten categories: assortment of product, quality of product, store decoration and display, service, major service, subordinate service, store location, store environment and atmosphere, price and promotion, operational convenience and physical facilities. However, despite the contributions made by some researchers, there is still the need for further research to address the following problem relating to the fact that:

"The relationships between 'store attributes' and 'consumer patronage' of hypermarket, supermarket, and traditional market store formats are not well understood in the context of Taiwan grocery retailing."

The above statement of the thesis research problem clearly suggests that, although store attributes encompass both functional and psychological elements of store image, and formed the basis for many studies in different cultural settings, the nature of the relationship between each 'store attribute' and 'consumer shopping clusters' is not well understood in the context of Taiwan. The primary thesis research question is therefore:

"Can global food retailers using hypermarket store formats achieve and sustain their competitive advantage in emerging economies such as Taiwan?"

This research question formed the basis for setting three specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and timely i.e. SMART research objectives for this thesis. The three objectives are:

Research Objective #1: *To identify the critical factors or variables impacting on food retail internationalisation across hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan.*

Research Objective #2: *To describe the nature of the critical factors impacting on consumer behaviour towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan.*

Research Objective #3: *To explain the nature of the relationships between the critical factors as a possible basis for developing a conceptual framework for successful retail internationalisation in Taiwan.*

The above three research objectives have been arranged in order of increasing academic rigour i.e. from exploratory research objective to conclusive research objective.

1.6. Structure of the thesis

The remainder of the thesis is organised into five chapters as outlined below:

Chapter Two*: Critical Review of Existing Literature*
The chapter provides a critical review of current research on retail internationalisation, highlighting the process of retail internationalisation in the context of emerging markets and Taiwan, in particular, with focus on hypermarket development. The limitations of the current research are identified while further assessment is made of the research approach relative to store attributes and consumer preferences as a basis for the analysis of the competitive position of the hypermarket in Taiwan. The macro-environment of Taiwan is also reviewed in order to understand the retail structure and retail consumption behaviour. The aim of this chapter, therefore, is to identify any research gap and problems, and link them to the research question and objectives.

Chapter Three*: Research Methodology*
The research methodology is addressed in this chapter. The chapter describes and justifies procedures adopted for the research and the instruments used for data collection and analysis.

Chapter Four*: Data Presentation and Analysis*
This chapter presents the empirical data followed by qualitative and quantitative analysis using different techniques, in order to tease out the key research results and findings to underpin the contribution to knowledge.

***Chapter Five**: Discussion and Interpretation of Findings*

This chapter discusses the empirical results and findings emerging from Chapter Four and provides an interpretation of the results leading to achievement of the research objectives.

***Chapter Six**: Conclusions and Recommendations*

This chapter draws conclusions and recommendations from the discussion and interpretation in Chapter Five. It also assesses the extent to which the research objectives have been achieved and outlines areas for further research.

The Bibliography and Appendices complete the thesis.

Chapter Two

Critical Review of Existing Literature

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a critical review of existing literature on the research themes or keywords in the thesis title, namely, ***retail internationalisation***, food retail store formats such as ***hypermarkets, supermarkets***, and ***traditional markets***. The main aim is to critically examine how these themes impact on strategic decision making by ***global food retailers*** such as Carrefour and Tesco currently operating in emerging markets including ***Taiwan***.

In order to achieve the above aim, section 2.2 reviews the literature on the theories and practices relating to the concept of retail internationalisation. Section 2.3 provides a review of the emergence and development of hypermarkets as well as their influence on the retail revolution and consumer behaviour. It will critique the impact of hypermarkets on the Taiwanese economy and other emerging economies in the Asia-Pacific Region. Section 2.4, reviews the macro-environment influencing the development of the retail market in Taiwan. Section 2.5, identifies the thesis' research gap, research problem, and research question. It also provides a clear link between the research question and the research objectives. Finally, Section 2.6 provides a summary for the chapter and a link to Chapter Three.

2.2. Theory and Practice of Retail Internationalisation

This section provides a critical review of the theories underpinning the concept of retail internationalisation in relation to the global food retail marketing strategies adopted by global food retailers from Europe. The main reason is that Dupuis and Prime (1996) identified French food retailers' as market leaders with the most experience in adopting hypermarket store formats in emerging markets in the Asia-Pacific Region.

2.2.1. The concept and scope of Retail Internationalisation

A critical review of the literature suggest that even though there is no agreed definition of the term 'retail internationalisation', the term is clearly linked to the process of internationalisation (Pellegrini, 1994; Akehurst and Alexander, 1995a, 1995b). According to Hollander (1970), the 1960s witnessed increased interest in the concept of retail internationalisation. Extensive review of the literature dating from 1958 appears to suggest that Hollander (1970) is perhaps the first researcher who introduced 'retailing' into the process of internationalisation following a decline in retail activity in international operations (Akehurst and Alexander, 1995a). According to Hollander (1970) in developed nations:

"Shopping habits and other factors affecting store operation were becoming more uniform as more and more customers began driving cars…merchants who were skilled enough to cope with common problems and opportunities within their own countries would be likely to succeed in the other national segments"(Hollander, 1970, p.3).

Later research by Kacker (1985) echoes Hollander's (1970) observation and further indicated that retail structural changes in Europe have responded to environmental changes while new techniques and innovations have been adopted in traditional retail sectors. The political and economic integration within European nations has been treated as a facilitating factor which encouraged European retailers to go into internationalisation. Pellegrini (1994, p. 138) noted that retail internationalisation is,

"…inextricable embedded in the more general issue of growth strategies" (Pellegrini, 1994, p. 138).

This confirms the view by Alexander (1997) that research in the area of retail internationalisation coincided with the growth of retail operations in international markets. The literature therefore suggest that the theoretical understanding of the concept of retail internationalisation is needed in order to identify sources of competitive advantage for global food retailers already operating or wishing to enter emerging markets by adopting the hypermarkets store formats .

From the above description it is easy to understand how both the home and host market’s consumer preferences and choices impact the process of internationalisation. This view is supported by Alexander and Myers (2000) who argued that international operations provide retailers with opportunities for profit growth, not only as a consequence of the knowledge and experience garnered from the overseas operation or for overseas profits but also for retail market development and product innovation.

Indeed, successful implementation of retail internationalisation strategies have contributed significantly to profit growth in many global retail firms and have attracted increasing academic attention as many global retailers continue to expand their operation into other new emerging markets (Alexander and Myers, 2000).

A more comprehensive interpretation of retail internationalisation addresses several issues such as: the factors which determine market choice, the diffusion of particular retail concepts and store formats into emerging markets, the implementation of international expansion, the continuing strategic reassessment for long-term sustainability, the internationalisation of management skill and technology as well as other related activities, have been taken into account in the literature (Burt, 1991; Whitehead, 1992; Dawson, 1993; McGoldrick, 1995; Wrigley, 2000).

In the literature most of the attention given to retail internationalisation activities has focused upon the international expansion of large retailers into new or developing markets (Burt, 1991; Alexander, 1995) or the invasion of other large retailers into home markets (Seiders and Tigert, 2000). It appears the reciprocal influence of retail internationalisation is important, given the impact and influence it has upon the host and home markets through the transfer and adoption of retailing concepts and other related activities. With respect to the development of retail internationalisation, Dawson (1994), McGoldrick (1995) and Alexander (1997) have identified a diversity of factors, variables or facets impacting the practice of retail internationalisation.

There is evidence that the growth of international retailing activity has facilitated the flow of retailing concepts and know-how along with the transfer of retailing expertise and mechanisms (McGoldrick, 1995; Farhangmehr et al., 2001). This according to Burt (1995) and Wrigley (2002) in turn stimulates movements of capital investment and managerial resources which have fundamental influence on retailing store formats in both the home and host markets. In addition, international alliances, such as the development of buying groups, international supply and logistic networks, have also developed in the home and host markets, which not only facilitate the international retailing activities but also offer low cost advantages such as price incentive for consumers (Robinson and Clarke-Hill, 1995; Fernie and Arnold, 2002). The approaches to international product sourcing and the development of related technology in packaging and service are well established in all retail sectors (Dawson, 1993; McGoldrick, 1995).

Literature on the direction of international retail development was primarily concerned with the flow of activity, and the motivations concerned with the response to the limitations in the domestic market and the opportunities in the international market. In the case of US retail internationalisation, Sternquist (1997) provides a comprehensive framework which integrates the work of Dunning (1988) and Salmon and Tordjman (1989) together with other important themes in the retail literature using a holistic way to explain the international expansion of US retailers. By combining ownership advantage and location consideration and stage theory, Sternquist (1997) produced a clearer understanding regarding the nature of the process of retail internationalisation of US retailers and the inter-relationships between the different factors.

With reference to the antecedents, process and outcomes of international activity, Vida and Fairhurst (1998) suggested a model for the retail internationalisation process. Vida and Fairhurst (1998) recognised that the characteristics of a firm and management are the two internal driving forces behind the international retail expansion process and that these forces are influenced by the external environment. Vida and Fairhurst (1998) suggested that the experience of the retail firm will impact upon the choice of entry mode and market selection, the driving forces behind the process and the impact of intra-firm factors on the international expansion process, will ultimately impact on future antecedents to internationalisation. It is been suggested that such longitudinal research may provide insights into the complexity of the process and the reasons behind retail internationalisation (Akehurst and Alexander, 1995a).

The conceptual frameworks by Sternquist (1997) and Vida and Fairhurst (1998) have fundamentally conceptualised the directions, activities, motivations and firm’s characteristics of the international expansion of US retailers. On the other hand, by expanding the conceptual idea of Sternquist (1997) and Vida and Fairhurst (1998) and by conceptualising the process of international activities of European retailers, Alexander and Myers (2000) suggested that the concept of retail internationalisation has to be viewed as a firm-based and market-based process. A retail firm's asset advantage provides it with a source of competitive advantage within its domestic environment. This source of advantage can be further refined within the process of internationalisation through the transfer of skill and technology across markets. Thus, a retailer's asset and advantage is part of organisational development and market development. However, as internationalisation continued, the retailer is subject to face different set of environmental pressures, which will force the retailer to response. It is within the market-based framework that updating the asset or developing new advantages is possible, depending on retailer's market selection. This in turn will alter or facilitate the retailer's competencies as the organisation learns from the operation in international markets. The driving force will be influenced by the ability to respond to the international market conditions by the retail firm (Alexander and Myers, 2000).

2.2.2. International retail activities

The literature suggests that the issue of 'motivation' is often referred to by researchers in an attempt to explain why home-base retailers' expand into international markets. Treadgold (1990) states that:

"For many retailers, developing a foreign trading presence is often primarily a response to a relative absence of sustainable long-term growth opportunities at home" (Treadgold, 1990, p. 11).

Indeed, the above statement suggests that many retailers faced with saturation in the domestic market may seek alternative opportunities in other markets. Several authors argue that theories of retail internationalisation borrow ideas and approaches from manufacturing sectors (Pellegrini, 1991; Davies and Fergusson, 1995). A summary of these ideas is shown in Table 2.1 below, it can be seen that the ‘eclectic paradigm’, ‘push and pull factors’, and the ‘stages theories’ are much associated with the internationalisation of food retailing in 1990s while divestment activity is more recent (Palmer and Quinn, 2007)– these approaches are explained later below.

Table 2.1
Approaches to retail internationalisation

Approaches	Meaning	Research, Critique, extension
Eclectic paradigm	Advantages are in the areas of ownership, location, and internationalisation. It offers an explanation of the extent, form and pattern of international activities.	Dunning (1981, 1988, 1993); Pellegrini (1991); Dawson (1993); Davies and Fergusson (1995).
Push and pull factors	These are fundamental factors that stimulate expansion beyond national boundaries.	Kacker (1985); Treadgold, (1988); Alexander (1990); Williams (1992).
Stages theory	A behavioural approach where internationalisation is a gradual process, dependent upon incremental gains in international experience, increasing research of and a commitment to foreign markets.	Wilkins (1974); Johanson and Vahlne (1977); Cavusgil (1980); Czinkota (1982); Treagold (1990); Burt (1991); Dawson (1993).
Divestment	Divestment refers both to the action of selling a business and to the whole process of selling businesses in this way	Burt (1991); Alexander and Quinn (2002); Wrigley and Currah (2003); Alexander et al. (2005); Palmer and Quinn (2007)

Source: Adapted from Davies and Fergusson, 1995; Alexander et al., 2005.; Davies and Burt, 2007.

Approach #1 - Eclectic or the OLI paradigm

Dunning’s (1988) eclectic paradigm has received a lot of attention in the literature as well as in application. The works of Pellegrini (1991), Dawson (1993), and Sternquist

(1997) suggest that this approach provides a general interpretation and allows for considering a broad spectrum of motives and means for retail internationalisation, in terms of three categorisations: ownership advantages (O), location advantages (L) and internationalisation advantages (I). Ownership advantages are related to organisational innovative or unique products supplied or the application of business processes or resources (e.g. economics of scale) that give competitive advantages to a retail firm in obtaining and sustaining their market power. Location advantages refer to the suitability of the host market in which there are particular cost advantages or market size or market opportunities as well as geographical and cultural proximity to the company's strategies. Internationalisation advantages comprise of a combination of domestic constraints on business activities and related regulations and other factors that result from ownership and location advantages (Dunning, 1981, 1988).

The Growth of French hypermarket retailers into Spain, Italy and Portugal gives us an opportunity to explore location and internationalisation advantages (Burt, 1991; Pellegrini, 1991). High profits obtained in the host markets have further encouraged the establishment of foreign operations (Treadgold, 1990). There can be, however, a down side where the lack of substantial ownership advantages of the hypermarket retailers persuades them to enter into joint ventures and other forms of co-operation with retailers in the host markets (Pellegrini, 1994).

Dunning's (1988) three-factor approach and his subsequent work have provided a potential framework for retail internationalisation; however, these studies may only serve to distinguish the difference in direct foreign investment between retail and manufacturing firms (Pellegrini, 1991). This raises a question about the extent to which the direct implantation of OLI paradigm into retail internationalisation is justified.

Approach #2 - Push and pull factors, Interpreting the motives

In the 1960s and the 1970s, the ‘pull factor’ was suggested as perceived fruitful new markets and as the reasons for choosing one market over another, rather than the reason for internationalisation (Alexander, 1990). According to Alexander (1990), the ‘push factors’ were said to be the increasing number of retailers operating in a domestic market who have reached national coverage and hence approaching market saturation, as a result retailers began to look at opportunities in non-domestic markets. During the 1980s, a combination of political, economic, social and retail specific conditions led to the suggestion that limited opportunities in home markets were a prime reason for retail internationalisation (Salmon and Tordjman, 1989). However, in the 1990s, research revealed that proactive motivation provides better understanding of consumer shopping behaviour (Williams, 1992). This suggests there is a research gap in terms of the need for further research to explain how grocery shoppers in emerging markets such as Taiwan behave towards different store formats. Therefore, the interpretation of the motivation behind any move towards retail internationalisation is very important.

The theory of “push and pull factors” has been a major subject of discussion in the literature on retail internationalisation relative to the opportunities in overseas markets and the limitations in the home market. Following the rapid development of European hypermarkets in Eastern Europe, the Far East and the USA after the mid 1980s, research works have tended to focus on the reasons behind internationalisation. A number of factors are discussed in the literature (Salmon and Tordjman, 1989; Alexander, 1990; Pellegrini, 1991; Alexander and Morlock, 1992; Williams, 1992; Sternquist, 1997) which have been categorised into push and pull factors i.e. reactive and proactive motives. Early research based on domestic limitation emphasised the importance of reactive activities (Salmon and Tordjman, 1989; Treadgold, 1990), while later research focusing upon the prospective economic climate in overseas markets emphasised a proactive response (Alexander, 1990; Williams, 1992a). One avenue of thought from the reactive camp (Treadgold, 1988; Kacker, 1985), considers the motivation of international activity, placing emphasis upon the push factors, like strong competition, governmental regulation and saturation in the home retailing market. Conversely, proactive theories by Alexander (1990) and Williams (1992a) based on empirical evidence promote the concept of pull factors, such as niche opportunities, and favourable political, economic and social conditions in the host market.

Evidence suggest that motivations for retail internationalisation are complicated; they cannot simply be explained by adopting a somewhat simplistic dichotomy (push vs. pull or proactive vs. reactive). It suggests that retail internationalisation is the result of an interaction between environmental factors, such as: a firm’s competitive power, adopting innovations or differentiations from global competitors, effective organisational structure, and entrepreneurship (McGoldrick, 1995). These factors appear to place more emphasis on the supply side of organisational characteristics and environmental factors, and less on the demand side of the social and cultural needs of consumers that retailers have to consider if they want to be successful in the long-term.

Although the theory of push and pull factors in retail internationalisation is widely researched in academic literature there are a number of critiques and issues raised within research circles (McGoldrick, 1995). They identify the problem as one in which the theory of push and pull factors tends to focus on an explanation of the motives behind retail internationalisation rather than the issues faced by retail firms as international expansion happens (Wrigley and Lowe, 2002). As a result of this, it might be argued that greater attention needs to be given to understanding the needs and expectation of consumers in the host market, in relation to shoppers attitudes towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets.

In addition, Wrigley and Lowe (2002) suggest that a range of these motivations will combine to influence a retailer's international investment in particular the location (i.e. foreign market) decision. However, it is acknowledged that the interactions between organisational and environmental factors are so complicated as to make this distinction problematic and not easy to interpret (Rocha and Dip, 2002). From an international viewpoint, Rocha and Dib (2002) suggested that three factors contributed to growth of internationalisation of retailing. First, the development of information technology (IT) has provided retailers with opportunities to reach and control foreign operations in an effective way, which was not possible before. Second, global sourcing makes possible economies of scale in purchasing. Finally, the emergence of large and similar consumer segments have created retail opportunities all over the world. In relation to the thesis, the above review of the literature appear to suggest that there is more focus on the supply side of the food retailing and less focus on the demands of consumer needs and related issues.

Approach #3 - Stages theory

The stage theory concept is yet another approach used to depict the typical movement of retail internationalisation. Burt (1993) states that

"Any temporal trends in international activity should then find some consideration in factors relating to changing environmental conditions, which would influence motives and patterns of investment" (Burt, 1993, p. 392).

Regarding this consideration, Treadgold (1990) argued that typically a retailer's international expansion proceeds in three stages.

- ***Stage One**: - Initially, retailers are reluctant to internationalise and will only do so when they perceive a lack of long term growth opportunities in the domestic market.*
- ***Stage Two**: - Over time, retailers are cautious in international markets and search for geographic proximity and culturally similar markets. Given the considerable risks and cost involved in expansion outside home markets, retailers are focused on minimising perceived business and cultural distance between the domestic market and the host market.*
- ***Stage Three**: - After they have experienced operations in foreign markets, retailers become more ambitious and aggressive, emphasise long-term growth opportunities, and are inclined to seek out opportunities in distant markets rather than markets which are geographically or culturally close as they gain confidence .*

The Far East is relatively a distant market for European retailers in terms of geography and culture, while the fact that French hypermarket retailers have already moved into this area, appears to suggest that economic prosperity can be perceived as a sufficient factor to negate the geographical and cultural distance (Myers and Alexander, 1996). Thus, the internationalisation of French food retailers has reached the 'ambitious stage'. Treadgold's (1990) conceptual model therefore suggests that, time, geographical presence and the individual food retailer are three major determinants impacting retail internationalistion decisions.

However, Alexander (1997) critiqued Treadgold's (1990) model by arguing that the model overlooked the impact of macro environmental factors, the host market, and retail organisations. This criticism raised a number of fundamental questions:

- *Are global food retailers initially reluctant to internationalise due only to a lack of growth opportunities within the home market or are there other factors which influence their international exposure?*

- *How can distance be measured and interpreted in the geographically proximate markets according to the characteristics of the retail firm?*
- *What is the time span required to acquire experience from the geographically proximate markets in order for retailers to develop into geographically distant markets?*
- *Do retailers have to follow the stage process which may lead them to successfully exporting retail formats to the foreign markets?*

When considering the answer to all of these questions, French hypermarket retailers, such as Carrefour provide a very useful example of retail internationalisation into emerging markets. To deal with the first question, the scenario of the French hypermarkets can be considered. When faced with government regulations, coupled with the saturation of the home market, the French retailers merged and/or acquired local stores. In order to maintain their growth, they found it necessary to open their overseas stores in neighbouring markets, such as Spain and other culturally similar countries, and eventually expanded their formats to Spanish speaking countries in Latin America (e.g. Argentina) (Burt, 1984 and 1991).

The first of the above questions addresses the limitation of the domestic market. However, without considering that the French hypermarket retailers are reluctant to internationalise, they are cautious in their approach to the international market, which led them to consider culturally or psychologically similar markets. This may not infer that retailer’s internationalisation places great emphasis on push or pull factors, but that the choice of an expanding market may be limited by a lack of international operational experience (Alexander, 1997). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that as retail firms have substantial gains in experience from foreign, neighbouring markets they have a greater willingness and motivation to consider more distant markets.

The second question addresses the measurement of the geographically proximate market; however, it could be better to express this with reference to psychological or cultural distance. Evans et al. (2000) proposed that psychological or cultural distance can be defined as:

"The distance between the home market and a foreign market resulting from the perception and understanding of cultural and business differences" (Evans et al., 2000, p. 377-378).

The French hypermarket retailers that initially moved to Spain and more recently to Argentina provide an explanation that relates to this argument (Burt, 1994). Geographical proximity and cultural similarity have also been found to influence the entry of British retailers into external markets, for example, Ireland (Burt, 1993). These studies support a view that, as retail internationalisation enters the stage of caution, the measurement of market distance and the number of markets presence can be measured in the terms of psychological or cultural distance from the domestic market.

The third question relates to the measurement or estimation of the length of time that a firm has operated in a market, an important factor from the perspective of experience alone, and will inevitably be an influence upon the attitudes and the behaviour of the managers of the firm which is expanding its operation into geographically distant markets (Williams, 1992b). After many years of overseas operating experience in the Spanish countries and the EU, the French hypermarket retailers are further expanding their formats into Asian markets. Research carried out by Myers and Alexander (1995) has shown that the French hypermarket retailers exhibited an ambitious stage, due to overseas experience acquired over several decades, while the UK food retailers were more or less in the stage of caution.

However, it remains questionable whether or not a firm's internationalisation has to be accomplished stage by stage. One may challenge the inference that retail firms necessarily proceed stage by stage along a time axis. An example, provided by McGoldrick (1995), points out that the early expansion of Marks & Spencer, which entered Canada in 1972, showed a great deal of ambition. However, its more recent international expansion has demonstrated greater caution. This reflects the fact that the international experience of European food retailers in overseas markets is not similar in the developing stages and they do not necessarily follow the stage theory in sequence (Dawson, 1994),

In addition, research carried out by Dupuis and Prime (1996) provides examples of the internationalisation of the French hypermarkets which expanded retail formats into different distant markets and which had different results - failure in the USA and success in Asia. Along with the geographical factors, consideration must be given to the length of time retailers take to acquire operating experience in foreign markets. Alexander (1995) has noted that when retailers, who have achieved competitive advantages in their domestic market, transfer that operation to non-domestic markets they often fail to convey the same image to the consumers. Indeed, competitive advantage gained by retailers in domestic markets cannot assume to be successful when rebuilding in overseas markets. Retailers can easily assume that successful gains in significant market share means gains derived from positive consumer perceptions (Arnold and Luthra, 2000). Thus, when retailers become involved in international operations, a lack of understanding and appreciation of the impact of consumer behaviour in overseas market may create a gap in their analysis of opportunities available to them and cause them to question their reasons for internationalisation.

The above analysis provides some answers to the final question, concerning the stage process leading to successful exporting of the hypermarket concept. Stages theory implies that as a firm’s international experience and involvement increases it will gain some degree of expertise in operating in overseas markets which will ultimately improve its international performance. Although these ideas and approaches attempt to cover and interpret some of the ways in which international retailing activities have been pursued, they are only a simplified version of what is going on in retail internationalisation (McGoldrick and Devies, 1995).

The interaction between the retail firm and the environment of home and host market cannot be characterised or interpreted by any individual theory but rather by some form of synthesis. None of these approaches, in themselves, can explain the rapid expansion of the large food retailers since the mid-1990s. Wrigley (2000) has speculated that the need to sustain sales and profit growth has encouraged the large food retailers to export their formats into the newly emerging markets. The abundance of capital resource in the developed markets, the need for return by the financial institutions, favourable environmental factors in the host markets, and the first mover advantages, all can turn into driving forces for retail internationalisation. There is evidence of a massive flow of research materials, literature and publications that focus on the factors behind internationalisation, growth strategies regarding retailing organisational development, waves/stages of retail internationalisation, international competition and mode of market entry, which have over emphasised the success of processes that target markets and the majority are associated with a descriptive nature and biased in favour of western viewpoints. These research articles, treatises or books, for example, can be seen by referring to Pellegrini (1991), Burt (1991), Alexander (1997), Sternquist (1998), Alexander and Myers (2000), Wrigley (2002).

Approach #4 - Divestment

Retail failure and divestment in retail internationalisation has raised much attention in academic circle recently (Alexander and Quinn, 2002; Burt et al. 2003; Wrigley and Currah, 2003; Palmer and Quinn, 2007). Burt et al. 2003 proposed four conceptual retail failure in retail internationalisation: (1) *competitive failure* involves the under-performance of the retail operation in comparison to competitors; (2) *operational failure* refers to the inability to transfer operating practices and approaches to the foreign market; (3) *organisational failure* relates to the under-degree of adaptation made to the customer interaction in the target market and; (4) *business failure* relates to the domestic market focus that is a result of difficulties in the home market. An example can be seen in Burt et al.'s (2002) case study of Marks and Spencer's divestment, which due to the organisational wide failure of the company.

The literature on divestment concerns itself with retail failure issues that contribute to a divestment decision and become obstacles to further international expansion (Alexander and Quinn, 2002). Moreover, withdrawal from the international market does not always occur because of market failure in the international operation but may be due to other strategic reasons. Alexander and Quinn (2002) refer to declining profits in the UK as contributing to the divestment decisions of Marks & Spencer in the late 1990s. Palmer (2004) attributes Tesco's divestment experiences to the firm's domestic market focus. In addition, lack of appropriate levels of experience and engagement with foreign operations in the senior managements have also been identified as critical factors in international retail divestment (Alexander and Quinn, 2002; Burt et al. 2003; Alexander et al. 2005; Palmer and Quinn, 2007). Therefore, it is clear that failure and divestment has become significant issues in retail internationalisation, and is observable in various types of retail organizations.

Divestment may occur for different reasons, and is not always as a consequence of failure.

Consumer co-operatives and retail internationalisation

According to Davies and Burt (2007) consumer co-operatives have developed their activities in the international market. A consumers' cooperative is a cooperative organisation owned by its customers/members for their mutual benefit. It is a form of free enterprise that is oriented toward service rather than financial profit. The customers are often also the individuals who have provided the capital required to launch or purchase that enterprise (International Co-operative Alliance, 1995). The major difference between consumers' cooperatives and other forms of business is that the purpose of a consumers' cooperative is to provide quality goods and services at the lowest cost to the consumer while a profit-seeking organisation will selling price as financial gain for investors (International Co-operative Alliance, 1995).

In addition to serving their members, consumers and the local community and society in their original market, many large co-operatives have expanded their operations in other markets of the world. However, these ventures have not always been successful. Davies and Burt (2007) suggested that decline in social commitment, democratic decision-making as well as low capital resource have became barriers to internationalisation and further made consumer co-operatives with less competitive advantage to international expansion. Moreover, adherence to the co-operative principles has constrained consumer co-operatives actives outside their own local market (Wrigley et al. 2005). The result is that the establishment of the concept of consumer's membership appears to be a barrier to successful internationalisation.

2.2.3. Strategies of retail internationalisation

A review o the writings of Porter (1991) and Carpenter and Sanders (2007) suggest that strategy may be defined as the coordinated means by which an organisation pursues its gaols and objectives. A strategy therefore encompasses the pattern of actions that have been taken and those that are planned to be taken by an organisation in pursuing and achieving its objectives (Porter, 1991). According to Carpenter and Sanders (2007), the process of deciding what to do is called as strategy analysis, while strategy implementation and control is the process of performing all the activities necessary to do what has been planned. The two processes are iterative and interdependent that implementation should provide information that is used to periodically modify firm's strategy. Because all firms faced competition when they try to sell products or service to their customers. To achieve its objectives, a firm will have to be perceived by customers as superior to its competitors. Thus, the concept of strategy suggests a relationship between strategy and performance of competitive advantage (Peteraf, 1993). This in turn suggests that a successful competitive strategy is based on the assumption that a firm attempts to achieve a position of competitive advantage over its rivals when serving target customers.

- ***International operational strategies:***

According to Bartlett and Ghoshal (1998) retailers deciding to enter into the international markets are faced with two conflicting operational issues. One is the need to adapt to the local market conditions in order to better satisfy consumer expectation. The other is the desire to better employ their corporate resources in order to benefit from economies of scale. Such conflict according to Bartlett and Ghoshal (1998), suggested that:

"Multinational companies have developed a strategic posture and organisational capability that allows them to be very sensitive and responsive to differences in national environments around the world. Global companies have developed international operations that are much more driven by the need for global efficiency, and much more centralised in their strategic and operational decisions" (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1998, p. 16).

The above statement suggest that some global retailers export standardised store formats under a centralised management, in order to achieve the greatest economies of scale and efficiency benefits while showing the least local responsiveness. Some other retailers, however, employ multinational strategies involving diversified/flexible store formats under a decentralised management, in order to achieve lower cost benefits from integration while showing the greatest local responsiveness (Sternquist, 1997; Wrigley, 2002). In addition a high level of integration within all subsidiaries in the home and host markets has been deemed to be important. Since these policies can lead to apparent contradictions, a position employing a synthesis of the merits of the global and multinational approaches is needed and this has been termed by Treadgold (1990, p.24) as a "trans-national" approach – defined as an attempt to "reconcile the apparently conflicting aims of local responsiveness and global efficiency". According to Clarke and Rimmer (1997), retail firms seeking to achieve global efficiency and, at the same time, respond to the environmental factors in retail and consumer markets, not only within a single national market but also on a worldwide basis, can be categorised into this group. Mcgoldrick and Blair (1995), and Dupuis and Prime (1996), argued that the failure of international retail investment can be partially attributed to the lack of adaptation to the local condition, while the success of international retail firm can be attributed to retailer's willingness to adapt its concept to the local environment.

These considerations appear to suggest that the developing of international retailing activity has produced very diverse styles of operation with a degree of management centralisation, which includes global, multinational and trans-national approaches (Treadgold, 1990). Such diversity appears to present a distinct method that permits this researcher to identify different strategies in the international operation of any retail firm. The more recent developments of the French hypermarket can be clearly described as trans-national activities which have very different overseas markets and diversified formats internationally. They take into consideration local environmental factors under a decentralised management system along with global efficiency, which thus benefits the whole group through the flow of management knowledge gained within both their headquarters and their foreign subsidiaries. Retail firms within the multinational category may operate as an independent entity within each country. Global retail firms, on the other hand, with the benefit of a standardised format, have sufficient marketing powers through international integration to compete in many different markets (Treadgold, 1990; Wrigley, 2000).

According to Wrigley (2000), retailers are learning that all markets are different, with more flexible and decentralised management systems along with the mechanisms such as international sourcing and buying alliances, identified earlier in the present research, have combined to allow diversity and facilitate international operation. The trans-national position looks quite different from this perspective and is seen to be increasingly viable and attractive for international retailers, in particular the food retailers, while attempts to categorise between global and multinational positions may become less important.

- ***Market entry strategies for global retailers:***

Market entry strategy is another dimension of the international retail operation when taking into account the managerial decisions needed to establish operations in overseas markets. The mode of entry is an important component which influences the levels of investment and financial risk (McGoldrick, 1995). A number of alternatives market entry strategies which could be considered by the international retailers who seek to balance high cost/high control options and low cost/low control options. These options can be summarised as follows:

- ***FDI by store development*** *- in which a retail firm opens stores/shops using in-company resources or developed through organic growth from a very modest initial acquisition.*
- ***Merger and acquisition*** *- in which a retail firm takes control over a firm in the host market. This mechanism provides a quick mode of entry but at a cost.*
- ***Joint venture*** *- which can reduce time, cost and risk to a retail firm by working with a firm which is familiar with the host market. The French hypermarket retailers, for example, who entered into distant markets, preferred to set joint venture agreements with indigenous retailers (Burt, 1994). However, some have been terminated due to their not meeting expectations.*
- ***Franchise-type agreements*** *- in which the retail store (franchisee) in the host market uses the ideas, products and/or service of the franchiser based in the home market. This type of entry method can reduce much of the risk and demands upon capital, and is especially appropriate for a market where retailing concepts can easily be exported.*
- ***Strategic investment without operational control*** *- in a retail firm in the host market by a firm from the home market. This option includes concessions and licensing which have the least capital requirement and risk, and the parent company owns no equity and control power in the market (Dawson, 2001; McGoldrick, 1995).*

The advantages and disadvantages of these international operational approaches are summarised in Table 2.2 below. Taking into consideration the difference of operational environment, business practice and the consumer’s preferences in the target market along with the merits and shortcomings of alternative approaches regarding entry mode, retailers may use more than one method as its international operational approach.

Table2.2

Advantages and disadvantages of alternative approaches to establish international operations

Approach	Advantages	Disadvantages
FDI by store development	Can be undertaken by any size of firm. Experimental openings are possible with modest risk and often modest cost. Ability to adapt operation with each subsequent opening. Exit is easy (at least in early stages). Allows rapid prototyping.	Takes a long time to establish a substantial presence. May be seen by top management as a minor diversion. Requirement to undertake full location assessment. More difficult if host market is distant from the home market.
Merger or Acquisition (store swaps)	Substantial market presence quickly achieved. Management already in place. Cash flow is immediate. Possibility of technology transfer to home firm. May be used as a way to obtain locations quickly for conversion to the chosen format.	Difficult to exit if a mistake is made. Evaluation of takeover target is difficult and takes time. Suitable firms may not be available. Substantial top management commitment necessary.
Joint Venture	Possible to link with firm already in market. Help available in climbing learning curve. Possible to move later to either exit or make full entry into the market.	Necessary to share benefits. Difficulties in finding a suitable partner.
Franchise-type Agreements	Rapid expansion of presence possible. Low cost to franchisor. Marginal markets can be addressed. Local management may be used. Wide range of forms of agreement available. Use locally competitive marketing policy. Way of overcoming entry barriers.	Possibly complex legal requirements. Necessary to recruit suitable franchisees. Difficult to control foreign franchisees. May become locked into an unsatisfactory relationship.
Strategic investment without operational control	Find out about market with minimal risk. Allows those who know the market to manage the operation.	Passive position. Investment made over which little influence.

Source: Adapted from Doherty, 1999 and Dawson, 2001.

The internationalisation of French hypermarket retailer - Carrefour, for example, had used franchise-type agreements in Spain, entered Taiwan through setting a joint venture, took over an existing company in Greece and developed internal expansion in Turkey (Burt, 1986 and 1994). Such different approaches applied in different countries can be attributed to the perceived uncertainty of success, the consideration of growth speed and substantial financial risk associated with the chosen entry mode. Using mergers and acquisitions to increase market share is not a new phenomenon, and can be seen in the early development of the French hypermarket retailers in their domestic market. The trends for merger and acquisition are strong in the food retailing industry.

From the above table it appears that the most important factor influencing the international food retailer when considering whether to buy a local established firm; rather than build a new one; is the need for quick strategic growth. Moreover, the costs and risks associated with the establishment of a new business are considered high because of the long planning period and the complex dynamics of the retail environment. Other factors associated with merger and acquisition lie in the changing environment in the host market, which include political, economic, social and cultural factors; these influence a foreign company's need to respond by the making of constant adjustments to their planned proposals (Kacker, 1985).

Retail store format has also been shown to have an influence on the entry mode adaptation. Researchers have pointed out that joint ventures or acquisitions may be more appropriate for mass merchandise or large grocery retailers (Dawson, 1993; Muñiz-Martínez, 1998). Evidence can be seen in the recent development of a quick consolidation in the world's major retail markets through mergers and acquisitions by large European food retailers during the 1990s. The most significant example is provided by Wal-Mart, the world's largest retailer, whose entry challenged the European food retailers (Dawson, 1993). Wrigley and Currah (2003), provide evidence which suggests that after Wal-Mart entered Germany through the acquisition of 21 Wertkauf hypermarkets in 1997 and 74 Spar Handels hypermarkets in 1998 followed by the purchase in 1999 of ASDA superstore which had 229 stores in the UK and fears of further hostile takeovers from Wal-Mart and a continuing wave of consolidation resulted in a rapid expansion of large European food retailers in the emerging markets which, in turn, has transformed the international food retailing landscape. Nevertheless the big three, i.e. Wal-Mart, Carrefour and Ahold have continued to dominate the retail market of Latin America.

Other factors relating to consolidation arises from the benefits of potential cost saving, increasing global negotiating power and creating a global scale in a highly capital-intensive industry. These factors according to Wrigley (2002) have resulted in similar patterns of consolidation by merger and acquisition in East Asia and Eastern Europe. However, empirical evidence of the market entry in these distant markets by those large European food retailers has shown a slightly different version of merger and acquisition. It appears European retailers usually enter into a joint venture program with locally established retailers motivated by a controlling interest, which then increases ownership through new store opening; over time they acquire more and ultimately acquire complete ownership.

Another example of retail internationalisation, without needing an operational unit outside the home market, is to collaborate with other retailers and/or wholesalers (Treadgold, 1990). Cross-border alliance has become an international retailing co-operation and expansion pattern in recent years, in particular, alliances (e.g. CMI, MGE and EURO Group) between the European food retailers. Four types of alliance, purchasing-led, developmental, skills-based and expansionist, have been identified in Treadgold's (1990) research, which outlines many forms of co-operation including purchasing, sourcing, logistics, product development and promotion within international retailers. A comprehensive investigation exploring international alliances in European food retailing can be found in the research of Robinson and Clarke-Hill (1995). These approaches, they suggest, have further facilitated the speed, scale and efficiency of international expansion.

Some research put strong emphasis on the success factors of retail internationalisation, these factors include efficient logistics system, extensive internal communications, ability to alter consumer store choice (Arnold, 1999). Arnold (1999) noted that Wal-Mart has competitive advantages derived from the determinant location, price and assortment and store choice attributes. However, acquisition as an international expanding strategy has faced challenges from large European retailers and cultural differences may result in different consumer perception on Wal-Mart's image which might not be favourable to and even detract from its competitive advantage.

- ***A strategic international retail expansion model***

As a result of competitive pressure from domestic and international market, retailers were forced to re-evaluate their international strategies (Alexander 1990). Simpson and Thorpe (1995) identified four independent elements, Product-Lifestyle-Image-Niche or (PLIN) model, as preconditions in the global expansion decision-making process. They suggest that Product, Lifestyle, Image and Niche emerged characteristic of those retailers who were found to differentiate themselves successfully within their domestic and international markets. If retailers established themselves as a collective differential advantage of these four elements within their domestic market, then those retailers can apply this PLIN model as a framework to guide their strategic decisions--this may increase the likelihood of a successful operation in international markets.

Sternquist (1997) suggested that US retailers can apply the Strategic International Retail Expansion (SIRE) model to predict future expansion. The SIRE model combines ideas presented in four interconnected theories: global and multinational expansion theory, eclectic theory, stages theory and risk theory. The concepts in these theories are ownership advantages, location advantages, internalisation advantages, global strategies, multinational strategies, expansion stages and risk. The SIRE model requires retailers to either use a global strategic expansion strategy, or a multinational expansion strategy. In order to use global strategic expansion strategy, retailers may internalise their international expansion by opening their own stores with rapid expansion throughout the world. Alternatively, retailers may externalise their international expansion by franchising their operations throughout the world. It allows the company to expand at a very rapid rate but with little control over the direction of the company (Sternquist, 1997).

On the other hand, retailers adopting the multinational expansion strategy may internalise their international expansion by opening their own stores in stages, beginning with countries with the greatest location advantages. Alternatively, retailers may externalise their international expansion by licensing their operations beginning with countries with the greatest location advantages (Sternquist, 1997). Franchising has found favour with retailers without the asset of internationalisation that is characteristic of the niche retailers (Quinn and Alexander, 2002).

2.2.4. Global food retailers engaged in retail internationalisation

Appendix A provides a list of global grocery retailers and their ranking based on 2007 net sales. The main purpose of this list was to identify the key players in the food retail internationalisation already operating or wishing to operate in emerging markets. Table 2.3 provides a list of the big players in Taiwan and the Asia-Pacific region with their home-base in Europe and the United States of America.

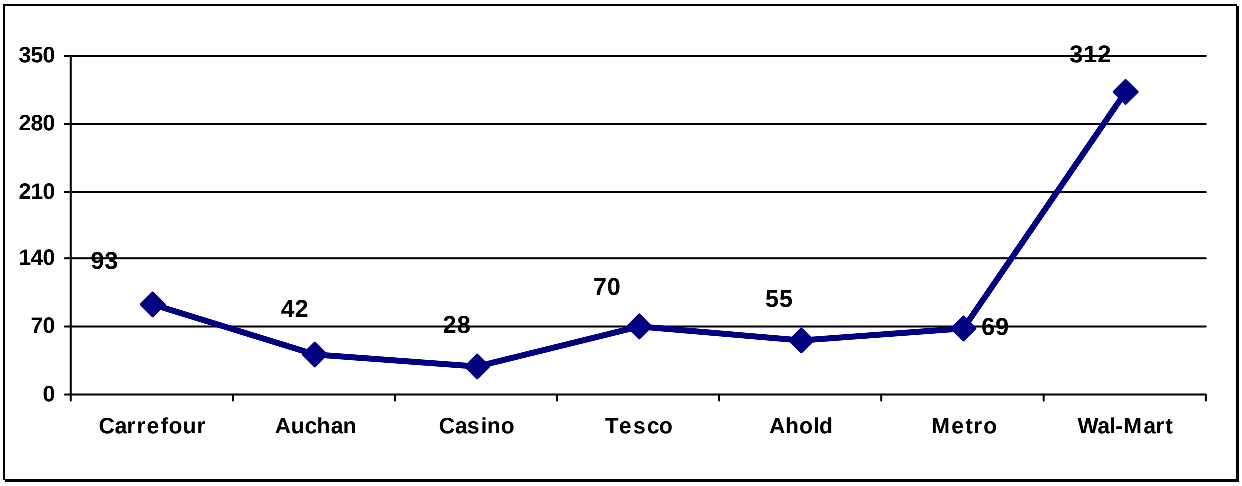
Table 2.3
List of the big players in Taiwan and the Asia-Pacific Region
Source: See Appendix A

Global Food Retailers – **Hypermarkets**	**Home-base**	**Host market**
Europe		
Carrefour 92.6	France	**Taiwan**; Indonesia; South Korea; Thailand
Auchan 41.8	France	**Taiwan**; China
Casino 28.3	France	**Taiwan**; Thailand; Vietnam
Tesco 69.6	UK	**Taiwan;** Malaysia; South Korea; Thailand
Ahold 55.3	Netherlands	**Not in Taiwan;** Latvia; Poland
Metro 69.3	Germany	**Not in Taiwan;** Japan; Vietnam
United States of America		
Wal-Mart 312.4	USA	**Not in Taiwan**; China; South Korea; Mexico

From the net sales figure in Appendix A, it is apparent that the major food retailers with their home-base in Europe, UK and U.S.A and Japan, have shown keen interest in global food retailing. From the Figure 2.1 below, it can be seen that US food retailer Wal-Mart has a high sales performance although it is still not operating in Taiwan against competitors such as Carrefour and Auchan from France.

It is important to mention that two relatively new players in international markets, the grocery retailers Wal-Mart and Tesco who have, in their more recent entry into the international market, attracted much attention both in the retail food sector and in academic circles (Arnold, 1999; Fernie and Arnold, 2002; Palmer, 2005). Wal-Mart shows net sales of US$ 312.4 billion while Tesco (UK) has followed a similar pattern particularly in the newly emerging markets where they have radically increased foreign sales in recent years. In facing such a challenge from the emerging competitors, the traditional international leading retailers in France and Germany have responded by operating very different store formats and multi-channels (e.g. warehouse outlet and on-line grocery business) of internationalisation across different markets, experimenting with alternative market entry strategies and organisational structures, which, in turn, have evoked much attention (Wrigley and Lowe, 2002).

Figure 2.1
Trends in Sales Performance
Source: adapted from www.planetretail.cet; Appendix A



Note: Net sales, 2007, in USD Billion.

Wal-Mart, a relatively new entrant of international retailing, opened its first overseas store in Mexico in 1991 and until the year 2004 it has had formats in ten countries (Colla and Dupuis, 2002). The speed and scope of expansion is faster than that experienced by other leading retailers. It goes without saying China, Germany and South Korea are geographically distant and culturally dissimilar while in Germany and the UK they face considerable competitive force - factors that may have proved a deterrent to their further expansion in Europe. Reviewing its domestic development, it is evident that Wal-Mart is far from having completely exploited the North American market; a considerable growth may be seen in its supercentre format (Vida, 2000). However, neither their overseas retail operating experience nor the lack of domestic growth opportunities emerge as factors influencing Wal-Mart's international expansion. In this sense, it can be argued that the theoretical assumptions of eclectic, stage theory and push and pull factors have been superseded. A study related to these very specific issues and greater knowledge of their effects is much needed in the field of retail internationalisation in order to clarify and validate any assumptions about Wal-Mart's present or future activities.

Other leading international food retailers strive for competitive advantage with low price, while they have a different approach to international expansion. Wal-Mart's business philosophy is based on the cooperation with the retail supply chain along with a focus on cost reduction, which in turn leads to an increase in competitive force while simultaneously increasing profitability (Seiders and Tigert, 2000). On the other hand, major leading EU food retailers have shown their interest lies in controlling the supply chain through product design and production, purchasing cooperation or promotion of own brands (Colla and Dupuis, 2002). This contrasting managerial style indicates opportunity for a research theme that focuses upon the strategic evaluation regarding supply chain management.

Wal-Mart's competitive advantage comes from its management experience in general merchandise and textile products and an "every day low price" marketing strategy, as well as the adoption of the latest information technologies and centralised management system (Seiders and Tigert, 2000). On the other hand, major competitors of Wal-Mart have succeeded in exporting the French hypermarket concept into the developing markets; giving consideration to local needs, cooperating with local suppliers and implementing a much decentralised management system (Cliquet, 2000). Clearly, it is too early to suggest that increased international geographical expansion or global scale are the key factors to success. However, discovering how to succeed in different markets within increasingly competitive environments is becoming essential because some of the leading retailers are facing difficulty in overseas markets.

Moreover, research on the competition that exists between the current world leading retailers, Wal-Mart and Carrefour, has revealed that retail internationalisation has become a strategic priority for most international retailers and gives some indication of the speed of development and geographic scope over previous international activities (Colla and Dupuis, 2002). However, the limited international coverage and number of stores of individual retailers addressed in the study questions the assumptions drawn from information on international competitive advantage.

The work by Arnold and Fernie (2000), suggest that mergers, acquisitions and joint ventures have become major retail internationalisation strategies in global food retailing markets particularly when green field investments not only consume much time but are unpredictable when attempts are made to assess future success or failure rates. In Germany and the UK, Wal-Mart has acquired a significant market share and created a fierce price war aimed at weakening the competitors' profitability and making them easier to acquire (Arnold and Fernie, 2000). France could be the next target market for Wal-Mart's European expansion. However, the characteristics of firms targeted for acquisition, which are either family-owned, voluntary trading groups or co-operatives, could make any acquisition in France quite difficult (Fernie and Arnold, 2002). Furthermore, Wal-Mart’s expansion has led to the erection of barriers by other large food retailers, themselves experiencing limitation of expansion options, where competition is fierce between companies seeking similar acquisition targets. Therefore, it would appear that a mega-acquisition could become the only alternative should Wal-Mart aggressively seek to achieve growth projections.

The forgoing industry and competitor analyses suggest that international expansion could increase the value of the firm. However, the work of Seiders and Tigert (2000), suggest that size and scale are not critical factors for success in international development - success may more often relate to other factors. Research regarding comparison of different formats that is more relevant to internationalisation i.e. identification of successful models or investigation of companies whose international retailing development strategies have proved to be more successful than that of others, is limited. Hollander (1970) has noted that European retailers, who followed the example of US international retailers in their approach to international expansion before the 1970s, have within more recent phases of international development, applied international retail concepts and operations, and have been more dynamic than their US counterparts in the global marketplace (Akehurst and Alexander, 1995). On the other hand, most Japanese international retailers are focussed upon the department store format and are not following any developed examples from counterparts but continue to focus on North America and on increasing their penetration on the Southeast Asia market (Chen and Sternquist, 1995). This appears to partially explain why Wal-Mart and other big global food retailers may be reluctant to enter Taiwan because it might face fierce competition from Carrefour, Auchan, Casino from France and Tesco from the United Kingdom.

2.2.5. Global retail markets: the US, EU and the emerging markets

It is evident from the literature that retail development does not simply response to declining sales or market share in domestic market. Retail development has been influenced by a variety of factors, which influence the direction and decision-making (Myers and Alexander, 2007). On the other hand, domestic market conditions were a barrier to the initiation of foreign expansion, whilst the cultural difference, regulatory environment and previous experiences presented obstacles in the process of retail internationalisation (Dawson, 2001). The nature of retail internationalisation has been categorized in various terms including push and pull factors (Alexander, 1990; Williams, 1992a), proactive and reactive motivations (Wrigley and Currah, 2003) and internal and external characteristics (Vida 2000), which have been discussed in the previous sections.

Changes in demographic characteristics and increasing competition have been suggested as key factors influencing the nature of retail development (Guy, 1994, 1996; Lucas et al., 1994). Population growth has shown slowdown in many markets, however, change in age structure and in consumer tastes and preferences have been important in encouraging the development of new consumer goods, new retail formats and new forms of retail marketing. Studying the relationships between consumer demand, demographic characteristics, and preferences and choices help retailers to segment population into particular geographical areas for particular range of products and marketing strategies. It also helps retailers to adjust the marketing mix and store image to the tastes and preferences of the local socio-demographic characteristics (Guy, 1994; Carpenter and Moore, 2006). The slowdown of population growth and aging of the population will slowdown household formation and contribute to the intensity of retail competition (Guy, 1996). The number and types of competitors increased along with technological advance have further forced the change in retail development both in domestic and international marketplaces (Alexander, 1997).

The changing retail environment has also raised attention to the impediments of retail development. The literature has identified a range of factors, such as government regulation, economic instability, socio-cultural difference and different retail system including distribution and business operations as impediments for retail internationalisation (Alexander, 1997; Burt et al. 2003; Palmer, 2005). Regarding a firm's ability to expand, Salmon and Tordjman (1989) suggested that a firm's own factors relating to lack of resources, knowledge, and international connection in addition to management's attitude and experience to foreign expansion and the perception of risk are the major impediments for retail development. These factors can also become drivers or inhibitors of retail development. Cultural and psychic distance has been viewed as impediments for retail development. However, Evans et al. (2000) suggest that the perception of differences between markets by retailers may encourage retail firm seek opportunities in less developed markets.

The fundamental shift in direction to emerging markets in the 1990s by large food retailers based in the Single European Market has been seen either as a fundamental predetermining factor for pan-EU retail development, or as a facilitating factor for retail internationalisation across EU countries' by removing barriers to trade (Alexander, 1995). In his research, Hallsworth (1992) suggested that the Single European Market might be seen as a contingency while the continuing pressures for growth in new markets can be seen as a contextual event. Thus, the appearance of a Single European Market can be seen as a facilitating factor for international retailing expansion within Europe. According to Alexander (1997) the Single European Market has brought about a perception of European integration in political, economic, social and even cultural sectors coupled with geographical proximity, cultural similarity and continuing economic prosperity have further encouraged expansion within this market. It follows therefore that any research based on an understanding of environmental factors can be explained as stemming from retailers' awareness of and abilities to penetrate into non-domestic markets.

Based on risk perception by British retailers' international experience, Burt (1993) has suggested that UK retailer's international expansion is primarily determined by three determinants: cultural similarity, geographical proximity and the stage of developing retail market in the host market. Likewise, the international growth path of most EU retailers identified by Pellegrini (1994) referred to geographical diversification in term of original, adjacent, or distance nations. Using empirical research, Vida (2000) identifies US retailers' international expansion strategy favoured culturally similar overseas markets. Other research has recognised the economic distance (Myers and Alexander, 1996), business distance (Dupuis and Prime, 1996) and psychic distance (Evans et al, 2000) between home and host market as one of the major obstructions or deterrents for retail internationalisation. Such research is therefore of help in following research on retailer internationalisation processes. Dupuis and Prime (1996) identify key determinants of success/failure in international investment. Alexander and Quinn (2002) explore factors relating to retailer divestment and withdrawal from international activity. Burt et al, (2003) offer the physical distance concept to explain variations in organisational performance and expansion pattern of retailers operating in the international arena.

Environmental factors and the characteristics of the retail organisation were identified as the key dynamic forces which influence the propensity of a global retailer to move from the home market towards internationalisation in the host market (Alexander, 1990; William, 1992a; Cliquet, 2000). The competitive position of global retailers is influenced by retail store formats and consumer behaviour in host markets (Davies, 1995; Seiders and Tigert, 1997; Burt and Carralero-Encinas, 2000). From this it can be seen that the attractiveness of a ‘store format’ and the ‘preferences of consumers’ in turn influence retail internationalisation strategies that are implemented in the host market. However, issues around the increasing competition from both home and host retailers and explanations of the shift of consumer behaviour in the host market have not yet been fully explained – this provides a justification for the thesis. It raises a fundamental question as to whether or not global retailers have the core competencies and capabilities to achieve and sustain competitive advantage in the host market.

A historical approach provided by Alexander (1997), outlines a changing geographical focus of international activity. The role of the US retailers, important to international activity until the early 1970s, has somewhat diminished. Europe, far from being the focus of much US retailer activity, has become the exporter of retail operations. Asia grew in importance as a potential market during the 1980s and early 1990s. Despite Alexander’s indication that the US has lost its lead in international sales, it can be argued, based on the sales data as shown in Appendix A, that the US retailers in both home and overseas markets may play important roles. This trend does not extend to overseas markets however and in addition, since Alexander’s research focuses on the role of the U.S. and EU retailers while neglecting other international environmental factors and the environment of an individual country, it is open to criticism. Kacker (1985) and Dawson (1993) have suggested that the importance of environmental factors for a nation, play a greater or less important role in deciding the success of an international firm. However, they only place emphasis on the influence of entry barriers to retail internationalisation, without considering the long term influence of the national environment.

Information retrieved from Appendix A indicates that there is a common trend for large food retailers to move in a geographical direction which is international and this has been recognised as an important theme within retail literature. The literature demonstrates the importance of geographical trends in retail internationalisation and provides additional information on the internationalisation process. In the literature, there is a generally accepted pattern that retailers initially look for geographical proximity or culturally similar markets and then move into more distant and/or diverse markets, particularly those that offer the attractions of large prosperous markets together with an under-developed or developing retail structure. This has been interpreted as retailers looking into and seeking to fully exploit familiar markets before moving into unfamiliar regions; a sequential movement from low-risk to high-risk destinations. Previous studies of retail internationalisation have suggested that retailers within the EU have followed these patterns (e.g. Burt, 1993). In the French case, the initial preference is for culturally close markets such as Spain, and geographically close markets such as Western Europe, with a slow dispersion of activity to more culturally diverse and geographically distant markets over time. Such activities are intuitively reasonable and fit with the assumption of stage approachand the reduction of physical distance and market risk.

In addition, research relating to the development of European food retailers' internationalisation from the 1950s to the 2000s shows that international activities started in the late 1950s, peaked in the mid 1970s and resumed later to reach a high point in the early 1980s (Burt, 1991). European retailers demonstrated a significant shift in the direction of internationalisation in the 1990s, from an orientation toward developed markets to one of newly emerging markets. Alexander and Silva (2002) identify three factors associated with this wave of international expansion. Geopolitical and economic factors were associated with the emerging markets, while competitive factors were related to retailers themselves.

Initially, political change opened the Central and Eastern European market during the late 1980s and early 1990s. Then, as a consequence, East Europe emerged as a major commercial market for EU international retailers during the 1990s. The literature on the retailing development of East Europe demonstrates the existence and exploitation of such opportunities. At the same time, the dramatic economic growth in the East and South East Asian markets (e.g. Korea, Japan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Thailand and China) provided even more investment opportunities. The development and expansion patterns have been well documented (Trappey and Lai, 1997; Alexander and Myers, 1999; Kamath and Godin, 2001). Finally a larger number of EU and U.S. international retailers have also experienced highly competitive conditions within their home markets where retail structure had already reached an advanced stage and competition became sophisticated, persuading them to look beyond their traditional markets (Muñiz-Martínex, 1998; Arnold and Fernie, 2000).

Therefore, in conjunction with the market opportunities in East Europe, East and South East Asia, international retailers have moved their direction of expansion from highly developed markets to new emerging markets. Within this wave of retail internationalisation, however, South America seemed to be a relatively untouched region from the 1990s onwards. Alexander and Silva (2002) have accounted for this phenomenon as being due to the economic instability (e.g. high inflation rate) of the area. This is coupled with the reluctance of the international retailers who have an inability to deal with the socio-cultural issues in the South American area.

Political change in Central and Eastern Europe and the change in economic climate in Eastern Asia in the 1990s led to their becoming targets for international retailing investment. A number of large food retailers have been seen to transfer their retail concepts and operations to these areas (Palmer, 2005). Many issues associated with this wave of retail internationalisation have received much academic attention in the international context. On the other hand, the influences of socio-cultural differences of consumers and business practice on the success of retail internationalisation within a national boundary seem to receive less attention in the literature. Nonetheless, it is useful to investigate international retail operations within national borders because it sheds light upon and gives meaning to the consequences of political and regulatory, economic, social and cultural environments within which international retailers operate.

As retailers with overseas' operations have a required need for higher amounts of financial and managerial resources to support the overseas investments. It reinforces the need for retailers to search for geographic opportunities with low start-up costs when initially establishing the new operation. Based on Dunning's (1988) eclectic paradigm, it can be postulated that retailers with concept, product, or process innovated advantages will continue to search for overseas operations with location advantage. That is to say, retailers with sound financial and managerial resources have a strong impetus to spread their expertise across their national borders. However, the analysis of the volume of their sales vis-à-vis the countries of operation did not suggest that those retailers with great international involvement have significantly higher sales than those who did not. In other words, international expansion is not necessarily the only growth approach for the larger retailers. Small retailers may also be forced to expand into overseas operation in order to avoid saturation and competition at domestic market level. Moreover, retailers with growing foreign sales indicate promising opportunities in these markets and this reinforces the possibility of their further international involvement (Chen and Sternquist, 1995).

2.3. Impact of consumer grocery shopping behaviour on the sales performance of hypermarkets internationalisation including Taiwan

A review of the works of McGoldrick (1995), Arnold (1999), Fernie and Arnold (2002) and Palmer (2005) suggest that retail internationalisation has led to large-scale growth and development of international businesses. It has provided most global retailers with a picture of geographical/physical distance, cross national boundaries of operation outside of the home market, penetration into international environments and overseas markets. However, a critical review of the work of Dupuis and Prime (1996) reveal inconsistent sales performance of hypermarkets operating in Taiwan and in other Asia-Pacific countries since 1989, this trend may be linked to lack of understanding of Taiwanese shopping preferences and choices (Dawson, 1994; Burt and Carralero-Encinas, 2000). This raises the question whether or not global food retailers such as Carrefour, Tesco and others already operating in Taiwan are able to sustain their competitive advantage in Taiwan. This observation provides a rationale for further research to understand what attracts Taiwanese consumers the most to different store formats such as hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. The main focus is on how global retailers use hypermarket store formats to attract grocery shoppers. There is therefore a need to identify the key store attributes, variables or factors relating to store image which impact on consumer shopping preferences and choices.

2.3.1. The emergence of hypermarkets and their development

Analysis of the historical development of hypermarkets by Alexander (1997) has revealed the chronological importance of different store formats and retail types in different stages of internationalisation. This work provides evidence regarding the changing nature of international retail expansion patterns. The department store has had a major impact on the retail structures of developed and developing markets but characterises earlier periods of internationalisation (Chen and Sternquist, 1995). The variety store, likewise, has had an important role in the early development of international activity. The superstore, hypermarket and discount store have continued to play an important role in the process - more recently international activity is characterised by the multiple organisation (Cliquet, 2000; Colla, 2003).

- ***The definition and concept of hypermarkets***

Since hypermarkets appeared in Europe they have had a remarkable impact upon consumer preference, i.e. the choices consumers make when they shop, as well as the historical sector of the retail market (Cliquet, 2000). The revolution brought about by the emergence of hypermarkets in North America, particularly in the United States where they are commonly known as “supercentres” and the market entry effect has also brought about an increase in academic studies of the phenomenon. Carrefour from France was the leader of the hypermarket adoption, and according to Cliquet (2000), it was responsible for merging the concept of French department store and variety (discount) store in 1963 with that of the American supermarket. The advantages for consumers that this brought about were free admission, broad choice of a variety of products and freedom to choose and make comparisons between quality, quantity and price through the concept of self-service. It further permits quick and simple service with a single pay point as well as free car parking facilities.

Seiders and Tigert (2000) developed Cliquet's definition of hypermarkets and suggested that the Wal-Mart supercentre concept is only a very slightly changed version of the hypermarket concept. This idea, however, is difficult to verify due to the profuse number of terms or expressions, contained in an equally profuse number of academic work by authors such as Kaas (1994), Seiders and Tigert (1997), Arnold et al. (1998) among others, who refer to stores of the "pile them high, sell them cheap" concept (Harris and Ogbonna, 2001). Terms like "large format, big box, multinational discounter, large discount chain store, large scale retailer, market spoiler, one stop shopping format, mass merchandiser, multi-market retailer, and supercentre" often refer to hypermarkets. These retail stores can be characterised as large superstructures, about 150,000 – 200,000 square feet (Levy & Weitz, 2001) of modern design with a variety of shopping facilities, wide choice under one roof and ample free car parks. They carry a full range of supermarket products, discount department store products and include such items as off the shelf medications and a range of cosmetics and toiletries (Seiders & Tigert, 2000).

Consequently the hypermarket/supercentre can be defined as a single concept, one that has evolved or developed organically originating in Carrefour in 1963. Later development of the hypermarket/supercentre concept can be characterised by out-of-city centre location, one-stop shopping, large car parks, multiple choices and low prices (Burt, 1986; Cliquet, 2000; Kamath & Godin, 2001). Over time they have incorporated information technologies for improved management. These, through the use of electronic point of sale technology, include product scanning to facilitate inventory control and ordering and logistics, category management, relational marketing and advertising. Integrating new technology assists the operation of the hypermarket to maintain low margins while retaining a satisfactory profit level (Jones & Doucet 2000). Customers have not, however, achieved the benefits of the growth of this retail sector without some sacrifices. Hypermarket users have chosen variety and price over the convenience of having shops on every corner, a choice influenced by the growth in personal transport, and the family car. This is evident in the provision by the hypermarket retailer of massive car parks, vehicle accessories and related services (such as car wash and valeting and petrol pump provision) in addition to the consequent requirement of out of town location (González-Benito, 2005).

- ***Impact of government intervention on hypermarket development in Europe and emerging markets***

It is necessary, at this point, to address some of the political implications of the social and economic changes which influence the development of the hypermarket. The changes in the structure of the retail sector had serious consequences for owners of small retail establishments throughout Europe and particularly it had a profound impact upon the French independent retailer (Burt. 1984; Cliquet 2000). In France the retail sector had historically been dominated by high margin/high priced family owned businesses heavily supported by government initiatives. Innovative approaches were perceived as a threat to existing institutions and, since the sector was already politically influenced, the new situation was perceived to also require intervention in the form of Loi Royer legislation enacted in December 1973, to control retail development. However, this intervention had little effect upon the development of hypermarkets (Cliquet 2000). This situation may be explained by a number of facts, for example retailers were encouraged to devise new strategies and customers to make lifestyle choices. In addition, the government also supported the modernisation of the retail sector. The growth of hypermarkets continued in the various French regions at the expense of the variety stores in spite of the presence of the Loi Royer legislation. Moreover, this growth developed throughout the whole retail sector in France, maintaining a strong merger and acquisition pattern of expansion. The share of retail sales and the total floor space taken up by hypermarkets continued to increase despite the legislative intervention (Burt 1984). As a result distribution channels in the domestic market became dominated by large retailers, and retail development progressed not only as a localised commercial sector composed of small scale operations but also of large retail operations that gradually affected the economic development of the domestic market.

Furthermore, after large retailers had reached a stage where the domestic market had limited opportunities, they eventually looked beyond the domestic market, encouraging the development of large retailers into the international market (Burt, 1991). For large retailers, international retailing was no longer simply an option but was a necessity, providing retailers with opportunities for concept development. Consequently, the French retail developing experience not only revolutionised the French market but also that of other European nations. Thus, in the late 1960s and early 1970s, as highlighted by Burt (1984), there was a period of intense international retail activity by European retailers within Europe. However, the economic uncertainty of the mid 1970s to the early 1980s had led many large food retailers to seek development in North America and emerging markets (Kacker, 1985). Moreover, the integration within the European Community in the 1980s and 1990s played an important role in facilitating retail internationalisation in Europe (Akehurst and Alexander, 1995). The French experience would tend to indicate that, while government regulations may have a short-term influence upon the development of the retail sector, there will inevitably be a reaction by retailers. It is evident that, through the exploitation of domestic diversity and by innovative techniques like the introduction of new technologies, hypermarket retailers will pursue the long term aims of expansion, not only within national boundaries but internationally as well (Dupuis & Prime, 1996). At the end of the 1980s these retailers began seeking, through international expansion, the optimisation of profits by accessing foreign niche markets.

The French hypermarket retailers were active and successful in developing new outlets in Southern Europe, Central and South America and in the Far East (Farhangmehr et al., 2001; Alexander & Myers 1999). This success was not, however, matched in other ventures in the United States of America. It has been hypothesised that a number of factors influenced this lack of success. This could possibly be through a lack of understanding of consumer behaviour in the United States coupled with the inability to achieve economies of scale required to maximise profit with low costs (Seiders and Tigert, 2000). Consequently the French retailers, namely Carrefour, Auchan, Giant Family and Leedmark, who made inroads into the U.S. market and later withdrew, will have had similar experiences due to lack of knowledge about local competition, unfamiliarity with the environment and the socio-economic climate of the country (Muñiz-Martínez, 1998; Tordjman, 1988; Cliquet, 2000).

The experiences of the French hypermarket retailers seem to indicate that migration into already well developed countries with intense modern retail systems, such as in the United States, is not deemed to be a successful way to proceed. However the experience of the hypermarket in Taiwan (Dupuis & Prime, 1996), where it has been possible to demonstrate a competitive advantage and reduce the competitive power of existing retail outlets, would appear to indicate that hypermarkets may succeed much better in less well developed countries.

Moreover, Dupuis & Prime (1996) have suggested that the initial success of the hypermarket in Taiwan could have resulted from a sound national environment there. It is possible to hypothesise that the political intervention or retail developing regulation, economic climate, social change, consumer lifestyle and cultural environment were favourable to the development of the hypermarket. Nevertheless, the hypermarket's initial success in Taiwan may not guarantee its long-term growth in the newly emerging market. It can be argued that they are enjoying "first-mover[1] advantage" when first they open in a developing market. However, the first mover status may not maintain long-term competitive advantages because of uncontrollable factors such as the competition from the other retail formats (Kerin et al. 1992).

- ***Impact of hypermarket on other retail sector***

Investigating the market entry effects of the hypermarket store formats into a new environment reveals conflicting explanations. One argument suggests that in addition to presenting the individual consumer with selective product choice and a level of competitive pricing, consumers are provided with a fresh, new and in some way more attractive shopping environment (Arnold & Luthra 2000). There are corresponding community benefits, too, in that competition is stimulated, there are innovative approaches to the business, and entrepreneurship and market productivity are promoted. This situation is greatly helped by the encouragement and active participation in their projects by local authorities who frequently perceive the hypermarket store format as a stimulant to their town's economic growth and prosperity. On the other hand, criticism of the hypermarket concept comes particularly from those who seek a degree of personal service and professional expertise. Some

[1] Rahman and Bhattacharyya (2003, p. 141) define first-mover as "a firm which is first to sell goods and services which consumers consider are dissimilar to and having attractive price performance ratio compared to goods and services currently available in the domestic market".

customers, it is argued, will move away from the impersonal approach and sales will diminish as a consequence (Arnold & Luthra 2000).

According to Jones and Doucet (2000) the entry of hypermarket into the host market brings about a change of competitive force in terms of the indigenous and/or traditional retailers. Most noteworthy is the fact that the concentration and agglomerations of large store retailers have generated a retail spill-over effect and become major shopping destinations (Jones and Doucet, 2000). Moreover, it is evident from studies done by Arnold & Luthra (2000) and also by Davidson & Rummel (2000) that there is a significant impact upon the business of small retailers stemming from the arrival of a hypermarket. The latter study indicates that the arrival of a hypermarket store in an area has a significantly beneficial effect upon the trade of small retailers in that area but demonstrates a corresponding negative effect upon small retailers in neighbouring areas. Generally the hypermarkets benefit from the arrival of consumers from neighbouring areas to their markets and bring investment over from those markets. This argument suggests that the arrival of a hypermarket has the potential of changing consumer shopping habits due to its new retailing structure - this appears to be a feature that occurs frequently.

In the study of impact of market entry, the attacking hypermarkets brought increased variation in the attributes levels, many of the original retail sectors had been re-evaluated in a fairly negative way, and consumers are motivated to re-evaluated competing hypermarkets on attributes of perceived importance (Seiders and Tigert, 1997, 2000). Focus on the impact of hypermarket on supermarkets, Seider and Tigert (2000) suggested that the supermarket primary shoppers were less willing to trade off location convenience, quality and product assortment. Facing strong competition form hypermarkets, the Chilean supermarket retailers imitated the marketing practices of hypermarkets and adapted their retail offer to satisfy Chilean needs (Bianchi and Mena, 2004). A study on the impact of the hypermarkets in Portuguese retail system shows that with the exception of supermarkets, all other retail stores had negative financial results, in particular the traditional market. The retailers of traditional markets identified low prices, product assortments and long opening hours as sources of competitive advantage for hypermarkets; while close relationship with customers was their main advantage and the small scale was their main weakness (Farhangmehr et al., 2001).

In order for hypermarkets to survive, Arnold and Luthra (2000) suggested complementary merchandise, such as: upscale products, greater variety in a specific category, extended hours of operation, improved customer service skills and refined return policies. Davidson and Rummel, (2000) suggested that traditional retailers should differentiate themselves from hypermarkets by increasing product assortments in the key categories, upgrading branded products not available to hypermarkets, and maintaining good in-stock positions. Since the hypermarkets have affected a large portion of the population, Arnold and Luthra (2000) further suggested that existing retailers should focus on the shopper segments that are not drawn towards hypermarkets.

Farhangmehr et al. (2000) found significant differences between the traditional retail sectors in their responses to the new hypermarket competition in Braga, Portugal. For example, traditional grocery stores were less inclined, compared to specialist retailers, to invest in training, to search for new suppliers or to enter into partnerships with other retailers for the purchase of goods or the development of promotional campaigns. Although there were some differences between those who were negatively affected by hypermarkets, Farhangmehr et al. (2000) suggested that traditional small retailers appeared either unwilling or unable to enact a competitive response. The emergence of hypermarkets has deeply changed the retail structure and the major impact is on traditional retail sector and, in particular, on the traditional food market.

The most significant influence of hypermarket internationalisation according to Arnold et al. (1998) is its effects on competitive market structure, particularly with respect to consumers' preferences in host market. This helps in identifying a research gap in terms of the lack of research into consumer behaviour in the context of Taiwan and other emerging markets in the Asia-Pacific region. This thesis would attempt to document the effects of introducting of hypermarket and supermarket store formats in Taiwan on grocery shoppers.

- ***Impact of hypermarket on traditional Taiwanese retail sector***

The fast transformation of traditional retail sector including supermarket and traditional markets has been sweeping across the emerging markets of Asia-Pacific region, Central and Eastern Europe, and Latin America over the past decade (Alexander and Myers, 1999; Alexander and Silva, 2002; Bianchi and Mena, 2004; Palmer, 2005). That transformation has been driven not only by forces such as urbanization and income growth in the emerging markets, but also by inflow of direct investment on retail sector particular the hypermarkets, this in turn brought about retail driven restructured of the food retail system (Wrigley and Lowe, 2007). The impact of hypermarket on Taiwanese supermarkets and traditional markets is discussed below.

The predominant feature of the Taiwanese supermarket is its chain operation (Trappey and Lai, 1997a). Its customers are mostly single individuals, working women, small families and residents of communities (Ou, 2002). However, because of competition from the hypermarkets and the traditional markets the progress of opening new supermarket stores has almost been suspended in recent years, leading to supermarket retailers refurbishing their outlets to make them more pleasant and conducive for shopping. The development has tended to move to suburbs and to large supermarkets (Syu, 2001). At the end of 2003, through merger and acquisition of the two leading supermarket chains, Wellcome has 160 stores; and Sung-Ching has 80 stores. Both operate on a national scale and dominate 60% of the supermarket share (DGBAS, 2005).

As a result of competition from the hypermarkets, the competitive strategy of supermarkets is to increase sales by introducing new products, enhancing the fresh items and providing more convenient service. Wellcome supermarket issued a mail order magazine to compensate for its smaller shopping area and introduced its own label products as compared to that of the hypermarket (Ou, 2002). Sung-Ching supermarket, introduced its 'Health, Convenience and Fresh' business concept which provided health, natural and organic fresh food, offered competitive price and quality food by cooperating with farmers' and fishermen' associations. Promoting of internet shopping and home delivery service for club card members were also provided by the supermarkets (Syu, 2001). Another trend has been seeing the opening of the new upmarket supermarket, which offers a new shopping experience, targeting at middle to high income groups and providing exclusive European and Japanese food stuffs (Huang and Bouis, 2001). Moreover, to compete with the hypermarkets retailers, the supermarket retailers have set strategic alliances with each other which in turn acquired authorisation from local government to promote domestic agriculture products (Ou, 2002).

For the traditional markets, the effects associated with entry of the hypermarket are still evoluting. Social factors, such as modernisation and urbanisation, the lifestyle of the Taiwanese family has changed and the number of working women is increasing; the old conceptual traditional markets are no longer suited to Taiwanese social trends (Chen, 1997). Thus the development of the traditional markets seemed to stop and some have even been forced to close down (Cai, 2002). Besides, the location and distribution of the traditional markets have not been convenient to the consumers; the shopping area is relatively smaller than that of other new formats; short operation time does not meet the needs of working women; old facilities and structure as well as inefficient management are forcing the traditional markets to lose its market share to the new formats (Cai, 2002; Jhuang, 2002).

To assist the traditional markets to breakthrough the operating difficulties, Taiwan government proposed a ‘Five-year Renew and Improve Project of the Traditional Markets’ in 1999. The aim of this project is to guide and assist the traditional markets to become modern retail formats with traditional contents. According to Cai (2002), in order to improve the negative factors (such as poor hygiene) of the traditional markets and with support from the Department of Commerce, several public traditional markets in Taiwan were renewed and now expand their services via the Internet. Internet shopping provides a convenience and accessibility of 24-hour for consumers; it offers traditional retailers another channel to provide the need of time constraint consumers. With this online service, consumers do not need to go to traditional markets, but do their shopping on line and have the food they order when they require it.

According to the estimate of DGBAS (2005), the contribution of the traditional markets is estimated at NT$400 billion in sales per annum. With active government support and guidance, the transformation of the traditional market has aroused much attention from the supermarket and the hypermarket retailers. Besides the household customer, the business customer (such as restaurants and free stalls) is another crucial factor which continuously promotes the prosperity of the traditional markets. As more households eat-out due to working women not having much time to do cooking, the convenience, freshness and variety offered by eating restaurants which are easy to reach, makes the traditional markets stay in a better competitive position than other food retailers (Jhuang, 2002).

2.3.2. Determinants of consumer store preferences and choices

A critical review of the literature suggests that the concept of ‘consumer perception’ has been discussed by behavioural scholars (Kunkel and Berry, 1968). Boulding (1956) argues that human behaviour is complex and not easily determined and is guided by human experience that provides an image of what is perceived to be reality. This appears to suggest that, human behaviour reflects more than the reality of things but is a consequence of people interpreting their experience in ways that will influence their behaviour either more positively or more negatively than otherwise would be the case. Kunkel and Berry (1968) further expanded this definition, by suggesting that retail store image is a consequence of the person’s previous experience, because most behaviour patterns are learned, having been acquired through different activities. Kunkel and Berry (1968) research provide initial insights into consumer perceptions of store image reflecting Boulding’s (1956) earlier observation of consumer behaviour. Later, in their empirical study James et al. (1976) suggested that the consumer has a perception of a store image that is derived from “a set of attitudes based upon evaluation of those store attributes deemed important by consumers” (p. 25).

Therefore, the overall interpretation by consumer's previous shopping experiences and knowledge has been widely accepted to determine store image (Mazursky and Jacoby, 1986). Zimmer and Golden (1988) developed store image following the characteristics of consumer's perceptions and attitudes towards a store, and have been studied on the way of theoretical and empirical testing with the concept of store image. Taking the above definitions into account it is apparent that consumer shopping experiences and their consequent behaviour are, to some extent at least, learned phenomena formed by shoppers' perceptions upon store image. Summarising what has been said, it is to be expected that different researchers offer diverse definitions regarding consumer perceptions towards store image. The main arguments are all based upon interpretations of consumer perceptions and store attributes, some placing emphasis upon objective functional attributes like location, free car parks and the other attributes recorded elsewhere in this work while others emphasise subjective emotional responses to the shopping experience. Store image, then, would appear not simply a consequence of one or another but rather of a synthesis of these characteristics and evidenced by many attributes. Attributes that are a combination of tangible or functional and also of factors that seems to be intangible or psychological. It is difficult to perceive, from the literature available, which of these has the strongest influence upon consumer perception towards store attributes.

The importance of the concept of consumer perception and store image cannot be over emphasised separately because of its strong relationship with consumer's store loyalty, attention is drawn to this by Kunkel and Berry (1968), Lessig (1973), and Osman (1993). What can be argued is that the consumer's perception of a store is influenced by the individual's experience of many attributes which are tangible or intangible, and this points us towards the understanding of the possibility of image modification over time, something that the retailers would actively seek to influence and achieve (McClure and Ryan, 1968). Sirohi et al. (1998) suggest that consumers perceived overall benefit (value) provided by retailers plays a critical role in the determination of store patronage and loyalty.

Understanding what attributes encompasses the store image and how consumer perceptions are influenced by these attributes is critical to retail internationalisation. Martineau (1958) is attributed the first researcher to discuss “store personality” and to adopt the concept of image in retail store research providing a definition of store image as "the way in which the store is defined in the shopper's mind, partly by its functional qualities and partly by an aura of psychological attributes" (Martineau, 1958, p. 47). Martineau (1958) suggested that besides the functional factors of location, price and commodity assortment, each store has its “personality or image”, and this is defined by shoppers in their minds, while “functional qualities” and “psychological attributes” are the two major determinates which guide shoppers’ behaviour. It is generally accepted that the concept of the “store image” encompasses the physical shopping environment, store location, product pricing and assortment, as well as all the related psychological attributes, such as, promotions and services provided by retailers.

Table 2.4 below provides a comprehensive list of store attributes identified by several researchers, for example Martineau (1958) identified four attributes: (1) layout and architecture, (2) symbols and colours, (3) advertising and (4) sale personnel as important factors which influence consumer’s shopping orientation. Fisk (1962) identified six attributes connected to consumer shopping behaviour; these include (1) location convenience, (2) suitable product assortment, (3) price, (4) sales and service, (5) store atmosphere and (6) consumer’s satisfaction.

Table 2.4
Summary of store image attributes studied by researchers

Author(s)	Year	Store attributes
Martineau	1958	Location, competitive price structure, product assortment, layout and architecture, symbols and colours, advertising, sale personnel
Fisk	1962	Location convenience, suitable product assortment, price, sales and service, store atmosphere and consumer's satisfaction.
Kunkel and Berry	1968	Price of merchandise, quality of merchandise, assortment of merchandise, fashion of merchandise, sales personnel, location convenience, other convenience factors, service, sales promotion, advertising, store atmosphere, reputation on adjustments
Lindquist	1974	Merchandise, service, clientele, physical facilities, convenience, promotion, store atmosphere, institutional factors, post-transaction satisfaction
Bearden	1977	Price level, quality of merchandise, selection, atmosphere, location, parking facilities, friendliness of sales people
Zimmer and Golden	1988	Layout, physical facilities, quality, advertising, sales, selection, service, credit, guarantees, returns, salesclerks, location, pricing, reputation
Chowdhury, et al.	1998	Employee service, product quality, selection, atmosphere, convenience, price/value
Van Kenhove, et al.	1999	Location, convenience, product assortment, price structure, product stock, service, selection, atmosphere, latest product, quality of product
Huang, et al	2001	Store facilities, convenience for shopping, large assortment, promotion and service
Ting and Chen	2002	Assortment of product, quality of product, store decoration and display, service, major service, subordinate service, store location, store environment and atmosphere, price and promotion, operational convenience and physical facilities

Source: Several sources including Martineau (1958), Ting and Chen (2002)

In their study, Kunkel and Berry (1968) surveyed the perceptions of 1050 females toward three department stores sending them unstructured mail questionnaires and using the content analysis approach to test twelve (12) hypothesised categories of store image: price of merchandise, quality of merchandise, assortment of merchandise, fashion of merchandise, sales personnel, location convenience, other convenience factors, service, sales promotions, advertising, store atmosphere, reputation on adjustment. The result indicates 99% consumer image responses fell into the 12 categories, which appears to indicate a more precise analysis of the elements that most influence consumer perceptions of store image than those in Martineau's and Fisk's research.

One of the most referenced sources is the study by Lindquist (1974), he hypothesised, from a synthesis of the work of twenty six scholars, that nine categories of store image related attributes are significant: (1) merchandise (quality, assortment, styling or fashion, guarantees and price), (2) service (staff service, ease of return, credit and delivery service), (3) clientele (consisting of social class appeal, self image congruency and store personnel), (4) physical facilities (layout and architecture), (5) convenience (location), (6) promotion (sales promotions, product displays, advertising programmes, symbols and colours), (7) store atmosphere (feeling of warmth, acceptance or ease), (8) institutional factors (conservative or modern store, reputation and reliability) and, (9) past transaction experience (returns and adjustments). He concludes that positive consideration should be given to merchandise, service and location related factors which have empirical support of and were highly recommend by the twenty six scholars whose work he analysed.

Hansen and Deutscher (1977) applied Lindquist's (1974) nine image categories as a survey base, employing Fisk (1962),and Kunkel and Berry (1968) questionnaires, they built a research methodology that sought to compare shopper's store image in department and grocery stores, empirically testing consumer's store perception and concluded that the nine store attribute categories are important across different type of stores. Using multinomial logit technique to measure store image, Arnold et al. (1983) derived determinant attributes for the retail patronage in approximate rank order; the important store characteristic were found to be location convenience, low prices, assortment/variety of merchandise, friendly courteous service, high quality product, quality of fresh food, fast checkout, and suitable store environment. Location convenience and low prices were considered as the most two important store attributes. Later research by Bearden (1977) provided very similar results which suggest that research on the elements, store image attributes has been highly developed in research circles. In general, researchers have developed better understanding of the definition of store image, which they agree is organised by many attributes which influence consumer's perceptions and behaviour toward any retail outlet.

The identification of critical factors from various store attributes provides crucial clues regarding consumer perceptions leading to segmentation or targeting consumer groups. The literature identifies and groups shoppers into different clusters, based on personal motives or social motives (Tauber, 1972). Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) identified recreational shoppers and power shoppers; Dawson et al. (1990) identified utilitarian and hedonic shopping motives; Babin et al. (1994) identified intrinsic and extrinsic clusters; and Groeppel-Klein et al. (1999) identified price-oriented, stimulation-oriented and advice-oriented shopping clusters. Despite the different terminologies, previous studies on shopper's clusters could be roughly classified into two groups first those who shop for product acquisition and second those who shop for the enjoyment of the shopping activity (Jin and Kim, 2003).

Moreover, other factors such as consumer's shopping habit and social demographic also influence consumer store preferences and choices as well as overall satisfaction and re-patronage intention (Chetthamrongchai and Davies, 2000; Brown, 2004). Such evidence can be seen in a recent empirical study by Carpenter and Moore (2006) who suggested that shoppers with different demographic characteristics, socioeconomic attributes and shopping orientation, have different perceptions of food store attributes and these can be segmented into different preference groups.

Research on store image of Taiwanese food retail market also produced very similar outcomes to those indicated above. The literature, which first focussed upon research on department stores and supermarkets, later considered more modernised stores as these developed and gradually took precedence over traditional stores. Research has therefore focussed upon these new types of retail store, principally hypermarkets and convenience stores. For example, Huang et al. (2001) compared consumer store image between convenience store and hypermarket, exploring how store attributes have had an influence upon consumer store patronage. They suggested that consumers view store facilities, convenience for shopping, large assortment, promotion and service as the major factors that influence the patronage behaviour of Taiwanese consumers. Taiwanese consumer patronage of the hypermarket format appears to be largely due to the hypermarkets providing facilities which are most suitable for family shopping activity. Ting and Chen (2002) concluded that the decisive factors influencing Taiwanese patronage of hypermarkets can be summarised into ten categories: assortment of product, quality of product, store decoration and display, service, major service, subordinate service, store location, store environment and atmosphere, price and promotion, operational convenience and physical facilities.

Regarding the characteristic of the Taiwanese traditional market, researchers (Huang et al, 2001; Moschis et al, 2004) have suggested that the traditional markets are characterised by their close proximity to the customer and their social ambiance.

Some consumers like to shop at the traditional markets for the freshest products and for better opportunities to bargain over prices. Time-saving products such as processed and pre-packaged foods and beverages are attractive to supermarket shoppers, satisfying the needs of a fast-paced lifestyle (Sullivan and Savitt, 1997; Trappey, 1998). The traditional markets are seen to attract a more elderly, local population segment who are familiar with and loyal to the local traditional markets; conversely younger customers may prefer to visit the local supermarkets at places which are more convenient, or they may be attracted by low price promotions and competition (Boedeker, 1995; Swait and Sweeney, 2000).

The retail system of Taiwan is indeed influenced by its unique background which allows consumers to chose suitable retail outlets according to their lifestyle and values. This development has mirrored Kumcu’s (1987) observation, which adopts an historical approach to show that the retailing system of any individual market is formed, transformed and evolved through its underlying political, economic, social and cultural structures. Kumcu (1987) suggests that consumer behaviour, at any given time, may display extremely diverse characteristics that are a response to environmental change. Therefore, in order to understand whether a retailer can establish an effective store image in any given market, a continuing investigation of the environmental factors of the target market must become crucial to the work, which has been provided in the previous section.

Store image is usually developed as the key source of competitive advantage by retailers in their domestic market and it becomes a vital issue for retailers moving into overseas markets. The important question is how to transfer a set of store image attributes to consumers in non-domestic market (Burt and Carralero-Encinas, 2000).

Zimmer and Golden (1988) have suggested that the measurement of store image is the way to draw out consumer's perception toward a particular store. This argument has been supported by Taiwanese researchers (e.g. Dǒng, 1997; Dai and Gao 2001; Jhang 2002) who concluded that the Taiwanese consumers look forward to a variety of commodities, quality goods and services, and comfortable shopping environment when engaged in grocery shopping. Other research (Huang et al., 2001; Jhang, 2002) suggests that availability of a car park is the major determinant on whether a Taiwanese consumer will shop at a hypermarket or not. These and many more factors will be taken account of by retailers who wish to influence the growth of Taiwanese consumer loyalty, and, subsequently gain a substantial increase in the market share. Ultimately the measure of the accuracy and success of the research undertaken is, inevitably, measured by the influence it has on retailers who go on to create/provide the attributes deemed to have the greatest influence upon shoppers.

2.4. Understanding the macro-environment in Taiwan

At this point in the literature review the author wishes to acknowledge the fact that the Taiwanese retail market is affected by a set of macro environmental factors which both directly and indirectly influence the operation of companies of all sizes. It is suggested by Kotler (1994, p. 129) that "external actors and forces impact a company's ability to develop and maintain successful transactions and relationships with its target customers. This comprises 'non-controllable' actors and forces that impact on the company's market and marketing practice". While Davies (1995) argues that the conceptualisation of retail internationalisation has to adapt to the cultural and societal factors that exist in the Asia-Pacific region. A close review of the macro environmental factors particularly related to the retail market follows in the sections below.

2.4.1. Political influence on retailing

Legislative factors have to be treated as one of the variables which affect the attractiveness of any individual market, the others being, economic, social and cultural factors (Treadgold, 1990; Kacker, 1985). According to Hague and Harrop (2001) democratic politics emphasise 'rule by the people' through elected governments. Elected governments implement regulations to protect and promote both individual and public benefit, this means retailers much like any other business, are inevitably constrained by government regulations. Legislation has often been introduced to balance the power relationships within markets, ensuring fair competition; however, legislation relevant to retailing appears to be designed to support the independent, small retailer, arguably powerless against the large retailer (Hague and Harrop, 2001). Davies and Whitehead (1995) noted that unless legislation restricts the power of the large retailer it is able to use economies of scale and scope in bulk buying, offering a wider selection with relatively low operating costs to the detriment of the small trader. They also suggested two kinds of legislation particularly affect a retailer's competitive ability, first planning legislation, which is responsible for the implementation and interpretation of the laws, and restricts the size, location and scope of a shop, thus limiting the speed of expansion and raising the operation costs of large retailers. Second, legislation may be used to protect small retailers restricting the bargaining power of the large retailer, for example with its suppliers, utilities providers and other services (Davies and Whitehead, 1995).

It is self evident that governments have played an essential role in the development of business activities in many countries; regulations are often put in place in order to manipulate the commercial environment to achieve commercial objectives. Hollander and Boddewyn (1974) pointed out that governments usually enact a body of legislation aimed at protecting public interests, assessing economic impacts, considering social responses, measuring environmental influences and promoting free competition.

There are governments who have taken actions or have provided various schemes to support or restrain the development of various types of retailing. The small and/or traditional independent retailers usually appear to be the beneficiaries; governments can provide them with statistical information, marketing educational opportunities and a low-cost financial loan service, and can even provide a structural renewal project through public expenditure, all to their benefit (François and Leunis, 1991). In order to modernise the retail industry governments usually enact regulations to encourage foreign direct investment (FDI) in the retail industry yet at the same time, policies can limit the import of merchandise, control price competition and protect small businesses (Sternquist and Jin, 1998). Lenway and Murtha (1994) suggest that governments taking a laissez-faire approach that allows the economy or private businesses to develop without any state control or influence institutionalises those very freedoms affecting all businesses, large or small, either directly or indirectly. Governments develop policies that directly protect and benefit small retailers in marketing while, at the same time, other economic, social and environmental legislations may have consequences for the retail system indirectly (Kirby, 1992). For instance, policies relating to urban renewal projects related to the development of a society may influence the location and structure of retail formats directly and/or indirectly. French hypermarkets have benefited from the implementation of housing policy which is why, Kirby (1992, p.214) suggested that “policies which may appear to be promoting retail efficiency may also be interpreted in a social responsibility/equity context and vice versa”. Never the less François and Leunis (1991, p 469) noted that “public policy towards retailing has often been quoted as being politically inspired and showing a favourable attitude towards the smaller independent retailer”.

Empirical studies have offered examples of specific legislation having an influence on retailing development that arrives at different conclusions. François and Leunis (1991) explained that the ‘Business Premises Act’ that regulates the establishment of new large stores and the extension of existing stores has resulted in a slow growth of large stores in the retailing market in Belgium. Burt (1984) suggests that the ‘Loi Royer’ legislation was intended to restrict the expansion of hypermarkets in France while other factors such as economic conditions and organisational trends might have had more effect. The ‘Large Scale Retail Store Law’ restricts the growth of large retail stores and protects small and medium-sized stores in Japan (Tsuchiya and Riethmuller, 1997) while Tomalin and Pal (1994) suggested that the British government policy’s focus on town centre development and consumer’s interest in the location of reformulated convenience stores (small size store) in cities has led to an opportunity for large food retailers to fill the gap created by providing new formats. Examples of this in the UK are where Tesco has located these new formats on petrol station forecourts a movement bringing competitive advantages by permitting a shift in the goods sold to a higher-value coupled with high turnover products (Tomalin and Pal, 1994).

In the context of Taiwan, the government, after the repeal of Martial Law in 1987, promoted liberal democracy, by implementing regulatory approaches to national economic development to ensure that the competitive interaction of the retail market would eventually promote growth of the retail industry. Under the ‘Urban Developing Plan’, Taiwan’s central and local governments have developed a set of renovation schemes to promote the development of the traditional markets. Local government also plays a vital role in retailing development.

Policies that impact upon the Taiwanese retailing market are a relatively recent phenomenon. Such policies usually will have a direct and profound effect on retailing development (Yang and Li, 2003). In order to promote economic development, the government repealed old regulations and used the ‘Urban Development Scheme’ in 1994 to facilitate the development of large retail outlets within the urban area (Yang and Li, 2003). However, the movement of hypermarket retailers toward the outskirts of cities has raised many problems, such as traffic congestion in adjacent areas during weekends, threatened profits of the traditional stores, and led to employment opportunities decreasing in neighbouring areas and so on. These phenomena may later influence the Taiwan government to make a shift in policy to emphasise the importance of the traditional shopping area in the city area.

On the other hand, when considering the question of social fairness and the impact of the large outlet on the traditional retailing sector, the government’s proposal of a ‘Five-Year Renewal and Improvement Project of the Traditional Markets’ in 1999 (MOEA, 2004), has major consequences for both small and large retailers. The aim of this project is to guide and assist the traditional market to upgrade as a modern format with traditional contents. The project has led many traditional markets associated with local farmer’s and fishermen’s organisations in Taiwan to initiate own-label products, up grade product quality and consumer service and expand operation time, moreover, these traditional markets are promoting their services via the internet (MOEA, 2004). Overall it appears that, although this project is not intended directly to restrict the scale or scope of hypermarket operation, it does affect competitive position of the large chain store and the large food retailer. Therefore, as retailers consider the market opportunity of the host country, they will need to consider the effects of local legislation on their operation, identify different local situations and how it impacts upon the retail sector.

2.4.2. Economic development and the change of retail structure

The economic environment in Taiwan is affected by a range of economic factors which impact on spending power, shopping habits and retail development. In the last three decades Taiwan has enjoyed considerable growth and has remained relatively unaffected by the 1997 Asia financial crisis and the 1990s global recession. Taiwan has a relatively low household income inequality index[2] and a low Gini concentration coefficient[3], which indicates that Taiwan is a relatively egalitarian society. This is confirmed by Gold's (1986) earlier study which suggests that an egalitarian society creates social stability and promotes economic development. This appears to suggest that continuing investment in infrastructure and a move to the cities is fundamentally altering Taiwanese lifestyles - Japan and the USA are the most important alliance and trading partners having a powerful influence on the economic development of Taiwan.

Statistical data show the fruits of economic development. A Taiwanese government survey in 2004 showed that 86.8% of Taiwanese owned the house they lived in; in terms of household equipment, TV and phone were most prevalent, reaching 100%, while the prevalence of households owning two televisions or more has also been reported at 40% (DGBAS, 2005). Households that subscribe to cable TV is as high as 88%, while ownership of cars and home PCs has been briskly rising to a level that

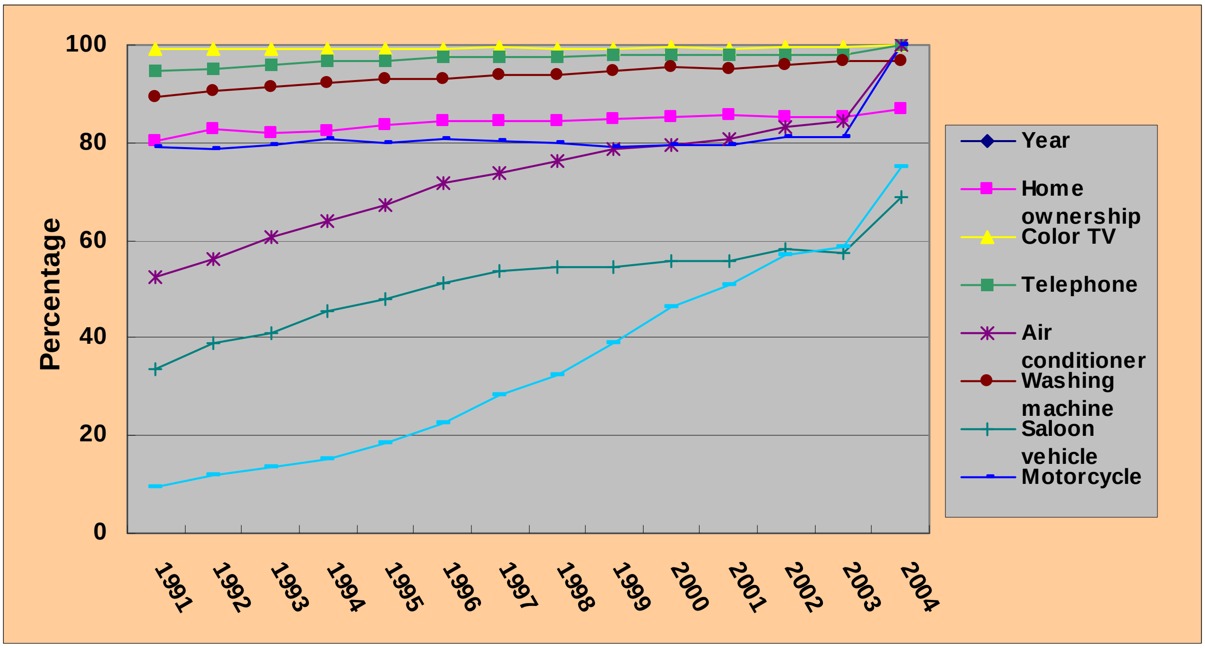
[2] The household income inequality indexes of Taiwan show that the highest 20% to that of the lowest 20% was 6.16. Compared to other countries, Taiwan was higher than Japan's 4.8 but less than South Korea's 6.8, the USA's 10.4, Hong Kong's 17.7 and Singapore's 20.9.

[3] According to Asafu-Adjaye's (2004) research, the mean of Gini coefficient of the world was 0.399 in 1995; in advanced countries, 0.326; in Latin American, 0.491 and in Asia 0.393. However, Taiwan's Gini coefficient figure of 0.317 was less than most of the advanced countries in 1995. A large coefficient indicates inequitable distribution of income; while a small coefficient means a fairly egalitarian society.

approaches that of the most advanced nations (see Figure 2.2 below).

Figure 2.2

Home ownership and major household possessions **Unit: per 100 households**



Source: The 2004 Survey Report on Family Income and Expenditures, Taiwan, DGBAS, 2005.

In addition, the emergence of the internet has further led to household internet access subscription and internet access equipment, reaching an impressive 85%. A recent tally has showed that over 30% of the population have travelled abroad and every household owns a saloon vehicle making it comparable to those figures of developed countries (DGBAS, 2005). With regard to Taiwan's economic achievement there are differing opinions. Fei (1991) argued that Taiwan's economic achievement is due essentially to political reform and economic liberalisation. While Hsiao and Hsiao (2003) suggested that the developed countries in the aftermath of the War have let laisser-faire policies take their course, providing a lucrative environment for companies trading in Taiwan.

According to Wan (1981) during Japanese colonisation, agriculture, light industries, and infrastructure were fundamentally put in place, which helped Taiwan establish state businesses permitting long-term economic development. Nonetheless, Taiwan's traditional culture, Confucianism, advocates pursuing personal betterment, which manifests itself in the island's development of industry (Wong et al, 2001). In addition, the Government's strategic role was transformed from that of a facilitator to that of a supporter and a provider of assistance offering a congenial investment environment (Hwa, 2001). All of the above reasons might help to explain Taiwan's economic achievement but, arguments mainly arise around the issue of the government's handling of foreign direct investment.

- ***Foreign Direct Investment***

Taiwanese nationalists according to Li (1999), Hsu and Chiang (2001) and Hu (2002) argue that Taiwan's economic tour de force resulted from a capable and efficient administration, inflation control and an industry policy that encouraged small and medium sized businesses to venture forth. They further argued that the government's strategic industry policy effectively helped industry conversion and bolstered overall corporate competitiveness globally. In contrast to the nationalists, another school of economists, namely those who subscribe to imperialism (e.g. Wu, 1981; Gold, 1986; Tsai, 1999), cite dependency or world system theory to explain Taiwan's economic and political development. The argument goes that under the influence of imperialism Taiwan had to rely on powerful nations such as America and Japan, amongst others, for its security and investment, under which the economic development and social order could flourish and develop.

There are other research studies related to the preceding views and arguments on Taiwan's economic development which address the issue of foreign direct investment flows into Taiwan. For example Bende-Nabende and Ford (1998) firmly believed that foreign direct investment exerted significant influence on Taiwan’s economic development through liberalisation and infrastructural building - this enticed greater financial support from abroad. It is open to interpretation whether the Taiwanese government’s strategies paved the way for foreign investment, but the fact remains that external financial support is the key factor which accelerated the island’s economic growth.

In the last couple of decades with the growth of globalisation academics such as Greenhalgh (1988) and Winckler (1988) believed that global capitalism will ultimately force developing nations to submit to the overwhelming trend, in much the same way as Taiwan which has used its labour force to export labour-intensive goods in return for cash to develop its economy. Similarly, at the other end, developed nations and overseas investors have also looked for low-cost production to bolster their own international competitiveness. In one way or another, all these elements have played a part in contributing to Taiwan’s economic success. It is without question that, the global economic trend and the need for trading partners have contributed to Taiwan’s economic glory over the past twenty years.

In analysing Taiwan’s economic success, economists may very well cite varying theories and statistics to back up their own theories, but most of them appear to have overlooked a significant cultural aspect. According to Gold (1986), four tenets of Confucianism that have been passed on to succeeding generations from the elders to their offspring include: (1) to take government mandates seriously, (2) to work hard and save, (3) to get a better education than your parents, and, (4) when opportunities arise to set up your own business.

- ***Urbanisation***

Another significant effect is that of urbanisation, a process describing how people begin to congregate in an urban setting and carry out an urban lifestyle is called urbanisation (Bradshaw and Noonan, 1997). A large concentration of the population and economic activities in major urban settings has emerged as a significant characterisation among many developed and developing countries' urban systems (Burns and Rayman, 1995). The economic development have resulted in concentrations of large numbers of individuals in some geographic areas, along with investment in infrastructure and the development of transportation systems which have fundamentally altered the Taiwanese lifestyle (Dibb, 1996).

Furthermore, in the dual process of urbanization and economic development, an urban-rural polarisation has also, along with a split in the hierarchy, allowed its industry to divide. In comparison, the divide of education versus income finds more than 80% of high education, high income households are concentrated in urban settings, whereas rural townships and villages, not surprisingly, are home to 70% of residents with an education below junior high and from low-income households (Zhang, 2002). These results have been reflected in the social classes, and the division of urban versus rural settings. As a result of the urbanisation, areas affected become ripe for the development of new retailing system. This also further explains why industry and a host of financial services and, commercial establishments tend to congregate in urban settings.

- ***Legacy of retail outlets and distribution systems in Taiwan***

Taiwan's early trading port role in East Asia, started when Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Japanese came to Taiwan as part of a developing colonisation. Japan is undoubtedly regarded as playing the most import role in Taiwan’s economic development. One influence Japan has had is its legacy of retail outlets and distribution systems coupled with geographic proximity and cultural similarity. Chang and Sternquist (1993) observed that the retail system in Taiwan has strong connections and similar patterns with that in Japan. The most common characteristics of Taiwan’s retail markets is the existence of a large number of small scale distribution intermediaries and a multilayered distribution channel structure, which facilitated entry for international retailers (Chung, 2001). Many retail sectors in Taiwan retain the Japanese distribution system which emphasises long-term personal relationships between the manufacturers and the retailers. However, due to the traditional distribution system embracing too many wholesalers, Trappey and Lai (1996) suggested that the traditional distribution system failed to satisfy the needs of the new international retailing chain stores such as hypermarkets and supermarkets, and consequently many of the new retail chains implemented their own centralised distribution systems, which are characterised by having no intermediate wholesalers.

2.4.3. Rapid change of Taiwanese social structure

The literature clearly suggests that changes in social structure often affect consumer awareness, which in turn alters the consumer’s consumption behaviour (Morrison, 2002). As a result, in order to investigate Taiwan’s consumer behaviours, it becomes necessary to discern issues pertaining to socio-demographic factors, which include population development, family structural changes, emergence of the middle class and so forth over the past five decades.

- ***Changes in socio-demographic factors***

According to Notestein (1945) in societies with a high mortality rate a high birth rate to support social development is necessary. Improving living conditions and progressive medicine and health care are expected to lower mortality rates. The birth rate does not necessarily drop as this would only manifest itself at the level of the formation of a new family system following changes to the traditional society and economic order. In addition, the emergence of school and factory systems that are poised to replace the family's previous education and production functions also compel the cost of raising children to rise and economic yield to drop (Notestein, 1945; Morrison, 2002). In the meantime, with a drastically reducing mortality rate, multiple births no longer serve as a key factor in continuing family survival; without the necessity of a high birth rate women are liberated from the confines of their traditional roles of raising children, and begin to participate in economic activities beyond the family. This development not only results in the cost for raising children to increase but puts families with a large number of offspring at an economic disadvantage. On the other hand, the effects of urbanisation have liberated people from the confines of the traditional large family-oriented society and high birth rates, and results in their establishing smaller family units with fewer children that better meet modern social development needs (Bradshaw and Noonan, 1997). As a result, it can be seen that Taiwan's societal development has stemmed from urbanisation, itself derived from economic development, and a consequent disintegration of the large-family system.

The above analogy, when applied to a study of the state of population development, such as changes in population volume and age makeup, also provides a crucial basis for understanding the social structure (Morrison, 2002). Taiwan's population development comprises three elements – population growth, average life span and population structure. Given that population is one of the important market elements, it follows that the larger the population, the more potential a market provides. Many product distribution channels, such as foods and apparel are almost tied to market population. Taiwan's population has increased from 7.87 million in 1951 to 22.14 million in 2000, and is expected to climb to 25.12 million by 2050 (MOI, 2004). In1951, life expectancy for males was at 53.38 years, females at 56.33 years; by 2000, the numbers climbed to 72.67 years and 78.44 years, respectively. They are expected to go up to 77.3 years and 83.9 years by 2050 (MOI, 2004). As for population growth, that of 1951 is reported at 38.4%. This rate drastically dropped to 8.08% in 2000, and is expected to drop further to –2.6% by 2050 (MOI, 2004).

Population growth signifies a rapid increase in total population count and the makeup of new family units will, it can be anticipated, increase product demand. Furthermore, a rising GDP will also be a compelling factor in any country's market growth (Wang, 2002). The proportion of dependants reported in Taiwan's dependant ratio[4] was said to be 75.9% in 1951, and 30.0% in 2000; this is expected to drop to 29.2% by 2050. The proportion of elderly population is put at 4.4%, 12.3% and 40.5%, respectively. A surging elderly dependency can be become a problem with respect to Taiwan's population structure, and stands to challenge its social welfare policy.

From Table 2.5 below it can be seen that, population structure also has an equally close-knit correlation to a nation's social and economic development. As a whole, age distribution stands out in population structure analysis as the most emphasised factor in marketing research. Of Taiwan's population structure in terms of age distribution, 1966 shows 44% to be minors, 53.3% young adults and adults and 2.7% elderly; by 2003, the figures are 19.8%, 70.9% and 9.3%, respectively.

[4] The term "dependency ratio" pertains to the average number of minors, aged 0 to 14, and elderly, aged 65 and up, that every 100 young adults and adults need to sustain. The level of dependency ratio reflects the level of economic burden that the young adult and adult population needs to shoulder.

Table 2.5
Age-specific Distribution of Taiwanese Population

End of Year	0-14 Years %	15-64 Years %	65 Years and Over %	Dependency Ratio
1966	*44.0*	*53.3*	*2.7*	*88*
1971	*38.7*	*58.3*	*3.0*	*73*
1976	*34.7*	*61.7*	*3.6*	*63*
1981	*31.6*	*64.0*	*4.4*	*56*
1983	*30.8*	*64.5*	*4.7*	*55*
1984	*30.2*	*64.9*	*4.9*	*54*
1985	*29.6*	*65.3*	*5.1*	*53*
1986	*29.0*	*65.7*	*5.3*	*52*
1987	*28.4*	*66.1*	*5.5*	*51*
1988	*28.0*	*66.3*	*5.7*	*51*
1989	*27.5*	*66.5*	*6.0*	*50*
1990	*27.1*	*66.7*	*6.2*	*50*
1991	*26.3*	*67.1*	*6.5*	*49*
1992	*25.8*	*67.4*	*6.8*	*48*
1993	*25.1*	*67.8*	*7.1*	*48*
1994	*24.4*	*68.2*	*7.4*	*47*
1995	*23.8*	*68.6*	*7.6*	*46*
1996	*23.1*	*69.0*	*7.9*	*45*
1997	*22.6*	*69.3*	*8.1*	*44*
1998	*22.0*	*69.8*	*8.3*	*43*
1999	*21.4*	*70.1*	*8.4*	*43*
2000	*21.1*	*70.3*	*8.6*	*42*
2001	*20.8*	*70.4*	*8.8*	*42*
2002	*20.4*	*70.6*	*9.0*	*42*
2003	*19.8*	*70.9*	*9.3*	*41*

Source: "Taiwan-Fukien Demographic Fact Book, R.O.C." by the Ministry of Interior, Taiwan, 2004.

The table reveals three things, first, that the elderly population aged 65 and over has gradually increased over the years and may continue to increase (Wang, 2002). Second, that the population aged between 0-14 years is gradually declining, reflecting the results of Taiwan's population policy and the prevalence of smaller family units (Schutz, 1980).Third, that the young adult and adult population, aged between 15 and 64, represents the current peak in Taiwan's population. These trends suggest that in the short term there are no major problems as far as the labour supply is concerned.

Whether these trends would remain the same in the foreseeable future is a vital issue for Taiwan’s population management authorities to deal with.

- ***The change in family structure***

Family structure is defined and reaffirmed through the roles and relations that family members living under the same roof play (Morrison, 2002). As far as the traditional sociological classification is concerned, family structure is made of three basic modes - nuclear family, stem family and extended family. According to Giddens (2001) and Lin (2002), the nuclear family contains a husband and wife living with their own children in a household. The stem family includes a husband and wife living with husband or wife’s parents and their own children in a household. The extended family is based on the nuclear family or the stem family and other kinship relatives who live in the same household. Therefore, an extended family may have grandparents, uncles and aunts, brothers and sisters and nephews and nieces, etc. In other words, it is a key consideration whether the parents live with married children, or whether married children live under one roof, in defining the family structure.

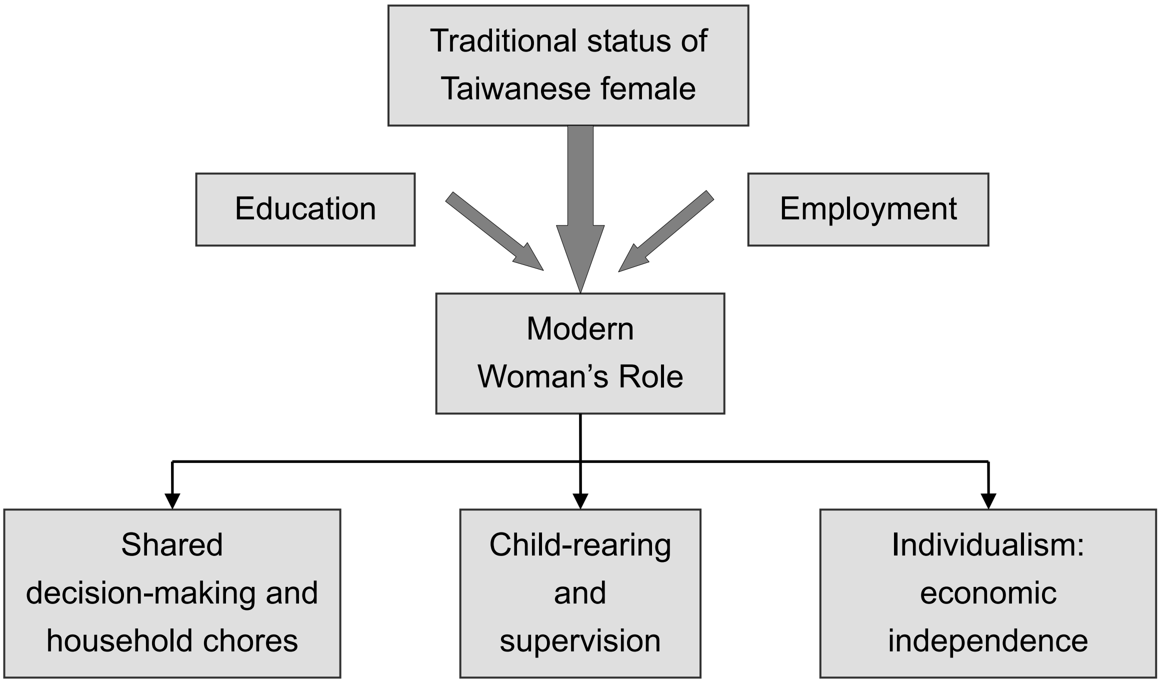
Family structure is important for this research study because different family structures impact on decisions to allocate family resources, consumption mode, family interaction or task-sharing relations (Arnould, et al 2002). In the meantime, family structures impact organisations, and societies are concerned with the issue of caring for the elders. This in turn affects the government’s social welfare policy and revenue raising policies. In Taiwan, Japan, Korea, Singapore and Mainland China where societies are more bound by the Confucian doctrine, the majority of ageing parents would tend to live with their adult children. A lifestyle characteristic of stem family in which three generations are living under one roof has always been regarded as a socio-cultural norm, and provides evidence of the existence of filial obedience or devotion for one's parents as a family ethic is a way of life in Chinese tradition (Thorton and Lin, 1994).

For nearly four decades, Taiwan's rapid economic development has significantly changed the traditional family structure. Research findings suggest the size of the family has decreased and is continuing to decrease (Liao and Yang, 1981; Thronton, et al, 1984; Yi and Jhu, 1989 and Weinstein, et al, 1990). This coupled with the government birth rate control policy in the 1970s has had the effect of decreasing the birth rate, which further decreased the size of the small family (MIO, 2003). The changes of Taiwan's family structure over the past four decades, suggest that Taiwan's family structure is beginning to gravitate toward the nuclear family mode. This development coincides with the viewpoints of Thorton and Lin (1994) that changes in family structure often revolve around the nuclear family unit, thus exhibiting a necessary evolvement as modernisation fuels society's change from an agricultural production mode to industry mode - this means retailers need to accommodate the move to a more simple family structure.

- ***Women's role in Taiwan – family versus career***

A large influx of married women joining the labour market in Taiwan is quite inevitably effecting tremendous change, creating a phenomenon of altered task-sharing and gender roles among husband and wife (Yi and Jian, 2002). The literature clearly suggests that women's participation in the labour force has brought a significant change in the traditional status of the Taiwanese female, and has shifted the male-female division of household tasks. The trend towards women's employment has not only changed the traditional concept of 'men take care of outside work' and 'women take care of household chores', but has also shifted the single-income family to one of dual-income (Lu and Yi, 1999). This situation appears to be more prevalent in the urban areas, particularly those areas with a higher level of education.

Figure 2.3
The changing woman's role



Source: developed by this research.

Figure 2.3 above depicts the development from the traditional status of the Taiwanese female to that of a more progressive role. Research studies by Lu and Yi (1999), Lin and Zhang (2002), Yi and Jian (2002) and Yi (2002) suggest that women of Taiwan have raised their social status by participating in the labour force. It is quite evident that this can be explained to some extent by women's educational achievement and economic contribution, resulting both from and in women's changing family role. Yi (2002, p. 332) notes that "the overall progress toward higher education and higher employment rate of women has become a dominant indicator of women's status enhancement". As a result, changes in women's social position and family role could best be explained through the trends of their employment, education, and task sharing of household chores.

- ***The formation of the middle class***

The formation of a “middle class” is yet another major characteristic of a modernised society. Moreover, a large shift in population into the middle classes also characterises a step in Taiwan’s socio-economic development. The term “middle class” generally refers to a group of people that command a certain level of skills and stable income (Ciê and Huang, 2002). A research finding by Cai (2002) shows that Taiwan’s middle class accounts for roughly 25% to 35% of its population, whereas by any objective view, its middle class would be more accurately assessed to be around 30% to 50%.

According to Chung et al. (2000), Taiwan’s sociologists ascribe three aspects with reference to the middle class. First, most of the middle class live in the urban area, mainly because it provides more educational and job opportunities and more facilities and household necessities than in a rural area. Second, the middle class demonstrate their privileges through occupation, lifestyle and consumption patterns. For example, the middle class usually display their social positions by owning a luxury imported car and designer labelled clothes and consumer goods. Third, the middle class in Taiwan are seen to be reformers, because they have higher education qualifications and are more intellectual, occupying such positions as: politicians, governmental officials, educationalist, and business managers (Chung et al, 2000; Cai, 2002).

2.4.4. Socio-cultural factors and consumer behaviour

The literature review clearly revealed that a country’s culture is normally identified as the main environmental characteristic underlying the systematic differences in consumer behaviour (Steenkamp, 2001). As consumer’s needs, desires, preferences and habits are nearly always attributable to cultural influences, how best to discern the impact of the cultural environment in host market has emerged as a critical success factor (CSF) for many global businesses.

- ***The concept and characteristics of culture***

Culture as a concept has been explained, defined and applied in many academic disciplines. Hofstede (1994, p.5) defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another”. Programming he argued starts inside the family and continues within the youth groups, at school, at the work place, and in society at large. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) reveal that culture influences our daily life implicitly and explicitly and suggested that “culture is the way in which a group of people solves problems and reconciles dilemmas”. The American anthropologist Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) suggested that cultural concepts may differ according to the theme of research across different disciplines. In this sense, it can be realised that in many different fields’ researchers who involve themselves in cultural research have given different definitions. A review of the works of Henry (1976), Hofstede (1980), Jary (1997), and Giddens (2001) suggest that sociologists are concerned with how culture is learned and shared and how cooperation and communication takes place within the family, groups and society. These concepts and definitions from sociologists have been extensively applied and used in contemporary consumer research by Featherstone (1991), Aaker and Maheswaran (1997), Luna and Gupta (2001) and Stedham and Yamamura (2004), including cross-cultural research in marketing (Ackerman and Tellis, 2001; Steenkamp, 2001) and in international business (Kogut and Singh, 1988).

- ***The influence of culture on consumer behaviour***

Although there is no agreed definition of the term ‘culture’, essentially, it includes all learned behaviour and values that are transmitted to an individual life within the society through shared experience and meanings (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997). In this sense, it is generally agreed that a culture will have three characteristics: it is learned, interrelated and shared (Triandis, 1994). Culture provides explanations of the way people live within a typical society and environment; the way in which people live in a society will be influenced by family life, education environment, religion ceremonies, traditional customs, patterns of work and social interaction. Concerning the impact of culture on consumer behaviour, culture may be defined as a set of traditional concepts and value perspectives – jointly shared and passed to society members. To most people, culture is a form of guidelines, values, habits, arts and the like (Rugman and Hodgetts, 2000).

One important theory to identify cultural difference between countries is Hofstede’s culture dimension. Hofstede (1980) suggests that the cultures of different nations can be compared in terms of four theoretical dimensions (Four types of cultural dimension, definition and characteristics are shown below in Table 2.6). These dimensions help in understanding and an explaining the values, lifestyle and behaviour, within societies, organisations and nations. These dimensions play significant and lasting roles in shaping and comparing the assumptions, attitudes, beliefs and values of individuals in different markets. Typically, culture has been used to think of the differences among individuals from different countries. With increasing retail internationalisation, understanding differences in consumer behaviour across cultures becomes increasingly important, because of its influences on the implementation of marketing strategies locally.

Table 2.6
Hofstede's four cultural dimensions

Dimension	Definition	Characteristics
Power Distance	• The extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally	• There is inequality in society. • In small power distance countries there is limited dependence of subordinates on bosses and a preference for consultation, which is interdependence between boss and subordinate. Powerful people show as little power as they can. • In large power distance countries there is considerable dependence of subordinates on bosses. People show power by status and background.
Individualism versus Collectivism	• Individualism refers to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. • Collectivism refers to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.	• In the individualist societies, the interests of the individual prevail over the interests of the group. Identity lies in the individual. • In the collectivist societies, the interest of the group prevails over the interest of the individual. Identity is based in the social network to which one belongs. • In the collectivist cultures, implicit information and message (high-context) are used. • In the individualist cultures, more explicit message and code (low-context) are applied.
Masculinity versus femininity	• In the masculinity societies in which social gender roles are clearly distinct: men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life. • In the femininity societies in which social gender roles overlap: both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life.	• There are biological and social roles difference between male and female. • Dominant values in masculine society are material success and progress. • Dominant values in feminine society are caring for others and quality of life. • Masculine culture countries strive for a performance society; feminine countries for a welfare society. • In feminine culture, women's liberation means that men and women should take equal share both at home and at work.
Uncertainty Avoidance	• The extent to which the members for a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations.	• Every human society has developed ways to alleviate the uncertainty anxiety. • In strong uncertainty avoidance cultures, rules and competence are needed to structure life. • In weak uncertainty avoidance cultures, people are more rely on generalists and tend to be more innovated and entrepreneurial.

Source: Hofstede (1994)

‘Individualism versus collectivism’ is one important cultural dimension in identifying the difference of consumer behaviour. Individualistic cultures, such as the Great Britain, tend to foster an independent sense of self to be unique to others. Collectivist cultures, however, such as Taiwan, foster an interdependent sense of self to be interdependent with family members, kinship relations and the social context. These differences in self-definition affect consumer behaviours in the area of emotional reaction to advertisements and making consumption decisions from others.

Research by Straughan and Albers-Miller (2001) suggested that cultural collectivism is positively correlated with loyalty to domestic retailers. This argument implies that hypermarkets are not suitable in a collective cultural country, such as Taiwan. It appears such research overlooked the basic assumption of culture in the individual country and inferred the same consumer behaviour and characteristics in all collective cultures. The basic cultural assumptions and values of Taiwan are discussed in follows.

- ***The influence of multi-cultural values in Taiwan***

Taiwan’s multiple cultures are the consequence of its distinctive historical background. Over the centuries, Taiwan has been dominated and influenced by different cultures in succession: indigenous tribes, the Dutch rule, Han Chinese culture during the Ming and Ching rule (1661-1895), Japanese colonial culture and finally that of Western civilisation (GIO, 2000 and Chen, 2001). Figure 2.4 shows the cultural development of Taiwan. It was the Han migrants who brought their cultural heritage and established Taiwan as a Han Chinese society. This migrant society fostered certain cultural values, such as hard work, thrift and communal cooperation (Xü, 1998). However, Taiwan experienced early modernisation during the Japanese colonial period (1895-1945).

Figure 2.4

The development of plural culture of Taiwan

Source: Based on GIO (2000)

Indigenous Culture	Dutch Rule (trading ports)	From Immigrant Society to Traditional Han Society	Japanese Rule	The integration of Western culture and Chinese culture
Year	1642	1661	1895	1945

In addition, with the backing of the Nationalist government, combined with influence from the Mainlanders themselves, development of traditional Chinese culture was fostered after the Taiwan retrocession (Xü, 1998). This in turn facilitated the rapid economic development which pushed and continues to push Taiwan into industrialisation and modernisation and resulted in integration of the traditional Chinese culture with that of modern western values.

Taiwan’s cultural cornerstone has been formed from the very essence of Chinese culture –Confucianism. Confucianism refers to both the teachings of Confucius and the attributes of social stability. In practice, Confucianism focuses on the long-term orientation in life. Long-term orientation is “the extent to which a society exhibits a pragmatic, future-oriented perspective rather than a conventional historic or short-term perspective” (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2002, p. 64). Confucianism addresses and supports the harmony of the extended family and paternal society within traditional Chinese society. The role of the wife in the family demonstrates one of submission, i.e. she must be submissive to her husband. This facilitates the formation of a paternal society. The role of the woman is played down in Confucian ideology. This is turn influences family, groups and traditional Chinese society as a whole (Huang and Wu, 1994; Fan, 2000).

Harrell and Huang (1994) argue that Taiwan is seeking to balance traditionalism and westernisation. There is no doubt that the Taiwanese have been strongly influenced by western culture. Both western individualism and eastern collectivism can be found in schools, in the work place and community (Chung et al., 2000; Xü, 1998). The importance of investment in education in post war Taiwan is strongly connected to its past history, cultural background and future. It must be noted that traditional Confucian education emphasises collective ethics rather than individual knowledge (Huang, 1994). As Chen (1994, P. 104) notes, “Education facilitates social mobility...Education changes the occupation, and hence the social status, of a person…this has been the case for many people in Taiwan”. Today’s education, which combines less Confucian ideas and more western values, puts the emphasis on knowledge rather than ethics in Taiwan, as a result the pursuit of personal interests is now emphasised more than ever (Chen, 1994). An observable fact is the change in women’s roles, which include women willing to seek higher educational and career achievement, their quest for equality with men, enjoyment of the single life and choosing to be married later, all factors that are obviously effecting change in the women’s role vis-a-vis traditional Chinese cultural concepts and the discipline of Confucianism (Huang and Wu, 1994).

Furthermore, research by Buttery and Leung (1998) indicates that Taiwan is more like a feminine society. Hofstede (1980) describes a feminine society as one in which both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life. Although the opportunity of education, the change of social attitude towards women and the participation in the workforce has made changes in women’s role in society and in the family, Taiwanese women still have a strong collectivist orientation which leads them to take responsibility for housework after they are married (Buttery and Leung, 1998).

2.5. Link between the thesis research gap, research question and research objectives

The results of the above extensive literature review clearly suggest that there is a research gap defined in terms of a need for further research on consumer behaviour to help global food retailers such as Carrefour and Wal-Mart understand the preferences and choices of shoppers in host markets in order to achieve and sustain competitive advantage over their rivals. In the context of emerging markets such as Taiwan research on store image first focussed upon department stores and supermarkets, and later considered hypermarkets (Huang et al. 2001).

Taiwanese consumer patronage of the hypermarket format appears to be largely due to the hypermarkets providing facilities which are most suitable for family shopping activity. Huang et al. (2001) suggested that Taiwanese consumers view store facilities, convenience for shopping, large assortment, promotion and service as the major factors that influence the patronage behaviour. Ting and Chen (2002) concluded that the decisive factors influencing Taiwanese consumer patronage of hypermarkets can be summarised into ten categories: assortment of product, quality of product, store decoration and display, service, major service, subordinate service, store location, store environment and atmosphere, price and promotion, operational convenience and physical facilities. Other researchers Huang et al. (2001) and Jhang (2002) suggested that availability of a car park is the major determinant on whether a Taiwanese consumer will shop at a hypermarket or not. This development poses a fundamental question: why it is that so much time and energy has been spent on researching the influence of a store's image on consumer patronage? From the summary of research in Table 2.7 below, this researcher believes that the answer to this question may lie in the fact that many foreign retailers do not understand the behaviour of consumers in the host market they wish to enter.

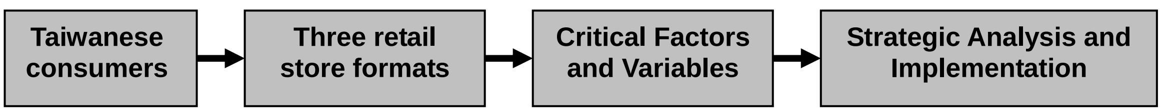
Table 2.7
Summary of the hypermarket research in Taiwan to date

Researchers	Title and Research Theme
Ting and Chen (2002)	Exploring determinants of the store image of mass merchandisers
Jhang (2002)	The composition of consumer's store image in general merchandise store: Tao Yuan area as case study an example
Huang et al. (2001)	Research on the store image and consumer's satisfaction: the case of convenience store and hypermarket
Chen (2002)	Reach the fit of hypermarket value proposition design and relation connection strategy
Huang (2001)	Research on the marketing strategy of own labels in Taiwanese hypermarket
Chen (2001)	Hypermarket in Taiwan: a discussion of new retail geography
Ting (2001)	Research on the quality and satisfaction of the hypermarket
Hou (2000)	Hypermarkets
Ting (1999)	Research of the factors of quality and satisfaction of the hypermarkets
Jian (1999)	Research of the purchasing strategy of the hypermarket retailers
Chen (1998)	The operation patterns of the hypermarkets in Taiwan
Dǒng (1997)	The contemporary situation and developing trend of the hypermarkets
Trappey and Lai (1997a)	Differences in factors attracting consumers to Taiwan's supermarkets and traditional wet markets
Trappey and Lai (1997b)	Retailing in Taiwan: modernization and the development strategy
Liou (1993)	Store image and marketing mix of the retailing industry: the case of the convenience stores the hypermarkets

Source: See the list of references under the column 'researchers' in the Table 2.7

These and many more factors are taken into account by retailers who wish to influence the growth of Taiwanese consumer loyalty and subsequently gain a substantial increase in their market share. Ultimately the measure of the accuracy and success of the research undertaken is, inevitably, measured by the influence it has on retailers who go on to create/provide the attributes deemed to have the greatest influence upon shoppers. However, despite the contributions made by the researchers listed above there is still the need for further research to address the relationship between 'store attributes' and 'consumer patronage' of hypermarket, supermarket, and traditional market store formats in the context of Taiwan grocery retailing. This statement clearly suggests that, although store attributes encompass both functional and psychological elements of store image, and formed the basis for many studies in different cultural settings, the nature of the relationship between each 'store attribute' and 'consumer shopping clusters' is not well understood in the context of Taiwan. Therefore, the thesis research question is ***"Can global food retailers using hypermarket store formats achieve and sustain their competitive advantage in emerging economies such as Taiwan?"***

In order to answer this research question, there is a need to identify what critical factors or variables impact on Taiwanese consumer's food shopping behaviour towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. Therefore, a cross-sectional investigation of Taiwanese consumer's perception of the three retail store formats becomes the first research objective. The second research objective will be to explain the relationship between store attributes and Taiwanese consumer patronage behaviour. The cross-sectional investigation of Taiwanese consumer's demographic characteristics will attempt to link the store attributes of the three retail store formats, and explore critical factors and variables influencing their competitive positions. The linkage of these processes and activities will be used to develop a conceptual framework for successful retail internationalisation in Taiwan—this will be the third research objective. The theoretical construct developed from the literature review to underpin the thesis' conceptual framework is explained below using the following four construct blocs:



Taiwanese consumers:

According to Carpenter and Moore (2006) consumers with different demographic characteristics, socioeconomic attributes and shopping orientation, have different perceptions of food store attributes and these can be segmented into different preference groups. It also helps retailers to adjust store image and the marketing mix to the target segments. Therefore, in order to explore Taiwanese grocery shopping habit and characteristics a broad range of data or information are needed. Taiwanese consumers shopping behaviour need to be defined and described in terms of a number of demographic variables (including age, gender, occupation, household income, education and housing), shopping habits (including where they shop, when to shop, who responsible to shop, what they buy, how often they shop, how much money they spend), and shopping destinations (primary and secondary).

The retail store formats:

Understanding what attributes encompasses the store image and how consumer perceptions are influenced by the characteristics of these attributes is critical to retail internationalisation (Burt and Carralero-Encinas, 2000). Sirohi et al. (1998) further suggested that consumer perceived overall benefit provided by retailers plays a critical role in the determination of store patronage and loyalty. However, the literature review revealed that Taiwanese consumer’s perception towards hypermarket have been well developed (Ting and Chen, 2002; Jhang, 2002), however, the perception towards supermarkets and traditional markets are not been well developed (Trappey and Lai, 1997b). A cross-sectional investigation regarding Taiwanese consumer’s perception towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets will provide useful comparison or the attributes of each store format and consumer perceptions. In this second construct bloc, the aim is to explore and identify Taiwanese consumers’ perceptions and attitudes towards the three retail store formats.

Critical factors and variables:

Since issues relating to retail internationalisation are embedded in a company’s growth strategies, it is more important to understand how host market's consumer preferences and choices impact the process of internationalisation (Alexander and Myers, 2000). Successful implementation of retail internationalisation strategies have contributed significantly to profit growth in many global retail firms and have attracted increasing academic attention as many global retailers continue to expand their operation into other newly emerging markets (Alexander and Myers, 2000). The literature suggests that theoretical understanding of the critical factors impacing retail internationalisation is needed in order to identify sources of competitive advantage for global food retailers in adopting hypermarket store formats (Simpson and Thorpe, 1995; Fernie and Arnold, 2002). This third construct bloc will therefore seek to identify critical factors and variables impacting on Taiwanese consumer behaviour as basis for identifying sources of competitive advantage. This will provide input into global retailer strategic management process.

Strategic analysis and implementation:

Strategy has been defined as the coordinated means, encompassing the pattern of actions by an organisation in achieving its objectives (Porter, 1991). This fourth construct bloc is a further development of the third construct bloc, in the sense that it adopts Johnson et al. (2007) 3-dimensional model for strategic management i.e. strategic analysis, strategic implementation and strategic control. The main purpose of using this model is to make the theses' conceptual framework theoretically sound by linking it with well established frameworks for strategic thinking, strategy formation and strategic change (De Wit and Meyer, 2004). Segmentation of shoppers on the basis of shopper's behaviour has led to development of successful marketing strategies for retail internationalisation. According to Jarratt (1996), identification of the key variables which influence shopper's behaviour has led to implementation of successful marketing strategies for retail internationalisation. This thesis will therefore segment Taiwanese shoppers based on a set of critical variables/factors in order to identify the key aspects important to global retailers who are seeking entry into newly emerging markets. Therefore, as part of global retailers' process of formulating successful competitive strategies, they need to analysis the host market to identify critical factors and sources of competitive advantage (Carpenter and Sanders, 2007).

The main idea behind this fourth construct bloc is similar to that of Dupuis and Prime (1996), who identified key determinants of success/failure in international operation. Similarly Alexander and Quinn (2002) explored factors relating to retailer divestment and withdrawal from international activity. In brief, the conceptual framework developed in this thesis will broaden the scope of retail internationalisation by identifying key sources of competitive advantagein the context of retail internationalisation in Taiwan as input into formulation and implementation of specific entry strategies by global food retailers.

2.6. Summary of Chapter

This chapter reviewed existing literature on the theories and practices relating to the concept of retail internationalisation in the context of how global food retailers adopt store formats such as hypermarkets in emerging markets including Taiwan. The literature revealed a clear gap between the theory and practice of retail internationalisation which suggest that understanding the various facets or factors in the context of the host market is critical to successful implementation of hypermarkets in emerging economies such as Taiwan (McGoldrick, 1995; Akehurst and Alexander, 1995a; Dupuis and Prime, 1996).

A critical review of the works of Dawson (1994), Arnold (1999), Burt and Carralero-Encinas (2000), Fernie and Arnold (2002) and Palmer (2005) suggest that lack of proper understanding of consumer shopping behaviour in emerging markets has led to inconsistent sales performance results of the global food retailers operating in Taiwan and in the Asia-Pacific Region. This raised a fundamental question whether or not global food retailers such as Carrefour and Tesco already operating in Taiwan are able to sustain their competitive advantage. This observation provides a rationale for further research to identify the main determinants of consumer store preferences and choices in order to understand what attracts Taiwanese consumers the most to different store formats such as hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets.

This chapter also acknowledged the fact that understanding the macro-environment prevailing in emerging markets like Taiwan is critical to understanding consumer preferences and choices. This is supported by Kotler (1994, p. 129) who argued that external environmental forces impact on both company performance and consumer behaviour. Davies (1995) also argued that the social and cultural factors impact retail internationalisation in the Asia-Pacific region. Below is a summary of trends in the key macro-environmental influences impacting on consumer behaviour and hypermarket development in Taiwan and in the Asia-Pacific region:

Politico-legal influences: *The repeal of Martial Law in 1987, led to liberal democracy, in Taiwan through implementation of regulatory approaches to economic development which brought about growth in the food retail industry. Local government also plays a vital role in retailing development. Policies that impact upon the Taiwanese retailing market are a relatively recent phenomenon. Such policies have a direct and profound effect on retail development (Yang and Li, 2003). The literature clearly suggests that international retailers are exposed to a political environment and consequent commercial regulations which would influence the direction of retailing development*

(Kirby, 1992; Alexander, 1997). For the international retailers, already exposed to operation or about to enter into international markets, the host country's government retailing policy and other regulations or projects will have a major influence upon retailing development strategies.

Economic influences: *Taiwan has enjoyed considerable growth and has remained relatively unaffected by the 1997 Asia financial crisis and the 1990s global recession. Taiwan has a relatively low household income inequality index and a low Gini concentration coefficient. Bende-Nabende and Ford (1998) firmly believed that FDI exerted significant influence on Taiwan's economic development through liberalisation and infrastructural building - this enticed greater financial support from abroad. In reviewing of Taiwan's economic achievement shows that a number of factors have combined to make Taiwan's retail market an attractive growth opportunity. First, the relatively less developed retail market has provided potential growth opportunities for international retailers (Trappey and Lai, 1997). Second, the economic growth rate is significant enough to attract foreign direct investment. Finally, the rapidly emerging middle class with increasing household income level would create a boom in demand for consumer goods.*

Socio-cultural influences: *Taiwan's population has increased from about 8 million in 1951 to 22 million in 2000, and is expected to climb to 25 million by 2050 (MOI, 2004). The rapid population growth signifies a rapid increase in product demand Women working outside the family has not only greatly increased a family's disposable income but also altered past family consumption habits. With Taiwan's class distinction increasingly becoming intermingled, many Taiwanese now have the chance to receive a higher education and display professional knowledge and skills to earn a sizeable income and enhanced social status (Yi and Jian, 2002). Although universal education has changed, Taiwanese attitudes have been heavily moulded by traditional cultural values (harmonious in every respect) and, when faced with a decision concerning household consumption, will look for compromise, arriving at a decision that combines elements of both individualism and collectivism. It could be found that individualist orientations are becoming stronger among the Taiwanese, especially in the higher educated middle classes, while issues concerning the family unit, consumption patterns and decision-making are designated more to the field of collectivist orientation (Hofstede, 1994).*

From the literature review there is a clear research gap and problem to underpin this thesis. This is the case because the literature reveals that Taiwanese consumer patronage of the hypermarket format appears to be largely due to their attitudes towards hypermarkets. The work of Ting and Chen (2002) on store attributes impacting on Taiwanese shopping behaviour suggests that consumer patronage depends on multiple factors, which are not well understood by many foreign retailers entering emerging markets – there is therefore an urgent need for further research to provide in depth explanation for consumer shopping behaviour in Taiwan. This development led to the identification of research gap and statement of three research objectives to answer the research question. A four dimensional theoretical construct bloc based on the literature review has being proposed to underpin the development of the conceptual framework in this thesis. The four dimensions comprise:

(1) Taiwanese consumers
(2) Three retail store formats
(3) Critical factors or variables and
(4) Strategic analysis and implementation.

The link between the research objectives and research methodology is provided in chapter three.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a critical review of the literature on research design comprising of positivist and phenomenological research philosophies, and their association with deductive and inductive approaches to research. It also examines the nature of qualitative and quantitative research methods and instruments and provides justification for the choice of the thesis research design, methods and instruments for primary data collection and analysis.

Section 3.2, reviews the literature on research design by critiquing alternative research philosophies, research approaches and research strategies. Section 3.3, compares and contrasts qualitative and quantitative research methods leading to justification for the research instruments selected. It also provides a link between the research question and objectives. It discusses the procedure for designing the questionnaires for the survey of hypermarkets, supermarkets, and traditional markets. Section 3.4, examines the qualitative and quantitative methods for analysing focus group interview transcripts and responses from a questionnaire survey. Finally, Section 3.5 provides a summary of the chapter and a link to Chapter Four.

For the purpose of this chapter, the thesis research question and objectives are restated below as follows.

Research question:

"Can global food retailers using hypermarket store formats achieve and sustain their competitive advantage in emerging economies such as Taiwan?"

Research objectives derived from the above research question are:

Research Objective #1: *To identify the critical factors or variables impacting on food retail internationalisation across hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan.*

Research Objective #2: *To describe the nature of the critical factors impacting on consumer behaviour towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan.*

Research Objective #3: *To explain the nature of the relationships between the critical factors as basis for developing a conceptual framework for successful retail internationalisation in Taiwan.*

These research objectives have been arrange in order of increasing academic rigour i.e. from exploratory research objective to conclusive research objective. The link between the research objectives and research methodology is provided in chapter three.

3.2. A critique of alternative research design

A research design is a general plan leading to the answer of the research question (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). A research design is needed at this point of the research, to help this researcher to explore consumer behaviour towards different food retailing stores and the influence of store attributes on consumer preference, particularly in relation to the hypermarket in overseas markets. In other words, it is a study to discover and understand how consumers perceive, think, feel and about their experience of different food retailing stores. For the purpose of this thesis this researcher seeks to adopt the phenomenological tradition, in order to understand the consumer behaviour in terms of their thoughts, images, feelings and experiences relating to the research issues, in additional to other relevant conditions of the whole shopping experience. Consumers all experience various types of food shopping experience influenced by their perceptions, imagination, thoughts, emotions, desires, and actions (Burt, 1995). This is not only passive experience as in feeling an emotional response to store attributes as in “liking” or “disliking”, but also active experience as in being in touch with the functional store attributes in ways that ensure that the consumer’s experience is an holistic one in which they experience complete social satisfaction or alternatively, of course, dissatisfaction. Such research processes are typical of phenomenology and the characterisation of the phenomenological approach (Flick, 2002). In consequence the dominant research philosophy to be adopted is phenomenology, nevertheless many of the processes, collection of data, use of questionnaires and their interpretation emulates the positivist approach since the data will be both qualitative and quantitative in its nature.

The collection of data will provide evidence of the existence of social facts, i.e. a variety of consumer behaviours. It is in the interpretation and understanding of the data that the phenomenological approach will be used to seek to understand and discover ways of influencing those social facts to the benefit of consumers and retailers alike.

3.2.1. The two extremes of research philosophies

A critical review of the literature on the philosophies underpinning research at the doctoral level reveals two extreme paradigms (Saunders et al., 1997, 2007; Potter, 2000; Cooper and Schindler, 2003; Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). Table 3.1 below presents the key characteristics of the two extreme research paradigms. First, at one extreme a positivist paradigm based on the assumption that there in one reality – it is rooted in scientific approach to understanding the world. Positivism reflects the principles of natural sciences which emphasises a highly structured methodology seeking replication (Saunders et al. 1997). Problem solving in this tradition follows a pattern of setting hypotheses, usually using quantitative techniques to test hypotheses and leading to the verification or rejection of the hypothesis. Second, at the other extreme a phenomenological paradigm based on the assumption that there are multiple realities – it is rooted in a social view of the world (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Saunders et al. 2007). Problem solving in the phenomenological tradition requires the research to make sense of qualitative data in the form of opinions and feelings of interviewees and respondents leading to the creation of a theory, conceptual framework or model to help explain pattern of behaviour (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Theories of consumer store patronage behaviour, as advocated by many researchers and practitioners, is almost always based on this approach which leads to the belief that consumer store patronage behaviour cannot be formulated, defined and analysed in an objective way.

Table 3.1
Key characteristics of positivist and phenomenological research philosophies

Positivism	Phenomenology
• *Theory or hypothesis testing leading to acceptance or rejection of existing theory* • *Deductive approach to research*	• *Creating theory from primary data collected* • *Inductive approach to research*
• *Quantitative data – numbers, statistics*	• *Qualitative data e.g. opinions and feelings – it is about understanding phenomena, i.e. things that appear in our experience, or the ways we experience things.*
• *Objectivity*	• *Subjectivity*

Sources: Durgee, 1987; Buttery and Buttery, 1991; Saunders et al. 1997; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002.

From Table 3.1 it can be argued that the advantages of the positivist approach lies in the understanding that knowledge can be created through clear problem solving techniques. Its approach to data collection and analysis are straightforward and achieved by objective interpretation of social facts (Buttery and Buttery, 1991). However, adaptation of natural science methodologies has limited the activity to finding practical solutions to problems rather than discovering methods of understanding problems frequently arising from disparate human behaviours. Phenomenology provides researchers with an opportunity to discover and understand the complexity of social facts (Durgee, 1987) and helps to shed light upon influences upon human behaviour that otherwise appear irrelevant. Therefore, phenomenology emphasises studies of conscious experience from the subjective or first person point of view. It has also been recognised as an alternative option to positivism in the research into consumer behaviour. Researchers in this tradition seek to describe and deal with what people's feelings, thoughts, and experiences, for example, what a product or service means in great detail (Moran, 2000; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002).

In practice, the phenomenological approach is used to describe how consumers currently position themselves relative to the product or service with reference to various factors that might, otherwise, appear to be of little relevance or significance. It has been applied to modify or create new theoretical frameworks or points of reference, which in turn are causing positivists to test the new theoretical framework or points of reference using scientific approaches (Durgee, 1987; Potter, 2000).

The importance of adapting the appropriate research philosophy lies in the influence it has upon the research approach, the choice of research strategy, and the time horizons as well as data collection methods used in the research (Mlhotra, 2007).

From the above review of existing literature it can be seen that any research philosophy is dependant on the way that the researcher thinks about how to do their research, develop knowledge and answer the research questions in order to achieve the research objectives (Saunders et al. 1997).

3.2.2. Inductive versus deductive approaches

A reference to the work of Silverman (2000) and Saunders et al. (2007) suggest that researchers adopting a positivist stance tend to use a deductive approach because they seek to test hypotheses, whereas researchers of the phenomenological school tend to adopt an inductive approach leading to theory creation. Each approach influences the reasoning process of the researcher (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). In this thesis, it is more realistic to treat food shoppers as normal consumers whose shopping behaviour is a consequence of the way in which they experience different food stores, rather than as if they were unthinking research objects who respond in a highly structured manner (Blaikie, 2000). Therefore, developing an understanding of the way in which consumers interpret their shopping behaviour in different cultural markets is more valuable, and is the strength of inductive approach.

An inductive approach is useful for the research, as it is particularly concerned with the context in which events and related store attributes influence consumer shopping habits in Taiwan. Moreover, researchers using inductive approach are more likely to work with a variety of methods to collect their data in order to establish different views of the phenomena (Mlhotra, 2007). In this thesis relevant primary data would be collected using mix research instruments, such as focus group interviews and questionnaires (Flick, 2002).

In situations where a researcher has made explicit assumptions about the relevant theories, then they have to use the deductive approach, which involves developing a theoretical basis and hypotheses, and designing a research strategy to test the hypotheses (Hakim, 2000). The deductive approach owes more to the research type and characteristics of positivism (see Table 3.1).

The inductive approach is particularly useful when researchers lack a clear theoretical concept to solve their research problems during research (Saunders et al, 1997). Researchers use an inductive approach to develop concepts through collecting data, establishing priorities, developing operational definitions, improving research design and formulating a theory as a result of data analysis. The inductive approach characterises more the discipline of phenomenology (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). Furthermore, an inductive approach usually involves a particular technique of information collection, content analysis, description and assessment of the characteristics of a set of data (Flick, 2002). This means relevant primary data can be collected using mix research instruments, such as focus group interviews and questionnaires.

In summary, the logical process of reasoning based on induction approach in this thesis would help achieve the three research objectives and ultimately answer the research question highlight earlier in this chapter. Attempting to understand, why Taiwanese consumers go to different retailing stores to buy the groceries they need for their household, what influences the consumers' preferences and choices requires adoption of a phonological stance and inductive reasoning.

3.2.3. Research objectives and alternative Research strategies

- ***Research objectives and research design process:***

Churchill and Iacobucci (2005) define the process of research design in three stages: (1) exploratory research, (2) descriptive and (3) causal research. This understanding of research design influenced the setting of the thesis' three research objectives. The first thesis objective is exploratory in nature because it identifies the critical factors impacting on food retail internationalisation across hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. It would help provide more insights into and comprehension of the problem relating to misunderstanding of Taiwanese shopping behaviour. This is consistent with the view of Malhotra (2007) who suggested that, there are other functions in exploration. For example, when making a new approach and still belonging to the fuzzy research field, researchers must use exploratory research in order to understand the basic question about the research. Important parameters of the research may be unknown or are not thoroughly defined, at these moments the research must be set up and the hypothesis arrived at via exploration first.

The second thesis research objective is descriptive in nature, because it seeks to describe the nature of the critical factors identified by the first research objective. The third research objective is a further development of the second objective in seeking to provide more insight by explaining the nature of the relationship between the critical factors and how they impact on consumer preferences and choices in the context of Taiwan. For example in consumer behaviour research, researchers are concerned with finding out who, what, where, when, why and how. While in a conclusive research researcher are interested in establishing cause and effect relationships and attempting to explain the relationships among variables (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). The implication of the above explanation of the process of research design means that the fieldwork for the thesis would be conducted in a logical or structured manner in two stages beginning with exploratory focus group interviews followed by a conclusive questionnaire survey of the three store formats, namely, hypermarkets, supermarkets, and traditional markets.

- ***Research objectives and research strategies:***

According to Saunders et al. (2007) researchers need to critically evaluate the environment in which the fieldwork strategy is to be implemented. They listed a number of options including Survey, Case Study, Experimentation Grounded Theory, Ethnography, and Action Research. The self-explanatory Table 3.2 below highlights the strengths and weaknesses in each fieldwork research strategy, and provides a justification for selecting the survey strategy for this thesis.

Table 3.2
Justification for choice of the Survey Strategy

Research Strategies/Options	Strengths	Weaknesses	Justification for Choice - Application to PhD Thesis
Survey (Saunders et al., 2007; Hussey and Hussey, 1997)	• Uses Questionnaires to collect large amount of standardised data from sizable population • Cost effective • Usually associated with deductive approach but may be used with inductive approach	• Required careful control of cash and efficient time management • Requires piloting of questionnaire • Narrow range of data collected	• 1200 questionnaires distributed in Taiwan • NT$ 12,000 spent • Standardised data for cross-sectional analysis using SPSS and Microsoft Excel • Applicable because sample frame well defined in terms of interviewees, respondents and store format selection
Case study (Morris and Wood, 1991)	• Small sample • Rich insight of research context • Effective for generalising using hypothesis testing	• Subjectivity and bias • Time consuming • Could be expensive • Ethical considerations	Even though suitable it is not applicable to thesis because of difficulty getting Retailers agreement - making cross-sectional research impossible

Table 3.2 - Continuation
Justification for choice of the Survey Strategy

Research Strategies/Options	Strengths	Weaknesses	Justification for Choice - Application to PhD Thesis
Experimentation (Eastery-Smith et al. 2002)	• Testing hypotheses • Samples from known populations • Able to control small number of variables	• Purely quantitative • Does not capture the opinions and feelings in the tradition of phenomenology	Not acceptable therefore not applicable to thesis because it requires the research to adopt a purely positivist stance
Grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967)	• Theory grounded in data collected • Data mainly qualitative and subjective – feelings and opinions • Mainly inductive approach – content analysis	• Time consuming • Expensive • Controversial raising a number of questions - is what is produced really 'theory'?, on the notion of 'ground' • Why is an idea of grounding the result important in qualitative inquiry?	Not practical because it is time consuming and expensive. It was agreed research objectives could be achieved satisfactorily by adopting a survey strategy
Ethnography (Douglas and Baron, 1996)	• Direct participant observation • Provide in-depth data • Problem-oriented research	• Time consuming and expensive • Difficulty managing large sample	Not practical because it requires a longitudinal study. The thesis is a cross-sectional study
Action Research (Eden and Huxham, 1996; Coghlan and Brannic, 2001)	• Researcher directly involved • Researcher able to the change research environment	• Research agenda may be misleading • Problem with sponsorship • Bias from researcher • Small sample	Not practical for this thesis because this researcher is not an employee of any hypermarket or supermarket

In summary it can be seen that this researcher intends to use a survey strategy to collect primary data on the opinions Taiwanese grocery shoppers have about store formats. A mix of interviews and questionnaires would be the main research instruments for the primary data collection. The interview transcripts would be analysed inductively in the tradition of phenomenologists and the responses to the questionnaires would be analysed quantitatively to collaborate the qualitative research findings.

3.3. Design of research instruments

The literature on design of research instruments for example interviews and questionnaire provides a clear guideline on the need for an effective design of specific research questions which elicit the expected response from interviewees and respondents (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005; Saunders et al., 2007). This is consistent with the need to achieve construct validity (Saunders et al., 2007). The theoretical justification for construct validity is based on the fact that an effective audit trail is needed to ensure that the responses to questions would help achieve the research objectives and ultimately provide the answer to the research question.

In relation to the nature of the primary data required to answer the thesis question and achieve the research objectives a reference to consumer behaviour is necessary – it means essentially qualitative data relating to the opinions and feelings of Taiwanese grocery shoppers would need to be collected through focus group interviews and questionnaires.

The exploratory focus group interviews would seek to identify themes relating to Taiwanese consumers degree of patronage to hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. Since the research purpose is to understand how hypermarket retailers establish and maintain their competitiveness in the local market. Consequently there is a need to describe the consumer behaviour and socio-demographic characteristic and to discuss the relationships between the relevant parameters.

The conclusive phase of the fieldwork involves using questionnaires to achieve the second and third research objectives which would provide a description and an explanation of the relationship between the critical factors and how they impact on consumer attitude towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan.

3.3.1. Negotiating access and research ethics

- ***The issue of physical, continuing and cognitive access:***

According to Sanders et al., (2007) the issue of gaining ‘access’ or entry into an organisation or identifying potential sources of data/information and research ‘ethics’ are critical aspects for any design of research instruments. In response to the question ‘what is access?’ Saunders et al. (2007) defines the types or levels of access needed by the researcher as follows

Table 3.3
Types and Levels of Access

Source: Based on the works of Gummesson (2000); Marshall and Rossman (1999)

Types or level of access	Appropriateness to thesis research question and objectives
Physical access or entry into an organisation (Gummesson, 2000)	• This thesis does not need any physical entry into an organisation because it is a survey of consumers patronising hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market store formats. This means there are no issues relating to confidentiality regarding company secrets. • It however needs access to consumers for the focus group interviews and questionnaires
Continuing access provides the research multiple access to an organisation after the initial access (Marshall and Rossman, 1999)	• Since a physical access was not needed in this thesis, there was no need for continuing access. • However regular access to relevant websites would be needed to gain access to data on grocery retail store markets already in the public domain. • Access to the same consumers who participate in the focus group interviews and questionnaires would be difficult
Cognitive access is about gaining a representative sample of participants within an organisation	• Since continuing access is not required for this thesis it means cognitive access would not be necessary for this thesis. • It means issues of confidentiality regarding company secrets do not arise. • It would be difficult to gain cognitive access to consumers for the focus group interviews and questionnaires

From the above table, it can be assumed that the issue of physical, continuing and cognitive access would not be a constraint in the successful implementation of the research methodology.

- ***The issue of research ethics:***

According to Sanders et al., (2007) the issue of research ethics emerge during the whole the research process. The literature defines ethics in terms of the appropriateness of the researcher's code of behaviour in relation to the rights of interviewees and respondents (Wells, 1994, p. 284).

Table 3.4
Ethical concerns during the Research Process
Source: Based on the works of Cooper and Schindler (2003); Marshall and Rossman (1999)

Stages of the thesis research process	Potential Ethical concerns relating to this PhD Thesis
Research design stage (Cooper and Schindler, 2003; Marshall and Rossman, 1999)	• Ethical issues were addressed during the thesis proposal stage with supervisors in relations to the rights of potential interviewees • The first draft interview questions and questionnaire was successfully piloted • Issues of access was considered less significant to this Thesis – see Table 3.3 above • Focus group participants were first asked for their consent before the interviews • Issues of confidentiality and anonymity were maintained
Fieldwork stage (Zikmund, 2000)	• The right of focus group participants to withdraw was addressed. • Participants had the right to refuse to answer particular questions if they wish to do so • Piloting of the interview and questionnaires led to improvement on the initial draft • Issues of confidentiality and anonymity were maintained
Data analysis and reporting – data protection	• Maintenance of objectivity through effective documentation and data presentation. • Concurrent approach to data collection and analysis was encouraged • Effective drafts and proof-reading and updating of work was encouraged • Issues of confidentiality and anonymity were maintained

From the above Table 3.4 above demonstrates that this researcher has a clear action plan in place to deal with ethical issues as they apply to every stage of the thesis' research process.

3.3.2. Designing Focus Group Interviews

For many decades, researchers have employed qualitative research methods to explore consumer's attitudes towards food retail stores. Focus group interviews are an efficient qualitative method used to uncover the 'why' behind the 'what' in participant perspectives (Morgan and Krueger, 1993). Focus groups help in the understanding of consumer preferences and choices, as they explore why people feel, think or act in a specific manner (McDaniel and Gates, 1999). For example, in order to understand consumers' patronage of a large food store, Morganosky and Cude (2000) used the focus group interview to study consumers' choices and experiences.

Flexibility and speed of data collection are two advantages arising from focus group interview technique due to that there is only one moderator interacting with six to eight participants. It is a quicker and cheaper method than interviewing a person individually (Webb, 2002). However, shortcomings are seen in the mainly small sample sizes that occur which do not accurately reflect the overall characteristics of the general population (Malhotra and Briks, 1999). Therefore, in respect of the above discussion, the research will initially employ the focus group interview as the qualitative approach to enhance the knowledge of the consumer behaviour and from the results, develop and modify subsequent questionnaires. Due to the fact that focus groups interview situations place people in natural, real-life situations, the dynamic nature of the group interaction can be captured. Further, group interactions can produce a broad spectrum of issues, which provide first-hand experience in observing and hearing consumers stating their opinions on certain topics (McClelland, 1994). The value of group dynamic interaction is two-fold, first, it can gather insight and expressions of group feelings for researchers who may not realise all the angles as they approach a subject, it is an extension of individual interviewing (Threlfall, 1999), and second, it can produce new and additional data and add to the explanation and understanding of an event, activity, or behavioural pattern in the discussion field (Frey and Fontana, 1993). Johns and Lee-Ross (1998) elaborate on this idea and suggested that focus group interviews are a good method to identify research issues for developing a questionnaire and can also be used in the piloting of questionnaires. Therefore, it can be suggested that as a research instrument, focus group interviews can provide a useful medium from which to explore and reinforce given research themes. This provides the justification for using the focus group interview in the exploratory phase of the fieldwork in this thesis.

3.3.3. Conducting Focus Group Interviews in Great Taipei

The aims and objects of the focus groups research is to discover the consumer's opinions and attitudes toward different food retail stores as well as the influence of the hypermarket format on shopping behaviour in Taiwan. The focus group interview stage is meant to be exploratory and would inform the design of the questionnaire. As Kinnear and Taylor (1996, p. 307-308) have pointed out, "A focus group can be defined as a loosely structured interactive discussion conducted by a trained moderator among a small group of respondents simultaneously". In this way, a focus group usually makes up a discussion from 6 to 8 people; a well-trained interviewer (i.e. moderator) leads the group in an in-depth discussion on one particular topic or concept. The responsibility of the interviewer is to introduce the theme to be discussed and encourage group members to speak up enthusiastically, such a discussion will usually last 60 to 90 minutes. The interviewer utilizes group dynamic principles to lead group members to carry on the exchange of their points of view, attitude and experience towards a specific theme. In a recent study, Greenbaum (2000) identifies that the most critical role of the moderator is to facilitate the focus group to accomplish the aims of the research. Basically, the moderator should be the leader in the group, direct the flow of discussion, build harmony with the participants, encourage involvement and achieve the objective of the research.

- ***Step One - Deciding the Interview Themes and Specific Questions***

The focus group interview themes were derived from the title of the thesis, the research question emerging from the literature review and the exploratory and conclusive research objectives for the thesis (see Table 3.5 below).

Table 3.5
From Thesis Title to Interview Themes
Source: Based on personal reflection

<table>
<tr><th>Title, Research Question /Objectives</th><th>Focus Group Themes – Keywords or subject areas</th><th>Specific question asked during focus group sessions</th></tr>
<tr><td>Title of Thesis</td><td>• Food retail internationalisation
• Taiwanese Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional market store formats (Q1 – Q6)</td><td rowspan="4">1. Please give us your opinions regarding the hypermarket or supermarket or traditional market where you buy food and grocery and how you feel about it?
2. Do you and your family also go to other places to buy food, and how do you feel about them?
3. What effect does value judgement or lifestyle have on your choice of store format?
4. What effect do religious beliefs have on your choice of store format?
5. Do traditional customs or festivals affect your choice of store format and how?
6. Does the change in consumption affect your lifestyle or the lifestyles of any of your family members and how – or vice versa?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Exploratory research objective – Research objective #1</td><td>• The identity of critical factors impacting on food retail internationalisation across hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional market store formats in Taiwan (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5, Q6)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Descriptive research objective – Research objective #2</td><td>• The descriptive nature of the critical factors impacting on consumer preferences and choices towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional market store formats in Taiwan (Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Explanatory research objective – Research objective #3</td><td>• Explaining the nature of the relationship between the critical factors impacting on consumer preferences and choices towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional market store formats in Taiwan (Q5, Q6)</td></tr>
</table>

Table 3.5 also provides a list of specific questions asked during the focus group discussion sessions which took place in Great Taipei Taiwan during 2002. The response to questions asked during the interviews were tape recorded and later transcribed – the approach used is described in detail later in this chapter.

- ***Stage Two - Data collection during the interview sessions***

Skill training and a pilot focus group:

Prior to conducting the focus groups, the researcher participated in a group interview training course led by a professional moderator to learn necessary interviewing skills at the University of Sunderland, United Kingdom during the 2001/2002 academic year. Furthermore, a pilot focus group interview session was conducted by the researcher to learn the practice and handling of the process during the fieldwork to help modify any necessary interview guidelines for the focus group interviews in Taiwan.

Initial consideration:

A review of the work of Kenyon (2004) suggested the formation of friendship groups to facilitate the focus group interview process. It involves selection of interviewees who know each other - this is believed helps participants to relax and to feel encouraged to participate in the group discussion (Kenyon, 2004). Focus group participants were invited on a voluntary basis. Moreover, participants were required to be the main person responsible for household grocery purchases.

Eligible participants were screened using a screening criteria (see Appendix C1a) which includes gender, age, marital status, education level, work status, and family’s annual income. Men were not included in the focus group interview because men easily can dominate a discussion (Morgan, 1997) and further because less than ten per cent for men are the primary household shoppers in Taiwan (Taiwan Census Bureau, 2002). Considering such reasons, it was determined that men participants should be excluded in the group interviews.

Recruiting Participants:

Three focus groups were conducted in the Great Taipei area, in mid November to mid December 2002. These were made up of 6, 6, and 8 participants were respectively selected to discuss their attitudes towards hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market store formats. Regular food and groceries shopping was a prerequisite for the participants' selection. Further, a screening questionnaire (see Appendix C1a) was firstly used in the recruitment to ensure that all participants met the criteria selected for the research. This results showed that all of participants were female, married, age between 30-60, in a full-time job or a full-time housewife and responsible for buying food and groceries for their families.

Discussion Guide:

To capture detailed responses of opinions and attitudes, a discussion guide (see Appendix C1b) was first delivered to the participants at the beginning of the group discussion. Focus group participants were initially given the chance to express their opinions generally regarding where they might buy food and groceries for their families. This open-ended question also gave an insight into how participants perceived different retail stores and how they viewed the experience and shed light upon their attitudes. A transition question was asked regarding how new retail stores (the hypermarkets) might have influenced them in their store choice, and found out what motivated them to go to competing stores.

Key discussion issues included reasons for shopping in different retail stores, influencing factors to shop at particular retail stores for their families, and any motives, factors and reasons that may lie behind changes in shopping decisions. This particular question is crucial to identify the consumer's perceptions of different retail stores. All of the above questions were asked during all focus group sessions. The remaining questions related to the contents of questionnaires, which are designed for shopping in different retail formats.

A final question allowed participants to state their final position on critical areas regarding the different retail stores. It also allowed participants to reflect on all comments shared in the discussion and to clarify their position at the conclusion of the discussion (Greenbaum, 2000). This particular question aided in the interpretation of conflicting comments and gave an insight into what each participant considered important.

Analysis:

All focus groups were audio-taped and transcribed verbatim by the researcher and forwarded to a professional editor to enhance accuracy and make them readable for readers. All data that related to a particular topic or theme was categorised and given a name. Naming can organise data and facilitate interpretation. The screening questionnaire, the discussion guide and the transcripts from the focus groups interviews are presented in Appendices C2a, C2b and C2c including the originally version in Chinese.

Within female friendship groups, this researcher felt that participants were more likely to speak of their perceptions and attitudes toward the grocery stores as well as their personal shopping experience without hesitate. This helped to overcome the difficulty most Taiwanese female participants face when speaking out in public – this partially explains why qualitative approach is rare in Taiwan research circles and the initial problems encountered by this researcher during the interviewing process might be attributed to this reason. As it turned out, the focus group interviews helped in identifying a key areas or themes for the design of the questionnaires used during the conclusive phase of the fieldwork.

3.3.4. Benefits of using qualitative and quantitative methods

According to the literature primary data represent data collected to address a specific issue or problem at hand, in this case the research question or research objectives (Saunders et al., 2007). Efficient and effective primary data collection greatly benefits research. Primary data in nature comprises of both qualitative data and quantitative data, and can therefore be generated using qualitative and quantitative techniques for data collection (Berman and Evans, 2001). A qualitative method has been defined as an unstructured, exploratory research methodology based on small samples that provide insights and understanding of the problem setting, while a quantitative method seeks to quantify the data and, typically, applies some form of statistical analysis (Malhotra and Birks, 1999). Furthermore a quantitative method is "well suited to providing certain types of factual, descriptive information" (De Vaus 2002, p. 5). By contrast, qualitative methods are often featured as providing "rich data about real life people and situations and being more able to make sense of behaviour and to understand behaviour within its wider context" (ibid, p.5). Moreover, the qualitative method is more flexible, thus enabling respondents to be free to express experiences and feelings in their own terms and context (Malhotra and Birks, 1999). However, in much consumer research, using inductive thought as research reasoning, both qualitative and quantitative methods are viewed as complementary with each other (Kenyon, 2004).

In the exploratory research at first stage, both qualitative and/or quantitative techniques can be used to collect primary data. However, at the exploratory stage it is usual to use qualitative techniques. And the main difference between qualitative technique and quantitative technique lies in the fact that qualitative technique seeks to analyse the basic characteristic or essence of the subject; quantitative technique strives to research the quantity of the subject. Qualitative means what the essence of the subject is which will influence the direction of the follow-up research; while the quantitative seeks to quantify the subject, which is to point out the effects of the research (Malhotra and Birks, 1999).

An inductive approach containing both qualitative and quantitative techniques is frequently used in many exploratory researches regarding consumer behaviour. For example, Van Kenhove et al. (1999) use both qualitative and quantitative methods in the research of a consumer's store choice. The in-depth interview (qualitative approach) is initially applied which then allows the use of the quantitative method: the questionnaire accounts for data collection. In Kim and Jin's (2001) Korean consumers' patronage study, the questionnaire (quantitative approach) development was based on a preliminary telephone interview (qualitative approach), this was conducted to identify shopper's patronage patterns and reasons for making specific choices.

Chetthamrongchia and Davies (2000) considered two focus groups for qualitative research aimed at observation of and learning food shopper's behaviour before developing a quantitative questionnaire and analysis. Hence, with a little knowledge in the initial research stage, qualitative research will provide fundamental information and knowledge for further investigation. Based on the information and knowledge gained in the initial stage, quantitative follow-up research can be conducted. With respect to the theoretical underpinnings and empirical evidence, the research process follows previous studies in which both qualitative and quantitative methods will be applied to achieve the understanding of consumer’s patronage behaviour.

In the second phase of the thesis, a descriptive approach is chosen to collect primary data. In descriptive research involving investigating behavioural and attitude issues, quantitative questionnaires enables researchers to identify and describe the variables in different phenomena, and provide an accurate and valid depiction of those variables, then make inferences from these (Oppenheim, 1996). Therefore, the linkage of the research in the Taiwanese consumer research is to use a structured questionnaire in the descriptive section.

In addition, there are two major advantages to employing qualitative and quantitative methods in the same study (Sanders et al., 2007). The first advantage is that different research methods can be used for different purpose in a research. For example, in this research, focus group interview was used to get key critical factors influencing consumer store preferences and choices before embarking on questionnaires. This would give the researcher confidence to address the key issues.

The second advantage of using multi-methods is that it enables **triangulation**. Triangulation refers to the use of different data collected methods within one research in order to ensure that the data are telling you what you think they are telling you (Sanders et al., 2007). The mixing of data collected methods is a more profound form of triangulation. Triangulation not only aims at validation but at deepening and widening researcher's understanding (Olsen, 2004). For example, in this research semi-structured focus group interviews may be a valuable way of triangulating data collected by questionnaires. This gives the researcher a much better grasp of the attitude and experience of the household's grocery shoppers. It also enhances the credibility of the research; it enables the researcher to draw on the valuable data to in the follow-up questionnaires of the main research task.

3.3.5. Designing the Survey Questionnaires

In order to produce an effective questionnaire for the pilot test and for the main survey, some important considerations have to be made in respect of the socio-cultural differences in Taiwan. Four factors were seriously considered before designing the questionnaires these factors include the (1) type of data or information required for the research, for example information relating to demographic characteristics, shopping habits, store loyalty, as well as perceptions regarding store attributes were required, (2) the respondents to be surveyed, (3) the type of method to be employed and (4) where the canvassing is to take place.

This is important because the type of question asked should help the respondent to provide his/her opinions with regard to the important characteristics of the food retail store formats where he/she currently shop in. In order to compare consumer behaviour towards the three store formats, three different questionnaires, based around issues pertinent to the traditional market, supermarket and hypermarket need to be designed using the self-explanatory nine-step design procedure developed by Churchill and Iacobucci (2007) shown in Table 3.6 below.

Table 3.6
Nine-step of thesis questionnaire design procedure
Source: Adapted from Churchill and Iacobucci (2007)

Churchill and Iacobucci (2007)	Thesis Questionnaire Design
Step One: Specify what information will be sought	Both mainly qualitative relating to how Taiwanese shoppers feel about hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. In order to collaborate the qualitative results, some quantitative data relating to demographic characteristics and sales performance figure of each store format would also be collected
Step Two: Determine type of questionnaire and method of administration	A structured questionnaire made up of a mix qualitative and quantitative questions would used. The questions used were derived from the thesis research question and objectives. To capture the response a Likert-scale format would be used. Few open-ended questions were also added just in case respondents wish to provide additional data/information To improve the response rate the questionnaire would be self-administered to potential respondents (Saunders et al., 2007)
Step Three: Determine content of individual questions	The content of both the qualitative and quantitative questions were derived from the thesis research question and objectives – themes or subject areas: • *Shopping preferences as the key measure of consumer behaviour* • *Related demographics, habits, experiences*
Step Four: Determine form of response to each question	Two forms of response were required: • *Mostly closed questions* • *Few open-ended questions*
Step Five: Determine wording of each question	The wording of both closed and open-ended questions were based on the focus group interview themes and results
Step Six: Determine sequence of questions	Sequence of questions based on sequence used during the focus group interview themes and theoretical construct from the literature review
Step Seven: Determine physical characteristics of questionnaire **Step Eight:** Re-examine step 1 to 7 and revise if necessary **Step Nine:** Pre-test questionnaire and revise if necessary	Four-page questionnaire on A3 paper was considered appropriate following piloting. It provides a brief on the purpose for the research and clear instructions respondents on how to answer the questions asked

The questionnaire is divided into six parts, namely Parts A to F as shown in Table 3.7 below. The complete version of the actual questionnaires used for the survey for each store format is presented in Appendix D1 (Hypermarkets), Appendix D2 (Supermarkets), and Appendix D3 (Traditional markets).

Table 3.7
The Six-Part Questionnaire for the Conclusive Research Survey
Source: Adapted from Churchill and Iacobucci (2007)

Parts	Research Themes	Content of Questions
A	**Demographic characteristics** (10 Questions)	Age
		Gender
		Marital status
		Level of education
		Employment or work situation
		Family annual income (2)
		Home (3)
B	**Shopping habits** (9 Questions)	Store formats used (2)
		Weekly shopping days, trips & time (3)
		Holiday Shopping (2)
		Shopping expenditure (2)
C	**Shopping trips** (7 Questions)	Store format & purpose of trip (2)
		Transportation
		Distance & time from home (2)
		Expenditure
		Shopping experience
D	**Alternative store formats** (4 Questions)	Experience in other store formats (2)
		Expenditure
		Shopping Frequency
E	**Shopping preferences and attitudes** (28 Questions)	Product range & quality (5)
		Pricing & payment policy (2)
		Distance of store format from home (2)
		Parking spaces and car services (3)
		Consumer service (2)
		Loyalty and bonus schemes (2)
		Shopping space & atmosphere (8)
		Critical factors and decision making
		Main complaints
F	**Shoppers overall evaluation of their shopping experiences** (3 Questions)	Recommendation
		Shopping enjoyment
		Other factors
	Average total number of questions = 58 questions **Hypermarket = 61 Supermarket = 58 Traditional markets = 56**	

3.3.6. Piloting the Survey Questionnaires

The main purpose for piloting the questionnaire was to determine the suitability of the content, wording and distribution of the questions prior to implementation of the actual survey. A summary of the results and findings is provided below including the limitations and benefits of the pilot study to the main research.

Summary of results and findings from the pilot study

In respect of suggestions made by the focus group participants, the pilot questionnaires were hand delivered to parents of students of Aletheia University and members of the University alumni. The researcher spoke to students and members of the alumni to find out, initially, where their families did most of their shopping, and on that basis gave them one of the hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market questionnaires. From the frequency distribution using the zip code it was revealed that the respondents came from all over the Great Taipei area. This was therefore beneficial in that respondents came from a wide geographical area. A convenient sample of 87 parents of students at Aletheia University was selected and questionnaires hand delivered to them through the students. The response rate was 90%. The responses to the questionnaire were analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science) and Microsoft EXCEL.

First, some significant features regarding respondents' demographic characteristics can be described as follows:

- ***Age**: - The age groups of 40-49 and 50-59 are significantly represented among the questionnaires' respondents.*
- ***Gender**: - Female respondents are mainly responsible for the household food and grocery shopping.*
- ***Education**: - On average, the respondents who prefer shopping at the*

traditional market are found to be at lower education levels than the other two groups of respondents who prefer to shop at the supermarket and hypermarket.

- ***Marital Status**: - Most of the respondents are married women or women in full time employment.*
- ***Family Income**: The annual income of most respondents' families are in the categories marked under NT$ 700,000 (£12,727, £1=55) and NT$ 700,001-1,200,000 (£12,727-£21,818). Most respondents' families show characteristics of dual incomes, fewer family members and smaller domiciles.*

Second, results of respondents' shopping habits and store preferences reveal the following:

- ***Alternative store formats**: - Around 50 percent of the hypermarket respondents indicated that they also go to the traditional market to buy groceries for their families. For supermarket respondents, 35.7 percent indicated they also shop at the traditional markets, but 60.7 percent show their shopping preference to be supermarkets. Only 3.6 percent of the supermarket shoppers indicated they also go to the hypermarket. As for the traditional market respondents, 90.3 percent indicated they prefer buying groceries from the traditional markets.*
- ***Shopping times**: - Shopping in the morning was the most popular shopping time and traditional markets were chosen as the preferred place to do that shopping than in other formats on public holidays or traditional festivals. Most of the respondents shopped 1-3 times per week, spending 1-4 hours in total.*
- ***Transportation**: - Around 80 percent of the respondents go to the hypermarkets by car and take less than 30 minutes (89.3 percent) to travel within 12 kilometres (75 percent) to the hypermarkets. Most of them spend around NT$500-2,000 (£9-36) on food items and non-food items per visit. When asked who accompanies the respondent on the shopping trip, 89 percent indicated having companion with them, most being family members.*
- ***Consumer Loyalty**: - Concerning store loyalty, all the hypermarket respondents indicated they had shopped at other stores within the last two months. Carrefour featured as the most popular hypermarket retailer, followed by Rt-Mart and Fe-Geánt respectively.*

Third, regarding the agreement of consumer's perceptions and attitudes towards a retailing store, the pilot results show that (in the order of priority).

- ***Hypermarkets:*** *- Providing parking spaces, offering wider assortment of products and having pleasant atmosphere were treated as the three most important features attracting respondents to the hypermarkets.*
- ***Supermarkets:*** *- Providing a hygienic, clean and well-decorated shopping environment, being located near by and offering food and groceries under one roof were felt to be the top three attributes at the supermarkets.*
- ***Traditional markets****: - Providing better quality, close location and fresher food were recognised as the top three most important elements in their favour.*

Finally, with respect to the open-ended question, regarding hypermarkets, there were a significant number of respondents who doubted the quality of the products. As for the supermarket, some questioned the freshness of the wrapped perishable food. With respect to the traditional market, most of the respondents mentioned the dirty and unhygienic environment. However, when asked to rate the shopping experience generally, most respondents gave the traditional markets the highest score (74.2 % in “highly likely” and “likely” to recommend the format) followed by the hypermarkets (57.1 %) while only half (50 %) were willing to recommend the supermarket.

The above responses are consistent with the expected responses to similar questions used in various demographic studies (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2007; Burt, 1995). This shows that from a design point of view the questions asked were valid i.e. high construct validity, because the questions elicit the expected responses.

Limitations of the pilot test

The results of the pilot study confirm that the questionnaires could not be conducted personally in the vicinity of the retailing stores, the reasons being:

1. *There have been many cases in Taiwan of interviewers making use of the personal details obtained from the questionnaires for commercial purpose.*

2. *Grocery shoppers are reluctant to complete questionnaires because they are time-consuming. It takes around 15 to 20 minutes to fill out a questionnaire.*
3. *Most of the Taiwanese do not like to complete long questionnaires in a public area. There are four pages of questions in an individual questionnaire on average.*

Benefits from the pilot test

The pilot test provided this researcher with valuable knowledge and information concerning the research and suggestions to improve the questionnaire's design. With respect to the feedback from the questionnaire respondents and participants of the focus group interviews, some adjustments have to be made to the questionnaires. For example:

- ***Family income****: - Income was shown to be a sensitive issue for respondents and so it was better to enlarge the income categories starting from NT$1,000,000. In respect of a suggestion from one of the focus groups, the main survey was conducted among parents of the university students - therefore, the wording of "This Shopping Trip" (in the Section C) was amended to "The Last Shopping Trip".*
- ***Administration of the questionnaire****: - The method of distributing the questionnaire in the pilot and the new version of the questionnaires will be used in the main survey. In addition, it was felt that clear instruction with a professional appearance would elicit a better response rate and enable the questionnaires to be more efficiently collected. As a result, a new version of the questionnaire is to be printed with a professional arrangement in an A3 paper to facilitate the respondents' ease in completion of the questionnaire.*
- ***Analysis:*** *- Factor analysis can be applied to simplify variables into a fewer number of factors by identifying relationships between variables; this technique is appropriate for analysing consumer's perceptions and attitudes. However, researchers have suggested that to run a factor analysis, at least 100 samples are needed (Saunders et al., 2007). Since the pilot test used only a small number of samples, with around 30 respondents from each questionnaire, it is not feasible to run the factor analysis via the SPSS in the pilot test.*

3.3.7. Sampling for the main questionnaire survey

- ***Probabilistic and Non-probabilistic sampling techniques***

Sampling is the process by which a certain number of sample units are selected from the population. Two main types of sampling, probability and non-probability, are identified as being the most important ones in the sampling of populations (Webb, 2002). A probability sample could be taken by starting at a pre-selected random numbers table and has a characteristic of equal probability of each sample selected by a single stage procedure. Therefore, a probability sample can contain no bias resulting form the way which the sampling process was carried out. However, there may be situations where probability sampling is either impractical or unnecessary, particularly where the population is so great and widely dispersed, such as when the research is aimed at conducting a survey to explore Taiwanese consumer behaviour, when a probability sampling would be too expensive, time consuming and inefficient. In such a case a probability sample would not provide a representative sample; it could never depict an exact replica of that population (Tull and Hawkins, 1993; Webb, 2002).

- ***Using Quota sampling technique***

In respect to the above discussion, a non-probability sampling could be more effectively used in the research. In non-probability sampling techniques, the sample is chosen at the convenience of the researchers to fulfil the demands of some research purpose (Webb, 2002). One kind of non-probability, quota sampling techniques, is particular useful for the research. Quota sampling is a non-probability technique aimed at producing representative samples without a random selection of cases and is normally used for interview surveys (Saunders et al, 1997). Quota sampling can also be used to estimate certain facts about a defined population. For example, the research is required to select a sample of family members who are responsible for household grocery shopping and represented in the sample in the same proportion as they exist in the population. Therefore, quota sampling can be used in the research due to its focusing upon one or a number of relative attributes in which selected samples represent a deliberate selection of population (Hague,1993). Moreover, the advantages of quota sampling are that it is relatively low cost and quick on data gathering, thus giving survey results much quicker than random samples.

- ***Choice of a single sampling location in Taiwan***

As the objective of the research is to explore Taiwanese consumer behaviour regarding grocery shopping in respect of different food retailing stores, this has to be considered as one of the criteria for quota sampling. This suggests in practice that the survey will be better to be conducted in a single location. The chosen location was the Great Taipei area. The main reason for this choice was that the Great Taipei area is the largest metropolitan area. All kinds of food retailing stores, new to the market or old established are very competitive in the area. People living there can very easily shop at any of the types of retailing store without difficulty. The numbers of the hypermarket and other food retailers are known and already established in those locations for some time. The Great Taipei area includes a large number of hypermarket store formats.

As the focus groups have indicated that there is a drawback in using the face-to-face interview method, a modified sampling plan is needed to be applied to the main survey. According to Saunders et al. (1997), personal delivery and collection of questionnaires, by hand, offers the advantage of in-home personal interview, mall intercept interviews and mail interviews, and this method confirmed the criteria identified in the quota sampling. Furthermore, distributing questionnaires to prospective respondents through university students could be of benefit in that respondents could come from a wider geographical area at the same time avoiding the drawback of the face-to-face interview methods. The main survey was conducted over a three-month period, just four months after the pre-test.

- ***Total number of questionnaires for the main survey***

A total of 1200 questionnaires, 400 for each food retail store format operating in the Great Taipei area, were distributed through university students and alumni.

Store Formats in the Great Taipei area during the period of study: 2002-03	***Number of Questionnaire distributed***
Hypermarket	400
Supermarket	400
Traditional market	400
Total	1200

3.4. Methods for Primary Data Analysis

Data extracted from interviews and questionnaires are useful only after converting the raw data via the data collection instrument into a computer-readable form, followed by a deliberate analytical procedure. Therefore, data analysis involves selecting analytical approaches, converting a series of recorded data into descriptive statements and/or making inferences about relationships (Tull and Hawkins, 1993).

Sub-section 3.4.1 discusses the use of ‘content analysis’ to analyse the focus group interview transcripts. Sub-section 3.4.2 examines the use of various quantitative methods such as descriptive statistics, factor analysis, cluster analysis, hypothesis testing and chi-square testing to analyse the responses to the questionnaires.

3.4.1. Content Analysis of Focus group interviews

Content analysis has been defined as a systematic method for analysing, compressing and classifying many words, report or film into fewer themes or groups in a standardised way based on a coding process (Zimmer and Golden, 1988; Stemler, 2001). According to Kassarjian (1977) a content analysis is characterised as a systematic process. Such technique has been discussed and used in different fieldwork of qualitative research (Weber, 1990; Stemler and Bebell, 1998). In content analysis, the most common way is using coding process as part of word frequency counts. The approach can also be used to analyse responses to open-ended questions in questionnaire (Stemler, 2001).

In consumer behaviour research, content analysis has been developed beyond simple word counts - using the notion of categorising of the data (Zimmer and Golden, 1988). A category is a group of words with similar meaning or connotations (Weber, 1990). In the work of Zimmer and Golden (1988), content analysis was used to determine the nature of consumer's perceptions towards a department store. They argued that compared to traditional descriptive image methods, content analysis may capture the richness of retail store image. As an exploratory research, particular in the first stage – qualitative research, focus group was used to examine consumer perception of retail store formats. In accordance with phenomenologist position, content analysis was considered suitable for analysing participants' perception and feelings in terms of categories (Uusitalo, 2001). In the work of Huddleston et al. (2004) consumer's store loyalty, participants' preference and report towards retail store formats were put into a classification with marketing notion. Therefore, participants' language and views within focus group interviews can be turned into themes or terms in connection with retail marketing theory in this research.

3.4.2. Methods for analysing responses to questionnaires

The second research objective is to describe the nature of the critical factors impacting consumer behaviour in Taiwan. In order to achieve this objective a description of the characteristics of the sample would be needed in order to make inferences about the population from which the sample was drawn. The following analytical approaches would be implemented:

Descriptive statistics

The aim of descriptive statistics is to provide a summary of the data contained in all samples. In other words, descriptive statistics summarise numerical or non-numerical data to make data easier to interpret (Dholakia, 1999). Use of descriptive statistics can be the first step towards exploring and understanding the respondents' profile (e.g. demographic data and shopping habits). Hence, frequency distribution, as illustrated by bar charts and tables would be used to identify and describe the characteristics, preferences, and attitudes of respondents who are involved in the research theme (Kinnear and Taylor, 1996; Malhotra and Birks, 1999; Corston and Colman, 2003). Frequency tables are the most used tabular method conveying distributions of a single variable in a given study - such distributions can be displayed effectively with graphs (De Vaus, 2002).

Factor analysis

The research would seek to explain consumer shopping behaviour from a set of store attributes, which have influenced shoppers' perceptions and attitudes towards different store formats. Store attributes are independently collected and designed this means no store attributes are designated as being predicted by others. However, many of the variables might correlate, and the researcher knows that this might adversely affect the results (Kinnear and Taylor, 1996). Factor analysis has been used to solve this problem, and can be used in the measuring process and explaining the outcome of consumer store preferences (Chetthamrongchia and Davies, 2000; Kim and Jin, 2001) and retail store attributes (Boedeker, 1995; Moschis, et al. 2004).

Furthermore, the factor analysis technique involves the examination of more than two variables simultaneously. It measures the alpha-coefficient (α) values of a large number of variables and extracts a lesser number of general factors, rather than responses to all individual variables (De Vaus, 2002). Moreover, this technique seeks to establish whether all variables have a small number of factors in common which account for their inter-correlation (Kinnear and Taylor 1996). In other words, the aim of factor analysis is to group together variables that are highly correlated into a small number of explainable factors on the bases of the alpha coefficient values.

There are two basic reasons for performing a factor analysis in the research. First, it can be used to reduce a set of store attributes to one of a significantly smaller number of essential or critical factors. This final set of critical factors is then used more efficiently to analyse the results of a given study or to reduce the amount of variables needed in subsequent studies, such as cluster analysis (Corston and Colman, 2003). This is the rationale for doing a factor analysis before cluster analysis in this thesis. Second, it helps to uncover an underlying structure in the variables. That is to say, this analysis assumes that the large number of variables is expressed by a small amount of key but unmeasured factors. Thus the use of factor analysis in the research will facilitate interpretation of the results and subsequent analysis (De Vaus, 2002).

The procedures and mechanics of analysing correlations to derive the factors can be found in Lewis-Beck (1994) and Bryman and Cramer (1999), and will be applied to demonstrate the analysis of store attributes in Chapter Four. In short, factor analysis reduces a large number of variables to a small number of essential factors which facilitates the research work at a more refined conceptual level and makes any further analysis less difficult.

Cluster analysis

Cluster analysis is a technique that is commonly used to classify respondents with respect to a particular attribute (Chetthamrongchai and Davies 2000). Some researchers focused on consumer’s shopping preferences, orientation and attitudes. Others have examined consumer’s shopping behaviour, in order to identify consumer’s segments who share similar views (Moye and Kincade 2003). Cluster analysis can be used to identify consumer groups who share similar shopping preferences and attitudes. This researcher is interested in identifying and classifying existing shoppers, therefore, the results from the factor analysis would be used as a base for identifying Taiwanese shopping cluster according to their perceptions and attitudes towards the three store formats.

Hypothesis testing

Since this thesis is a cross-sectional research of hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan, it is also important to understand the relationship between the behaviours of hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market shoppers (*Flavián et al., 2001; Mlhotra, 2007*). This is to say, it is interested in which store format has the most positive attributes that influences the respondents’ preferences and choices relating to a particular store format. A simple hypothesis testing would therefore be conducted, i.e. one-way ANOVA with Post Hoc pairwise multiple comparison technique to compare differences in the levels of significance - it assesses the probability of any difference of shoppers' perception and attitudes among the three store formats by comparing the average agreements (Thomas and Garland 2004).

Chi-square testing

Having identified shoppers' perception towards different store formats, this research intends to conduct further analysis using chi-square techniques to provide more in depth understanding of the relationship between store preferences and consumer demographic characteristics. A common practice is to use Pearson Chi-square analysis technique to discover whether statistically significant relationship can be observed in the use of cross-tabulation (Davies and Flemmer, 1995). This would form the base for developing the conceptual framework for effective implementation of retail internationlisation in Taiwan – this framework is one of the thesis objectives and would make a significant contribution to knowledge. This provides a logical justification for exploring the relationships between shopper's behaviour towards the three store formats (Merrilees and Miller 2001; Koo, 2003).

In summary, store attribute measurements seek to focus on the particular preferences and choices of a specified group of consumers. With such understanding and knowledge, it is justifiable to apply descriptive statistics, factor analysis, cluster analysis, hypothesis testing and chi-square testing to the research of Taiwanese store patronage behaviour.

3.4.3. Addressing issues of validity and reliability

The literature on research methodology requires researchers to critically address the issues of validity and reliability. The issue of ‘validity’ needs to be addressed because it seeks to determine whether or not the research instruments or the questions in the questionnaire or interviews, elicit the expected response to the questions asked. The issue of ‘reliability’ is a measure of the consistency of the result obtained (Suanders et al., 2007). This thesis would use semi-structured focus group interviews and structured questionnaire survey as the research instruments – addressing the issues of validity and reliability in relation to thesis instruments is therefore important.

- ***Validity in interviews***

Validity refers to the extent to which data collection methods accurately measure what they were intended to measure, it is concerned about the extent to which research findings are really about what they appear to be about (Saunders et al., 2007). With ragards to **validity** in semi-structured interview, it is the extent to which the researcher gains access to participants’ attitudes, perceptions and experiences. It allows the researcher to infer meanings that participants intended from the language that was used by participants (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). A high level validity in semi-structured interview is related to the flexible and responsive interaction between interviewer and participants, which allows meanings to be probed, topics to be covered from a variety of angles and questions made clear to participants (Healey and Rawlinson, 1994). However, semi-structured interviews will not be able to make any generalisation where there are limitations of small number of participants (Yin, 1994).

- ***Validity in questionnaires***

The validity of a questionnaire design will enable accurate data to be collected (De Vaus, 2002). There are three types of ‘validity’ in relation to questionnaire design: (1) criterion-related validity (predictive or concurrent), (2) content validity and (3) construct validity (Churchill, 2001). First, **criterion-related validity** requires the research instruments (interview and questionnaires) to explore consumer behaviour but not to predict (Saunders et al., 2007). Therefore, this research is concerned about concurrent validity which relates to ongoing situation or developing in shopping habits in Taiwan not predictive validity. The questionnaire design in Parts B, C, and D is relevant to consumer shopping behaviour. In Part E, the attitude scales illustrate the shopping preference of the respondent and his/her family. Further, the questionnaire was designed to elicit response from one (man or woman) responsible for household grocery shopping - therefore the design can be described as free of bias.

Second, allowing suggestions to be made by experts on the structure of questionnaire will help establish **content validity** (Mitchell, 1996). With regards to this, the content, the wording and the sentences of the questionnaire and the interview questions for this research have reviewed by marketing experts and supervisory team in of Sunderland University, and carefully translated to Chinese, then reviewed by the focus groups and finally tested through a pilot study, where a sound content validity can be achieved.

Third, the research is aimed to explore the Taiwanese consumer's shopping behaviour towards the retailing store, the issue of **construct validity** is needed to measure what is to be measured (Webb, 2002). The questionnaire was divided into six parts to measure the 5W1H (who, why, where, when, what and how), shopping preferences and attitudes, and the shopping outcome. Part A to Part D were designed to measure the respondent and his/her household's socio-demographic characteristics, shopping habits, their last shopping experience in the retailing stores, and shopping in other stores. The content and construct of the questions asked have been carefully reviewed and evaluated by marketing, social and statistical experts in Taiwan but also referred to related marketing and consumer behaviour literature to make sure that the questionnaire can correspond to general concepts or theories relating to retail internationalisation (Burt and Carralero-Encinas, 2000; Brown, 2004).

- ***Generalisability--Generalisation of the research findings***

Generalisability is also referred to as **external validity.** It concerns the extent to which research findings are generalisable: that is whether research findings may be equally applicable to other research settings (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Employing qualitative and quantitative methods in the same study can also avoid issues about the generalisation of the findings from qualitative research only. Qualitative reserach using semi-structured interviews will not allow generalisations to be made about the entire population where this is based on a small and unrepresentative number of cases (Yin, 1994).

Since this research was conducted in the Grand Taipei area, the largest metropolitan area in Taiwan, the regional context could be a with respect to **generalisation** of the findings. In addition, the sample size has to be considered as another limitation in generalising the research findings. In addition, the findings could only be generalised with respect to those consumers who share similar characteristics with the shoppers of the hypermarket, the supermarket and the traditional market in the Great Taipei area.

- ***Reliability in interviews***

In qualitative research, **reliability** is concerned with whether alternative researchers would reveal similar information. The lack of standardization in semi-structured interviews may lead to concern about reliability (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). This type of reliability is also related to issues of **interviewer bias** and **interviewee bias**. These two types of bias often arise from interviewer's personal behaviour or the method and content of the interview (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). This may influence the content and intention of the interviewees' answer. Even different opinions regarding discussion of the themes or questions between interviewees and interviewer can influence the credibility of interviews (Saunders et al., 2007).

To avoid the bias arising from interviewer and interviewees interaction the interviewer must be skilful at interviewing and fully prepared. The interviewer for this research is the author himself - in order to lead focus group interviews without problems arising, this author participated in an interview training program. The author has also conducted a pre-test of a focus group interview before the formal focus groups in Taiwan. A pre-test focus group interview has helped the researcher to design a screening criteria and a discussion guide and to refine the discussion theme and questions. This action will reduce the bias from the interviewer and the interviewees and benefit the credibility of the focus group interview.

Furthermore, writing down the process of discussion, making use of information from observation of group interviews, and applying the participants' opinions to revising the contents and wordings of the questionnaire have not only offered knowledge relating to participant's views, attitudes and experiences towards different retailing stores, but has also increased the credibility of the choice of words that were used in the questionnaires (Webb, 2002).

- ***Reliability in questionnaires***

Reliability of questionnaire is concerned with the consistency of responses to questions (Saunders et al., 2007). Mitchell (1996) suggests three common approaches to assess reliability: test re-test, internal consistency and alternative form. In the first approach, it is often difficult to persuade respondents to answer the same questionnaire again. In addition, it costs twice the time and makes it difficult for respondents. There are a variety of methods for calculating internal consistency; **Cronbach's alpha** is the most used method (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). The final approach requires respondents to compare alternative forms of the same question. However, respondents may suffer from tiredness owing to the need to increase the length of the questionnaire (Mitchell, 1996).

In the exploratory research only a few focus group interviews were conducted, this raised issues of reliability because the results may not be considered a reliable or a consistent measure of Taiwanese perception and attitudes relating to retail formats. To overcome this problem, this research adopts the inside consistency measurement law (internal consistency) to measure the credibility of the questionnaires (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005).

In practice, the coefficient of Cronbach alpha is the most applied method to measure credibility in general, because its rule is often used to measure the consistency within the measurements. Considering the importance of internal consistency to measure consumer's perception and attitude in the research, it will be very suitable to make use of Cronbach alpha to measure its credibility. For example, for an exploratory research the Cronbach alpha should reach above 70 %; if the alpha coefficient has more than 80% it is suitable for a basic research. For making policy the alpha coefficient should reach more than 90% (Da Vaus, 2002).

3.5. Summary of Chapter

In order to answer the research question and achieve the research objectives derived from the extensive literature review, this chapter critiqued existing literature on research design comprising of positivist and phenomenological research philosophies, and their association with deductive and inductive approaches to research. It provides a justification for the choice of a phenomenological stance, a mix of inductive and deductive approaches, and a survey research strategy. This researcher believes that consumer’s shopping behaviour is a consequence of the way in which they experience different food retail store formats as a result primary data would be collected by using a mix of focus group interviews and questionnaires as the research instruments.

Churchill and Iacobucci (2005) define research design as a general plan leading to the answer of the research question and objectives. This researcher believes that the research design selected for the survey would help explore consumer behaviour towards different food retailing stores and the influence of store attributes on consumer preference, particularly in relation to the hypermarket in Taiwan. In other words, it would help discover and understand how consumers perceive, think, feel and what is their experience of different food retailing stores. The adaptation of a phenomenological tradition is appropriate because it would help in understanding the consumer behaviour in terms of their feelings and shopping experience (Burt, 1995; Flick, 2002). As a consequence the dominant research philosophy to be adopted is phenomenology, nevertheless many of the processes, collection of data, use of questionnaires and their interpretation emulates the positivist approach since the data will be both qualitative and quantitative in its nature.

The inductive and content analytic approaches would be used in this thesis to develop a conceptual framework for success retail internationalisation – this is characteristic of the discipline of phenomenology (Flick, 2002; Cooper and Schindler, 2003). This researcher believes that the logical process of reasoning based on induction approach would help achieve the three research objectives and ultimately answer the thesis research question.

The works of Churchill and Iacobucci (2005) and Saunders et al. (2007) provides a clear guideline on the need for an effective design of specific research questions which elicit the expected response from interviewees and respondents. This is consistent with the need to achieve construct validity, reliability and reduce bias in the research findings (Saunders et al., 2007). The exploratory focus group interviews would seek to identify themes relating to Taiwanese consumers' patronage of hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets store formats. The conclusive phase of the fieldwork would use questionnaires to achieve the second and third research objectives which would provide a description and an explanation of the relationship between the critical factors and how they impact on consumer attitude towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan (Chetthamrongchia and Davies, 2000).

The justification for using a mix of qualitative and quantitative data is based on the fact that an inductive approach containing both qualitative and quantitative techniques is frequently used in many exploratory researches on consumer behaviour. For example, Van Kenhove et al. (1999) used both qualitative and quantitative methods in the research of a consumer's store choice. The in-depth interview (qualitative approach) is initially applied which then allows the use of the quantitative method: the questionnaire accounts for data collection. In Kim and Jin's (2001) Korean consumers' patronage study, the questionnaire (quantitative approach) development was based on a preliminary telephone interview (qualitative approach), this was conducted to identify shopper's patronage patterns and reasons for making specific choices.

In order to produce an effective questionnaire for the pilot test and for the main survey, some important considerations were made in respect of the socio-cultural differences in Taiwan. Four factors were seriously considered before designing the questionnaires these factors include the (1) type of data or information required for the research, for example information relating to demographic characteristics, shopping habits, store loyalty, as well as perceptions regarding store attributes were required, (2) the respondents to be surveyed, (3) the type of method to be employed and (4) where the canvassing is to take place. This is important because the type of question asked should help the respondent to provide his/her opinions with regard to the important characteristics of the food retail store formats where he/she currently shop in. The pilot test provided this researcher with valuable knowledge and information concerning the research and suggestions to improve the questionnaire's design. With respect to the feedback from the questionnaire respondents and participants of the focus group interviews, some adjustments have to be made to the questionnaires.

The Justification for using Content analysis:

Content analysis has been defined as a systematic method for classifying many words, into fewer themes in a standardised way based on a coding process (Zimmer and Golden, 1988; Stemler, 2001). According to the literature content analysis has been discussed and used in different fieldwork of qualitative research (Weber, 1990; Stemler and Bebell, 1998). In consumer behaviour research, content analysis has been developed beyond simple word counts - using the notion of categorising of the data (Zimmer and Golden, 1988). In the work of Huddleston et al. (2004) consumer's store loyalty, and participants' preferences towards retail store formats were put into a classification with marketing notion. Therefore, participants' language and views within focus group interviews can be turned into themes or terms in connection with retail marketing theory in this research.

The Justification for using quantitative methods of analysis:

The second research objective is to describe the nature of the critical factors impacting consumer behaviour in Taiwan. In order to achieve this objective a description of the characteristics of the sample would be needed in order to make inferences about the population from which the sample was drawn. The following analytical approaches would be implemented:

Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics would provide a summary of numerical or non-numerical data to make data easier to interpret (Dholakia, 1999). It would be the first step towards exploring and understanding the respondents' profile (e.g. demographic data and shopping habits). Hence, frequency distribution, as illustrated by bar charts and tables would be used to identify and describe the characteristics, preferences, and attitudes of respondents who are involved in the research theme (Kinnear and Taylor, 1996; Malhotra and Birks, 1999; Corston and Colman, 2003).

Factor analysis

This research seeks to explain consumer shopping behaviour from a set of store attributes, which influenced shoppers' perceptions and attitudes towards retail stores. Store attributes are independently collected and designed this suggests store attributes are not designated as being predicted by others. However, variables might correlate, and this might adversely affect the results (Kinnear and Taylor 1996). The main reason for performing a factor analysis in the research is to reduce a set of store attributes to a significantly smaller number of critical factors. This final set of critical factors is then used more efficiently to analyse the results of a given study in subsequent studies, such as cluster analysis (De Vaus, 2002). This is the rationale and logical process for doing a factor analysis before cluster analysis in this thesis.

<u>Cluster analysis</u>

Cluster analysis would be used in this thesis to classify respondents with respect to a particular store attribute (Chetthamrongchai and Davies 2000). Cluster analysis would be used to identify consumer groups who share similar shopping preferences and attitudes. This researcher is interested in identifying and classifying existing shoppers, therefore, the results from the factor analysis would be used as a base for identifying Taiwanese shopping cluster according to their perceptions and attitudes towards the three store formats.

<u>Hypothesis testing</u>

Since this thesis is a cross-sectional research, it is also important to understand the relationship between the behaviours of hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market shoppers (Flavián et al., 2001; Mlhotra, 2007). It is interested in which store format has the most positive attributes that influences the respondents' preferences and choices relating to a particular store format. A simple hypothesis testing, one-way ANOVA with Post Hoc pairwise multiple comparison technique to compare differences in the levels of significance - it assesses the probability of any difference of shoppers' perception among the store formats (Bell et al., 1998; Thomas and Garland 2004).

<u>Chi-square testing</u>

Chi-square techniques in this research provide more in depth understanding of the relationship between store preferences and consumer demographics. It is a technique to discover whether statistically significant relationship can be observed in the use of cross-tabulation (Davies and Flemmer, 1995). This would form the base for developing the conceptual framework for effective implementation of retail internationalisation in Taiwan and provide a logical justification to explore the relationships between shopper's behaviour and store formats.

Finally, this chapter also addressed the issues of access and ethics including validity, reliability, triangulation, generalisation and bias in relation to the design of research instruments and the research process. The next chapter would show the results from successful implementation of the selected research design and instruments through careful presentation and analysis of the empirical data collected during the fieldwork phase of the thesis.

Chapter Four

Data Presentation and Analysis

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the primary data collected using Questionnaires and the Focus group interviews as the research instruments. In order to provide an audit trail of the replies to questions asked during the fieldwork the chapter is divided into two main sections. First, Section 4.2 shows how the primary data was presented. Second, Section 4.3 presents a critical analysis of the empirical data using qualitative and quantitative analytical techniques. Content analysis was the main qualitative technique used to analyse the focus group interview transcripts. The responses to the questionnaires were analysed quantitatively using descriptive statistics, simple hypothesis testing with one-way analysis of variance, factor analysis, and cluster analysis.

Finally a chapter summary is provided in Section 4.4 which encapsulates the main results and highlights the key findings of the thesis. These results and findings are then subjected to critical discussion and interpretation in the next chapter i.e. Chapter Five under the title ‘Discussion and Interpretation of Findings’.

4.2. Primary Data Presentation

The theoretical and practical justification for the use of tables and bar charts to present the primary data collected is provided in Chapter Three on ‘Research Methodology’, therefore only a brief reference will be made here if necessary of the justification for using tables and bar charts. This allows the researcher to move straight on to the actual data presentation followed by the analysis with less obstruction to the smooth flow of information. It is hoped this will provide a clear audit trail of the interview comments and questionnaire responses and ultimately improve the readability of the thesis. For purposes of clarity, Section 4.2 is further divided into two sub-sections i.e. sub-section 4.2.1 presents the Focus Group interview transcripts and sub-section 4.2.2 presents the responses to the Questionnaires.

4.2.1. Focus Group Interview Transcripts

Appendix C2 presents the transcripts from the Focus Group Interviews on the three different food retail store formats examined by this thesis. More specifically, Appendices C2a, C2b and C2c present, respectively, the transcripts of the interviews on Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and the Traditional markets. It is important to note that these interviews were exploratory in nature, and were not intended to provide an in depth insight into the environmental factors impacting retail internationalisation in Taiwan. In order to facilitate the process of analysis, Table 4.1 below briefly highlights the store formats, date of interviews, and composition of participants. The interview themes were explained in detail in Chapter Three on Research Methodology.

Table 4.1
Focus Group Interview Transcripts
Source: Appendices C2a, C2b & C2c

Factors	Appendix C2a	Appendix C2b	Appendix C2c
Food Retail Store Format & Venue	Hypermarkets in Si-Lin Taipei City	Supermarkets in Tam-Sui, Taipei County	Traditional Markets in Si-Lin Taipei City
Date, Time, Duration of Interview	Saturday, 30 November 2002 15:00-16:20pm 1 hour 20 minutes	Friday, 6 December 2002 13:00-14:00 1 hour	Sunday, 17 December 2002 13:30-15:00 1 hour 30minutes
Number & Sex of participants	6 – Females 0 - Male	6 – Females 0 - Male	8 – Females 0 - Male

4.2.2. Presentation of Responses to Questionnaires

Appendix D presents a representative sample of the responses to the questionnaires used in the survey of consumer perceptions of the three different food retail store formats examined by this thesis. More specifically, Appendix D1 presents an example from the survey of Hypermarkets, Appendix D2 is an example from the survey of Supermarkets and finally Appendix D3 is an example from the survey of Traditional markets. In order to facilitate the process of analysis Table 4.2, below, briefly highlights the different parts or subject areas into which the questionnaire has been divided, the total number of questions under each area, the response rates for each store format, in addition to the cumulative response rate for the whole questionnaire survey.

Table 4.2
Responses to Questionnaires on Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional Markets
Source: Appendices D1 (Hypermarkets), D2 (Supermarkets) & D3 (Traditional markets)

Part	Subject Areas & Appendices	D1	D2	D3	Total
A	**Demographic characteristics**	10	10	10	**30**
B	**Shopping Habits**	9	9	9	**27**
C	**Last Shopping Trip to a store format**	7	6	6	**19**
D	**Other Shops or store formats**	4	4	4	**12**
E	**Shopping Preferences & Attitudes**	28	26	24	**78**
F	**Overall Evaluation**	3	3	3	**9**
	Total number of questions asked	**61**	**58**	**56**	**175**
	Total Number of Questionnaire delivered	**400**	**400**	**400**	**1200**
	Total Number of Questionnaire returned	**284**	**255**	**281**	**820**
	Response Rate per Store Format & Cumulative Rate	**71%**	**63.8%**	**70.3%**	**68.3%**
	Store Format	**Hyper**	**Super**	**Tradi.**	

4.3. Critical Analysis of Empirical Data

This section on primary data analysis is a logical continuation from the primary data presented in Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 above. For the purpose of clarity, this section is divided into three sub-sections. First, sub-section 4.3.1, presents the analysis of the Focus Group Interview Transcripts using content analysis as the main qualitative technique. Second, subsection 4.3.2, presents an analysis of the responses to the Questionnaires on consumer perception of Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional markets in Taiwan. Finally, sub-section 4.3.3 provides further statistical analysis to justify the primary data collected. As already explained in detail in Chapter Three on 'Research Methodology' a mix of quantitative techniques including cross-tabulation, factor analysis, cluster analysis, descriptive statistics, and hypothesis testing are employed.

4.3.1. Content Analysis of Consumer Perceptions of Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional Markets in Taiwan

The theoretical underpinning of 'content analysis' as a technique for qualitative analysis has been dealt with extensively in the research methodology chapter. This section presents the results obtained, using the technique to identify themes and to describe the relationship between themes in the focus group interview transcripts. This thematic approach helped this researcher to identify the main results and findings for full discussion in Chapter Five. The content analysis of the focus group interview transcripts identified various themes which this researcher has grouped into eight attribute areas pertaining to the three store formats in Taiwan, these are: (1) Store atmosphere or environment, (2) Convenience, (3) Location of the store, (4) Prices of food items, (5) Promotion, (6) Products, (7) Service, and (8) Family factor.

Tables 4.3a classifies the store attributes and their associated characteristics of

Hypermarkets, it also includes the verbatim quotes from interviewees.

Table 4.3a

Classification of Hypermarket attributes and associated characteristics

Store attributes	Characteristics	Verbatim Quotes from focus group interviewees
Atmosphere and Environment	Comfort of shopping; Spaciousness and layout.	• The hypermarkets are air-conditioned, spacious and the commodities are put on the shelves very tidily. • The hypermarkets are air-conditioned and have car parks. After the purchase, I can use the trolley and get all the purchases to my car directly. It is very convenient.
Convenience	One-stop shopping; Long opening hours; Large car park; Easy for shopping	• You can go there and buy all you need under one roof. • The opening hours of the hypermarkets are relatively longer. • They have car parks and you will not get wet to enter into the hypermarkets even on rainy days. • After making the purchases, I can use the trolley and get all that I've bought to my car direct. I can also shop in the hypermarkets regardless of the bad weather.
Location	Distance to the store	• If time permits, I will go to the hypermarket. • I need someone to drive and give me a lift to go to the hypermarket. If I go, I will choose the one that is near to my home.
Product	Variety of choice; Good for non-fresh food items; Low quality.	• In hypermarkets, they sell a wider variety of commodities and I can have more choices. But for the dry items, like biscuits, canned food, I will go to the hypermarkets to buy the same. • For drinks and canned food, I will go to hypermarkets. • The food in hypermarkets is produced in a large quantity; the taste will be poorer than those in the traditional market. So, I will go to…. the hypermarkets for non-food items.
Price	Low prices; but may not necessarily be the reason for shopping there.	• The commodities are cheaper. For daily necessities, I will go to hypermarkets, not only because the price is cheaper… • Although the poultry and fish are cheaper in the hypermarkets, the quality is not so good.
Promotion	Special sales; Periodical sales.	• When the hypermarkets have some special sales, I will go there. • If they have special sales, I may go there and buy some as well. • They also have periodical special discount sales. • I will go to the hypermarkets when I know from their advertisements that there are special sales. I will go to the hypermarket when there are sales or I need something special.
Service	Expiry date shown; care; Offers food trial; give a Guarantee	• They also pay attention to the expiry date of the preservation of the commodities. Sometimes, the hypermarkets offer food trials. You can try the food before you buy it. The products are relatively new and have better protection.
Family factor	Go with friends; It is like taking a stroll; Family shopping; Enhance family relationships.	• Sometimes, I will go to the hypermarkets with my friends and have a walk. I can bring my children to go to the hypermarkets together, which will enhance the parental relationships with the children. • I am very willing to buy some commodities for my children. I will ask them to go together. It is a kind of encouragement to me as well. • Going to the hypermarket is a family activity. The children ask to go to the hypermarket on holidays. We eat and shop there. We usually spend half of the day there.

Source: Derived from Focus Group Interviews Transcript on Hypermarkets, Appendix C2a

Tables 4.3b classifies the store attributes and their associated characteristics of

Supermarkets, it also includes the verbatim quotes from interviewees.

Table 4.3b
Classification of Supermarket attributes and associated characteristics

Store attributes	Characteristics	Verbatim Quotes from focus group interviewees
Atmosphere and Environment	Comfort shopping	• The supermarkets are air-conditioned and very tidy. • In general, the clean and air-conditioning environment makes people feel very comfortable. The clean and neat environment of the supermarkets makes people feel comfortable. The atmosphere of the supermarket is cold, without warm feeling or friendliness.
Convenience	One-stop shopping Easy for shopping Long opening hours	• You can easily find the commodities you want to buy. • I do not often cook. Sometimes, I will go to the supermarket to buy something for dinner. The opening hours are longer and time convenience is also one of the attractions to the working class. It is more convenient to buy daily necessities from the supermarket and I can select those commodities I like. I can get the receipts for what I buy from the supermarkets. Since I use to keep an account of my expenses, it is more convenient to buy from the supermarkets.
Location	Proximity Suitable for the lifestyle of working class	• As there is a supermarket near to my home, the convenience is my first consideration. • As a member of the working class, I can make use of half an hour after work to go to the supermarket and buy everything I need. It saves much time and effort.
Product	Quality and quantity	• The quality of the commodities is relatively better and the living standard is raised. In supermarkets, the packaging is not environmental friendly. The vegetables are washed and that is the reason it is difficult to keep it freshness. • Supermarkets do not sell the things we require for religious worship. I don't buy fish or seafood in the supermarkets because most of them are wrapped..
Price	Reasonable price	• For some better goods and imported goods, I buy them from the supermarkets. The quality is better and the price is reasonable.
Promotion	Special sales	• I go to the supermarkets for shopping when there are special sales. I buy from the hypermarkets or supermarkets when they have some special offers for the products, like milk powder, coffee, drinks etc.
Service	Related service	• For daily necessities, I buy from supermarkets. It is more convenient to buy daily necessities from the supermarket and I can select those commodities. • We are a small family. I will go to the supermarkets to buy some food, which is in small packets.
Family factor	Needed at some particular time; time constraints;	• Apart from the traditional markets, I will go to the supermarkets to buy some food, which is in small packets. • As a member of the working class, I can make use of half an hour after work to go to the supermarket and buy everything I need. It saves much time and effort.

Source: Derived from Focus Group Interviews Transcript on Supermarkets, Appendix C2b

Tables 4.3c classifies the store attributes and their associated characteristics of

Traditional markets, it also includes the verbatim quotes from interviewees.

Table 4.3c
Classification of Traditional Market attributes and associated characteristics

Store attributes	Characteristics	Verbatim Quotes from focus group interviewees
Atmosphere and Environment	Crowded; dark	• I notice that the traditional markets are changing as well, they are becoming cleaner. • The traditional markets are dark and crowded • I do not like to go to the traditional market…. because of the crowded condition...
Convenience	Easy for shopping; shopping for traditional festivals; one stop shopping; things for worship	• I can choose which part and how much of meat I will buy. • In traditional market, we can buy more and better things for the traditional festivals. If time allows, you can buy all you want in the traditional market just for one visit. I will buy all the things for worship in the traditional markets.
Location	Proximity;	• The traditional market is close to my home and I am used to buying things there. • I think the price will not affect the choice of the markets because the price difference of the commodities between the traditional markets and hypermarkets is not so great. The only consideration is the distance and convenience.
Product	Freshness; quality	• I can see and touch the commodities. • The meat in the traditional market is relatively fresher. • The quality of the food in the traditional markets is better, such as pork. Similarly, the quality of vegetables in the traditional market is better.
Price	Negotiate the price; compare the price	• In traditional markets, I can negotiate the price. • I can compare the price and quality of the food selling in different butchers in the traditional market.
Promotion	Complimentary vegetables	• When you are familiar with the vendors, they will give you some complimentary ginger or spring onions.
Service	Quantity and parts; friendly; polite to customers; delivery service; consultant; mutual trust	• You can order in advance for the pork specifically as to which part and how much you require. • The vendors are kind and friendly; they will even call your name. The vendors are more polite to the customers. I will go to the traditional shops to buy commodities because you can consult the shopkeepers for the instructions or methods for their application. • I will buy the things for worship in the traditional markets because the vendor will tell you how to use the things.
Family factor	Religion; taste; meet friends; family party;	• My family members are Buddhists. The traditional markets have all kinds of commodities we need for my religion. On traditional festival, I will go to the traditional markets to buy things because the choices are wider. • The commodities in the traditional markets are much more suitable to our taste. Sometimes, I can meet some of my friends there. I buy from the traditional market when I have family gatherings at home.

Source: Derived from Focus Group Interviews Transcript on Traditional Markets, Appendix C2c

The contents of Tables 4.3a, 4.3b and 4.3c are self-explanatory and demonstrate the use of content analysis in identifying themes and understanding the relationship between them. However, because of time and resource constraints, only three focus group interviews were actually conducted as part of the initial exploratory research in the year 2002. This means an understanding of the exact nature of the relationship between the themes, using the results of the focus group, is not conclusive and requires further research – this underpins the rationale for the questionnaire survey. The results from the quantitative analysis in Section 4.3.2 are therefore used in collaboration with the results from the content analysis. It is believed this would make the qualitative research findings more reliable, valid and reduce any inherent bias. A full discussion of the nature of the relationship between the themes is carried out in the next chapter on the "Discussion and interpretation of findings."

4.3.2. Quantitative Analysis of Responses to Questionnaires

This section presents the results of the quantitative analysis of the responses to the three groups of Questionnaires on Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional Markets presented in Appendices D1 (Hypermarkets), D2 (Supermarkets) and D3 (Traditional markets). As shown in Table 4.2 above the responses to Parts A, B, C, D, E, and F of each of the three sets of questionnaires are subjected to quantitative analysis using a diverse range of analytical techniques described in detail in Chapter Three on Research Methodology.

Part A: Analysis of the Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Source: Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional Markets Questionnaires

From Table 4.2 above it can be seen that a total of 820 questionnaires were considered valid for further statistical analysis, this comprises of: 284 questionnaires representing about 35% respondents from the **Hypermarket** format; 255

questionnaires representing about 31% respondents from the **Supermarket f**ormat; and 281 questionnaires representing about 34% respondents from the **Traditional market** format. Table 4.4 below presents the responses to the ten (10) questions on demographic characteristics - it also presents the frequencies and percentages of respondents for each item under the variable linked to the question asked. For an example the response to Question A1 under Table 4.4 shows that 197 respondents, representing 24% of the total number (N=820) of respondents, fall into the 'under 30 years' age category.

Table 4.4

Analysis of Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820; Part A – Questions 1 to 4

Questions	Variables	Items	Frequency	Percentage
A1	***Age***	under 30	197	24
		30-39	208	25
		40-49	255	31
		50-59	121	15
		over 60	39	5
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
A2	**Gender**	Male	192	23
		Female	628	77
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
A3	**Marital Status**	Single	254	31
		Married	533	65
		Divorced	33	4
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
A4	**Education**	~ High School	351	43
		College	195	23
		University	219	27
		Postgraduate~	55	7
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***

Source: From Questionnaires for all three Store Formats - Part A, Questions 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Table 4.4 - Continuation

Analysis of Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Questions	Valuables	Items	Frequency	Percentage
A5	**Present work**	Executive or managerial	45	6
		Professional	85	10
		Self-employed	77	9
		Civil service	21	3
		Clerical	313	37
		Skilled/semi-skilled	38	5
		Farmer or fisherman	4	1
		Full-time homemaker	145	18
		Student	58	7
		Retired	23	3
		Other	11	1
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
A6	**Total income**	under NT$1,000,000	430	53
		1,000,001-1,800,000	292	35
		1,800,001-2,400,000	66	8
		2,400,001 or above	32	4
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
A7	**Contributors**	1	181	22
		2	418	51
		3	123	15
		4 and above	98	12
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
A8	**Area of the House**	~30	243	30
		31-39	324	39
		40-49	133	16
		50-59	46	6
		60-69	25	3
		70~	49	6
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
A9	**Family size**	1	49	6
		2	104	13
		3	160	20
		4	265	32
		5	151	18
		6	51	6
		7 or more	50	5
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
A10	**ZIP code of Home**	Taipei City & County	663	81
		Other areas	55	7
		No answer	102	12
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***

Source: From Questionnaires for all three Store Formats - Part A, Questions 5 to 10

Part B: Shopping Habits of Respondents

Source: Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional Markets Questionnaires

Table 4.5 below presents the responses to the nine (9) questions on respondents' shopping habits in Part B of the questionnaires with respect to the Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional markets. For example for Hypermarkets, the responses to Question B1, under the variable 'store format of choice' reveals that 45 respondents, representing 5% of the total number of respondents (N = 820) said they preferred 'Hypermarkets' to Supermarkets and Traditional markets. Further analysis is provided later using bar charts (see examples in Charts 4.1 to Chart 4.8).

Table 4.5

Respondents Shopping Habits

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820; Part B – Questions 1 to 3

Questions	Variables	Items	Frequency	Percentage
B1	Store Format of Choice	Hypermarket	45	5
		Supermarket	82	10
		Traditional market	128	16
		Hypermarket & Traditional	187	23
		Supermarket & Traditional	163	20
		Hypermarket & Supermarket	49	6
		All of them	166	20
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
B2	When to Shop	Weekend	414	51
		Weekday	124	15
		Both	282	34
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
	Time of Day	Morning	508	56
	(multiple choice)	Afternoon	155	17
		Evening	243	26
		Late Night	10	1
		Total Number (N)	***916***	***100***
B3	Holidays & Festivals	Yes	456	56
		No	364	44
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***

Source: From Questionnaires for all three Store Formats - Part B, Questions 1 to 3

Table 4.5 – Continuation

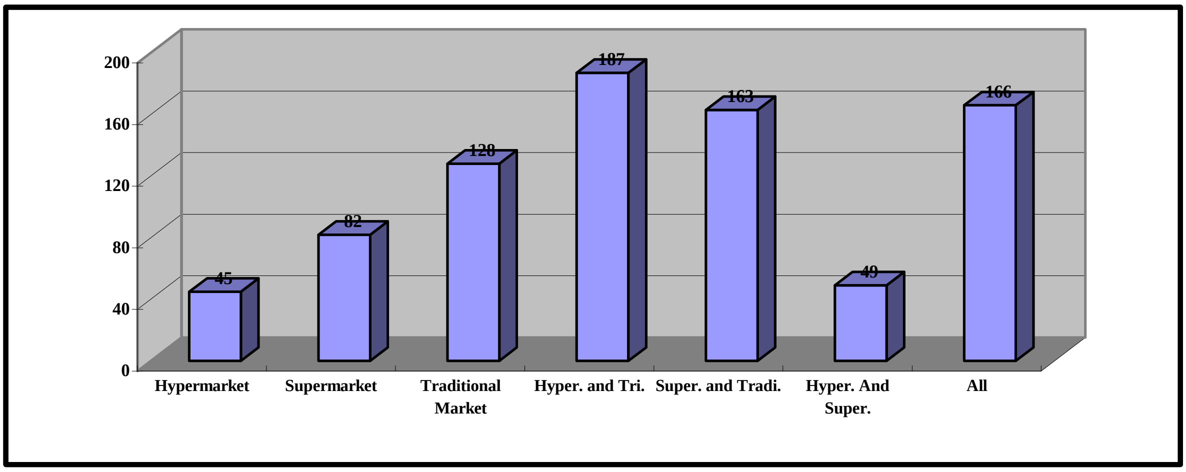
Respondents Shopping Habits

Questions	Variables	Items	Frequency	Percentage
B4	Holiday Shopping	Hypermarket	57	11
		Supermarket	29	6
		Traditional market	117	23
		Hypermarket and Traditional	119	23
		Supermarket and Traditional	75	15
		Hypermarket and Supermarket	18	4
		All of them	91	18
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
B5	Shopping Trips	Up to 1	299	37
		2	235	29
		3	169	21
		4	53	6
		5	37	4
		6	8	1
		7 or more	19	2
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
B6	Shopping Time Spent	Less than 1 hour	153	18
		1-2 hours	436	53
		3-4 hours	164	20
		5-6 hours	39	5
		7-8 hours	14	2
		9 hours or more	14	2
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
B7	Money spent	<2,000	222	27
		2,001-4,000	367	45
		4,001-6,000	145	18
		6,001-8,000	44	5
		8,001-10,000	18	2
		>10,000	24	3
		<2,000	222	27
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
B8	Durable Goods	None	176	22
	N = 820	<5,000	238	29
		5,001-20,000	225	27
		20,000-50,000	118	14
		>50,000	63	8
		None	176	22
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***
B9	Return to Buy	Definitely Yes	133	16
		Probably Yes	351	43
		Neutral	271	33
		Probably No	49	6
		Definitely No	16	2
		Total Number (N)	***820***	***100***

Source: From Questionnaires for all three Store Formats - Part B, Questions 4 to 9

Chart 4.1 below shows the frequency distribution for Question B1 presented in Table 4.5 on page 175. The question asked respondents and their family where they buy most of the food and groceries for their family.

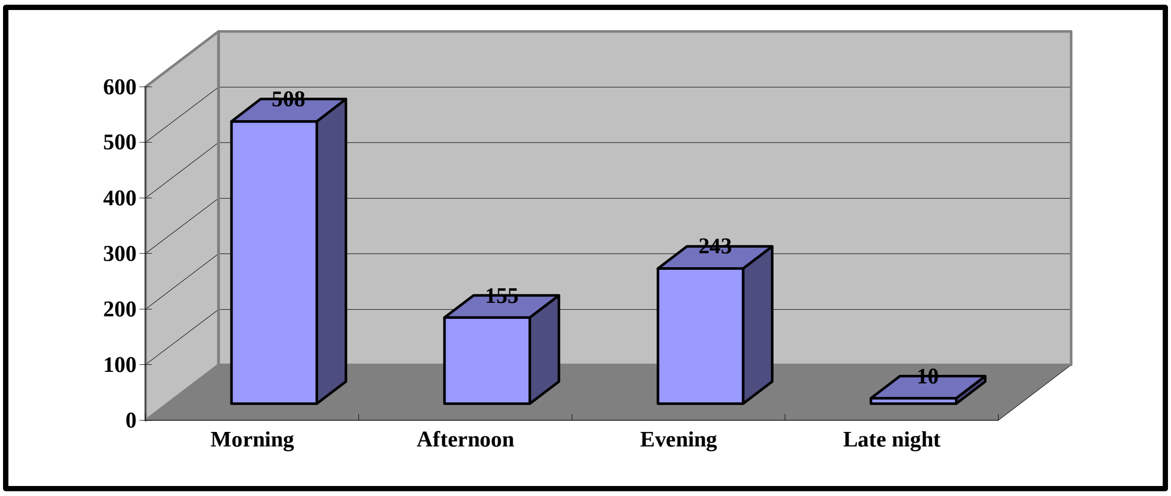
Chart 4.1
Store Format of Choice



Source: Question B1, Table 4.5, page 175

Chart 4.2 below shows the frequency distribution of the second part of Question B2 which asked respondents their usual time of day for a major shopping trip.

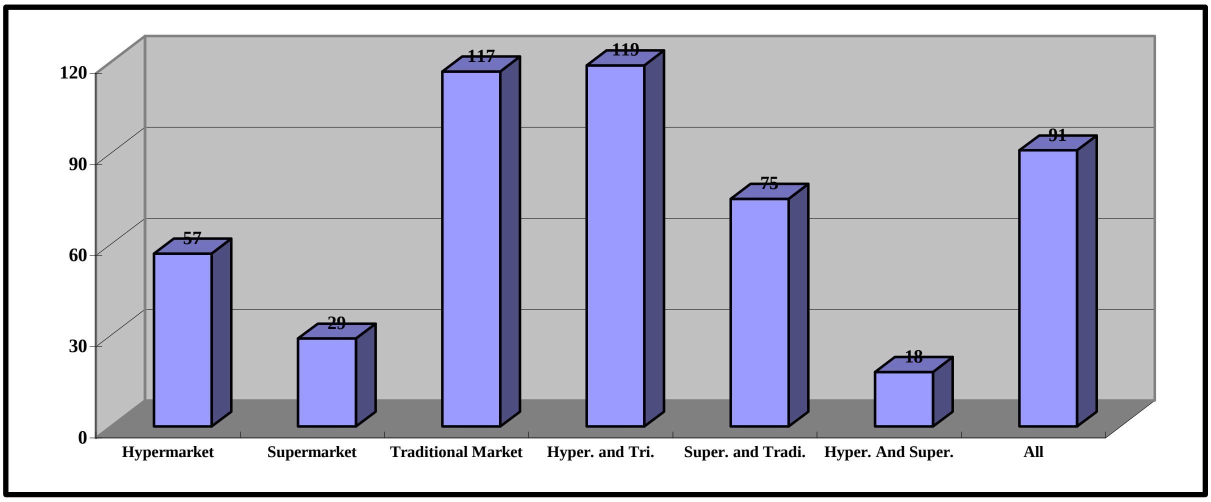
Chart 4.2
Respondents' Shopping Time Preference within a Day
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 916, multiple choice



Source: Question B2 (Multiple Choice), Table 4.5, page 175

Chart 4.3 below is the frequency distribution of Question B4 presented Table 4.5 on page 176. It asked respondents and their family where they buy most of the food and groceries for their family during holidays.

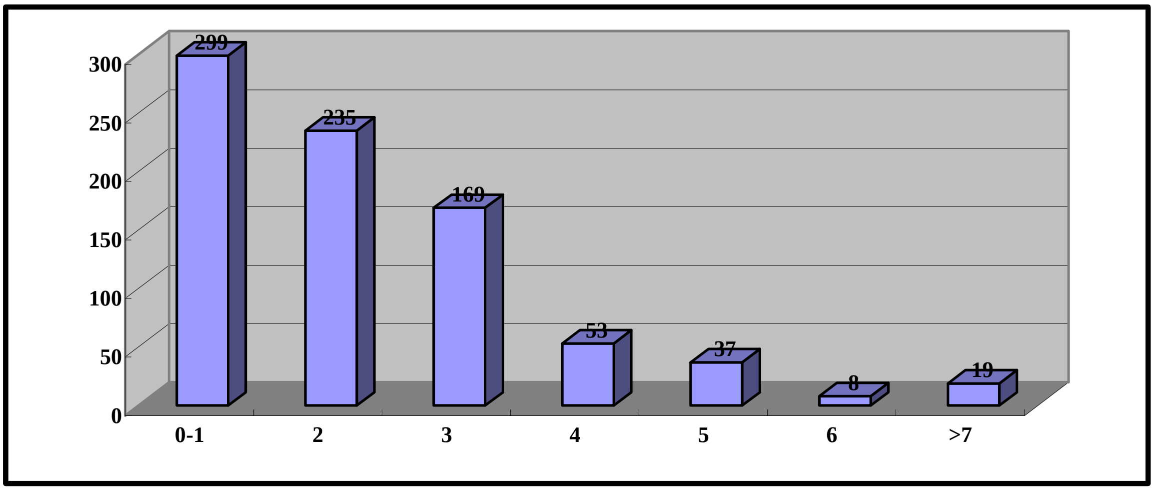
Chart 4.3
Respondents' Holiday Shopping Destination Preference
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 506



Source: Question B4, Table 4.5, page 176

Chart 4.4 below is the frequency distribution of Question B5 presented in Table 4.5 on page 176. It asked respondents their shopping frequency in an average week.

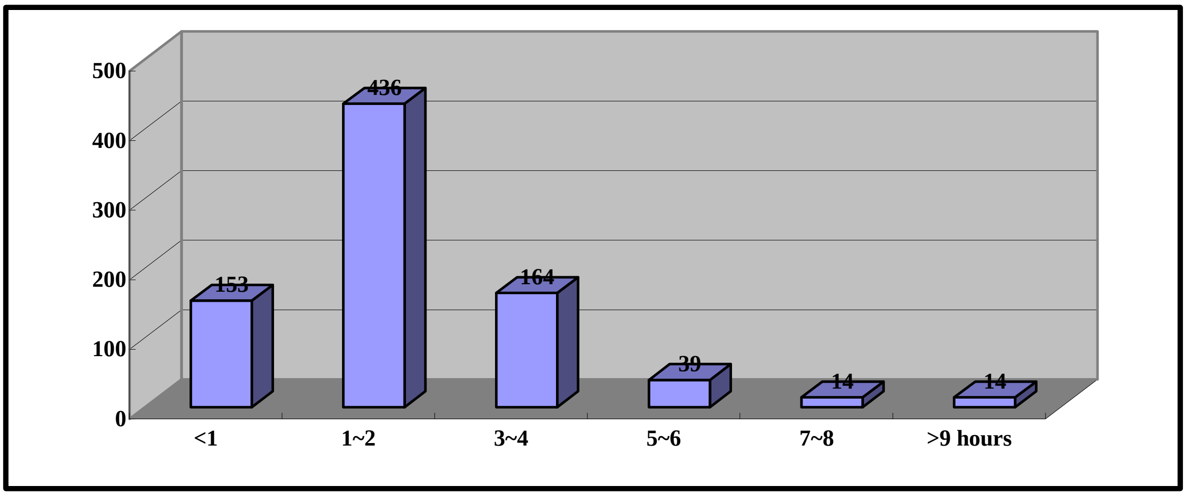
Chart 4.4
Respondents' Shopping Frequencies in a Week
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



Source: Question B5, Table 4.5, page 176

Chart 4.5 below is the frequency distribution of Question B6 presented in Table 4.5 on page 176. It asked respondents their shopping time in an average week.

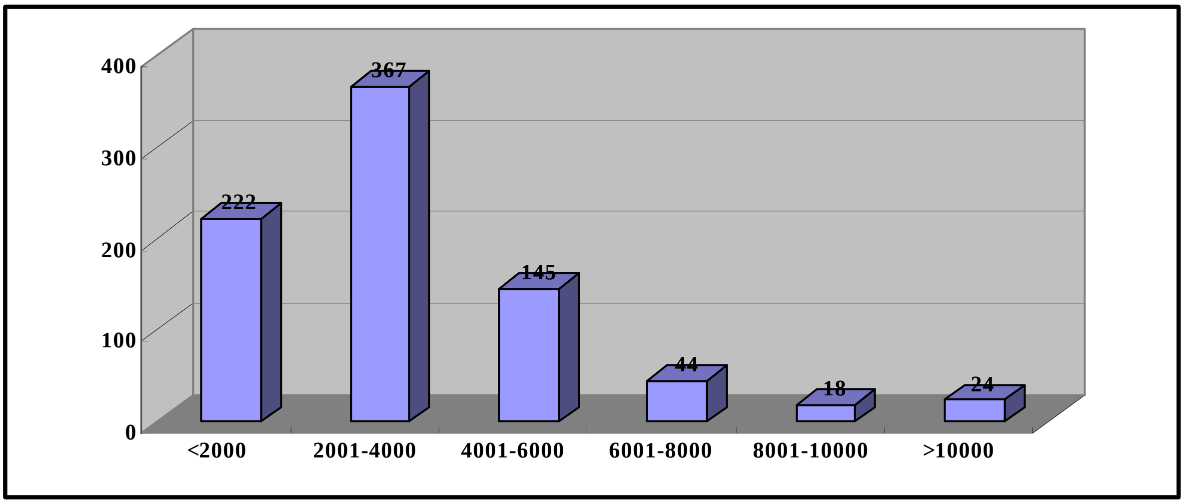
Chart 4.5
Respondents' Shopping Time in a Week
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



Source: Question B6, Table 4.5, page 176

Chart 4.6 below is the frequency distribution of Question B7 presented in Table 4.5 on page 176. The question asked respondents their total shopping expenditure in an average week.

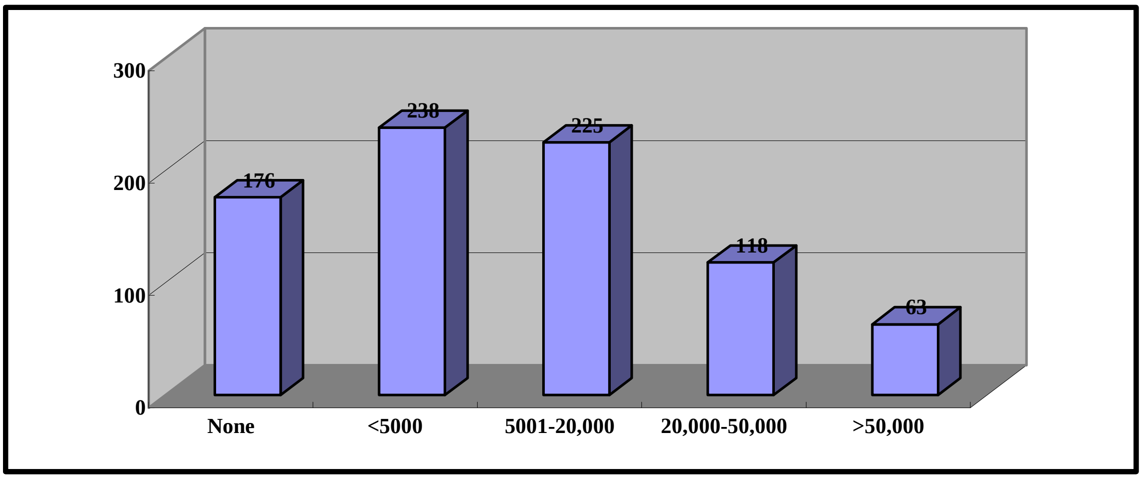
Chart 4.6
Respondents' Shopping Expenditure in a Week
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



Source: Question B7, Table 4.5, page 176

Chart 4.7 below is the frequency distribution of Question B8 presented in Table 4.5. The question asked respondents their total shopping expenditure on durable goods in the last year.

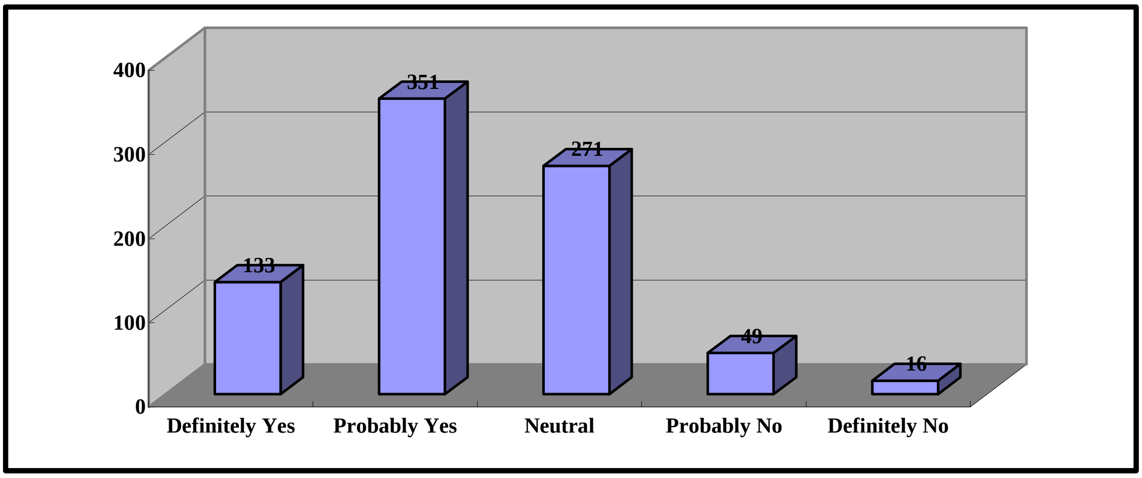
Chart 4.7
Respondents' Shopping Expenditure on Durable Goods
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



Source: Question B8, Table 4.5, page 176

Chart 4.8 below is the frequency distribution of Question B9. The question asked respondents whether or not they are likely return to the hypermarket to buy durable goods.

Chart 4.8
Respondents' Willing Return to Buy Durable Goods
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



Source: Question B9, Table 4.5, page 176

Part C: Respondents' Last Shopping Trip

Source: Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional Markets Questionnaires

Table 4.6 below presents the responses to the questions on respondents' last shopping trip to a hypermarket (7 questions), supermarket (6 questions) or traditional market (6 questions). It also presents the frequency distributions using bar charts (see Chart 4.9 to Chart 4.15) for each item under the variable linked to the question asked.

Table 4.6

Analysis of the Last Shopping Trip to a Retail Store by the Respondents

Number of Respondents (N) Hypermarket=284, Supermarket=255, Traditional Market=281; Part C – Questions 1 to 4

Questions	Variables	Items	Frequency	Percentage	
C1	Shop at a Hypermarket	Carrefour	151	53	
		Fa-Geánt	22	8	
		Rt-Mart	74	26	
		Tesco	11	4	
		Others	24	9	
		Total Number (N)	***284***	***100***	
			Hypermarket	**Supermarket**	**Traditional M.**
C2	Transportation	By food	17	67	136
		Car	201	121	42
		Scooter	55	63	94
		Bus	8	3	9
		Train or Metro	3	1	0
		Total Number (N)	***284***	***255***	***281***
C3	Time Spent	<10 minutes	77	120	172
		10-30	174	110	103
		31-60	29	22	4
		Over 1 hour	4	3	***2***
		Total Number (N)	***284***	***255***	***281***
C4	Distance	<1 km	44	78	166
		1-3 km	81	105	88
		3-7 km	67	26	19
		7-12 km	44	20	3
		12-20 km	33	19	2
		Above 20 km	9	7	3
		Total Number (N)	***284***	***255***	***281***

Source: From Questionnaires for all three Store Formats - Part C, Questions 1, 2, 3, and 4.

Table 4.6 - Continuation

Analysis of the Last Shopping Trip to a Retail Store by the Respondents

Number of Respondents (N) Hypermarket=284, Supermarket=255,

Traditional Market=281; Part C – Questions 5 and 7

Questions	Variables	Items	Hypermarket	Supermarket	Traditional M.
C5	Money Spent on Food items	< NT$ 500	13	36	28
		501-1,000	78	72	101
		1,001-2,000	102	92	96
		2,001-3,000	39	23	26
		3,001-4,000	17	7	10
		4,001-5,000	15	8	12
		Above 5,000	20	17	8
		Total Number (N)	***284***	***255***	***281***
	Money Spent on Non-food items	< NT$ 500	16	53	60
		501-1,000	81	75	97
		1,001-2,000	96	84	87
		2,001-3,000	45	21	14
		3,001-4,000	18	2	5
		4,001-5,000	8	7	8
		Above 5,000	20	13	10
		Total Number (N)	***284***	***255***	***281***
C6 *Multiple Choice*	Commodities Bought	Fresh Food	111	124	225
		Non-fresh food	176	145	82
		Special items	129	86	59
		Durable goods	51	18	8
		Others	6	5	0
		Total Number (N)	***473***	***378***	***281***
C7 *Multiple Choice*	Shopping companions	Alone	29	34	62
		Elder family	63	52	64
		Husband/Wife	141	105	102
		Child	89	65	64
		Others	76	44	62
		Total Number (N)	***398***	***300***	***354***

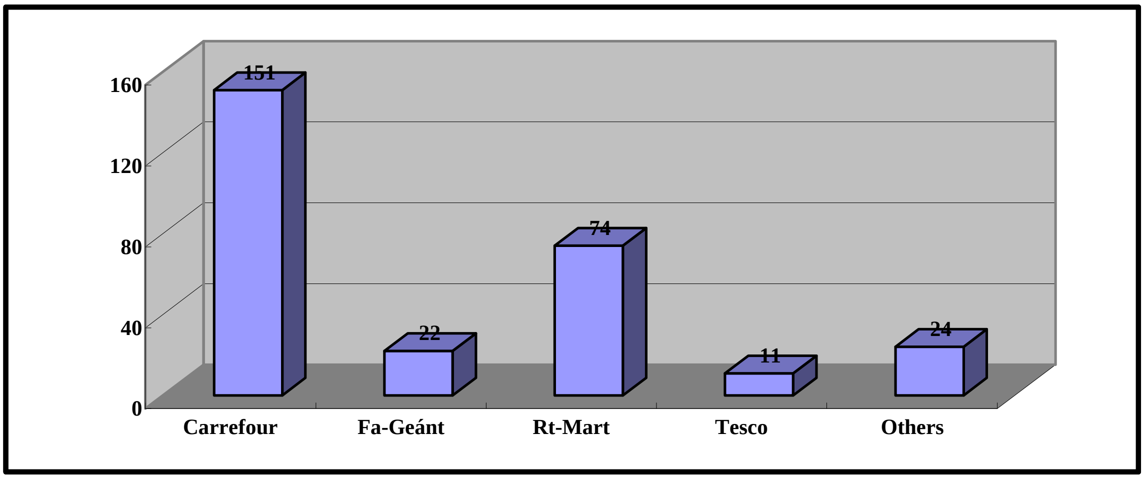
Source: From Questionnaires for all three Store Formats - Part C, Questions 5, 6, and 7.

Chart 4.9 below presents the frequency distribution for Question C1 presented in Table 4.6 on page 181. The question asked respondents' and their family about which hypermarket they used on their last shopping trip.

Chart 4.9

Respondents' Shopping to a Hypermarket on the Last Shopping Trip

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



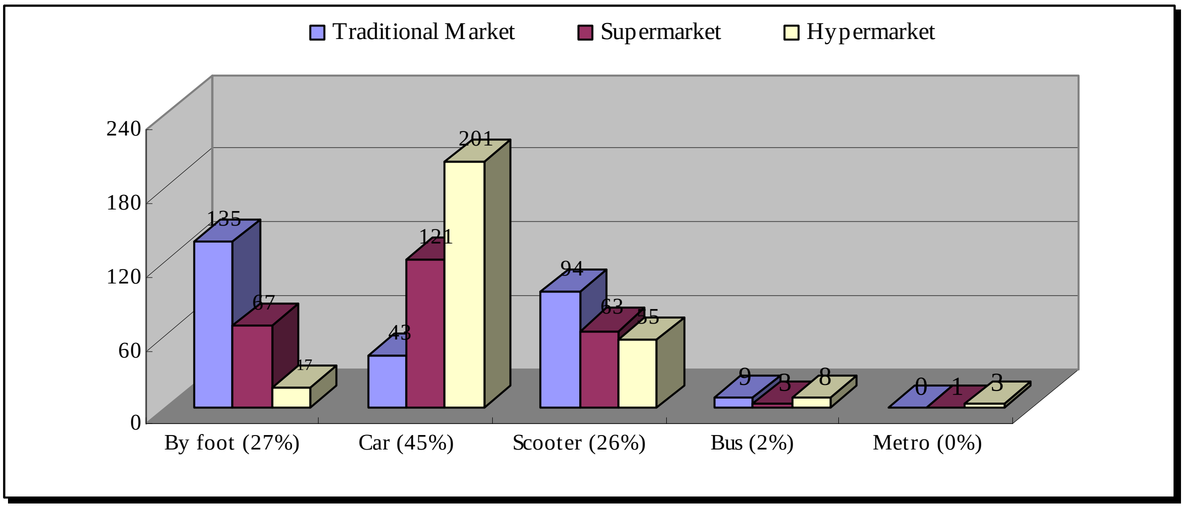
Source: Question C1, Table 4.6, page 181

The frequency distribution for Question C2 is presented in Chart 4.10 below. The question asked respondents to indicate the type of transportation they used when travelling to a store format. From the chart it can be seen that most respondents went to the traditional market and supermarket by foot and scooter, only a few went to hypermarkets on foot. Respondents' who used Hypermarkets the most, went there by car.

Chart 4.10

Types of Transportation used by Respondents

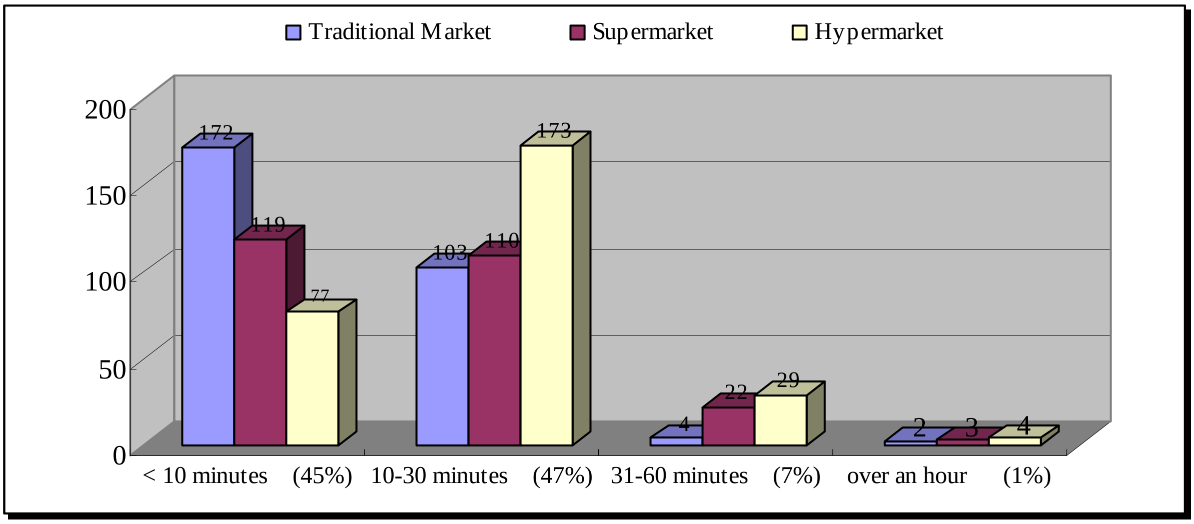
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



Source: Question C2, Table 4.6, page 181

The frequency distribution for Question C3 is presented in Chart 4.11 below. The question asked respondents' to indicate the approximate time taken to travel to the store format from their homes. The results reveal that 45% respondents took less than 10 minutes; 47% respondents took 10 to 30 minutes; 7% respondents to 31 to 60 minutes; and the remaining 1% took over 60 minutes. The results also show that respondents took less time to travel to the traditional market while others took more time to reach the hypermarket.

Chart 4.11
Respondents' Travel Time to Store Format
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



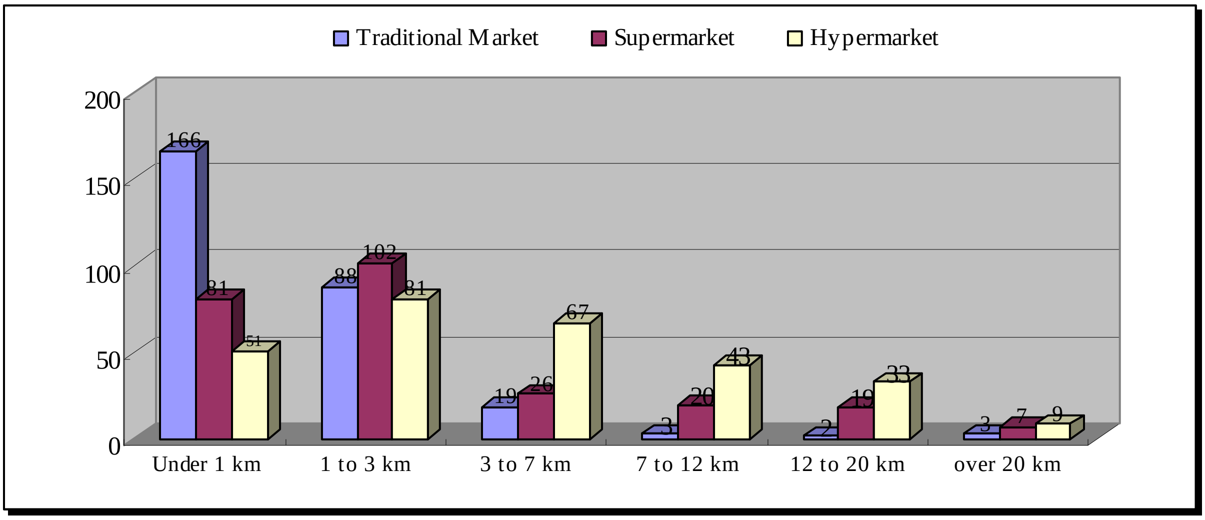
Source: Question C3, Table 4.6, page 181

The frequency distribution for Question C4 is presented in Chart 4.12 below. The question asked respondents' to indicate the distance from their homes to the store format. Using the Traditional market format as an example, it can be seen that, 166 respondents said the distance between their homes and the traditional market was less than one kilometre; 88 respondents said the distance was between 1 to 3 kilometres; for those remaining the distance was from above 3 kilometres. From the chart it can be seen that compared to hypermarkets and supermarkets, respondents find the traditional markets closer to their homes.

Chart 4.12

Frequency Distribution of Respondents' Travel Distance

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



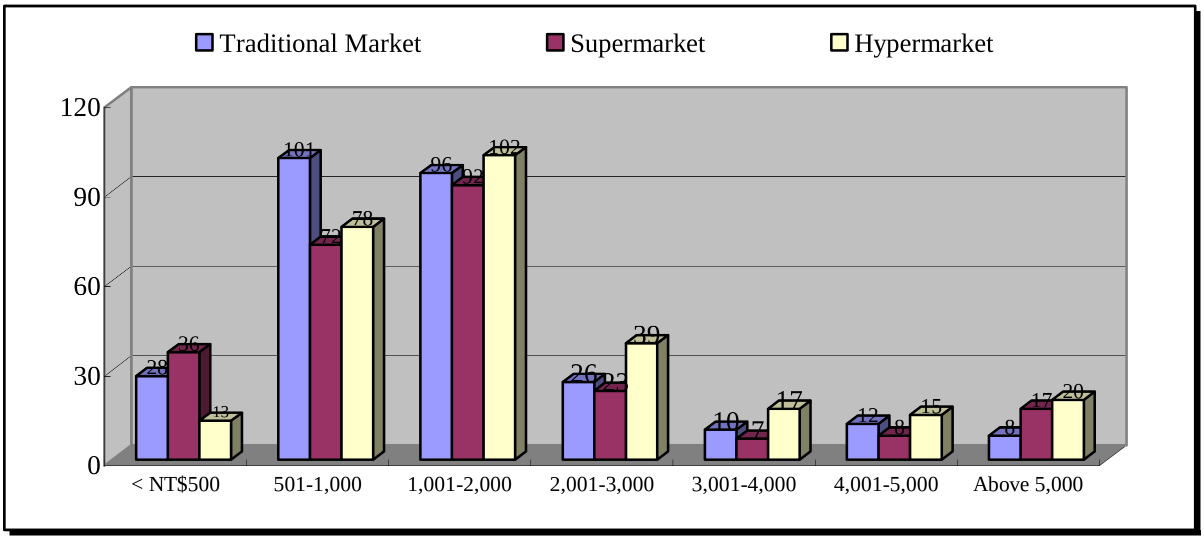
Source: Question C4, Table 4.6, page 181

Chart 4.13a below presents the frequency distribution for Question C5. The question asked respondents' the amount of money spent on food items. The results reveal that most respondents spent NT$500 to NT$2,000 on food items, these account for 66% of the respondents.

Chart 4.13a

Respondents' Money on Food Items

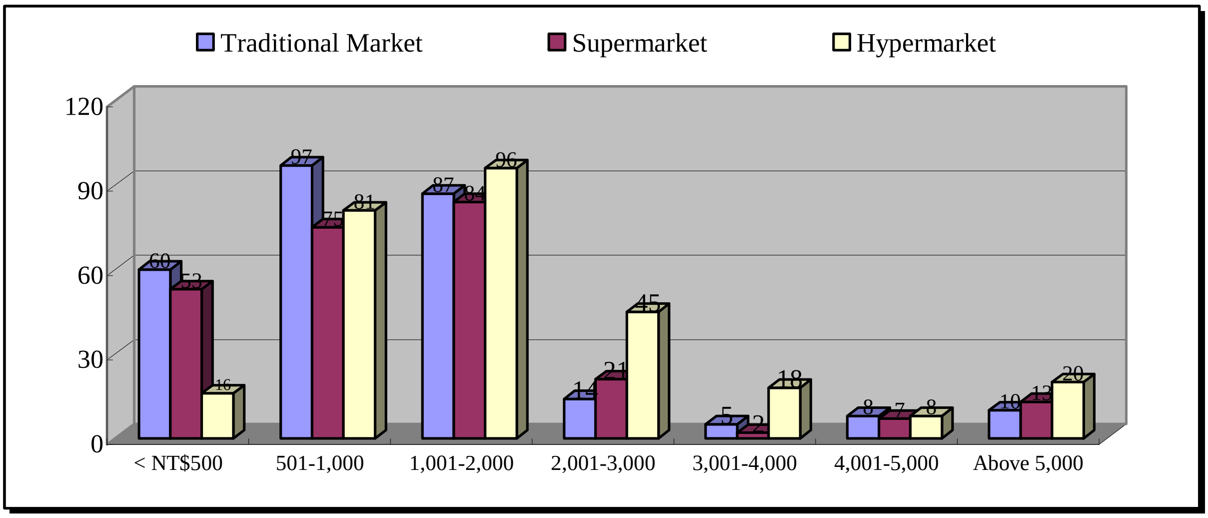
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



Source: Question C5, Table 4.6, page 182

Chart 4.13b below presents the frequency distribution for Question C5 that asked respondents' the amount of money spent on non-food items. From the chart it can be seen that most respondents also spent NT$500 to NT$2,000 on non-food items, these account for 63% of the respondents. The chart also shows that respondents spent more money on non-food items at a hypermarket.

Chart 4.13b
Respondents' Money on Non-food Items
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



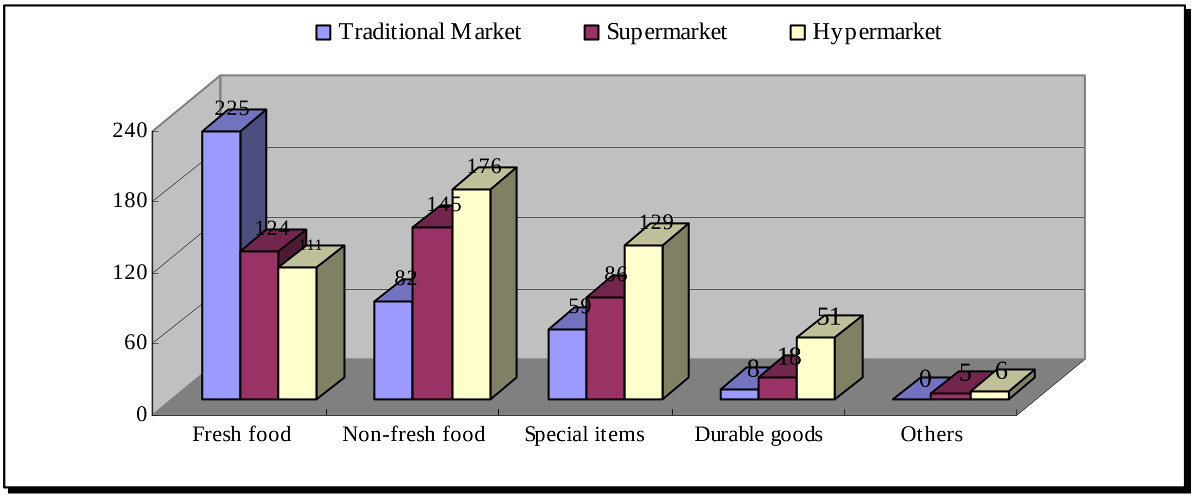
Source: Question C5, Table 4.6, page 182

Chart 4.14 below presents the frequency distribution for the multiple question in Question C6. The respondents were asked to indicate what commodities they bought at the last shopping trip. From the chart it can be seen that, 225 respondents said that they went to the traditional market to buy fresh food; 176 respondents bought non-food items at their last shopping trip to a hypermarket and 129 respondents bought special items from a hypermarket. It appears to suggest that majority of respondents bought fresh food items from traditional markets while some bought non-food and special items from hypermarkets.

Chart 4.14

Commodities bought at the Last Shopping Trip

Total Number of Respondents (N) =820



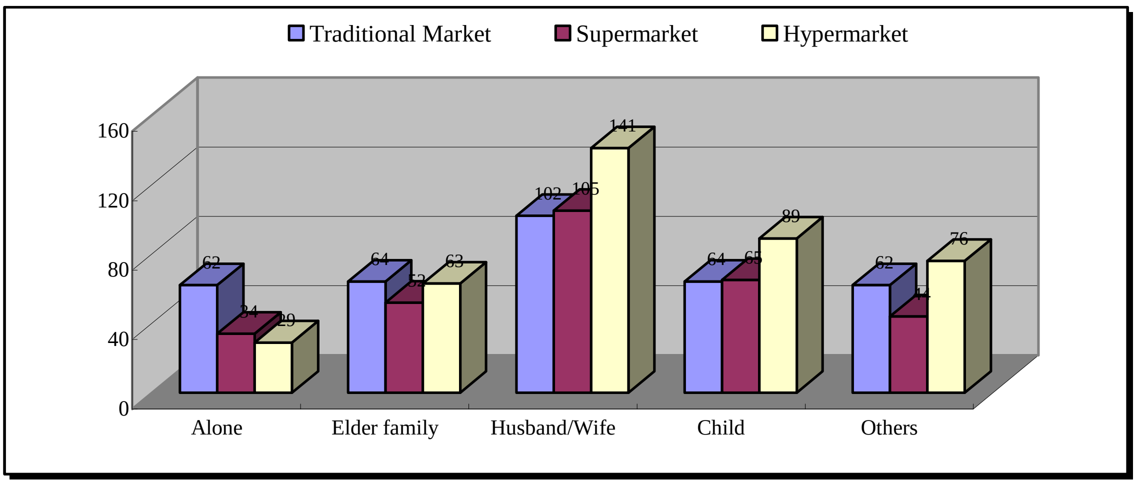
Source: Question C6, Table 4.6, page 182

The frequency distribution for Question C7 is presented in Chart 4.15 below. The multiple question asked respondents to indicate who was with them on the last shopping trip. it can be seen that, the majority of the respondents who shopped at a grocery market liked to have company, and their preferred companion is their husband/wife.

Chart 4.15

Shopping with accompanies at the Last Shopping Trip

Total Number of Respondents (N) =820



Source: Question C7, Table 4.6, page 182

Part D: Respondents' Shopping at Other Store(s) Within the Last Two Months

Source: Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional Markets Questionnaires

Table 4.7 below presents the responses to the four (4) questions about shopping in other store(s) within the last two months (see Questionnaire Part D) with respect to the Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional markets.

Table 4.7

Analysis of the Last Two Months Shop at Other Store(s) by the Respondents

Number of Respondents (N), Hypermarket=284, Supermarket=255, Traditional Market=281; Part D – Questions 1 to 4

Questions	Variables	Items	Hypermarket	Supermarket	Traditional
D1	**Shop at Other**	*Yes*	206 (73%)	185 (73%)	181 (64%)
		No	78 (27%)	70 (27%)	100 (36%)
Multiple Choice	**Store(s)**	Carrefour	68	83	83
		Fa-Geánt	24	32	22
		Rt-Mart	30	62	52
		Tesco	11	14	6
		Others	19	17	11
		Supermarkets	70	49	73
		Traditional M.	99	74	29
		Total Number (N)	***321***	***331***	***276***
D2	**Money Spent**	< NT$ 1,000	59	40	45
		1,001-3,000	96	98	90
		3,001-5,000	37	27	33
		5,001-10,000	9	12	9
		10,001-20,000	4	3	2
		Above 20,000	1	5	2
		Total Number (N)	***206***	***185***	***181***
D3	**Frequency**	Once a week	53	21	10
		Over once a week	71	61	64
		Once a month	39	51	48
		2 to 3 times a month	19	26	40
		Several times a year	24	26	19
		Total Number (N)	***206***	***185***	***181***
D4	**Commodity**	Fresh food items	99	69	55
Multiple	**Bought**	Non-fresh food items	54	81	85
Choice		Durable goods	81	74	86
		Special items	44	36	38
		Total Number (N)	***278***	***260***	***264***

Source: From Questionnaires for all three Store Formats - Part D, Questions 1, 2, 3, and 4.

Chart 4.16 presents the responses to the first part of Question D1 which asked respondents whether apart from their preferred store format they also shop in other stores. From the results it can be seen that on average majority of respondents (70%) also shopped in other store formats.

Chart 4.16
Percentage Responses to Store Format Preference

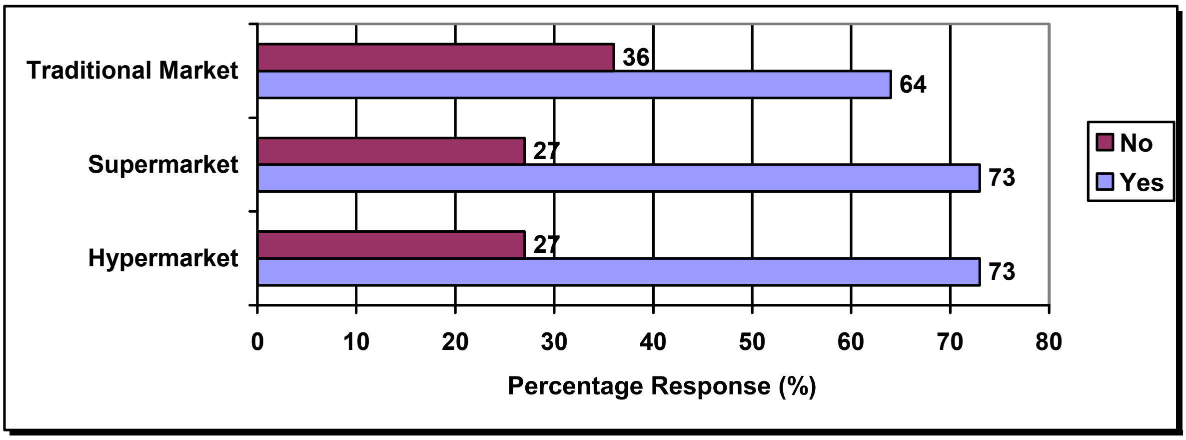
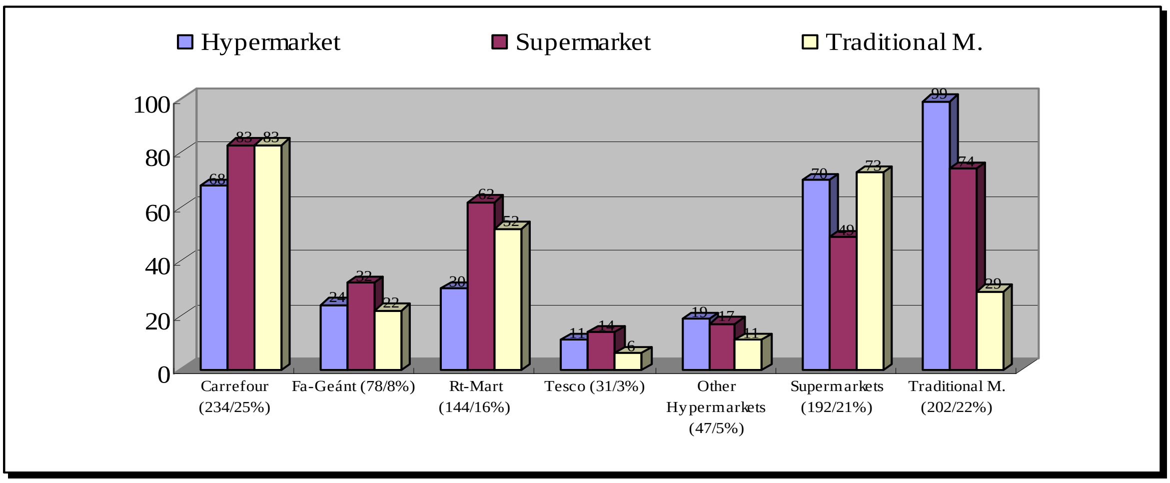


Chart 4.17 below presents the frequency distribution for Question D1 which asked respondents to indicate where they shop.

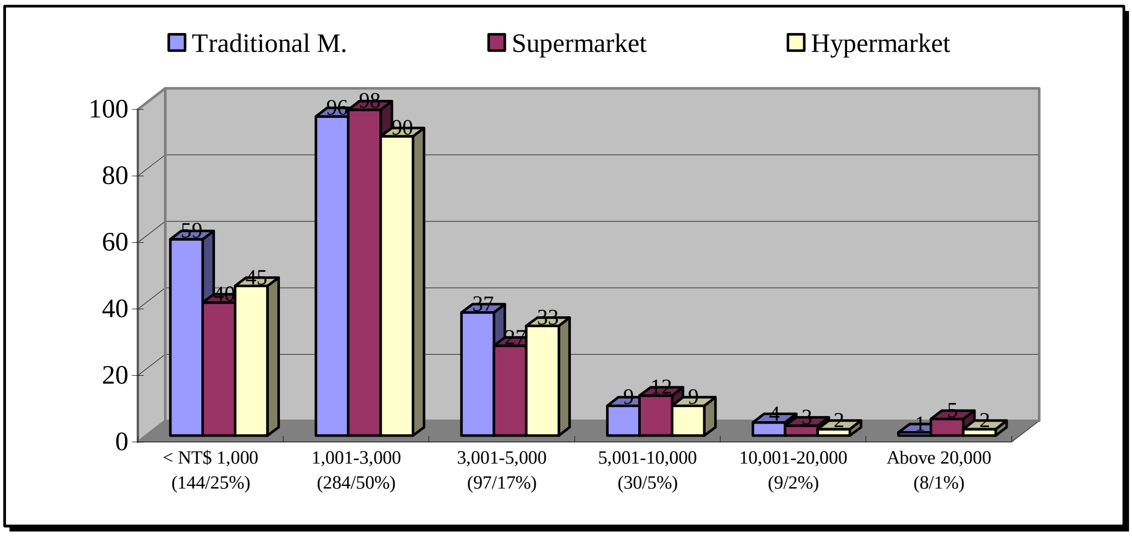
Chart 4.17
Respondents' Alternative Shopping Experience
Hypermarket=206, Supermarket=185, Traditional Market=181



Source: Question D1, Table 4.7, page 188

Chart 4.18 below presents the frequency distribution for Question D2. The question asked respondents' the amount of money spent at other store(s). The results reveal that most respondents spent NT$1,001 to NT$3,000 at other store(s), these account for nearly 50% of the respondents. Moreover, the chart also shows that respondents spent about the same amount of money at each of other store(s) formats.

Chart 4.18
Respondents' Money Spend on Other Store(s)
Hypermarket=206, Supermarket=185, Traditional Market=181



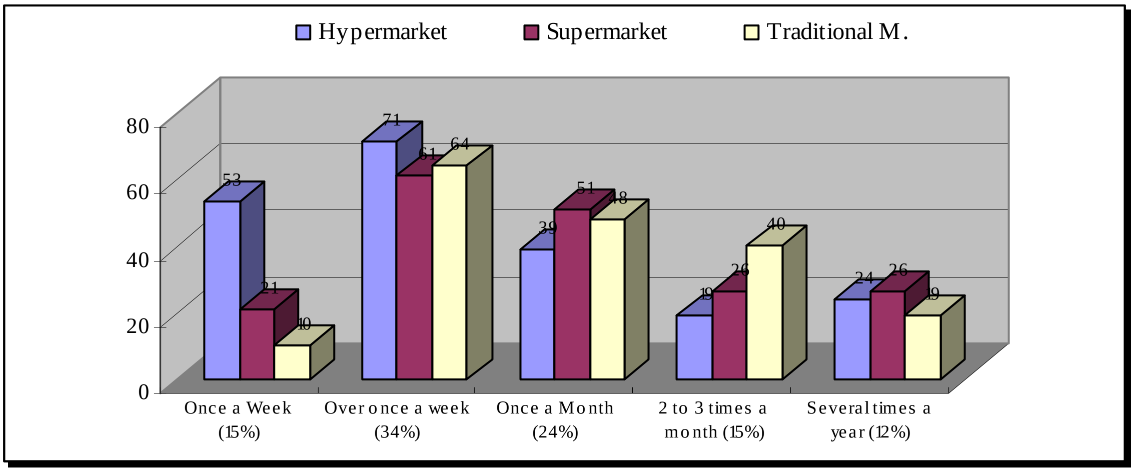
Source: Question D2, Table 4.7, page 188

Chart 4.19 below presents the frequency distribution for Question D3 presented in Table 4.7 on page 188. This question asked respondents how often they shopped at other store(s). From the chart it can be seen that on average about 34% respondents went to other store(s) more than once per week, 24% respondents went to other store(s) once per month, and 15% respondents went to other store(s) once per week. For example for hypermarket shoppers, about 124 respondents, representing about 60% hypermarket respondents, indicated that they shopped at other store(s) more frequently than once per week.

Chart 4.19

Frequency of Respondents' Shopping at Other Store(s)

Respondents: Hypermarket=206, Supermarket=185, Traditional Market=181



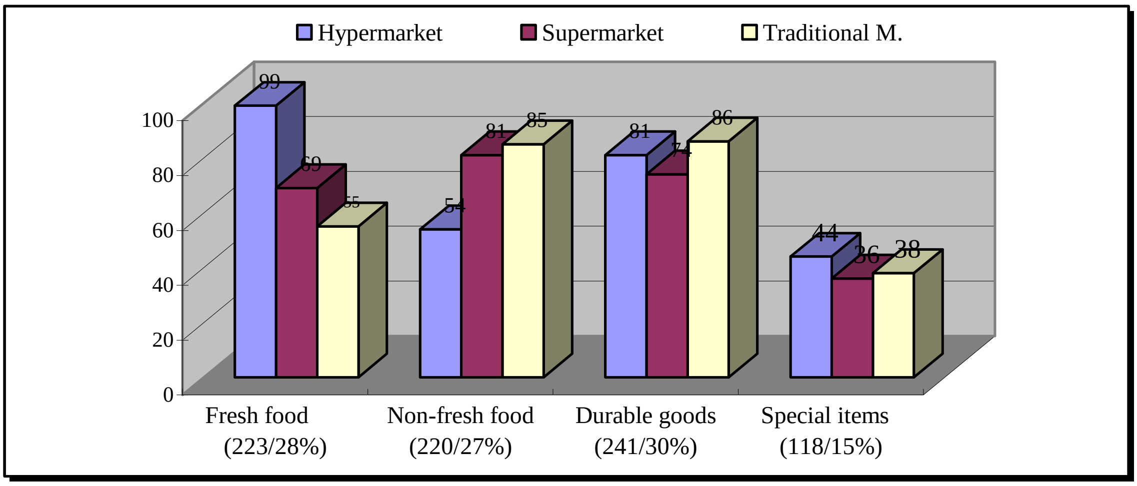
Source: Question D3, Table 4.7, page 188

Finally, Chart 4.20 presents the frequency distribution for Question D4 which asked respondents to indicate the commodities they bought at the other store(s). it can be seen that, 223 respondents said that they went to other store(s) to buy fresh food; 220 respondents bought non-food items and 241 respondents bought durable goods. It appears that majority of respondents went to other store(s) to buy non-food goods.

Chart 4.20

Commodity Bought at Other Store(s)

Respondents: Hypermarket=206, Supermarket=185, Traditional Market=181



Source: Question D4, Table 4.7, page 188

Part E: Respondents' Shopping Preferences and Attitudes

Source: Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional Markets Questionnaires

This section presents the results of the analysis of respondents' shopping preferences and attitudes towards Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional markets. The analysis is presented separately for each of the three store formats in that order, using frequency distribution tables.

The Hypermarkets

Table 4.8 below presents the responses to the twenty-six (26) questions on shopping preferences and attitudes with respect to hypermarkets. For example, the responses to Question E1, indicates that 261 respondents 'strongly agree or agree' with the statement, 14 respondents indicated they are 'neutral', 8 respondents indicated they 'strongly disagree or disagree', and one respondent gave no response.

Table 4.8
Responses to Questionnaire Part E - Hypermarkets
Source: Hypermarket Questionnaire Part E, Questions 1 to 26

Part E Question Number	Hypermarket Questionnaire Responses				Total number of Responses (n)
	Strongly Agree + Agree	Neutral	Strongly Disagree + Disagree	No response	
E1	261	14	8	1	284
E2	147	63	69	5	284
E3	147	67	69	1	284
E4	196	64	18	6	284
E5	248	29	4	3	284
E6	81	108	86	9	284
E7	148	100	31	5	284
E8	155	87	30	12	284
E9	180	70	26	8	284
E10	249	26	9	0	284

Source: From Questionnaires for the hypermarket - Part E, Questions 1 to 10.

Table 4.8 - Continuation
Responses to Questionnaire Part E - Hypermarkets
Source: Hypermarket Questionnaire Part E, Questions 11 to 26

E11	248	29	7	0	284
E12	213	46	23	2	284
E13	267	12	5	0	284
E14	227	43	12	2	284
E15	239	35	9	1	284
E16	25	56	201	2	284
E17	112	92	79	1	284
E18	213	44	26	1	284
E19	223	41	16	4	284
E20	238	24	20	2	284
E21	142	89	43	10	284
E22	223	36	24	1	284
E23	127	111	42	4	284
E24	220	53	8	3	284
E25	213	48	23	0	284
E26	219	49	11	5	284

Source: From Questionnaires for the hypermarket - Part E, Questions 11 to 26.

Table 4.9 below shows the ranking of respondents' preferences in terms of the degree of importance. It is a further analysis of Table 4.8 using averages and standard deviations. For example, most respondents ranked the statement in Question E13 as number one because it has the highest average score of 4.24 on the Likert-scale. The statement is:

"The aisles of the hypermarket are large, clean and more spacious than other shops".

On the other hand, the lowest ranking statement is Question E17 with an average Likert-scale score of 2.84, the statement reads:

"I can buy take-away or ready-to-eat food packages in the hypermarket".

Table 4.9

Analysis of the Agreement of Store Attributes of the Hypermarket

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 284

Number	Store attributes of the hypermarket	Average	Std. Deviation	Rating
13.	The aisles of the hypermarket are large, clean and more spacious than other shops	4.24	0.613	1
1.	The hypermarket offers a wider assortment of products than other shops (supermarkets and traditional markets)	4.20	0.721	2
5.	The hypermarket provides plenty of parking spaces and car services	4.14	0.788	3
10.	Other shops are less spacious and not very safe for (large) family shopping	4.12	0.710	4
11.	The hypermarket has pleasant atmosphere, air-conditioned and well lit	4.09	0.707	5
15.	There are other kinds of stores in the same hypermarket retail park, providing shopping, eating and drinking	3.98	0.713	6
14.	Shopping in the hypermarket is pleasurable even when I do not buy anything	3.94	0.821	7
20.	Other shops do not provide car parking, and other services like car tyre change or car wash and valeting	3.93	0.835	8
22.	The hypermarket accepts credit card payments	3.92	0.886	9
19.	The hypermarket has longer opening hours than other shops	3.83	0.863	10
25.	Shopping in the hypermarket is a leisure activity, rather than just for buying groceries and life necessities	3.82	0.849	11
26.	The hypermarket offers safe and convenient children’s trolleys	3.82	0.873	12
24.	There are fewer brands of the same product available for comparison in other shops	3.80	0.746	13
12.	Other shops are located in an area which is not very easy to access	3.78	0.866	14
18.	I cannot buy all necessities under the same roof in other shops	3.77	0.842	15
16.	The sections for different items in other shops are not as clearly marked as in the hypermarket	3.75	0.892	16
4.	Special offers and promotions by other shops are fewer than hypermarket	3.67	1.024	17
9.	The hypermarket offers money back guarantees	3.56	1.033	18
7.	The hypermarket provides better consumer service than other shops	3.43	0.900	19
8.	Loyalty and bonus schemes offered in other shops are less than those offered in the hypermarkets	3.37	1.064	20
3.	The hypermarket is close to my home or work place	3.33	1.003	21
21.	The hypermarket supplies the latest products	3.32	1.070	22
23.	After shopping in the hypermarket, I can also go to nearby shopping centre/street	3.31	0.961	23
2.	Hypermarket prices are lower than other shops	3.29	1.123	24
6.	Other shops provide better quality products than the hypermarket	2.90	0.992	25
17.	I can buy take-away or ready-to-eat food packages in the hypermarket	2.84	0.984	26

Source: Question 1 to 26, Table 4.8, page 192-193.

Table 4.10 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question E27, which asked respondents to rank the statements (E1 to E26) in terms of the degree of importance.

Table 4.10

Analysis of the Importance of Store Attributes of the Hypermarket

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 284

Store Attributes	Most Importance	Second Importance	Third Importance	Weighted Importance	**New Rating Store Attributes**	**Weighted important**
E1	35	18	10	151	**E1**	151
E2	12	9	5	59	**E5**	146
E3	17	11	2	75	**E13**	114
E4	4	6	5	29	**E11**	105
E5	30	22	12	146	E3	75
E6	3	3	1	16	E22	69
E7	3	2	3	16	E20	68
E8	1	1	4	9	E10	67
E9	5	11	7	44	E25	65
E10	7	13	20	67	E14	64
E11	16	20	17	105	E18	63
E12	2	3	2	14	E2	59
E13	10	31	22	114	E9	44
E14	8	12	16	64	E19	44
E15	3	5	5	24	E24	32
E16	1	4	7	18	E4	29
E17	6	2	6	28	E17	28
E18	12	7	13	63	E15	24
E19	4	10	12	44	E21	24
E20	12	11	10	68	E26	20
E21	5	3	3	24	E16	18
E22	14	8	11	69	E6	16
E23	3	1	1	12	E7	16
E24	5	5	7	32	E12	14
E25	9	9	20	65	E23	12
E26	4	1	6	20	E8	9

Note: Weighted Importance = 3 (most importance) + 2 (second importance) + 1 (third importance)

Source: the Hypermarket Questionnaire, Part E, Question E27

From Table 4.10 above it can be seen that the first four store attributes have Likert-scale scores over 100. The most important store attribute of the hypermarket is its offering of a wider assortment of products than other stores (E1); this is followed by providing plenty of parking spaces and car services (E5), the aisles are large, clean and more spacious than other shops (E13), and the hypermarket has a pleasant atmosphere, air-conditioned and well lit (E11). Table 4.11 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to the open-ended Question E28. Respondents were asked what they disliked about the hypermarket format. Of the total of 284 respondents, 107 answered this question.

Table 4.11

Analysis of frequency Distribution of the Disliked Aspect of the Hypermarket

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 107

Code	Response	Counting	Percentage
1	**Long wait in order to check out**	17	15.3%
2	**Crowded**	12	10.8%
3	**Too large to shop**	12	10.8%
4	Limited credit card acceptance	8	7.2%
5	Poor service from employees	6	5.4%
6	Large quantities/bulky packaging	6	5.4%
7	Lack of service by employees.	5	4.5%
8	Long distance to the store location.	5	4.5%
9	Low quality	5	4.5%
10	Doubt about the hygiene of food	4	3.6%
11	Fresh food not fresh	4	3.6%
12	Need club card to access	3	2.7%
13	Poor air conditioning system	2	1.8%
14	No clear direction to product location	2	1.8%
15	Not easy to find a parking space on holiday	2	1.8%
16	Questioning the price	2	1.8%
17	Short operation time	2	1.8%
18	Poor air quality in the car park	1	0.9%
19	Cannot bargain the price	1	0.9%
20	Too few check out points	1	0.9%
21	No complimentary vegetables	1	0.9%
22	No place for resting	1	0.9%
23	Noise	1	0.9%
24	Not feeling safe.	1	0.9%
25	Not having clear direction on the aisles.	1	0.9%
26	Some brands are not popular	1	0.9%
27	Take-away food cools too quickly	1	0.9%
28	The pricing is not easy to understand	1	0.9%
29	The safety of the car park is questionable.	1	0.9%
30	The sales products change quite soon	1	0.9%
31	The trolley is too large to use	1	0.9%
32	Too many private labels	1	0.9%
	Total	111	100.0%

Source: the Hypermarket Questionnaire, Part E, Question E28

A coding scheme based on the answers provided by respondents was applied. The results show that 15.3 percent of respondents indicated that the ‘long waiting to check out’ was the most disliked perception, followed by ‘crowded’ (10.8 percent) and ‘too large to shop’ (10.8 percent). Moreover, 17.1 percent of the respondents identified the following three service problems relating to hypermarkets: (1) limited credit card acceptance, (2) poor quality (unsatisfactory) service from employees, and (3) lack of service by employees.

In addition, about 17 percent of the respondents also indicated three concerns about the products: (1) large packages of the product, (2) low quality, and (3) doubt about food hygiene and freshness of food.

Finally, around five percent of the respondents dislike the long distance required to travel to the store location.

<u>The Supermarkets</u>

The presentation of the results and findings for supermarket is the same as that used for hypermarkets above. Table 4.12 below presents the responses to the twenty-four (24) questions on shopping preferences and attitudes for supermarket shoppers (see Part E of the questionnaire). For example, the frequency distribution for Question E1 suggest that,

- *55 out of 255 respondents ‘strongly agree or agree’ to the statement,*
- *42 respondents were ‘neutral’,*
- *148 respondents ‘strongly disagree or disagree’,*
- *The remaining 10 respondents did not give any response.*

Table 4.12
Responses to Questionnaire Part E - Supermarkets
Source: Supermarket Questionnaire Part E, Questions 1 to 24

Part E Question Number	**Supermarket Questionnaire Responses**				Total number of Responses (n)
	Strongly Agree + Agree	Neutral	Strongly Disagree + Disagree	No response	
E1	55	42	148	10	255
E2	122	54	76	3	255
E3	186	44	25	0	255
E4	77	109	60	9	255
E5	168	55	26	6	255
E6	128	57	69	1	255
E7	176	61	18	0	255
E8	77	90	78	10	255
E9	169	62	17	7	255
E10	97	76	61	21	255
E11	200	38	15	2	255
E12	182	53	18	2	255
E13	79	109	61	6	255
E14	117	66	55	17	255
E15	139	84	24	8	255
E16	121	82	47	5	255
E17	94	101	53	7	255
E18	75	101	69	10	255
E19	118	69	56	12	255
E20	82	86	68	19	255
E21	126	69	54	6	255
E22	159	55	36	5	255
E23	89	112	36	18	255
E24	166	56	30	3	255

Source: From Questionnaires for the Supermarket - Part E, Questions 1 to 24.

Table 4.13 below presents the results of the analysis of respondents' agreement about which of the attributes most influence their shopping preferences and attitudes. The results are rated using the average Likert-scale score.

Table 4.13
Analysis of the Agreement of Store Attributes of the Supermarket
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 255

Number	Store attributes of the supermarket	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rating
11.	The location of the supermarket is close to my home or work place	3.90	0.863	1
7.	The supermarket issues receipts and I may get a prize from the government's lottery	3.76	0.791	2
12.	Supermarkets have clearer date marks on products than other stores	3.72	0.827	3
3.	The supermarket has clearly marked prices on all items	3.71	0.795	4
9.	The supermarket has frequent sales or special promotions	3.62	0.965	5
24.	Some other stores don't provide small packets of products	3.61	0.981	6
5.	The supermarket accepts credit card payments	3.59	1.003	7
22.	Other stores are far away my home or work place	3.55	1.030	8
15.	The supermarket provides a good selection of national brands	3.42	0.988	9
16.	Other stores do not have as good layouts for easy shopping	3.30	1.010	10
21.	Most of the supermarket's food has been prepared and is ready to cook or eat	3.27	1.051	11
6.	In the supermarket, I can buy food and groceries under one roof	3.25	1.004	12
2.	Other stores do not supply hygienic, clean, air-conditioned and good decor shopping environment	3.21	1.039	13
19.	The supermarket has short waits for checkout	3.10	1.176	14
14.	Other stores do not have long opening hours	3.08	1.257	15
17.	The supermarket has helpful personnel to serve	3.08	0.999	16
23.	The supermarket offers loyalty and bonus schemes	3.03	1.122	17
13.	The supermarket provides good product quality	3.00	0.982	18
4.	Other stores like hypermarkets may not have accurate, pleasant checkout clerks	2.99	1.017	19
18.	Other stores offer fewer imported foods than supermarkets	2.94	1.029	20
20.	It is not as easy to buy organic product from hypermarkets and traditional markets as it is at supermarkets	2.91	1.274	21
10.	The supermarket provides a money back guarantee	2.90	1.243	22
8.	Other stores do not offer value coupons	2.89	1.040	23
1.	Sales prices in supermarket are lower than other shops (hypermarkets and traditional markets)	2.58	1.137	24

Source: Question 1 to 24, Table 4.12, page 198

From Table 4.13, it can be seen that most respondents have identified the following five most important store attributes: (1) the location of supermarket is close to their home or work place, (2) they shop at the supermarket because it issues receipts, (3) the supermarket has more clearly marked dates on products than other stores, (4) the supermarket has clearly marked prices on items, and (5) the supermarket has frequent sales/special offers of products. Other attributes which are also important in influencing the respondents' patronage behaviour include: (1) the supermarket offers small packets of products, (2) accepts credit card payments, (3) provides a good selection of national brands, (4) has good layouts for easy shopping, and (5) most food has been prepared and is ready to cook or eat. Table 4.13 also reveals that other stores such as the hypermarket also offer a money back guarantee, provide organic product, and imported foods like that of the supermarket. However, most respondents seem not to agree that the price in the supermarket is lower than the hypermarket and the traditional market (Question E1, in rating of 24), and other stores like the hypermarket also have accurate, pleasant checkout clerks like the supermarket (Question E4, in rating of 19).

Table 4.14 below presents the frequency distribution, the result of weighting and the sequence of rating of store attributes of the supermarket. For example, the statement that the location of the supermarket is close to my home or work place (Question E11) is a highly weighted (weighted importance = 218) and is chosen as the most important store attribute that influences respondents who shop at the supermarket. The statement that some other stores do not provide small packets of products (Question E24) is the second important attribute. The statement that other stores do not provide a hygienic, clean, air-conditioned and good décor shopping environment (Question E2, weighted importance = 97) is the third important attribute. The other statements that the supermarket accepts credit card payments (Question E5), has frequent sales or special promotions (Question E9), and has clearly marked prices on all items (Question E3), were also of some importance to respondents.

Table 4.14
Analysis of the Importance of Store Attributes of the Supermarket
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 255

Store Attributes	Most Important	Second Importance	Third Importance	Weighted Importance	**New Rating Store Attributes**	**Weighted importance**
E1	14	4	3	53	**E11**	218
E2	20	13	11	97	**E24**	116
E3	10	10	10	60	**E2**	97
E4	9	5	2	39	**E5**	97
E5	16	19	11	97	**E22**	74
E6	5	13	14	55	**E9**	71
E7	3	3	4	19	**E3**	60
E8	0	2	1	5	E6	55
E9	10	15	11	71	E1	53
E10	3	5	6	25	E14	49
E11	48	31	12	218	E12	46
E12	6	9	10	46	E15	42
E13	3	6	6	27	E4	39
E14	4	12	13	49	E16	37
E15	1	10	19	42	E21	36
E16	5	5	12	37	E19	32
E17	0	1	4	6	E13	27
E18	1	2	3	10	E10	25
E19	3	7	9	32	E20	20
E20	2	6	2	20	E23	20
E21	7	4	7	36	E7	19
E22	16	8	10	74	E18	10
E23	1	7	3	20	E17	6
E24	23	12	23	116	E8	5

Note: Weighted Importance = 3 (most importance) + 2 (second importance) + 1 (third importance)

Source: the Supermarket Questionnaire, Part E, Question 25

Table 4.15 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to the open-ended Question E26 - about 34 percent (86 of 255) of respondents answered this question. A coding scheme used identified twenty-eight (28) variables from the responses from 86 respondents. For example from Table 4.15, it can be seen that for the coded item number #1, 23.33% of respondents identified the variable or theme “fewer choices of products”. It suggest “fewer choices of products” was the most adverse store attribute. The theme/variable "the price of products being higher than other stores" was the second adverse attribute identified by 17.78% respondents.

Table 4.15
The Frequency Distribution to the Disliked Aspect of the Supermarket
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 86

Code	Response	Counting	Percentage
1	Fewer choices of products	21	23.33%
2	The price of products is higher than other stores	16	17.78%
3	Small/restricted shopping space	12	13.33%
4	The freshness of fresh food is questionable.	4	4.44%
5	No car park	3	3.33%
6	Located in the basement with poor air conditioning.	3	3.33%
7	Long waits to checkout	3	3.33%
8	Dirty	2	2.22%
9	The quality of food is questionable.	2	2.22%
10	Has out of date products on shelves.	2	2.22%
11	Not easy to find a service employee	2	2.22%
12	Service employee is not friendly	2	2.22%
13	The display of products is untidy.	2	2.22%
14	The shopping environment is too cold	2	2.22%
15	Checkout service staff not appreciative.	1	1.11%
16	The quality of vegetable and fruit is questionable.	1	1.11%
17	Crowded	1	1.11%
18	Fresh food is more expensive	1	1.11%
19	The supply of fresh food is limited in the morning	1	1.11%
20	There are bad smells.	1	1.11%
21	The packages are not environmentally friendly	1	1.11%
22	No place to rest	1	1.11%
23	Not easy to return products	1	1.11%
24	Products lack a clear description	1	1.11%
25	No clear direction of product location	1	1.11%
26	No security	1	1.11%
27	Small aisles	1	1.11%
28	The prepared food is not fresh	1	1.11%
	Total	90	100.00%

Note: Percentage = Counting / 90
Source: the Supermarket Questionnaire, Part E, Question 26

The Traditional Market

For the purpose of consistency, the presentation of the results of analysis follows the same format as for hypermarkets and supermarkets above. Table 4.16 below presents the frequency distribution for the responses to the twenty-two (22) questions on shopping preferences and attitudes with respect to traditional markets.

Table 4.16

Responses to Questionnaire Part E – Traditional Markets

Source: Supermarket Questionnaire Part E, Questions 1 to 22

Part E Question Number	Traditional Market Questionnaire Responses				Total number of Responses (n)
	Strongly Agree + Agree	Neutral	Strongly Disagree + Disagree	No response	
E1	258	17	5	1	281
E2	158	58	64	1	281
E3	202	49	22	8	281
E4	147	79	55	0	281
E5	206	51	19	5	281
E6	197	46	35	3	281
E7	112	80	59	30	281
E8	152	65	51	13	281
E9	195	56	27	3	281
E10	109	94	40	38	281
E11	251	16	13	1	281
E12	147	69	51	14	281
E13	226	36	19	0	281
E14	177	58	39	7	281
E15	157	91	33	0	281
E16	217	44	18	2	281
E17	191	54	36	0	281
E18	102	111	62	6	281
E19	106	100	72	3	281
E20	146	88	41	6	281
E21	211	47	20	3	281
E22	188	67	26	0	281

Source: From Questionnaires for the Traditional Market - Part E, Questions 1 to 22.

From Table 4.16, it can be seen that the responses for Question E1 revealed that out of the total of 281 traditional market shoppers:

- *258 shoppers indicated they are 'strongly agree or agree' with the statement in Question E1, that "the traditional market is close to my home or work place".*
- *17 shoppers indicated they are neutral,*
- *5 shoppers indicated they are 'strongly disagree or disagree'*
- *One (1) shopper did not answer the question.*

Table 4.17 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to the statements relating the traditional market attributes. As for hypermarkets and supermarkets, the responses were rated using the average/mean Likert-scale scores. For example, Question E1, with a mean score of 4.36 is rated number one (1). It suggests that most traditional market shoppers strongly agree or agree to the statement that "the traditional market is close to my home or work place". From Table 4.17 it can be identified five most important traditional market attributes as follows: (1) the traditional market is close to their home or work place (Question E1), (2) they can buy small or large quantities as they wish (Question E11), (3) the location of the traditional market is convenient (Question E13), (4) vendors are friendly, caring and humorous (Question E16), and (5) food is fresher than the other stores (Question E5). Other important traditional market attributes include: (1) shoppers can be good friends with the vendors, (2) ease of buying, (3) can get complimentary vegetables, (4) can bargain over the price, (5) being used to buying foods and groceries from the traditional market, and (6) the traditional market has better quality fresh food than the hypermarket and the supermarket.

Table 4.17

Analysis of the Agreement of Store Attributes of the Traditional Market

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 281

Number	Store attributes of the traditional market	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rating
1.	The traditional market is close to my home or work place	4.36	0.744	1
11.	I can buy small or large quantity as I wish in the traditional market	4.12	0.797	2
13.	Location of the traditional market is near to my home or work place	4.06	0.885	3
16.	Vendors of the traditional market are friendly, caring and humorous	3.95	0.891	4
5.	Food in the traditional market is fresher than other stores	3.84	0.979	5
21.	I can be good friends with the vendors, ease for buying	3.80	0.887	6
3.	The traditional market has better quality fresh food than other stores (hypermarkets and supermarkets)	3.77	1.065	7
6.	I cannot get complimentary vegetables from other stores	3.77	1.022	8
9.	I can bargain over the price in the traditional market	3.77	0.975	9
22.	I am not used to buying foods and groceries from other stores	3.72	0.844	10
17.	I can take my time to select individual fresh products in the traditional market	3.70	0.903	11
15.	I can buy food and groceries under one roof	3.58	0.907	12
14.	I can discuss the food and /or groceries characteristics with vendors of the traditional market but not in other stores	3.52	1.063	13
2.	I cannot buy special goods for traditional festival except in traditional market	3.46	1.042	14
20.	I can buy cheap and fashion clothes, shoes and accessories in the traditional markets	3.41	1.055	15
8.	The ready-to-eat food at other stores is not delicious as traditional market	3.35	1.207	16
4.	Food in other stores is more expansive than traditional market	3.31	1.164	17
12.	I can buy something special (food) except in the traditional markets	3.28	1.187	18
18.	It is difficult to meet my friends and neighbours in other stores	3.17	1.009	19
19.	The traditional market is a good place to go with my family during holidays	3.12	0.988	20
7.	Some vendors of the traditional market offer free delivery service	2.92	1.382	21
10.	Hypermarkets and supermarkets do not provide the special order services that traditional markets do	2.89	1.379	22

Source: Question 1 to 22, Table 4.16, page 203

Table 4.18 below presents the frequency distribution of the relative importance of attributes of traditional markets. For example, the statement that the traditional market is close to my home or work place (Question E1) has the highest weighting of 296 therefore, can be treated as the first most important store attribute.

Table 4.18
Analysis of the Importance of Store Attributes of the Traditional Market
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 281

Store Attributes	Most Important	Second Importance	Third Importance	Weighted Importance	**New Rating Store Attributes**	**Weighted Important**
E1	81	20	13	296	E1	296
E2	2	9	4	28	E5	188
E3	21	17	10	107	E11	150
E4	3	5	9	28	E13	133
E5	35	35	13	188	E3	107
E6	4	7	9	35	E16	75
E7	2	2	3	13	E22	74
E8	2	3	7	19	E21	64
E9	5	10	11	46	E9	46
E10	1	3	1	10	E20	46
E11	11	42	33	150	E6	35
E12	4	4	4	24	E17	33
E13	22	23	21	133	E15	29
E14	3	4	7	24	E2	28
E15	0	8	13	29	E4	28
E16	11	15	12	75	E12	24
E17	2	8	11	33	E14	24
E18	3	1	3	14	E8	19
E19	1	2	1	8	E18	14
E20	5	10	11	46	E7	13
E21	6	8	30	64	E10	10
E22	16	7	12	74	E19	8

Note: Weighted Importance = 3 (most importance) + 2 (second importance) + 1 (third importance)
Source: the Traditional Market Questionnaire, Part E, Question 23.

The frequency distribution for the 'disliked aspects of traditional markets' in Question E23 is presented in Table 4.19 below. A total of 175 out of 281 respondents answered this question. Using a seventeen-item coding scheme based on the answers provided by respondents, 280 counting variables were identified. For example, code number 1, identified the variable 'disorder' with a percentage frequency of 29.64%.

Table 4.19

The Frequency Distribution to the Disliked Aspect of the Traditional Market

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 175

Code	Response	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%f)
1	Disorder	83	29.64%
2	Unhygienic	70	25.00%
3	Dirty	48	17.14%
4	Crowded	28	10.00%
5	Noisy	9	3.21%
6	Wet	9	3.21%
7	Air is not clean (smell)	7	2.50%
8	Bad environment	6	2.14%
9	Hot	6	2.14%
10	No air condition	4	1.43%
11	The disorder of the vendor's location	3	1.07%
12	Few (no) car parks available.	2	0.71%
13	Not accepting credit cards	1	0.36%
14	No roof	1	0.36%
15	No new product	1	0.36%
16	Motorcycles go through the market	1	0.36%
17	Uncomfortable	1	0.36%
	Total	280	100.00%

Note: Percentage = Counting/280.

Source: the Traditional Market Questionnaire, Part E, Question 23

Part F: Overall Evaluation of Respondents

Source: Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional Markets Questionnaires

Table 4.20 and Chart 4.21 below present the results from the analyses of the responses to Question F1, relating to Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional markets.

Table 4.20

Analysis of Overall Evaluation of Respondents Recommendation of the Store

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820; Part F, Question 1

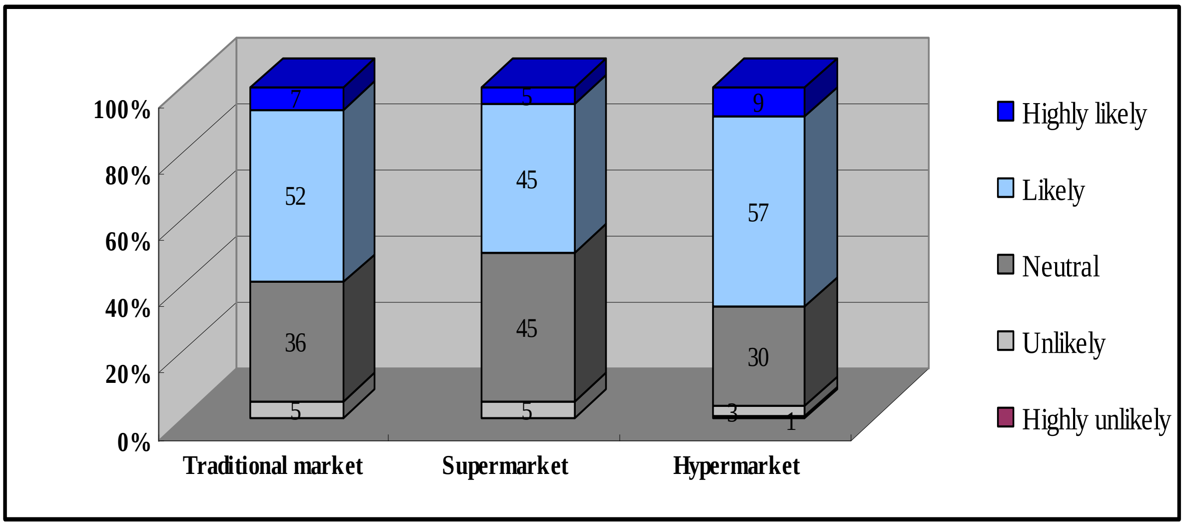
Store Formats	Responses			Total number of Responses (n)
	Very Likely + Likely	Neutral	Very Unlikely + Unlikely	
Hypermarkets	189 (66%)	85 (30)	10 (4)	284
Supermarkets	128 (50)	114 (45)	13 (5)	255
Traditional M.	168 (59)	100 (36)	13 (5)	281
Total Responses	485	299	36	820

Source: From Questionnaires for all three Store Formats – Part F, Question 1.

Chart 4.21

Comparison of the Respondents Recommendation to the Store

Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820



Source: Table 4.20

From Table 4.20, it can be seen that slightly more hypermarket shoppers i.e. 66 percent are ‘very likely or likely’ to recommend the store to their family and friends, compared with 50 percent of supermarket shoppers, and 59 percent of the traditional market shopper. Chart 4.21 shows the percentage difference within different stores. In the ‘highly likely’ and ‘likely’ categories, the hypermarket had the highest percentage. On the other hand, in the ‘unlikely’ and ‘highly unlikely’ categories, the hypermarket got the lowest percentage. The results from the analysis of Question F2 are presented in Table 4.21 and Chart 4.22 below.

Table 4.21

Analysis of Overall Evaluation of Respondents Shopping Experience

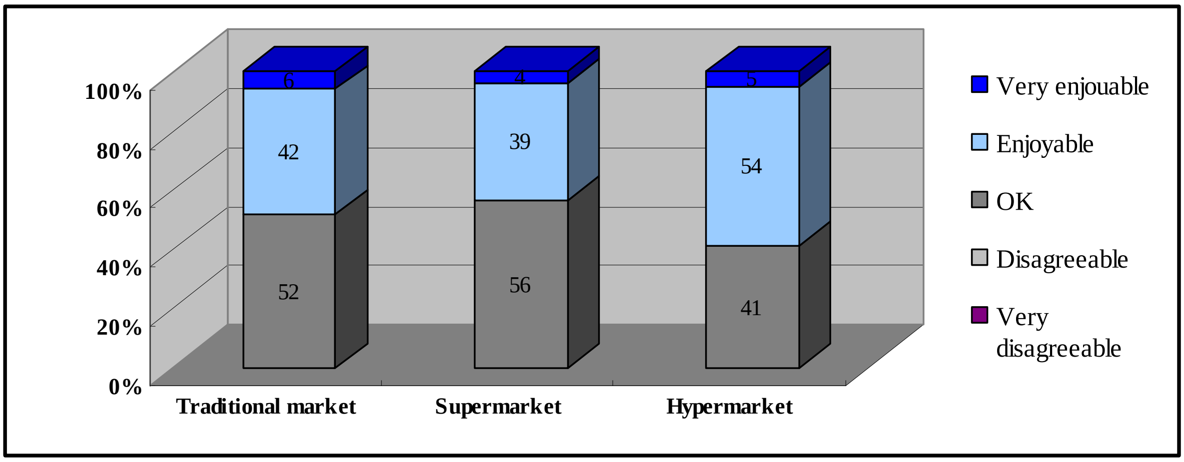
Total Number of Respondents (N) = 820; Part F -- Question 2

Store Formats	Responses			Total number of Responses (n)
	Very Enjoyable + Enjoyable	OK	Very Disagreeable + Disagreeable	
Hypermarkets	165 (59%)	118 (41)	1 (0)	284
Supermarkets	110 (43)	145 (56)	0 (0)	255
Traditional M.	133 (48)	146 (52)	2 (0)	281

Source: From Questionnaires for all three Store Formats – Part F, Question 2.

Chart 4.22

Comparison of the Respondents’ Shopping Experience to the Store



Source: Table 4.21

In Table 4.21, it can be seen that in the 'very enjoyable' and 'enjoyable' shopping trip categories, the hypermarket had the largest percentage response i.e. 59 percent hypermarket shopper had a good shopping experience, compared with 43 percentage supermarket shoppers, and 48 percent traditional market shoppers. Chart 4.22 provides a clearer picture regarding the differences in respondents' shopping experience.

4.3.3. Further Statistical Analysis

In this section, the aim is to conduct further statistical analysis on the questionnaire responses already presented above using frequency distribution tables and charts. The overall purpose is to add academic rigour to the process of primary data analysis and ultimately to make the thesis results and findings more reliable, valid and less bias. Sub-section 4.3.3.1, presents the results of using '**factor analysis technique'** on hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market attributes. Sub-section 4.3.3.2, presents the results of using **'cluster analysis technique'** on hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market shoppers. Sub-section 4.3.3.3, presents the results of the **'hypothesis testing'** of the association between hypermarket, supermarket and traditional shopping behaviours. Finally, Sub-section 4.3.3.4, presents the results of **'cross-tabulation with chi-square testing'** of the relationship between respondents' store preference and demographic characteristics, shopping habits, and shopping experience.

4.3.3.1. Results of Factor Analysis of Respondents' Perception of Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional market Formats

The results of the factor analysis for hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets are presented in tables Table 4.22, Table 4.23 and Table 4.24 below.

Table 4.22a
Factors Analysis of Hypermarket Shoppers' Preferences and Attitudes

Factor	Factor interpretation (% variance explained)	Loading	Alpha coefficient	Variables included in the Factor
F_1	Facility convenience 10.69%	0.750	0.748	5 The hypermarket provides plenty of parking spaces and car services
		0.724		11 The hypermarket has a pleasant atmosphere, is air-conditioned and is well lit
		0.714		10 Other shops are less spacious and not very safe for (large) family shopping.
		0.486		20 Other shops do not provide car parking, and other services like car tyre change or car wash valeting.
F2	Shopping environment (pleasurable environment) 10.50%	0.805	0.732	14 Shopping in the hypermarket is pleasurable even when I do not buy anything.
		0.678		25 Shopping in the hypermarket is a leisure activity, rather than just going there to buy groceries and necessities.
		0.573		15 There are other kinds of stores in the same hypermarket retail park, providing shopping and eating drinking,
		0.529		13 The aisles of the hypermarket are large, clean and more spacious than other shops.
		0.470		16 The sections for different items in other shops are not as clearly marked as in the hypermarket.
F3	Convenient consumer service	0.699	0.676	8 Loyalty and bonus schemes offered in other shops are less than those offered in the hypermarkets.
	10.46%	0.648		9 The hypermarket offers money back guarantees.
		0.560		21 The hypermarket supplies the latest products.
		0.535		7 The hypermarket provides better consumer service than other shops.
		0.456		19 The hypermarket has longer opening hours than other shops.
F4	Shopping convenience 7.95%	0.693	0.581	22 The hypermarket accepts credit card payments.
		0.686		26 The hypermarket offer safe and convenient children's trolleys.
		0.555		23 After shopping in the hypermarket, I can also go to nearby shopping centre/street.
F5	Price incentive 7.29%	0.702	0.545	2 Hypermarket prices are lower than other shops.
		0.649		4 Special offers and promotions by other shops are less than hypermarket.
F6	One-stop shopping 6.59%	-0.619	0.357	6 Other shops provide better quality products than the hypermarket.
		0.567		18 I cannot buy all necessities under the same roof in other shops.
		0.557		24 There are fewer brands of the same product available for comparison in other shops.
		0.432		12 Other shops are located in an area that is not very easy to access.
F7	Convenient product 6.23%	0.456	--	1 The hypermarket offers a wider assortment of products than other shops.

Note: The KMO Measure= 0.837; Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation;
Source: Table 4.8.

Table 4.22b

Factors Analysis of Supermarket Shoppers' Preferences and Attitudes

Factor	Factor interpretation (% variance explained)	Loading	Alpha coefficient	Variables included in the Factor
F_1	Convenient product (1) 21.06%	0.730	0.716	1 Supermarket prices are lower than other shops (hypermarkets and traditional markets).
		0.704		20 It is not as easy to buy organic product from hypermarkets and traditional markets as it is at supermarkets.
		0.606		2 Other stores do not supply hygienic, clean, air-conditioned and good decor shopping environment.
		0.571		21 Most of the supermarket's food has been prepared and is ready to cook or eat.
		0.544		23 The supermarket offers loyalty and bonus schemes.
F2	Convenient service (1) 8.24%	0.768	0.682	15 The supermarket provides a good selection of national brands.
		0.714		14 Other stores do not have long opening hours.
		0.509		13 The supermarket provides good product quality.
		0.444		4 Other stores like hypermarkets may not have accurate, pleasant checkout clerks.
F3	Shopping convenience (1) 5.91%	0.696	0.535	3 The supermarket has clearly marked prices on all items.
		0.684		6 In the supermarket, I can buy food and groceries under one roof.
		0.391		16 Other stores do not have as good layouts for easy shopping.
F4	Price incentive 7.18%	0.747	0.587	9 The supermarket has frequent sales or special promotions.
		0.717		7 The supermarket issues receipts and I may get a prize from the government's lottery.
		0.509		8 Other stores do not offer value coupons.
F5	Convenient service (2) 5.78%	0.736	0.432	5 The supermarket accepts credit card payments.
		0.591		19 The supermarket has short waits for checkout.
F6	Location convenience 4.54%	0.807	0.479	11 The location of the supermarket is close to my home or work place.
		0.683		22 Other stores are far away my home or work place.
F7	Shopping convenience (2) 4.49%	0.728	0.510	18 Other stores offer fewer imported foods than supermarkets.
		0.656		17 The supermarket has helpful personnel to serve.
F8	Convenient product (2) 4.20%	0.843	0.440	12 Supermarkets have clearer date marks on products than other stores.
		0.594		24 Some other stores don't provide small packets of products.
		0.385		10 The supermarket provides a money back guarantee.

Note: The KMO Measure= 0.788; Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation;

Source: Table 4.12.

Table 4.22c

Factors Analysis of Traditional market Shoppers' Preferences and Attitudes

Factor	Factor interpretation (% variance explained)	Loading	Alpha coefficient	Variables included in the Factor
F_1	Price incentive 11.55%	0.740	0.716	9 I can bargain over the price in the traditional market.
		0.698		11 I can buy small or large quantity as I wish in the traditional market.
		0.665		6 I cannot get complimentary vegetables from other stores.
		0.656		21 I can have good friendship with the vendors, ease for buying.
F2	Convenient product (1) 11.24%	0.838	0.648	3 The traditional market has better quality fresh food than other stores (hypermarkets and supermarkets).
		0.834		5 Food in the traditional market is fresher than other stores.
		0.498		4 Food in other stores is more expansive than traditional market.
		0.481		1 The traditional market is close to my home or work place.
F3	Shopping convenience 9.79%	0.688	0.630	19 The traditional market is a good place to go with my family during holidays.
		0.634		17 I can take my time to select individual fresh products in the traditional market.
		0.531		15 I enjoy the atmosphere of the traditional market.
		0.507		22 I am not used to buying foods and groceries from other stores.
		0.435		20 I can buy cheap and fashion clothes, shoes and accessories in the traditional markets.
F4	Convenient service (1) 9.34%	0.708	0.604	14 I can discuss the food and /or groceries characteristics with vendors of the traditional market but not in other stores.
		0.658		16 Vendors of the traditional market are friendly, caring and humorous.
		0.497		8 The ready-to-eat food at other stores is not delicious as traditional market.
		0.466		18 It is difficult to meet my friends and neighbours in other stores.
F5	Convenient service (2) 8.47%	0.745	0.575	7 Some vendors of the traditional market offer free delivery service.
		0.695		10 Hypermarkets and supermarkets do not provide special order services than traditional market do.
F6	Convenient product (2) 6.89%	0.616	0.387	12 I can buy something special (food) only in the traditional markets.
		0.581		21 I can make good friends with the vendors, ease for buying.

Note: The KMO Measure= 0.775; Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

Source: Table 4.16.

To explain the contents of Tables 4.22a, 4.22b, and 4.22c using an example would be appropriate. For example, under Table 4.22a, factor analysis was carried on the responses to Questionnaire Part E for Hypermarkets. The first factor (F1) has the highest alpha coefficient (α = 0.748) is identified as ‘facility convenience’. The set of four variables linked to F1 in decreasing order of the loading values are:

- *The hypermarket provides plenty of parking spaces and car services (Question E5) with a loading value of 0.750;*
- *The hypermarket has a pleasant atmosphere, is air conditioned and is well lit (Question E11) with a loading value of 0.724;*
- *Other shops are less spacious and not very safe for large family shopping (Question E10) with a loading value of 0.714;*
- *Other shops do not provide car parking and other services like car tyre change or car wash valeting (Question E20) with a loading value of 0.486.*

Under Table 4.22b, the factor analysis for Supermarkets identified the first factor (F1) with alpha coefficient (α = 0.716) as ‘convenient product’. The set of five variables linked to F1 in decreasing order of the loading values are:

- *Supermarket prices are lower than other shops (hypermarkets and traditional markets (Question E1) with a loading value of 0.730;*
- *It is not as easy to buy organic product from hypermarkets and traditional markets as it is at supermarkets (Question E20) with a loading value of 0.704;*
- *Other stores do not supply hygienic, clean, air-conditioned and good decor shopping environment (Question E2) with a loading value of 0.606;*
- *Most of the supermarket’s food has been prepared and is ready to cook or eat (Question E21) with a loading value of 0.571.*
- *The supermarket offers loyalty and bonus schemes (Question E23) with a loading value of 0.544.*

Finally, under Tables 4.22c factor analysis of Traditional markets revealed that the first factor (F1) with the highest alpha coefficient (α = 0.716) is identified as ‘price incentive with social characteristics'. The set of four variables linked to F1 in decreasing order of the loading values are:

- *I can bargain over the price in the traditional market (Question E9) with a loading value of 0.740;*
- *I can buy small or large quantity as I wish in the traditional market (Question E11) with a loading value of 0.698;*
- *I cannot get complimentary vegetables from other stores (Question E6) with a loading value of 0.665;*
- *I can have good friendship with the vendors, ease for buying (Question E21) with a loading value of 0.656.*

4.3.3.2. Analysis of Clusters of Hypermarket, Supermarket and Traditional market Shoppers

The purpose of the cluster analysis is to help identify shoppers' typology in terms of where they do their shopping. It involves explaining the characteristics of shoppers in their groupings or clusters.

<u>Hypermarket Clusters</u>

The factors identified in Table 4.22a on page 211, namely, F1 to F7 are used to define the hypermarket shoppers' typology as shown in Table 4.23a below.

Table 4.23a

Identification of Hypermarket Clusters

Cluster (Samples)	Cluster 1 (162)	Cluster 2 (39)	Cluster 3 (75)	Cluster 4 (8)	F value
Factor Analysis (F)	57.04%	13.73%	26.41%	2.82%	
F1 - Facility convenience	<u>.240</u>	-.732	-.204	<u>.618</u>	13.821
F2 - Shopping environment	-.129	<u>.674</u>	-.176	<u>.987</u>	11.305
F3 - Convenient service	.062	-.013	-.116	-.111	.589
F4 - Shopping convenience	.052	-.935	<u>.391</u>	-.183	18.273
F5 - Price incentive	<u>.455</u>	.014	-.786	-1.917	58.771
F6 - One-stop shopping	-.187	<u>.223</u>	<u>.545</u>	-2.408	34.491
F7 - Convenient product	.063	-.682	<u>.264</u>	-.443	9.031
Hypermarket Shoppers Typology:	**Value Shoppers**	**Environmental Shoppers**	**Efficient Shoppers**	**Leisure Shoppers**	

Source: Table 4.22a, page 211.

From Table 4.23a it can be identified four hypermarket clusters namely: (1) Value Shoppers, (2) Environmental Shoppers, (3) Efficient Shoppers, and (4) Leisure Shoppers. Table 4.23b compares the expenditure of the four hypermarket clusters in order to determine which group spends more on shopping, and the average expenditure per cluster.

Table 4.23b
Comparing the Expenditure of the Four Hypermarket Clusters

Hypermarket Clusters	Value Shoppers (1)	Environmental Shoppers (2)	Efficient Shoppers (3)	Leisure Shoppers (4)	Shoppers (Total) (frequency)
>NT$500 (1)	10	2	4	0	16
500-1000 (2)	42	18	17	3	80
1000-2000 (3)	56	10	28	2	96
2000-3000 (4)	29	5	11	1	46
3000-4000 (5)	11	3	4	0	18
4000-5000 (6)	2	0	5	1	8
>NT$5000 (7)	12	1	6	1	20
Total Expenditure	NT$ 360,000	NT$ 71,000	NT$ 179,000	NT$ 20,000	NT$ 630,000
Expenditure in Percentage	57.14%	11.27%	28.41%	3.17%	100%
Total Group Shoppers (%)	162 (57%)	39 (14%)	75 (26%)	8 (3%)	284 (100%)
Average Expenditure	NT$ 2,222	NT$ 1,820	NT$ 2,386	NT$ 2,500	

Source: Based on data from Table 4.23a

Table 4.23b shows a cross-tabulation between the four Hypermarket clusters and the seven levels of expenditure. For example, it shows that Value Shoppers (cluster 1) and Efficient Shoppers (cluster 3) together have the largest total expenditure of NT$ 360,000 and NT$ 179,000 respectively, representing 83 percent of the hypermarket shoppers. On the other hand, Environmental Shoppers (cluster 2) and Leisure Shoppers (cluster 4) spend less than shoppers in cluster 1 and 3.

Finally, Table 4.23c below shows a cross-tabulation between Hypermarket clusters and their shopping outcome expressed in terms of level of enjoyment and willingness to recommend the hypermarket store to their family and friends. For example, Leisure Shoppers (cluster 4) have the highest scores on the 'level of enjoyment' and 'willingness to recommend' and shopping outcome.

Table 4.23c
Hypermarket Clusters and the Levels of Enjoyment and Recommendation

Hypermarket Clusters	Value Shoppers (1)	Environmental Shoppers (2)	Efficient Shoppers (3)	Leisure Shoppers (4)	Shoppers (Total) (frequency)
Average Recommend Score	2.29	2.38	2.20	2.50	284
Average Enjoyment Score	2.35	2.46	2.37	2.75	284

Source: Table 4.23a

Supermarket Clusters

The factors identified in Table 4.22b on page 212, namely, F1 to F8 are used to define the supermarket shoppers' typology as shown in Table 4.24a below.

Table 4.24a
Identification of Supermarket Clusters

Cluster (Samples)	Cluster 1 (47)	Cluster 2 (28)	Cluster 3 (128)	Cluster 4 (52)	F value
Factor Analysis (F)	18.43%	10.98%	50.20%	20.39%	
F1 – Convenient product (1)	-.606	-.190	.222	.105	9.179
F2 – Convenient service (1)	.241	-1.918	.302	.071	72.285
F3 - Shopping convenience (1)	-1.098	.209	.088	.663	39.678
F4 - Price incentive	-.452	.270	.060	.116	4.444
F5 - Convenient service (2)	-.533	-.385	.372	-.225	14.641
F6 – Location convenience	.101	-.525	-.100	.437	6.915
F7 - Shopping convenience (2)	-.419	.473	.397	-.854	33.520
F8 - Convenient product (2)	.263	.078	.144	-.635	9.973
Supermarket Shoppers Typology:	**Environmental Shoppers**	**Value Shoppers**	**Efficient Shoppers**	**Leisure Shoppers**	

Source: Table 4.22b, page 212.

From Table 4.24a it can be identified four supermarket clusters namely: (1) Environmental Shoppers, (2) Value Shoppers, (3) Efficient Shoppers, and (4) Leisure Shoppers. Table 4.24b compares the expenditure of the four supermarket clusters in order to determine which group spends more on shopping, and the average expenditure per cluster. It shows a cross-tabulation between the four Supermarket clusters and the seven levels of expenditure. For example, Efficient Shoppers (cluster 3) has the largest total expenditure of NT$ 259,000, representing 50 percent of the supermarket shoppers. On the other hand, Value Shoppers (cluster 2) spends less than shoppers in cluster 1, cluster 3 and cluster 4.

Table 4.24b

Comparing the Expenditure of the Four Supermarket Clusters

Supermarket Clusters	Environmental Shoppers (1)	Value Shoppers (2)	Efficient Shoppers (3)	Leisure Shoppers (4)	Shoppers (Total) (frequency)
>NT$500 (1)	7	4	16	9	36
500-1000 (2)	11	7	35	19	72
1000-2000 (3)	17	10	48	16	91
2000-3000 (4)	6	4	10	3	23
3000-4000 (5)	1	0	5	1	7
4000-5000 (6)	1	0	6	1	8
>NT$5000 (7)	4	3	8	2	17
Total Expenditure	NT$ 95,500	NT$ 56,000	NT$ 259,000	NT$ 83,500	NT$ 494,000
Expenditure in Percentage	19.33%	11.34%	52.43%	16.90%	100%
Total Group Shoppers (%)	47(18%)	28 (11%)	128 (50%)	52 (21%)	255
Average Expenditure	NT$ 2,032	NT$ 2,000	NT$ 2,023	NT$ 1,606	

Source: Based on data from Table 4.24a

Finally, Table 4.24c below shows a cross-tabulation between Supermarket clusters and their shopping outcome expressed in terms of level of enjoyment and willingness to recommend the hypermarket store to their family and friends. For example, analysis of the shopping outcomes shows that, Environmental Shoppers (cluster 1) have the highest scores on the ‘level of enjoyment’ i.e. 2.70 and ‘willingness to recommend’ i.e. 2.60.

Table 4.24c
Supermarket Clusters and the Levels of Enjoyment and Recommendation

Supermarket Clusters	Environmental Shoppers (1)	Value Shoppers (2)	Efficient Shoppers (3)	Leisure Shoppers (4)	Shoppers (Total) (frequency)
Average Recommend Score	2.60	2.44	2.46	2.53	255
Average Enjoyment Score	2.70	2.52	2.47	2.55	255

Source: Table 4.24a

Traditional Market Clusters

The factors identified in Table 4.22c on page 213, namely, F1 to F6 are used to define the traditional market shoppers’ typology as shown in Table 4.25a below. From Table 4.25a it can be identified four traditional market clusters namely: (1) Convenient Shoppers, (2) Value Shoppers, (3) Efficient Shoppers, and (4) Leisure Shoppers.

Table 4.25a
Cluster Profiles Regarding Store Attributes Evaluation

Cluster (Samples)	Cluster 1 (183)	Cluster 2 (23)	Cluster 3 (25)	Cluster 4 (50)	F value
Factor Analysis (F)	65.12%	8.19%	8.90%	17.79%	
F1 - Price incentive	.267	.561	.243	-1.357	63.202
F2 - Convenient product (1)	-.104	.464	.466	-.0647	4.348
F3 - Shopping convenience	.120	-1.327	.130	.107	17.280
F4 – Convenient service (1)	.092	-.184	-1.549	.522	34.337
F5 - Convenient service (2)	.192	776	-1.480	-.319	37.232
F6 – Convenient product (2)	.360	-1.203	-.667	-.430	35.227
Traditional Market Shoppers Typology:	**Convenient Shoppers**	**Value Shoppers**	**Efficient Shoppers**	**Leisure Shoppers**	

Source: Table 4.22c, page 213.

Table 4.25b below compares the expenditure of the four traditional market clusters in order to determine which group spends more on shopping, and the average expenditure per cluster. It represents a cross-tabulation between the four traditional market clusters and the seven levels of expenditure. For example, it shows that Convenient Shoppers (cluster 1) and Leisure Shoppers (cluster 4) together have the largest total expenditure of NT$ 339,000 and NT$ 102,500 respectively, representing 83 percent of the traditional market shoppers. On the other hand, Value Shoppers (cluster 2) and Efficient Shoppers (cluster 3) spend less than shoppers in cluster 1 and cluster 4.

Table 4.25b
Comparing the Expenditure of the Four Traditional Market Clusters

Traditional Market Clusters	Convenient Shoppers (1)	Value Shoppers (2)	Efficient Shoppers (3)	Leisure Shoppers (4)	Shoppers (Total) (frequency)
>NT$500 (1)	20	2	3	3	28
500-1000 (2)	67	10	10	14	101
1000-2000 (3)	59	7	8	22	96
2000-3000 (4)	17	2	2	5	26
3000-4000 (5)	7	1	0	2	10
4000-5000 (6)	8	0	1	3	12
>NT$5000 (7)	5	1	1	1	8
Total Expenditure	NT$ 339,000	NT$ 40,000	NT$ 43,500	NT$ 102,500	NT$ 525,000
Expenditure in Percentage	64.57%	7.62%	8.29%	19.88%	100%
Total Group Shoppers (%)	183 (65%)	23 (8%)	25 (9%)	50 (18%)	281 (100%)
Average Expenditure	NT$ 1,852	NT$ 1,739	NT$ 1,740	NT$ 2,050	

Source: Based on data from Table 4.25a

Finally, Table 4.25c below shows a cross-tabulation between the traditional market clusters and their shopping outcomes expressed in terms of level of enjoyment and willingness to recommend the traditional market store to their family and friends. For example, analysis of the shopping outcomes shows that, Leisure Shoppers (cluster 4) have the highest scores on the 'level of enjoyment' i.e. 2.64 and 'willingness to recommend' i.e. 2.50.

Table 4.25c
Traditional Market Clusters and the Levels of Enjoyment and Recommendation

Traditional Market Clusters	Convenient Shoppers (1)	Value Shoppers (2)	Efficient Shoppers (3)	Leisure Shoppers (4)	Shoppers (Total) (frequency)
Average Recommend Score	2.36	2.26	2.36	2.50	281
Average Enjoyment Score	2.43	2.48	2.48	2.64	281

Source: Table 4.23a

4.3.3.3. A Simple Hypothesis Testing on the Relationship of Store Formats

In order to understand the nature of the relationships between respondents' attitude towards Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional markets, the 'strongly agree or agree' responses for the three store formats was subjected to a simple hypothesis - Table 4.26 below presents the primary data used in the hypothesis testing. For example, the responses to Question E1, reveals that:

- *261 respondents representing 92% of the total of 284 hypermarket shoppers 'strongly agree or agree'*
- *55 respondents representing 22% of the total of 255 supermarket shoppers 'strongly agree or agree'*
- *258 respondents representing 92% of the total of 281traditional market shoppers 'strongly agree or agree'*

The null hypotheses (H_0) are:

- *There is no relationship between 'hypermarket shoppers' and 'supermarket shoppers'*
- *There is no relationship between 'hypermarket shoppers' and 'traditional market shoppers'*
- *There is no relationship between 'supermarket shoppers' and 'traditional market shoppers'*

Table 4.26
Primary Data for Hypothesis Testing

Part E Question Number	Hypermarket Questionnaire Responses		Supermarket Questionnaire Responses		Traditional Market Questionnaire Responses	
	Strongly Agree + Agree	% n = 284 (H)	Strongly Agree + Agree	% n = 255 (S)	Strongly Agree + Agree	% n = 281 (T)
E1	261	92	55	22	258	92
E2	147	52	122	48	158	56
E3	147	52	186	73	202	72
E4	196	69	77	30	147	52
E5	248	87	168	66	206	73
E6	81	29	128	50	197	70
E7	148	52	176	69	112	40
E8	155	55	77	30	152	54
E9	180	63	169	66	195	69
E10	249	88	97	38	109	39
E11	248	87	200	78	251	89
E12	213	75	182	71	147	52
E13	267	94	79	31	226	80
E14	227	80	117	46	177	63
E15	239	84	139	55	157	56
E16	25	9	121	47	217	77
E17	112	39	94	37	191	68
E18	213	75	75	29	102	36
E19	223	79	118	46	106	38
E20	238	84	82	32	146	52
E21	142	50	126	49	211	75
E22	223	79	159	62	188	67
E23	127	45	89	35	n/a	n/a
E24	220	77	166	65	n/a	n/a
E25	213	75	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
E26	219	77	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Upper 25% to Total Percent		45.37%		36.00%		30.14%

Source: From Questionnaires Part E, Questions 1 to 26 of Hypermarket, Question 1 to 24 of Supermarket, Question 1 to 22 of Traditional Market.

The alternative hypotheses (H_1) are:

- *There is a relationship between 'hypermarket shoppers' and 'supermarket shoppers'*
- *There is a relationship between 'hypermarket shoppers' and 'traditional market shoppers'*
- *There is a relationship between 'supermarket shoppers' and 'traditional market shoppers'*

Tables 4.27a and 4.27b show the mean values and the significance level, respectively for the hypothesis testing using SPSS one-way ANOVA.

Table 4.27a
Mean Values from the Hypothesis Testing

Store Formats	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Hypermarkets	26	**67.2308**	21.18926	4.15556	58.6722	75.7893
Supermarkets	24	**48.9583**	16.53581	3.37536	41.9759	55.9408
Traditional	22	**62.2727**	16.09845	3.43220	55.1351	69.4104
Total	72	59.6250	19.62496	2.31282	55.0134	64.2366

Source: Table 4.26

Table 4.27b
Significance level for the Hypothesis Testing

	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F value	Significance
Between Groups	4388.938	2	2194.469	**6.596**	**.002****
Within Groups	22955.937	69	332.695		
Total	27344.875	71			

Source: Table 4.26; **Note**: **: p<0.01.

The results in the Table 4.27a shows there are differences in the mean values. In order to understand these differences a comparison between two mean values was carried out and the results presented in Table 4.27c.

Table 4.27c
Comparisons between the Mean Values

(I) b	(J)b	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Significance	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Hyper	Super	**18.27244***	5.16316	**.002**	5.9051	30.6398
	Tradi	**4.95804**	5.28379	**.618**	-7.6983	17.6144
Super	Hyper	-18.27244*	5.16316	.002	-30.6398	-5.9051
	Tradi	**-13.31439***	5.38375	**.041**	-26.2102	-.4186
Tradi	Hyper	-4.95804	5.28379	.618	-17.6144	7.6983
	Super	13.31439*	5.38375	.041	.4186	26.2102

Source: Table 4.26 **Note**: * The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level, i.e. p<0.05.

From Table 4.27b it can be seen that the F value of 6.596 and the p value 0.002, suggest that there is a significant difference between the three mean values. Furthermore, from the results in Table 4.27c it can be seen that:

- *The mean difference between HYPERMARKETS and SUPERMARKETS shoppers is 18.27244 with a p value of 0.002 that is significant at the 95% confidence interval. The positive mean difference and the significant p value suggest that the responses of hypermarket shoppers are stronger than the responses of supermarket shoppers.* ***Therefore the null hypothesis should be rejected.***

- *The mean difference between HYPERMARKETS and TRADITIONAL market shoppers is 4.95804 with a p value of 0.618 that is not significant at the 95% confidence interval. The very small positive mean difference and the weak significant value suggest that the responses of hypermarket shoppers are weak compared to those of supermarket shoppers.* ***Therefore the null hypothesis technically should not be rejected.***

- *The mean difference between SUPERMARKETS and TRADITIONAL market shoppers is -13.31439 with a p value of 0.041 that is significant at the 95% confidence interval. The negative mean difference and the significant value suggest that the responses of supermarket shoppers are very weak compared to those of traditional market shoppers.* ***Therefore the null hypothesis should be rejected.***

4.3.3.4. Chi-Square testing of the relationship between the Respondents' Shopping Behaviour

A chi-square analysis technique is used in this section to explore further the nature of the relationship between hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market shoppers' behaviour, as determined by the hypothesis testing in Section 4.3.3.3 above. The rationale is to test the hypothesis that the shoppers' demographic characteristics and their store preference are independent of each other.

Testing the relationship between 'Age Groups' and 'Store Preference'

Table 4.28a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) 'age groups' and (2) 'store preference'. To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are:

H_0: age group and shopper retail store preference are independent
H_1: they are not independent

Table 4.28a
Data on the two variables – 'Age Groups' and 'Store Preference'

Age Groups (variable 1)		Respondents' Retail Store Preference (variable 2) Where do you and your family buy most of the food and groceries for your family?							Total
		Hypermarket	Supermarket	Traditional market	Hyper and Tradition	Super and Tradition	Hyper and Super	All Store Formats	
Age	Under 30	**17**	**21**	23	45	37	15	39	197
	31-39	**15**	**29**	26	47	40	16	35	208
	40-49	8	15	**48**	65	52	12	55	255
	50-59	4	13	**15**	28	27	5	29	121
	Over 60	1	4	**16**	2	7	1	8	39
Total		45	82	128	187	163	49	166	820

Source: Table 4.4, Question A1 and Table 4.5, Question B1

Table 4.28b
Results of the Chi-Square Test on 'Age Groups' and 'Store Preference'

	Chi-square Values	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	51.582*	24	0.001
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.28a; **Note**: *3 cells (8.6%) are expected to count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.14.

From Table 28a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: *17 were under 30 years of age; 15 were between 31 and 39 years of age; the remaining 13 were above 40 years.* The corresponding table i.e. Table 4.28b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the 'age group' and 'store preference' is 51.58, with a significance level (p value = 0.001) of less than 0.01 (99% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between 'age group' and 'store preference' as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

<u>Testing the relationship between 'Gender' and 'Store Preference'</u>

Table 4.29a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) 'gender' and (2) 'store preference'. To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are: *H_0: gender and shopper retail store preference are independent. H_1: they are not independent*

Table 4.29a
Data on two variable – 'Gender' and 'Store Preference'

Gender (1)		Respondents' Retail Store Preference (2) Where do you and your family buy most of the food and groceries for your family?							Total
		Hypermarket	Supermarket	Traditional market	Hyper and Tradition	Super and Tradition	Hyper and Super	All	
Gender	Male	**20**	**21**	21	50	26	13	41	192
	Female	25	61	**107**	137	137	36	125	628
Total		45	82	128	187	163	49	166	820

Source: Table 4.4, Question A2 and Table 4.5, Question B1

Table 4.29b
Results of the Chi-Square Test on 'Gender' and 'Store Preference'

	Chi-Square Value	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	21.458*	6	0.002
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.29a; **Note**: * 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.54.

From Table 4.29a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: 20 *were male, and the remaining 25 female.* The corresponding table i.e. Table 4.29b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the ‘gender’ and ‘store preference’ is 21.458, with a significance level (p value = 0.002) of less than 0.01 (99% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between ‘gender’ and ‘store preference’ as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

<u>Testing the relationship between ‘Education Level’ and ‘Store Preference’</u>

Table 4.30a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) ‘education level’ and (2) ‘store preference’. To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are: *H_0: education level and shopper retail store preference are independent, H_1: they are not independent.*

Table 4.30a

Data on the two variables - Education Level and Store Preference

Education Level (1)		Respondents’ Retail Store Preference (2) Where do you and your family buy most of the food and groceries for your family? Hypermarket	Supermarket	Traditional market	Hyper and Tradition	Super and Tradition	Hyper and Super	All	Total
Education	~ High School	12	19	**78**	85	68	12	77	351
	College	9	30	19	48	37	11	41	195
	University	**19**	**26**	20	46	47	22	39	219
	Postgraduate~	5	7	11	8	11	4	9	55
Total		45	82	128	187	163	49	166	820

Source: Table 4.4, Question A4 and Table 4.5, Question B1

Table 4.30b

Results of the Chi-Square Test on ‘Education Level’ and ‘Store Preference’

	Chi-Square Value	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	57.931*	18	0.000
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.30a; **Note**: * 2 cells (7.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.02.

From Table 4.30a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: *12 were from High School or below; 9 were from College; 19 from University, the remaining 5 were Postgraduates.* The corresponding table i.e. Table 4.30b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the 'education level' and 'store preference' is 57.931, with a significance level (p value = 0.000) of less than 0.01 (99% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between 'education level' and 'store preference' as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

Testing the relationship between 'Members of Family' and 'Store Preference'

Table 4.31a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) 'members of family' and (2) 'store preference'. To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are: *H_0: members of family and shopper retail store preference are independent*, *H_1: they are not independent.*

Table 4.31a
Data on the two variables – 'Members of Family' and 'Store Preference'

Members of Family (1)		**Respondents' Retail Store Preference (2)** Where do you and your family buy most of the food and groceries for your family?							
		Hypermarket	Supermarket	Traditional market	Hyper and Tradition	Super and Tradition	Hyper and Super	All	Total
Members of Family	1	**7**	**12**	6	2	9	5	8	49
	2	**8**	**19**	9	20	14	10	20	100
	3	**10**	**13**	22	36	34	8	32	155
	4	**9**	26	**37**	67	59	17	59	274
	5	6	8	**29**	41	34	7	27	152
	6	2	1	**9**	17	10	0	12	51
	7 or more	3	3	**16**	4	3	2	8	39
Total		45	82	128	187	163	49	166	820

Source: Table 4.4, Question A9 and Table 4.5, Question B1

Table 4.31b
Results of Chi-Square Test on 'Members of Family' and 'Store Preference'

	Chi-Square Value	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	89.062*	36	0.000
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.31a; **Note**: * 8 cells (16.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.14.

From Table 4.31a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: *7 were from a family of one; 8 were from a family of two; 10 were from a family of three; 9 were from a family of four; the remaining 11 were from a family of five or more.* The corresponding table i.e. Table 4.31b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the 'members of family' and 'store preference' is 89.062, with a significance level (p value = 0.000) of less than 0.01 (99% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between 'members of family' and 'store preference' as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

Testing the relationship between 'Shop for Holidays or Festivals' and 'Store Preference'

Table 4.32a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) 'shop for holidays or festivals' and (2) 'store preference'. To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are:

H_0: shopping for holidays or festivals and shopper retail store preference are independent

H_1: they are not independent

Table 4.32a
Data on the two variables – 'Shop for a Public Holiday or Traditional Festivals' and 'Store Preference'

Respondents' Retail Store Preference (2)	Shopping for Holidays or Festivals (1) Do you and your family shop especially for public holidays or traditional festivals?		Total
	yes	no	
Hypermarket	20	25	45
Supermarket	32	50	82
Traditional market	75	53	128
Hyper and Tradition	121	66	187
Super and Tradition	87	76	163
Hyper and Super	19	30	49
All	102	64	166
Total	456	364	820

Source: Table 4.5, Question B1 and B3

Table 4.32b
Results of the Chi-Square Test on 'Shop for Public Holiday or Traditional Festivals' and 'Store Preference'

	Chi-Square Value	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.385*	6	0.000
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.31a; **Note**: * 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.98.

From Table 4.32a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: *20 said YES, while the remaining 25 said NO.* The corresponding table i.e. Table 4.32b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the 'shopping for holidays' and 'store preference' is 26.385, with a significance level (p value = 0.000) of less than 0.01 (99% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between 'shopping for holidays or festivals' and 'store preference' as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

Testing the relationship between 'Frequency of Shopping Trips' and 'Store Preference'

Table 4.33a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) 'frequency of shopping trips' and (2) 'store preference'. To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are:

> *H_0: frequency of shopping trips and shopper retail store preference are independent*
>
> *H_1: they are not independent*

Table 4.33a

Data on the two variables – 'Frequency of Shopping Trips' and 'Store Preference'

Respondents' Retail Store Preference (2)	**Frequency of Shopping Trips (1)** What is the total number of shopping trips for food and groceries that you and your family do in an average week?							Total
	0-1	2	3	4	5	6	>7	
Hypermarket	27	10	6	1	1	0	0	45
Supermarket	28	21	23	4	4	0	2	82
Traditional market	42	35	24	13	5	1	8	128
Hyper and Tradition	73	57	36	11	8	1	1	187
Super and Tradition	49	49	32	11	13	6	3	163
Hyper and Super	26	16	5	2	0	0	0	49
All	54	47	43	11	6	0	5	166
Total	299	235	169	53	37	8	19	820

Source: Table 4.5, Question B1 and B5

Table 4.33b

Results of the Chi-Square Test on 'Frequency of Shopping Trip' and 'Store Preference'

	Chi-Square Value	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	66.379*	36	0.002
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.33a; **Note**: * 19 cells (38.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .44.

From Table 4.33a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: *27 indicated that their shopping trip in an average week was within once, 10 were twice, and the remaining 8 was more than two times.* The corresponding table i.e. Table

4.33b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the 'frequency of shopping trips' and 'store preference' is 66.379, with a significance level (p value = 0.002) of less than 0.01 (99% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between 'frequency of shopping trips' and 'store preference' as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

Testing the relationship between 'Shop for Durable Goods' and 'Store Preference'

Table 4.34a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) 'shop for durable goods' and (2) 'store preference'. To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are: *H_0: shopping for durable goods and shopper retail store preference are independent, H_1: they are not independent.*

Table 4.34a

Data on the two variables – 'Shop for Durable Goods' and 'Store Preference'

Respondents' Retail Store Preference (2)	Shopping for Durable Goods (1) Would you return to the hypermarket to buy durable goods?					Total
	Def. Yes	Pro. Yes	Neutral	Pro. No	Def. No	
Hypermarket	12	22	8	2	1	45
Supermarket	13	45	16	6	2	82
Traditional market	17	52	45	9	5	128
Hyper and Tradition	36	78	61	10	2	187
Super and Tradition	20	64	63	14	2	163
Hyper and Super	7	28	10	4	0	49
All	28	62	68	4	4	166
Total	133	351	271	49	16	820

Source: Table 4.5, Question B1 and B8

Table 4.34b

Results of the Chi-Square Test on 'Shop for Durable Goods' and 'Store Preference'

	Chi-Square Value	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	40.344*	24	0.020
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.34a; **Note**: * 10 cells (28.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .88.

From Table 4.34a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: 12 *said definitely YES, they would return to hypermarket to buy durable goods, 22 said probably yes, 8 were neutral, and the remaining 3 said probably NO.* The corresponding table i.e. Table 4.34b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the ‘shop for durable goods’ and ‘store preference’ is 40.344, with a significance level (p value = 0.020) of less than 0.05 (95% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between ‘shop for durable goods’ and ‘store preference’ as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

<u>Testing the relationship between ‘Transportation Used’ and ‘Store Preference’</u>

Table 4.35a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) ‘transportation used’ and (2) ‘store preference’. To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are: *H_0: ‘transportation used’ and shoppers’ ‘store preference’ are independent; H_1: they are not independent.*

Table 4.35a
Data on the two variables – ‘Transportation Used’ and ‘Store Preference’

Respondents’ Retail Store Preference (2)	**Transportation Used (1)** What kind of transportation did you and/or your family use for traveling to the shop?					Total
	By foot	Car	Scooter	Bus	Train or Metro	
Hypermarket	6	30	8	1	0	45
Supermarket	23	36	20	2	1	82
Traditional market	56	24	45	3	0	128
Hyper and Tradition	33	93	52	9	0	187
Super and Tradition	62	47	49	3	2	163
Hyper and Super	1	38	9	0	1	49
All	38	97	29	2	0	166
Total	219	365	212	20	4	820

Source: Table 4.5, Question B1 and Table 4.6, Question C2

Table 4.35b
Results of the Chi-Square Test on 'Transportation Used' and 'Store Preference'

	Chi-Square Value	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	123.057*	24	0.000
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.35a; **Note**: * 14 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .22.

From Table 4.35a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: 6 *indicated that they went to hypermarket by foot, 30 were by car, 8 by scooter, and the remaining 1 by bus.* The corresponding table i.e. Table 4.35b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the 'transportation used' and 'store preference' is 123.057, with a significance level (p value = 0.0005) of less than 0.01 (99% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between 'transportation used' and 'store preference' as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

<u>Testing the relationship between 'Distance to a Store' and 'Store Preference'</u>

Table 4.36a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) 'distance to a store' and (2) 'store preference'.

Table 4.36a
Data on the two variables – 'Distance to a Store' and 'Store Preference'

Respondents' Retail Store Preference (2)	**Distance to a Store (1)** Approximately how far is it to the shop from your home?						Total
	< 1 Km	1-3	3-7	7-12	12-20	> 20	
Hypermarket	10	15	8	5	7	0	45
Supermarket	36	26	4	4	7	5	82
Traditional market	64	46	14	0	3	1	128
Hyper and Tradition	55	60	39	20	9	4	187
Super and Tradition	71	55	12	11	11	3	163
Hyper and Super	8	15	9	11	4	2	49
All	54	54	26	15	13	4	166
Total	298	271	112	66	54	19	820

Source: Table 4.5, Question B1 and Table 4.6, Question C4

To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are: *H_0: 'distance to a store' and shoppers' 'store preference' are independent*, *H_1: they are not independent.*

Table 4.36b
Results of the Chi-Square Test on 'Distance to a Store' and 'Store Preference'

	Chi-Square Value	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	86.580*	30	0.000
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.36a; **Note**: * 11 cells (26.2%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.04.

From Table 4.36a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: 10 *indicated that their travel distance to a hypermarket were within 1 kilometer, 15 were within one to three kilometer, 8 were within three to sever kilometer, and the remaining 12 were above seven kilometer.* The corresponding table i.e. Table 4.36b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the 'distance to a store' and 'store preference' is 86.580, with a significance level (p value = 0.0005) of less than 0.01 (99% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between 'distance to a store' and 'store preference' as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

Testing the relationship between 'Money Spent on Food Items' and 'Store Preference'

Table 4.37a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) 'money spent on food items' and (2) 'store preference'. To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are: *H_0: 'money spent on food items' and shoppers' 'store preference' are independent, H_1: they are not independent.*

Table 4.37a

Data on the two variables – ‘Money Spent on Food Items’ and ‘Store Preference’

Respondents’ Retail Store Preference (2)	Money Spent on Food Items (1) What amount of money have you and/or your family spent this time on food items in this shop?							Total
	<NT$500	501-1000	1001-2000	2001-3000	3001-4000	4001-5000	>5000	
Hypermarket	6	12	16	2	3	3	3	45
Supermarket	7	34	24	5	2	6	4	82
Traditional market	16	46	41	9	7	4	5	128
Hyper and Tradition	14	66	65	20	9	7	6	187
Super and Tradition	18	49	56	19	5	8	8	163
Hyper and Super	0	8	22	14	3	0	2	49
All	16	36	66	19	5	7	17	166
Total	77	251	290	88	34	35	45	820

Source: Table 4.5, Question B1 and Table 4.6, Question C5

Table 4.37b

Results of the Chi-Square Test on ‘Money Spent on Food Items’ and ‘Store Preference’

	Chi-Square Value	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	62.842*	36	0.004
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.37a; **Note**: * 12 cells (24.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.87.

From Table 4.37a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: 6 *indicated that they spent within NT$500 on food items, 12 spent within NT$500 to NT$1,000, 16 spent NT$1,001 to NT$2,000, and the remaining 11 spent over NT$ 2,000.* The corresponding table i.e. Table 4.37b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the ‘money spent on food items’ and ‘store preference’ is 62.842, with a significance level (p value = 0.004) of less than 0.01 (99% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between ‘money spent on food items’ and ‘store preference’ as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

Testing the relationship between 'Money Spent on Non-Food Items' and 'Store Preference'

Table 4.38a below identifies the two variables for the chi-square analysis, namely, (1) 'money spent on non-food items' and (2) 'store preference'. To test the independence of the two variables, the null hypothesis (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) are: *H_0: money spent on non- food items and shopper retail store preference are independent, H_1: they are not independent.*

Table 4.38a
Data on the two variables – 'Money Spent on Non-Food Items' and 'Store Preference'

Respondents' Retail Store Preference (2)	Money Spent on Non-Food Items (1) What amount of money have you and/or your family spent this time on non-food items in this shop?							Total
	<NT$500	501-1000	1001-2000	2001-3000	3001-4000	4001-5000	>5000	
Hypermarket	7	15	12	4	4	0	3	45
Supermarket	16	29	25	5	0	3	4	82
Traditional market	35	43	33	7	4	3	3	128
Hyper and Traditional.	25	57	67	19	5	5	9	187
Super and Traditional.	23	48	61	15	4	6	6	163
Hyper and Super	1	8	23	12	2	1	2	49
All	22	48	51	18	6	5	16	166
Total	129	248	272	80	25	23	43	820

Source: Table 4.5, Question B1 and Table 4.6, Question C5

Table 4.38b
Results of the Chi-Square Test on 'Money Spent on Non-Food Items' and 'Store Preference'

	Chi-Square Value	Degree of Freedom	Asymptomatic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	65.372*	36	0.002
N of Valid Cases	820		

Source: Table 4.37a; **Note**:* 16 cells (32.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.26.

From Table 4.38a it can be seen that out of the total of 45 Hypermarket shoppers: 7 *indicated that they spent within NT$500 on non-food items, 15 spent within NT$500 to NT$1,000, 12 spent NT$1,001 to NT$2,000, and the remaining 11 spent over NT$*

2,000. The corresponding table i.e. Table 4.38b above shows the output of the Chi-Square statistics. From the results it can be seen that the computed chi-square statistic for the ‘money spent on non-food items’ and ‘store preference’ is 65.372, with a significance level (p value = 0.002) of less than 0.01 (99% confidence interval); therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of independence is rejected. This result suggests that there is an association between ‘money spent on non-food items’ and ‘store preference’ as far as hypermarket shoppers are concerned.

4.4. Summary of Chapter

In this chapter the primary data collected from the Focus group interviews and Questionnaires were presented using narratives and a mix of frequency tables, simple and multiple bar charts. The primary data presentation was followed by contents analysis of the interview transcripts and statistical analysis of the responses to the Parts A to F of the questionnaires. Further statistical analysis of the questionnaires was carried out using descriptive statistics, factor analysis, cluster analysis, simple hypothesis testing and chi-square testing in order to justify the empirical data collected.

This section provides a comprehensive summary of the empirical results and findings to underpin the next chapter which discusses and interprets the results and findings in the context of current developments in the literature. Sub-section 4.4.1 provides a summary of the results and findings from the qualitative analysis, and Sub-section 4.4.2 provides the summary of the results and findings from the quantitative analysis. Finally, the link between Chapter Four and Chapter Five is provided.

4.4.1. Summary of Results and Findings from the Qualitative Analysis of the Exploratory Focus Group Interviews

In this sub-section the results and findings from the content analysis of the focus group interviews are expressed in terms of themes and the relationship between themes. It is important to state that the focus group interviews were exploratory in nature and therefore the results and findings were not meant to be conclusive, but to serve as input into the questionnaire survey. From Table 4.3a (Hypermarkets) on page 169, Table 4.3b (Supermarket) on page 170, and Table 4.3c (Traditional markets) on page 171, it can be seen that the contents analysis identified eight (8) themes from the interview transcripts, common to Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional markets as presented in the table below. From a conceptual or theoretical point of view the eight themes are linked together by the extended marketing mix variables i.e. 7Ps – product, price, promotion, place, physical presence, processes, and provision of services. The marketing mix variables therefore provides the conceptual framework for discussing the results from the focus group interviews because the 7Ps are very relevant particularly in service or retail internationalisation in helping to identify and meet the needs of customers.

<table>
<tr><th>No.</th><th>Focus Group Interview Themes</th><th>Conceptual/Theoretical Relationship between Themes</th></tr>
<tr><td>1</td><td>Atmosphere and environment in the store</td><td rowspan="8">These themes are linked through the seven (7) Marketing mix variables i.e.:
1. Product,
2. Price,
3. Promotion,
4. Place,
5. Physical presence,
6. Processes and
7. Provision of Services</td></tr>
<tr><td>2</td><td>Convenience of facilities</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>Location of the store</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td>Products offered</td></tr>
<tr><td>5</td><td>Prices of products</td></tr>
<tr><td>6</td><td>Sales Promotion</td></tr>
<tr><td>7</td><td>Services provided in the store</td></tr>
<tr><td>8</td><td>Family factor</td></tr>
</table>

4.4.2. Summary of Results and Findings from the Quantitative Analysis of the Responses to the Questionnaires

Descriptive statistics comprising of frequencies and their corresponding percentage values were calculated for each part of the questionnaire, before subjecting the values to further statistical analysis. A summary of the results and findings based on the frequencies and percentages for Parts A to F of the questionnaire are highlighted as follows:

Parts	Themes	Summary of Results and Findings		
		Hypermarkets	**Supermarkets**	**Traditional markets**
A	Demographics	For all three store formats (1) about 77% respondents are females (2) 50% respondents have college or university education (3) 80% respondents are aged below 49 years		
B	Shopping habits	63% of respondents use all three store formats		
C	Last shopping trip	The results suggest that ‘distance’ impact on the ‘amount of money spent’ in a store		
D	Shopping at other stores	72% hypermarket shoppers also shop Supermarkets and Traditional markets	72% supermarket shoppers also shop Hypermarkets and Traditional markets	64% traditional market shoppers also shop Supermarkets and Hypermarkets
E	Shopping preferences	(1) Spacious shopping area (2) Wide assortment of products (3) Plenty car parking space	(1) Location not far from home (2) Personal service (3) Clearly marked dates and prices	(1) Convenient location (2) No restriction on quantity of items bought (3) Friendly vendors
F	Overall Respondents’ Evaluation Score	66% hypermarket shoppers are ‘very likely or likely’ to recommend the store to their family and friends	50% supermarket shoppers are ‘very likely or likely’ to recommend the store to their family and friends	59% traditional market shoppers are ‘very likely or likely’ to recommend the store to their family and friends

The results and findings from further statistical analysis using factor analysis, cluster analysis, simple hypothesis testing, and chi-square testing techniques are summarised below.

Analytical Technique	Hypermarkets	Supermarkets	Traditional markets
Factor analysis – see Tables 4.22a, 4.22b, and 4.22c on pages 211-213	The analysis produced a list of six critical factors which impact of the attractiveness of each store format. These factors have been arranged in order of decreasing criticality using their alpha coefficient: **1. Facility convenience (α = 0.748); 2. Shopping environment (α = 0.732) 3. Convenient product (α = 0.716); 4. Price incentive (α = 0.716) 5. Convenient service (α = 0.682); 6. Shopping convenience (α = 0.630)**		
Cluster analysis – see Tables 4.23a, 4.24a, and 2.25a on pages 215, 217 and 219 respectively	*1. Value shoppers* *2. Environmental shoppers* *3. Efficient shoppers* *4. Leisure shoppers*	*1. Value shoppers* *2. Environmental shoppers* *3. Efficient shoppers* *4. Leisure shoppers*	*1. Value shoppers* *2. Convenient shoppers* *3. Efficient shoppers* *4. Leisure shoppers*
Hypothesis testing – see Tables 4.27c on page 224	The null hypothesis that there is no relationship between hypermarkets and supermarket shoppers should be rejected	The null hypothesis that there is no relationship between supermarkets and traditional market shoppers should be rejected	The null hypothesis that there is no relationship between hypermarkets and traditional market shoppers should **NOT** be rejected
Chi-square testing of 'store preference' and shopping behaviour:	The test results suggest that for all three store formats there is a relationship between 'store preference' and 'shopping behaviour' expressed in terms of 'age', 'gender', etc.		
Age	Under 39 years	Under 39 years	Over 40 years
Gender	Men	Men	Women
Education level	College/University	College/University	High School
Members of family	Below (4) members	Below (4) members	Above (4) members
Holiday shopping	Most shoppers	Few shoppers	Most shoppers
Shopping frequency	Ones	More than ones	More than ones
Durable goods	Yes	No	No
Transportation	By car	By car, scooter or foot	By foot
Distance to store	Over 3 km	Less than 3 km	Less than 3 km
Money on food	More than NT$1000	Less than NT$1000	Less than NT$1000
Money on non-food	More than NT$1000	Less than NT$1000	Less than NT$1000

All the results and findings in this chapter would be fully discussed in the next chapter on 'Discussion and Interpretation of Findings'.

Chapter Five

Discussion and Interpretation of Findings

5.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a critical discussion of the empirical results and a reflective interpretation of the findings as highlighted in the previous chapter. The main purpose is to provide a strong foundation for the development of the conceptual framework or model – which is the thesis main contribution to knowledge and signifies the achievement of all the research objectives outlined in Chapter One.

To achieve the purpose of this chapter, section 5.2 would discuss variables identified in the focus group interviews. Section 5.3 would interpret the thesis results and findings, including the socio demographics and shopping habits, variables influence upon consumer perceptions and their store choices. Section 5.4 would interpret the research findings in the context of critical factors impacting retail internationalisation. Section 5.5 presents a reflective interpretation leading to the development of a conceptual framework to help global retailers wishing to enter Taiwan or the Asia Pacific region implement retail internationalisation strategies more successfully. Finally, Section 5.6 provides a summary of the chapter.

5.2. The exploratory focus group interviews and the retail internationalisation marketing mix variables

Primarily the aim of the exploratory focus group interviews was to identify store attributes which influence the shopping behaviour of shoppers in Taiwan. The thesis identified eight (8) store attributes listed under Section 4.4.1, Chapter Four, on page 241. The eight attributes provide insight into consumer's perceptions and attitudes relative to their preferred grocery retail formats. There are two main reasons for this insight. First, these attributes can be linked to the extended marketing mix variables i.e. the 7Ps as shown in the table 5.1 below (Kotler, 1991; Uusitalo, 2001). Second, according to Burt and Carralero-Encinas (2000) the extended marketing mix variables are linked to factors impacting on retail internationalisation. These linkages were very useful because they provided the conceptual framework for the questionnaire survey, and a more in depth investigation into the nature of the factors which impact on successful implementation of retail internationalisation in developing economies in the Asia Pacific region.

Table 5.1
The linkage of the eight store attributes and the marketing mix

Themes from the exploratory Focus Group Interviews (Chapter 4, Section 4.4.1, page 239)	**Extended Marketing Mix variable** (Kotler, 1991)	**Factors impacting Retail Internationalisation** (from the literature)
Products offered (4)	Product (1)	Brand, Product (Arnold and Luthra, 2000), Niche (Simpson and Thorpe, 1995)
Prices of products (5)	Price (2)	Price (Arnold et al., 1998), Niche (Simpson and Thorpe, 1995)
Sales promotion (6)	Promotion (3)	Promotion (Kim and Jin, 2001), Niche(Simpson and Thorpe, 1995)
Location of the store (3)	Place (4)	Location (Kim and Jin, 2001), Niche (Simpson and Thorpe, 1995)
Atmosphere and environment in the store (1); Family factors (8)	Physical presence (5)	Store environment (Jin and Kim, 2003), Image, Lifestyle, Niche (Simpson and Thorpe, 1995)
Convenience of facilities (2)	Processes (6)	Facilities (Jin and Kim, 2003), Niche (Simpson and Thorpe, 1995)
Service provided in the store (7)	Provision of services (7)	Services (Burts and Carralero-Encinas, 2000), Niche (Simpson and Thorpe, 1995)

Source: Section 4.4.1

Analysis of the eight focus group themes suggests that most families in Taiwan perceive shopping as a kind of entertainment. This is what a focus group participant said:

"On holidays, my family likes to go to the hypermarkets. We can eat there. The variety of commodities is very wide and different imported commodities are offered there. There are many advantages." (Focus group participant #3, Appendix C2a)

This comment was not uncommon from both focus group participants and questionnaire respondents. These comments suggest that Hypermarkets provide opportunities for families' to shop together during holiday periods - this appears to enhance parental relationship with the children. The works of Wrigley (2000) and Kim and Jin (2001) suggest that children also like to go to the hypermarket for shopping with their parents because there are some commodities that children like very much. As, in more recent times, as Bradshaw and Noonan (1997) suggested that there are fewer children in each family, the purchasing habits and consumption decisions of the parents are frequently influenced by the children, one respondent said:

"My children like to go to the hypermarkets very much. So, I go there with them during their holidays". (Focus group participant #6, Appendix C2a)

The 'family factors' suggest that, as well as serving family activities, the hypermarkets unlike supermarkets and traditional markets, provide a much wider assortment of products, give consumers more choices, offer all kinds of daily necessities and have plenty of car parking spaces (Ting and Chen, 2002). Thus, it is no surprise therefore that these attributes are regarded as the major considerations for shopping at the hypermarkets and they are reinforced by the increase in the number of private cars that encourages the families to travel for a longer distance and to buy more goods from the hypermarkets.

With reference to supermarkets, the analysis of the 'family factors' suggest that shoppers perceive the supermarket to be a clean, neat and comfortable environment, with good quality commodities, longer opening hours and convenient location. This suggestion is confirmed by the works of Segal and Giacobbe (1994) and Trappey and Lai (1997a) which shows that supermarkets are the alternative choice for price sensitive consumers, particularly when, on occasion, seasonal prices become higher in the traditional market as they tend to do when traditional festivals approach. This is what a focus group participant had to say: *"During the Chinese New Year, the price will go up in the traditional markets and then, I will buy from the supermarkets." (Focus group participant #4, Appendix C2b).*

The research findings also suggest that 'time constraint' is an important issue for working females. This is confirmed by Bradshaw and Nnoonan, (1997) and Lu and Yi, (1999) who argued that when changes in demographics occur, it leads to increases in the number of married working females shopping after office hours and weekends - time and convenience therefore become more important for working females. It explains why supermarkets rather than the traditional markets are a popular choice for the working females. One working female had this to say:

"I think time and convenience is important. If I need something urgently, I will buy from the supermarket near to my home. If time allows, I will shop at the supermarkets to buy snacks and milk." (Focus group participant #2, Appendix C2b)

With reference to traditional markets, the analysis of the 'family factors' suggests that traditional market shoppers were concerned with the freshness, quality and quantities of their food, and distance of the store from their homes. This finding is confirmed by Hsu and Chang (2002) who suggested that Taiwanese shoppers like to buy fresh meat from traditional markets due to they concern the have about quality and freshness of the meat. Furthermore, they suggested that traditional market consumers often like to touch the food and feel the freshness and quality in addition to finding the vendors kind and friendly, and are able to barter with them. One respondent's statement reflects this:

"The quality of the food in the traditional market is better and fresher, such as pork. You can order in advance for the pork specifically as to which part and how much you require" (Focus group participant #2, Appendix C2c)

The results also revealed that 'ageing' as an element of the 'family factor' is a very significant issue, as older people are gradually becoming more aware of the need for healthy diet and their buying choices change (Boedeker, 1995; Moschis et al, 2004). When considering the issue of health, freshness of food stands out as one of the most important factors. Most participants like going to traditional markets to buy perishable food such as vegetable, fruit, poultry, fish and meat despite the fact that the perishable food is cheaper in the hypermarkets, mainly because most Taiwanese shoppers interviewed doubt the quality of the food in hypermarkets. This is what one respondent has to say:

"We go to the hypermarkets for buying daily necessities but we do not buy fresh food from the supermarkets or hypermarkets because we had some unhappy experiences in the past. We like to buy fresh food from the traditional markets. Freshness is the main consideration for us." (Focus group participant #5, Appendix C2c)

From the above discussion of the results and findings from the focus group interviews, it is becoming clear that 'family factors' is the main consideration for shopping at different store formats. Furthermore, it appears Taiwanese grocery shoppers are becoming more discerning as they know about the right place to buy the right things at the right time this is evidenced by the fact that majority of respondents do not maintain a high degree of loyalty to any one retail store but pick and choose their outlet according to specific needs or wants.

With reference to retail internationalisation, the results from the focus group interviews suggest that all the eight themes influence consumers shopping behaviour in Taiwan. This suggestion is consistent with the work of Simpson and Thorpe (1995), who argued that international retailers ought to develop differential advantage based on different strategic considerations relating to retail internationalisation.

5.3. The questionnaire results and findings

5.3.1. Interpretation of the Taiwanese shopping behaviour

Shoppers' Socio-demographics

The thesis' results show that women were mainly responsible for household shopping. This confirms that Taiwanese women still take responsibility for housework (Buttery and Leugn, 1998). The younger age groups (age 30-49) were significantly represented in the respondents who are considered the most frequent shopping group and higher spenders. Moreover, it was noticeable that the younger groups preferred to go to the supermarket and the hypermarket. On the other hand, the older age groups (age over 49) were likely to shop at the traditional market. This finding is supported by Burt and Gabbott (1995) who suggest that younger shoppers are like to shop at national chain store while older shoppers are prefer to shop at local traditional stores.

The men, single or married, preferred to shop at the supermarket and the hypermarket. This evidence indicates that men are more likely to influence their wives to shop at modern retail stores. This confirms Buttery and Leung's (1998) indication that Taiwan is more like a feminine society, housework are shared by men and women. However, the evidence shows that the married women were likely to shop at the traditional market. This may suggest that the food retailers have to chose the market segmentation strategy and proper marketing mix for men, women, young and old shoppers (Hsu and Chang, 2002).

The majority of respondents had college and higher education and like to shop at the supermarkets and the hypermarkets. This is confirmed by Carpenter and Moore (2006) who suggested that consumers with different educational background will have different patronage behaviour. Full-time workers represented 70 percent of respondents and the white collar employees accounted for 57 percent. This appears to suggest that the low pay white collar class prevails in the Taiwanese job market. This is supported by the fact that 54 percent of household incomes were under NT$ 1,000,000. This further suggests that the price promotion is a reasonable marketing strategy for the food retailers (Arnold et al., 1998).

Dual income families represented 50 percent of the sample. Most of the respondents lived in a small house and had small family size (1-4 members) which accounted for 70 percent of the total. Segal and Giacobbe (1995) suggested that family size influence household shopping patronage. At this point, the small packets of product provided by supermarkets seem welcomed by the small size family. As the family size increases, health concerns forces families to want to buy fresh foods from the traditional market (Hsu and Chang, 2002). Finally, the samples revealed that the respondents came from all over the Great Taipei area and could be considered as representative of the wider geographical area.

Shopping destination choice/store choice

The thesis results revealed that Taiwanese shoppers showed a preference for combined shopping, supermarket and/or hypermarket with the traditional market. This finding suggests that it is a normal practice for the Taiwanese shopper to shop at different food stores, and the traditional market is the main choice along with the supermarket and/or the hypermarket (Huang et al., 2001). This is also an indication that store loyalty is difficult to establish in the Taiwan food retail market. This is also supported by the focus groups findings and Dai and Gao's (2001) research. Assuming this practice is not easy to change, the marketing challenge is how global retailers would attract shoppers to spend more of their time (and money) in their store or seek to discover what are the main factors which influence consumers in their choice of shop (Huddleston et al., 2004).

Shopping trip, shopping time and time to spend

For the food retailers the need to understand shoppers' habits, in particular when they shop and the length of time they spend in a store are important for developing a marketing plan (Jin and Kim, 2003). It is evident that with respect to the shopping time shopping at the weekend and in the morning are the most popular of shopping times. Also while shopping frequency is decreasing, with a large number of the respondents indicating that they could only shop once or twice a week and that the time they spend on shopping is limited to one to two hours. This is consistent with Trappey's (1998) conclusion that time-saving products such as processed and pre-packaged foods are attractive to Taiwanese shoppers with a fast-paced lifestyle. From a marketing perspective, these findings relating to shopping at the weekend and in the morning pose a number of challenges: one would be how to lead or draw some of the shoppers come in at other non-rush hours. This is of logistical importance and has direct influence upon the way that staffs are deployed at different times of the day and on different days of the week (Moye and Kincade, 2003). Another is how to deal with the sudden increase of product turnover and maintaining stocks on the shelves in order to attract most shoppers who, within a short space of time, will spend most of their budgets (Semeijn et al., 2004). Therefore, the food retailers might need to design a series of marketing plans to provide a comfortable shopping environment which incorporates speed of service with a wide variety of choice of goods that is attractive for shopper’s buying and reinforces the shopper’s re-patronage intention (Rogers et al., 2005).

Many of the respondents indicate that they have bought inexpensive durable goods from the hypermarket, however only around half of them indicated that they intend to continue to buy durable goods from the hypermarket. This could imply that consumers might have a positive impression toward the hypermarkets, but they just do not want to buy durable goods from them. Such phenomenon can be explained by recent research by Ou, et al. (2006) who suggested that corporate reputation may be an important factor that influences consumer behaviour; however, it does not have a direct relationship on shopping expenditure and frequency of patronage.

The experience of the last shopping trip

Most Taiwanese shoppers go to the traditional markets on foot or by scooter, while most of they used motor vehicle to get to the hypermarkets. This confirms Cai’s (2002) finding that the traditional markets are more frequently distributed within neighbourhoods than are the supermarkets and the hypermarkets. Further, the shopping transportation methods reveal that the traditional markets are located nearby, while the hypermarkets are more distant. Shoppers may make several trips to the traditional markets to only buy a few, convenience items from them while making a bigger shopping trip in their average week purchasing more goods in one trip from the hypermarkets.

The latter conclusion is supported by the evidence garnered from this research that indicates that respondents spend less money when they shop in the traditional market and the supermarket, and spend more when they shop at the hypermarket. This further supports Syu's (2001) suggestion that the quantity of items bought by the hypermarket shoppers might be larger than those bought in the traditional market and by the supermarket shoppers. However, some respondents have shown that it is their preference to buy fresh food from the traditional markets and buy general groceries, special items and durables goods from the hypermarkets. This supports Prescott's et al. (2002) suggestion that the consumers seem to have less faith in the fresh food sold in the hypermarkets. Therefore, hypermarket retailers may need to give some consideration to increasing consumer faith in the quality of fresh food supplied by the hypermarkets.

The shopping accompanies

Respondents who go to the hypermarket are very likely to go with a companion, and a husband or wife was the most frequent choice of companion. This was the same result from the focus group interviews. Implicit in this understanding is the perception that female shoppers in a collectivist culture (Hofstede, 1994) could be more willing to be influenced by their shopping companions than is the case in other cultures and they are less likely to consider themselves as opinion leaders. This is shown as a collectivist characteristic in the seeking of a compromise between peer groups. Sun et al. (2004) demonstrated similar findings and suggested that collectivist culture consumers are more likely to be influenced by their individual-group members.

5.3.2. Assessment of the perception of store image and overall evaluation towards the hyper, super and traditional markets

The empirical evidence suggests that a large shopping area format with plenty of car parks, affordable and safe for family shopping is an important requirement for hypermarkets to sustain their market share in Taiwan. This not only confirms Huang's (2001) observation but suggests that hypermarket retailers may need to reconsider which attributes need to be transferred and which competitive strategy need to change and how the current attributes can be revised in order to establish the store image that is required to retain competitive advantage (Barber and Tietje, 2004). According to Porter (1996), strategy is about tradeoffs. The hypermarket retailers would need to focus on a set of core attributes to create core competencies and to give up other attributes, these in turn may result in other tradeoffs in a market segment which is large enough to support a range of tradeoffs by consumers.

On the other hand, there is strong evidence that consumers primarily choose the supermarket for convenience, assortment and service. The findings are confirmed by Syu (2001) and further suggest that the supermarket retailers can compete with the hypermarkets by offering fairly competitive prices, dominating food assortments, carrying very high quality in fresh perishables, offering high service, and providing a comfortable shopping environment (Davidson and Rummel, 2000).

The research result also suggests that using only one retail format (e.g. the hypermarket) to investigate store image of consumer perceptions, attitudes and experiences in connection with consumer behaviour could lead to significant different perception being overlooked, perceptions that can only come to light when comparisons are made with other retail stores. Trappey and Lai (1997b) argued that the hypermarkets will eventually replace the traditional retail stores and gradually increase its market share, as family shopping together is becoming important and household's private car ownership is increasing. This outcome suggests that consumers will choose to shop at the hypermarket because it offers price incentive, one-stop shopping and shopping convenience factors.

However, from the empirical evidence and focus group interviews, the consumers have their own shopping behaviour and habits, in connection with their own perceptions and attitudes formed by comparing different retail store image that will finally influence their choice of shopping destination. This assertion is supported by Uusitalo (2001) who argued that consumers perceive meaningful differences in various retail store formats. Consequently the “one size fits all” of hypermarket, somewhat deterministic argument appears to fall at the hurdle of disparate consumer choices and behaviours. This will have many different managerial implications.

The gap in competitive advantage due to differences in functional attributes in domestic market and non-domestic market should be closed before market entry strategies could be discovered, realised and revised over time when overseas operations have been established for some time (Burt and Carralero-Encinas, 2000; Alexander and Silva, 2002). Furthermore, some attributes of the retail sector offers may be perceived differently by different consumers, some being unsuitable and consequently less of competitive advantage or importance when exported into the overseas market (Carpenter and Moore, 2006). Therefore, it is important to understand the basis for the differences in consumer perceptions. Consumer perceptions are influenced by their socio-cultural background and refer to established national perceptions relative to any particular retail settings (Straughan and Albers-Miller, 2001).

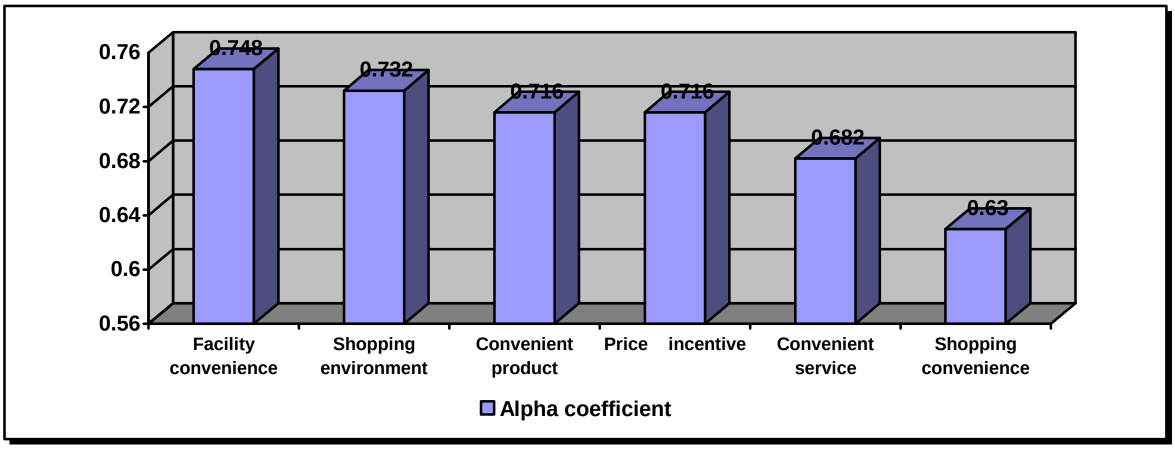
5.4. Critical factors and clusters impacting retail internationalisation strategies

5.4.1. Critical Factors impacting retail internalisation

From the summary of the results from the factor analysis in Chapter Four, Section 4.4.2, a list of six factors have been identified which impact the attractiveness of retail store formats in Taiwan. The bar chart below shows the six factors arranged in declining order of their alpha coefficients from left to right: (1) Facility convenience, (2) Shopping environment, (3) Convenient product, (4) Price incentive, (5) Convenient service, (6) Shopping convenience.

Figure 5.1

Six critical factors impact the attractiveness of retail formats in Taiwan



Source: Section 4.4.2.

Below is a full discussion of the impact of the factors on Taiwanese grocery shoppers' behaviour.

(1) Facility convenience

The fact that 'facility convenience' recorded a very high value for alpha coefficient appears to suggest that 'facility convenience' plays a very important part in Taiwanese shoppers' preferences. This is what an interviewee said about hypermarkets:

"The hypermarkets are air-conditioned and have car parks. After the purchase, I can use the trolley and get all the purchases to my car directly. It is very convenient." (Focus group interviewee #4, Appendix C2a)

This is supported by Jin and Kim (2003), who argued that 'facility convenience' as a functional factor would be considered by most consumers as highly important. On the contrary, this research finding appears different from the finding from Brown (2004), Carpenter and Moore (2006) as well as Burt and Carralero-Encinas (2000). The main reason for the differences in the findings appears to be 'socio-cultural' or contextual.

Whilst the context of the thesis relates to Taiwanese grocery shoppers, Brown (2004) and Carpenter and Moore (2006), examined American shoppers preferences which they found to be more value product-related. Burt and Carralero-Encinas (2000) focused on the UK context and suggested that UK shoppers are more interested in symbolic attributes such as store reputation and customer service, while this thesis findings show that Taiwanese shoppers are more careful about convenience related attributes, such as plenty of parking space, pleasant shopping atmosphere, and family shopping.

(2) Shopping environment

'Shopping environment' is the second factor of high importance to Taiwanese shoppers. The importance of this factor was confirmed by most focus group interviewees. This is what one interviewee had to say:

"Sometimes, I will go to the hypermarkets with my friends and have a walk. I can bring my children to go to the hypermarkets together, which will enhance the parental relationships with the children." (Focus group interviewee #3, Appendix C2a)

The above statement is consistent with the works of Schlosser (1988), Park et al. (1989) and Sullivan and Savitt (1997), which confirmed that a pleasant atmosphere and décor, was one of critical factors that affect shoppers' store choice. Also the work by Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) indicates that for most shoppers the shopping environment was the most important factor for continuous patronage.

(3) Convenient product

This factor i.e. 'convenient product' was regarded by respondents as the third most important for Taiwanese shoppers. Evidence from the focus group interviews confirms these findings. Below are examples of what two focus group interviewees said:

"In hypermarkets, they sell a wider variety of commodities and I can have more choices, like biscuits, canned food, I will go to the hypermarkets to buy the same." (Focus group interviewee #5, Appendix C2a)

"The quality of the food in the traditional markets is better, such as pork. Similarly, the quality of vegetables in the traditional market is better." (Focus group interviewee #4, Appendix C2c)

From the literature it can be seen that not everyone for example Jin and Kim (2003) agrees with the relative importance of this factor for successful retail internationalisation. Well known supporters of the importance of 'convenient product' include Huddleston et al. (2004) and Segal and Giacobbe (1994), who suggested that changing family and demographics was forcing shoppers to look for assorted or 'convenient' products in order to meet the family demands for food and non-food items. This means that food retail organisations have to widen their product range to meet the needs and expectations of domestic and international markets (Segal and Giacobbe, 1994). In response to these global changes Taiwanese food retailers are providing a wider assortment of products, quality of products, prepared products, clearer date marks on products, as well as small packets of products for their consumers including working females.

(4) Price incentive

'Price incentive' is fourth on the list of critical factors identified in this thesis. The relative importance of this factor is confirmed by the following responses from three focus group interviewees:

"The commodities are cheaper. For daily necessities, I will go to hypermarkets, not only because the price is cheaper…"(Focus group interviewee #1, Appendix C2a)

"For some better goods and imported goods, I buy them from the supermarkets. The quality is better and the price is reasonable." (Focus group interviewee #4, Appendix C2b)

"In traditional markets, I can negotiate the price. I can compare the price and quality of the food selling in different butchers in the traditional market." (Focus group interviewee #3, Appendix C2c)

Bell and Lattin (1998) acknowledged the importance of 'price incentives' by arguing that large basket shoppers prefer to shop at large stores for example hypermarkets, while small basket shoppers prefer to shop at local small stores for example traditional markets. The importance of price incentive is further supported by Carpenter and Moore (2006) who argued that beside product selection, competitive price was the second important factor for American grocery shoppers. In contrast to Carpenter and Moore's (2006) argument, Jin and Kim (2003) argued that price competitiveness was not a critical factor affecting Korean female hypermarket shoppers. This is a significant finding which suggests that socio-cultural or country differences impact on consumer preferences and choices.

(5) Convenient service

'Convenient service' was considered by most interviewees and respondents as having a low degree of importance when it comes to shopping preferences, this appears to suggest that 'convenient service' plays a minor part in Taiwanese shoppers' decision making processes. This is what a focus group interviewee #3 (Appendix C2b) said: *"I do not often cook. Sometimes, I will go to the supermarket to buy something for dinner."*

The work by Jin and Kim (2003) appears to suggest that to both Taiwanese and Korean shoppers 'convenient service' is still relatively important in determining their shopping behaviours. In this thesis Taiwanese ranked it the fifth most important factor, while it was the second critical factor for Korean shoppers according to Jin and Kim (2003) and the number one factor for American and UK elderly shoppers (Brown, 2004; Burt and Gabbott, 1995).

(6) Shopping convenience

The low value of the alpha coefficient for this factors 'shopping convenience' suggest that it is regarded by Taiwanese shoppers as having less impact on the shopping decisions - this result is similar to American shoppers' behaviour (Sullivan and Savitt, 1997; Uusitalo, 2001; Moye and Kincade, 2003). This is what some Taiwanese shoppers said during the focus group interviews:

"As there is a supermarket near to my home, the convenience is my first consideration." (Focus group interviewee #5, Appendix C2b)

"As a member of the working class, I can make use of half an hour after work to go to the supermarket and buy everything I need. It saves much time and effort." (Focus group interviewee #3, Appendix C2b)

"The traditional market is close to my home and I am used to buying things there." (Focus group interviewee #3, Appendix C2c)

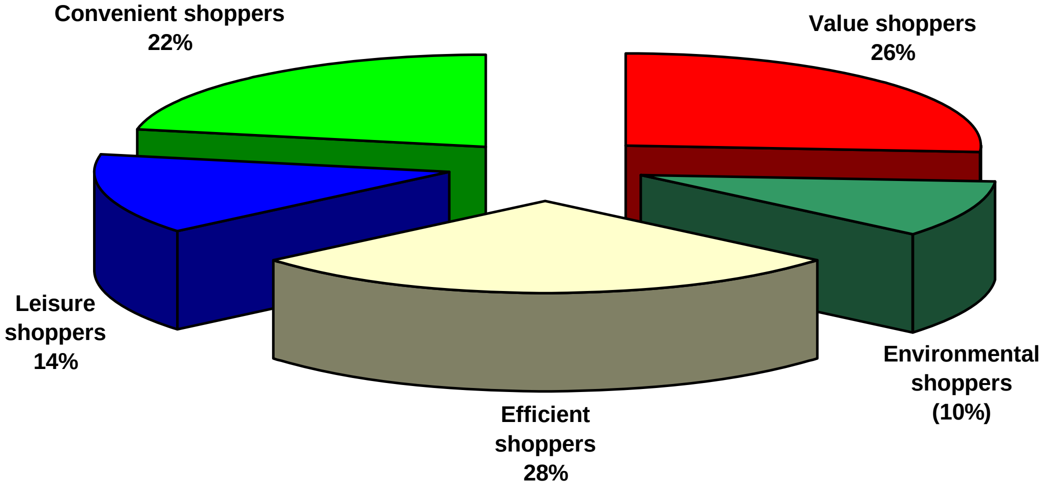
According to Sullivan and Savitt (1997) American shoppers like to shop at familiar stores conveniently located from their homes. It is clear from the results that Taiwanese shoppers like their American counterparts also like 'shopping convenience' though they consider it as being less important when deciding where they shop. The location of traditional markets and supermarkets in Taiwan appears to be closer to shoppers than hypermarkets which affect their choice of means of transportation.

5.4.2. Clusters as sources of competitive advantage in Taiwan

From the summary of the results from the cluster analysis in Chapter Four, Section 4.4.2, a list of five clusters of shoppers in Taiwan has been identified. The pie chart (Figure 5.2) below shows the frequency distribution (based on the total number of respondents i.e. N = 820) of the five shopping clusters: (1) Value shoppers (26%), (2) Environmental shoppers (10%), (3) Efficient shoppers (28%), (4) Leisure shoppers (14%), and (5) Convenient shoppers (22%).

From the pie chart it can be seen that there are similar proportions of Value shoppers, Efficient shoppers, and Convenient shoppers in Taiwan average 25%. Environmental and Leisure shoppers recorded an average of 12%. Below is a full discussion of how the shopping clusters impact on the successfully implementation of retail internationalisation in Taiwanese grocery retail industry.

Figure 5.2
Five shopping clusters of Taiwanese shoppers
Source: Section 4.4.2



Value shoppers, Efficient shoppers, and Convenient shoppers:

On average ‘Value shoppers’, ‘Efficient shoppers’ and ‘Convenient shoppers’ make about 76% of the 820 shoppers in the study. This finding is indeed very significant because these clusters identify ‘value’, ‘efficiency’ and ‘convenience’ which according to Porter (1991), Burt and Carralero-Encinas (2000) and Leszczyc et al (2004) are the key sources of competitive advantage for successful formulation and implementation of retail internationalisation strategies for retailers operating in Taiwan. These clusters therefore become the focus for marking segmentation and formulation of successful retail internationalisation strategies in the context of Taiwan. It is however important to note that the formation and composition of the cluster may change over time.

Environmental shoppers and Leisure shoppers:

On average ‘Environmental shoppers’ and ‘Leisure shoppers’ make up only 24% of the 820 shoppers in the study. These clusters therefore appear to be of less significance during the period of study, though one would argue that these clusters could become increasingly significant in the near future as a result of increasing global concerns for environmental issues coupled with steady increase in the adoption of western life styles as part of the growing free market economy in Taiwan (Marsh, 2002).

5.4.3. Illustration: the key factors influencing shoppers' clusters

In comparing the shoppers' clusters based upon critical factors, it is evident that a few factors, i.e. facility convenience, shopping environment, convenient product, convenient service, price incentive and shopping convenience tended to dominate the Taiwanese shoppers shopping decision. The convenient product, price incentive and shopping convenience factors were showing their overall influence across all clusters, this could indicate convenient product, price incentive and shopping convenience factors were equally important to all clusters. Facility convenience, shopping environment and convenient service were also important to specific groups of shoppers. Facility convenience and shopping environment was important to leisure shoppers, while shopping environment were important to environmental and leisure shoppers and convenient service was important to efficient shoppers.

Also, price incentive was found to be a very significant influencing factor in store choice for the value shoppers to shop at the hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. However, from the managerial perspective, the implication is that price incentive alone will not guarantee value shoppers patronage at any retail format where other factors, such as facility convenience, shopping convenience or convenient service are important as a secondary selection factor.

However, to the efficient shoppers, price incentive becomes the less important factor influencing their store choice. The convenient product and service factors become their first selection influencing their store patronage followed by the shopping convenience. Although the efficient shoppers value the importance of one-stop shopping, the leisure shoppers consider it a less important factor.

The leisure shoppers perceived some non-price factors, such as shopping environment and facility convenience as most rewarding for them. The environmental shoppers have chosen factors from both the efficient shoppers and the leisure shoppers, which indicate that the shopping environment was the important factor and the convenient produce and service were of secondary importance to them in their choice of patronage of the hypermarket. Finally, convenient product was found to be a very influencing factor in store choice for the convenient shoppers to shop at the traditional markets.

Among the five clusters, comparing their socio demographic characteristics, price incentive increased in importance with age. The younger age group tended to value price incentive, while middle-aged workers tended to value shopping environment, convenient products, convenient service and shopping convenience, supporting the popular view of this group's image as being time pressurised and environmentally conscious in their shopping behaviour (Uusitalo, 2001). To the elderly and retired people, the shopping environment and convenient service are important and have significant influence on this segment.

In addition, the research show that segmentation based on consumer's perceptions and attitudes in terms of store attributes can provide a clearer picture of Taiwanese consumer behaviour than by using socio-demographic variables or shopping motivation alone. This is consistence with Carpenter and Moore's (2006) conclusion that consumer shopping behaviour based on store attributes and consumer's perception and attitudes can identify consumer store preference for different shopper clusters.

This is supported by Jin and Kim (2003) and Brown (2004) who argued that there is strong evidence indicating that there are different types of shopping behaviours s with respect to shopping environment and shopping attitudes. One important implication for retailers is that the relationship between the environmentally conscious and shopping attitudes plays a role in shaping Taiwanese shopper's shopping orientation typology. The correlation with patronage behaviour indicates that shopping environment and shopping attitudes are capable of providing the basis for practical market segmentation.

The value shoppers have their price orientation, they also value facility convenience. The environmental shoppers have put high value on the shopping environment but also on seeking shopping convenience. The efficient shoppers have their time orientation, looking for convenience and efficiency; therefore, convenient products and services are important to them. The leisure shoppers perceive the importance of the shopping environment and facility convenience. The convenient shoppers have their special needs on product buying, looking for convenient product.

From a managerial perspective, such a typology can also serve as a vehicle enabling managers to comprehend the diverse set of customers and lead to their defining their core customer base. With such knowledge, the efficient shoppers are more likely to value the one-stop shopping, access to convenient products, and the availability of shopping at less busy times (Chettamrongchai and Davies, 2000). However, the environmental shoppers may favour the shopping environment, thus switching to shop at the supermarket. For the value shoppers, price incentive is important and encourages them to continue to search for any price promotion at the hypermarket, supermarket and the traditional markets. From the focus group discussions, some participants appeared to fit the profile of the convenient and leisure shoppers. They found themselves looking for particular product and enjoying walking around the retail formats even though not intending to buy anything. These two groups appeared to be mainly retired people and homemakers.

In practice, segments should be significantly large in size in order to prove to be profitable. The five shoppers clusters identified here, except the leisure shoppers and environmental shoppers, are substantial. However, as an exploratory research the results drawn here cannot lead to any general conclusion on a national basis or be translated into the experience of other countries. Further research would be appropriate if there is a need to confirm the exact size of each segment using broader national samples.

On the basis of shoppers' typology, the cluster analysis procedure led to the identification of five segments of shoppers differing significantly in their perception of store attributes. Comparing it with other research summaries of shopper types, such as: Darden and Ashton (1974), Williams et al (1978) and Jarratt (1996), this research confirms the value shoppers, convenient shoppers, efficient shoppers and leisure shoppers, but was not able to confirm the environmental shoppers with previous studies. The result from the segmentation can, therefore, only partly mirror previous typology. One likely reason is the research focus upon Taiwanese shopping, but it might also imply that shopping orientation could be different in different cultural markets and that there have been changes over time.

Further, the shopper's typology supports the proposition that consumer behaviour and perceptions and attitudes differs in different market with respect to grocery shopping. However, it did not support the perception of a symbolic (emotional) store image to form shopper's patronage behaviour by Burt and Carralero-Encinas (2000). This research suggests that the tangible attributes form shopper's store image affects shopper's perception and attitudes. One implication is that a suitable marketing strategy has to take consideration of the different socio-cultural background of customers in order to ensure that the store attributes meet the specific needs and expectations of the local consumers. This research result suggests the need for a localised retail marketing approach to be taken into consideration whenever any retailer attempts to internationalise their retail operation (Myers and Alexander, 2007).

5.4.4. Relationship between Taiwanese shoppers' behaviour

In this section an attempt is made to determine whether or not there is a relationship between the behaviours of Taiwanese shoppers who patronise hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets, in order to justify the cross-sectional nature of this investigation. To achieve this objective the results and findings from the simple hypothesis testing and chi-square (summarised on page 241, Chapter Four) would be used in sub-sections 5.4.4.1 and 5.4.4.2 respectively.

5.4.4.1. Results of the Hypothesis Testing

Overall three hypotheses were tested, and from the results it can be seen that two of the null hypotheses relating to hypermarket and traditional markets shoppers were to be rejected, and the third relating to supermarket shoppers was to be accepted.

First, the results of the hypothesis testing suggests that the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between '*hypermarket shoppers' behaviour'* and '*supermarket shoppers' behaviour'* **should be rejected**. This means the alternative hypothesis that is a relationship between hypermarket and supermarket shoppers **should be accepted**. The fact that there was a POSITIVE mean difference suggest that a positive relationship exists between hypermarket shoppers and supermarket shoppers' preferences and attitudes. This could be interpreted as a source of competitive rivalry between hypermarket retailers and supermarket retailers (Porter, 1991; Seiders and Tigert 1997).

Second, the results also suggest that the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between 'super*market shoppers' behaviour'* and '*traditional market shoppers' behaviour'* **should be rejected**. This means, the alternative hypothesis that a relationship exist between supermarket and traditional market shopper **should be accepted**. The fact that there was a NEGATIVE mean difference with a high significance level suggest that a negative or inverse relationship exists between supermarket shoppers and traditional market shoppers' preferences and attitudes. This could be interpreted as a source of competitive advantage for supermarket and traditional market including hypermarket retailers and supermarket retailers (Da Rocha and Dib, 2002).

Third, the results give a slightly positive mean difference and low level of significance, which suggest that the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between '*hypermarket shoppers' behaviour'* and *'traditional market shoppers' behaviour'* should be accepted. This means, there is no significant relationship between hypermarket and traditional market shoppers' preferences and choices. This could be interpreted as a source of future opportunities for hypermarket, supermarket, and traditional food retailers (Da Rocha and Dib, 2002).

The major limitations of the above simple hypothesis testing is the fact that although it determined whether or not a relationship existed between Taiwanese hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market shoppers, it does not explain the exact nature of the relationships between 'store preference' and 'shoppers preferences and choices' measured in terms of their demographic and other characteristics. To help explain the nature of this relationship the results from the chi-square testing (summarised on page 241, Chapter Four) would be used.

5.4.4.2. Results of the Chi-square Testing

The results from the chi-square testing clearly suggest that there is a relationship between 'store format' and 'shoppers' demographic'. The fact that a relationship exists between 'store format' and 'consumer demographics' is confirmed by Chetthamrongchai and Davies (2000), and also Carpenter and Moore (2006) in the context of American grocery shoppers. The significance of the study lies in the fact that the results and findings reflect the situation in Taiwan.

- ***Store format and age:*** *The findings indicated that the younger age groups are more like to patronise hypermarkets and supermarkets, while older groups appear to have a preference for the traditional market. Such a finding appears to suggest that there is a need to establish some particular strategy for the assessment of patronage behaviour of different age groups relative to each of the three store formats (Home, 2002).*

- ***Store format and Gender:*** *The findings from the research indicated that there exists a very clear difference in the store loyalty between men and women. Men* unlike women shoppers show a stronger preference for hypermarkets and supermarkets, because they offer new technology and product reliability, compared with traditional markets (Marshall and Anderson, 2000; Straughan and Albers-Miller, 2001).

- ***Store format and Education level:*** *The results of the statistical analysis suggest that respondent's educational level impact on their preferences for a particular store format. For example, well educated shoppers' patronage supermarkets and hypermarkets. The findings suggest that as more shoppers become well educated there would be a shift from traditional markets to supermarkets and hypermarkets. This is a significant finding in the context of Taiwan food retailing (Moye and Kincade, 2003).*

- ***Store format and Family size:*** *From the results it can be seen that the size of a family impact on the choice of store format or store patronage. For example, small size families tend to patronage supermarkets and hypermarkets, whereas, large size families tend to patronise traditional markets (Ezell and Russell,1985; Samuel et al, 1996; Home, 2002; Baltas, 2003).*

- ***Store format and Holiday shopping:*** *The results show most shoppers prefer using more than one store format for their holiday shopping. This finding suggests that it is a normal practice for the Taiwanese shoppers to shop at different food stores, using the traditional market as the main choice along with the supermarket and/or the hypermarket. This also is an indication that store loyalty is difficult to establish in the Taiwan food retail market (Huddleston, et al., 2004).*

- ***Store format and shopping frequency:*** *The results suggest that shopping frequency is low amongst hypermarket shoppers and high amongst supermarket and traditional market shoppers. The main reason being that most hypermarket shoppers spend less time and more money on a single shopping trip compare with supermarket and traditional markets who spend more time and less money on more than one shopping trip (Samuel et al, 1996; Vignali et al, 2001).*

- ***Store format and Durable goods:*** *The results show that most respondents bought inexpensive durable goods from the hypermarket. It partly explains why some Taiwanese consumers prefer hypermarkets to supermarkets and traditional markets as far as durable goods are concern (Brown, 2004).*

- ***Store format and Transportation or Distance:*** *Results show that some consumers go to the traditional markets on foot or by scooter, mainly because the* *distance is less than 3 kilometers away from their homes; while those consumers who go to hypermarkets tend to use motor vehicle, mainly because the distance is more than 3 kilometers from their homes. This partly explains why some shoppers make several trips to the traditional markets to buy a few goods, while making few trips to hypermarkets to purchase more goods (Samuel et at, 1996; Home, 2002).*

- ***Store format and Money spent on food items and non-food items:*** *From the results it can be seen that hypermarket shoppers on average spend more than NT$1000, compared with supermarket and traditional market shoppers who on average spend less than NT$1000 on food and non-food items, on every shopping trip (Huddleston, et al., 2004).*

5.5. The development of a conceptual framework for successful implementation of retail internationalisation in Taiwan

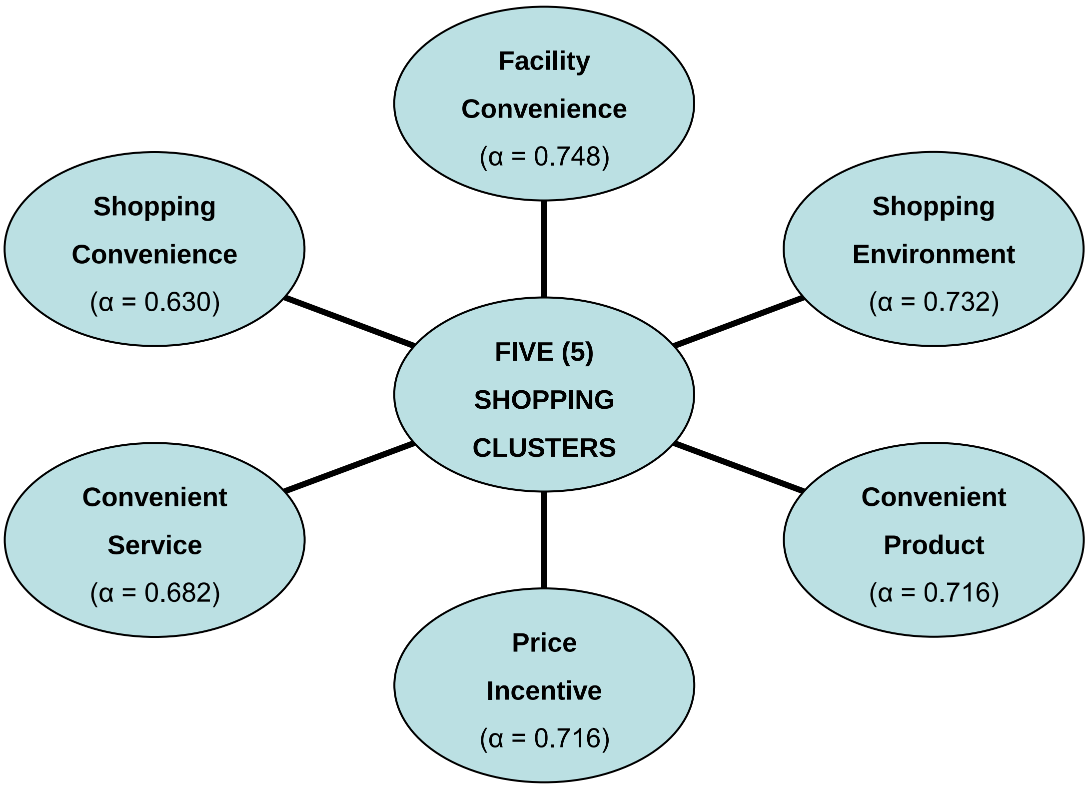
5.5.1. The building blocks for the conceptual framework

The development of a conceptual framework or model for successful implementation of retail internationalisation in Taiwan is the final objective for the thesis, and represents the thesis main contribution to knowledge. For the purpose of this thesis a conceptual framework or model is defined as an abstract representation of reality, it is therefore not meant to be a definitive solution to all the problems facing grocery retailers wishing to do business in Taiwan, but rather it offers an alternative theoretical or conceptual perspective to understanding the strategic issues which need to be critically examined as part of strategy formulation and implementation (Simpson and Thorpe, 1995). To develop the conceptual framework three research objectives had to be achieved, namely:

Research Objective #1: *To identify the critical factors or variables impacting on food retail internationalisation across hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan*

This research objective was achieved through extensive review of existing literature on retail store attributes, the extended marketing mix variables and the works of Dupius and Prime (1996), Burt and Carralero-Encinas (2000), and Alexander and Myers (2000). To confirm the exact identity of the critical factors or variables, the extensive literature search was followed by exploratory focus group interviews and conclusive questionnaire survey of Taiwanese consumers patronising hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. The figure below presents six critical success factors and five shopping clusters identified in the thesis - the five clusters are: Value shoppers, Environmental shoppers, Efficient shoppers, Leisure shoppers and Convenient shoppers.

Figure 5.3
Six critical factors and five shopping clusters impacting retail internationalisation
Source: Section 4.4.2



Although there were more than six factors not all were considered as having significant impact on shoppers' behaviour. The above six factors represent the first six factors with high alpha coefficients. This is a significant finding in the sense that it is difficult to measure consumer behaviour, and in attempting to do so one has to recognise that these factors are subject to change and so would their corresponding alpha coefficients.

Research Objective #2: *To describe the nature of the critical factors impacting on consumer behaviour towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan*

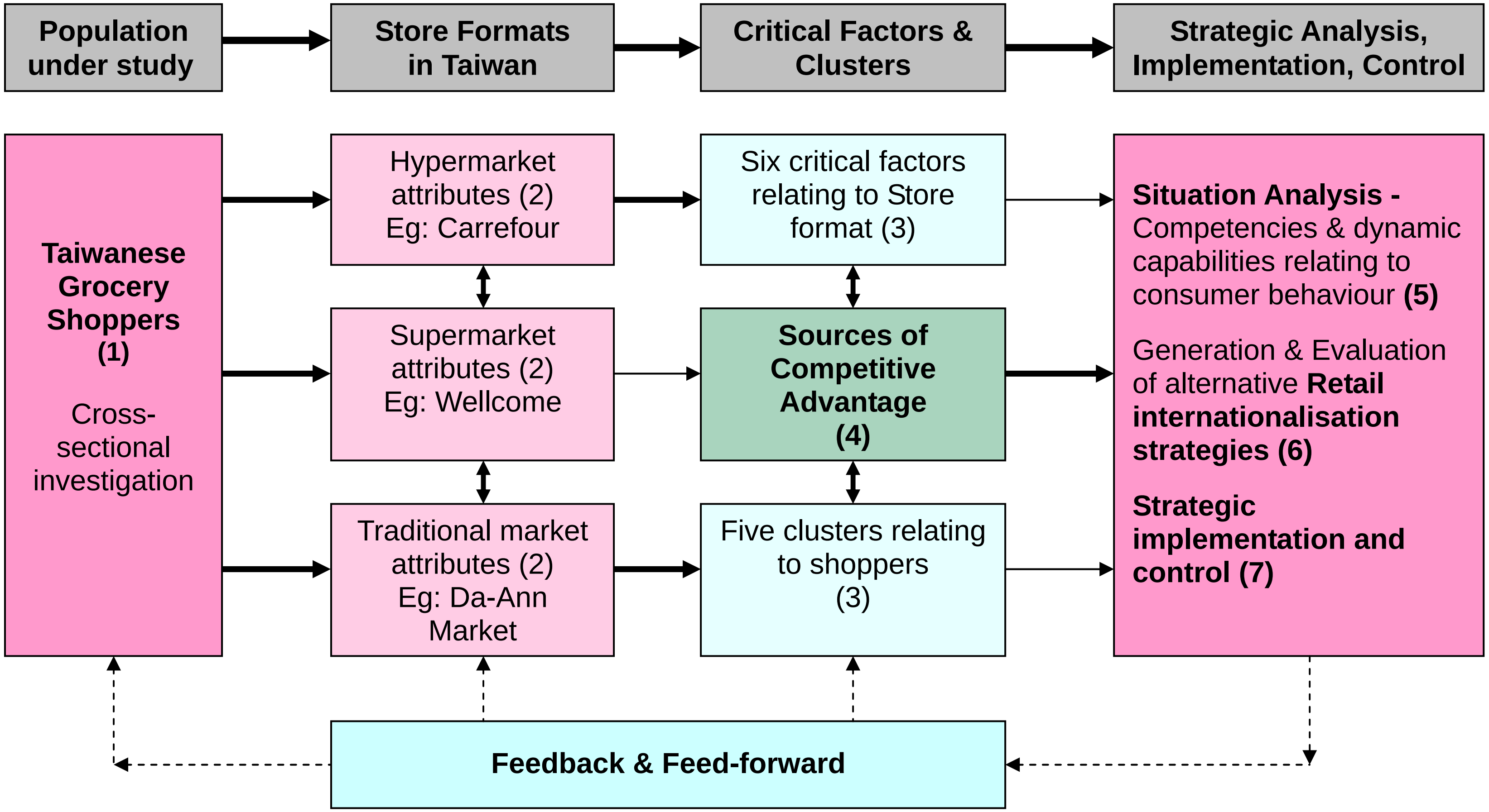
The literature review and the verbatim responses from the focus group interviews provided the information needed to describe the nature of the above critical factors and how they impact on consumer preferences relating to the different shopping clusters in Taiwan.

Research Objective #3: *To explain the nature of the relationships between the critical factors as basis for developing a conceptual framework for successful retail internationalisation in Taiwan*

The description of the nature of the critical factors and their associated shopping clusters under research objective #2 does not explain the exact nature of the relationship between the factors – further in depth research was needed. This was achieved through hypotheses testing and chi-square testing of the responses to the questionnaires.

The empirical results and findings obtained by achieving the above three results objectives constitute the building blocks for developing the conceptual framework for effective retail internationalisation in Taiwan, presented in Figure 5.4 below.

Figure 5.4
Conceptual Framework for successful retail internationalisation in Taiwan
Source: Based on empirical results from the thesis



5.5.2. The conceptual framework for retail internationalisation in Taiwan

Figure 5.4 above is a diagrammatic representation of the conceptual framework for successful retail internationalisation in Taiwan. It identifies the seven (7) main building blocks based on the empirical results and findings from the thesis. These building blocks are: (1) Taiwanese Grocery Shoppers, (2) Store Formats – Hypermarkets, Supermarkets, Traditional markets, (3) Critical success factors and shopping clusters, (4) Sources of Competitive Advantage, (5) Competencies and capabilities of store formats, (6) Evaluation of alternative retail internationalisation strategies, (7) Strategic implementation and control.

(1) Taiwanese Grocery Shoppers

Food or grocery retail internationalisation is increasingly becoming important in global trade for both developed and developing countries (Porter, 1991; Pellegrini, 1991; Akehurst and Alexander, 1995b). This according to Alexander and Myers (1999) poses a challenge to both European food retailers and Traditional food retailers in South East Asia. For example the food retail markets in Europe, United Kingdom (UK) and United States of America (USA) may be considered already saturated, suggesting that the opportunity to increase profits is declining in developed countries (Alexander and Morlock, 1992). The need to become more profitable has compiled many global hypermarket and supermarket food retailers such as Wal-Mart from the USA, Carrefour, Fa-Geánt, Rt-Mart from France, Wellcome and Tesco from UK, to move into emerging markets such as Taiwan, Brazil, Malaysia and Thailand, and recent times to South Africa and Ghana in West Africa (Arnold, 2000; Alexander and Silva, 2002; Palmer, 2005). This development posses a threat to traditional food retailers in emerging markets, who are now faced with the challenge of how to continue to produce the wide range of food and non-food goods, in the right quantities, at acceptable levels of quality in order to meet and exceed consumer needs and expectations (Arnold and Luthra, 2000). This development mirrors the situation in Taiwan and provides a justification for carrying out a cross-sectional investigation of Taiwanese Grocery Shoppers' behaviour towards Hypermarkets, Supermarkets and Traditional market formats.

(2) Store Formats in Taiwan – Hypermarkets, Supermarkets, Traditional markets

The Industry and competitor analyses presented in Chapter Two under Literature Review reveal that in Taiwan since the beginning of the thesis in 2002, there were three key competitors or store formats in the food retail market. The expectation according to Trappey and Lai (1997a) was that hypermarket formats by now should have replaced the traditional markets. However, the evidence provided in this thesis confirms that the three store formats are still in operation - the main reasons are discussed below under each store format:

Hypermarkets

For the 26 store attributes investigated under Questionnaire Part E, Taiwanese shoppers who patronise hypermarkets identified six most important or positive attributes which attracts them to hypermarkets, these attributes include the fact that:

- *Hypermarkets were more **spacious** than supermarkets and traditional markets*
- *Hypermarkets provide a wider **assortment** of products*
- *Hypermarkets are **safer** for family shopping*
- *Hypermarkets provide plenty of **parking** spaces and car services*
- *Hypermarkets provide a pleasant shopping **atmosphere***
- *Hypermarkets generally offer lower **prices** on food and non-food items*

These positive attributes represent the distinguishing characteristics of the hypermarket store format in comparison with supermarket and traditional market formats, and appears to have a significant influence on respondents' store preferences and attitudes. These attributes represent sources of competitive advantage for hypermarket retailers, which if sustained would continue to make hypermarkets more competitive in the food retail industry in Taiwan (*Farhangmehr et al., 2001; Da Rocha and Dib, 2002)*

Examples of negative or weak attributes of hypermarkets during the period of study were identified in this thesis as:

- ***Long waiting** at the hypermarket check outs during weekends,*
- *Frequent **over-crowding** in hypermarkets during weekends*
- *Hypermarket shopping area **too large to shop in**, particularly for those buying few items,*
- *Few **customer service** points and personnel,*
- *Lack of **fresh food items** most of time.*

The main reason why some Taiwanese hypermarket shoppers still use supermarkets and traditional markets is because these weak attributes do not pose a problem to both supermarkets and traditional markets. According to Wrigley and Currah (2003), these findings have significant implications for sustaining future profitability as far as hypermarkets are concerned.

<u>Supermarkets</u>

For the 24 store attributes investigated under Questionnaire Part E, Taiwanese shoppers who patronise supermarkets identified six most important or positive attributes which attracts them to hypermarkets, these attributes include the fact that:

- *Unlike Hypermarkets, Traditional and Supermarkets are **located** close to shoppers' homes and work places,*
- *Unlike traditional markets, supermarkets like hypermarkets issue **receipts**,*

- *Unlike traditional and hypermarket, supermarket has more clearly marked* ***prices*** *and* ***expiry dates*** *on products than have other stores,*
- *Unlike traditional markets, hypermarkets and supermarkets have frequent* ***sales/special offers*** *of products.*
- *Unlike hypermarkets, supermarkets provide* ***small packets of products***
- *Unlike traditional markets, hypermarkets and supermarkets provide hygienic, clean, air-conditioned and good décor* ***shopping environment****.*

The above positive attributes represent the distinguishing characteristics of the supermarket store format which appear to have a significant influence on respondents' store preferences and attitudes. As shown above, some of these attributes are similar to those for hypermarkets and traditional markets. These attributes represent sources of competitive advantage for supermarket retailers, which if sustained would continue to make supermarkets more competitive in the food retail industry in Taiwan (Segal and Giacobbe, 1994; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002).

Examples of negative or weak attributes of supermarkets during the period of study were identified in this thesis as:

- *Unlike hypermarkets and traditional markets, supermarkets offer fewer* ***choices*** *of products*
- *Unlike hypermarkets and traditional markets, supermarket* ***prices*** *were higher most of the time*
- *Unlike hypermarkets, supermarkets offer limited or restricted shopping* ***space***

Early research by Sirohi et al. (1998) also identified these three characteristics as the most commonly identifiable, detrimental conditions found in supermarkets in United States of America – suggesting there are some similarities between supermarkets in Taiwan and the US.

Traditional Markets

For the 22 store attributes investigated under Questionnaire Part E, Taiwanese shoppers who patronise traditional markets identified four most important or positive attributes which attracts them to traditional markets, these attributes include the fact that:

- *Traditional markets like supermarkets are **located** close to shoppers' homes or work places,*
- *Traditional market shopper unlike hypermarkets and supermarket shoppers can buy **small or large quantities** as they wish,*
- *Unlike hypermarkets and supermarkets traditional market vendors are **friendly**, caring and humorous*
- *Unlike hypermarket and supermarkets, traditional markets offer **fresher food***

The above positive attributes represent the distinguishing characteristics of the traditional markets. These attributes appear to have a significant influence on respondents' store preferences and attitudes. As shown above, although some of these attributes are similar to those for hypermarkets and supermarkets, some are unique to traditional markets, and may be consider sources of competitive advantage for traditional market retailers, which if sustained would continue to make traditional markets more competitive in the food retail industry in Taiwan (Chen, 1997; Farhangmehr et al., 2001). This finding is of critical significance because it partly explains why hypermarkets and traditional markets still coexist in Taiwan, which may be due to the fact that most hypermarkets are finding it very difficult to match the need for **fresher food**, **friendly services**, and ability to buy food items in **all sizes and quantities** as offered by traditional markets.

Examples of negative or weak attributes of traditional markets during the period of study were identified in this thesis as:

- *Unlike hypermarkets, supermarkets there is complete disorder in traditional market* ***shopping environment***
- *Unlike hypermarkets and supermarkets, the* ***shopping environment*** *in traditional markets was considered as very unhygienic and dirty.*
- *Like hypermarkets, the* ***shopping environment*** *in traditional markets was considered as over crowded.*

Early research by Trappey and Lai (1997b) also identified these three characteristics as the most commonly identifiable, detrimental conditions found in traditional markets.

(3) Critical success factors and shopping clusters

Section 4.4.2 in Chapter Four provides a list of six critical success factors linked to each store format. Figure 5.5 is a diagrammatic representation showing how the critical factors for successful food retail internationalisation in Taiwan are linked to five clusters of hypermarket, supermarket and traditional markets shoppers.

Figure 5.5
Link between Taiwanese Shoppers' Clusters and the Critical Success Factors for Retail Internationalisation in Taiwan
Source: Based on Section 4.4.2 page 241

For example, from the diagram it can be seen that two critical factors (1) facility convenience and (2) shopping environment are linked to four hypermarket shopping clusters, namely, Value shoppers, Environmental shoppers, Efficient shoppers and Leisure shoppers. Similarly, in the case of supermarkets, the diagram shows that two critical factors (1) convenient product and (2) convenient service are linked to four supermarket shopping clusters, namely, Value shoppers, Environmental shoppers, Efficient shoppers and Leisure shoppers. Finally, in the case of traditional markets, it can be seen that two critical factors (1) price incentive (2) shopping convenience are linked to four traditional market shopping clusters, namely, Convenient shoppers, Value shoppers, Efficient shoppers and Leisure shoppers. It is important to note that in the case of traditional markets there were no 'environmental shopping clusters' – this may be considered a significant finding.

(4) Sources of Competitive Advantage

An extensive review of the literature suggest that achieving and sustaining competitive advantage require companies to achieve 'strategic fit' i.e. a fit between their internal resources or strengths and the market or consumer demands (Porter, 1991; De Wit and Meyer, 2004). The empirical evidence from this thesis suggests that it is possible for each store format to achieve strategic fit by matching their strengths against external opportunities in the marketplace (Table 5.1 below).

From the table it can be seen that for hypermarket retailers to gain and sustain competitive advantage over supermarkets and traditional market retailers they would have to stretch their areas of strength in 'facility convenience' and 'shopping environment' to cover their areas of weaknesses in 'convenient service', 'convenient product', 'shopping convenience' and 'price incentive'. The significance of the above findings lies in the fact according Porter's (1991) generic competitive strategies for a company to achieve low cost, differentiation and focus strategies would require each store format to successfully gain and sustain strategic fit between the critical factors and shopping clusters.

Table 5.2
Achieving Strategic Fit between Critical Factors and Shopping Clusters
Source: Results of Factor and Cluster Analysis

<table>
<tr><th rowspan="2">Critical
Success Factors</th><th colspan="3">Sources of Competitive Advantage</th><th rowspan="2">Consumer
Cluster/Demands</th></tr>
<tr><th>Hypermarket</th><th>Supermarket</th><th>Traditional</th></tr>
<tr><td>1. Facility convenience</td><td rowspan="2">Areas of Strengths</td><td rowspan="2">Areas of Weakness</td><td rowspan="4">Areas of Weakness</td><td rowspan="6">1. Value
2. Environment
3. Efficiency
4. Leisure
5. Convenience</td></tr>
<tr><td>2. Shop environment</td></tr>
<tr><td>3. Convenient service</td><td rowspan="4">Areas of Weakness</td><td rowspan="2">Areas of Strengths</td></tr>
<tr><td>4. Convenient product</td></tr>
<tr><td>5. Shop convenience</td><td rowspan="2">Areas of Weakness</td><td rowspan="2">Areas of Strengths</td></tr>
<tr><td>6. Price incentive</td></tr>
</table>

(5) Competencies and capabilities relating to consumer behaviour

The areas of strengths and weaknesses listed in Table 5.1 provide the bases for identifying competencies and dynamic capabilities of each store format. The main reason being that the critical factors would continue to change and so would their impact on consumers' patronage of hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets (Burt and Carralero-Encinas, 2000). There is therefore the need for store formats to continue to monitor changes in these factors and in shopping clusters in order to gain a better understanding of what is going on in the macro and micro-environment.

(6) Generation and Evaluation of alternative Retail Internalisation Strategies

Haven identified the strengths and weaknesses inherent in the hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market formats in Taiwan (see Table 5.1) it is now possible to link the empirical results and findings about consumer perceptions (which reflect local needs) to strategy formulation with respect to retail internationalisation at the global, trans-national or multinational levels. It represents a shift from micro-level to macro-level strategic considerations (Treadgold, 1990). The sources of competitive advantage for each store format serves as input into situation analysis, leading to generation and evaluation of alternative retail internationalisation strategies for hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional market food retailers in Taiwan. Using the empirical evidence from Table 5.1 the following are examples of alternative generic strategies for hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan from both optimistic and pessimistic perspectives.

<u>For Hypermarkets:</u>

- ***Optimistic perspective:*** *Hypermarkets should use their strengths in the areas of 'facility convenience' and large 'shopping environment' to enhance their capability in meeting and exceeding the demands of consumers in the 'environment' and 'leisure' clusters. The main reason for this strategy is based on the fact that according to Baker et al. (2002) hypermarkets have benefited environment and leisure shoppers who like the facilities and family shopping environment provided by hypermarkets - these attributes can easily be maintained and enhanced.*

- ***Cautious perspective:*** *Because of cost-benefit considerations, Hypermarkets should continue to do want they are good at by maintaining or enhancing their strengths in the areas of 'facility convenience' and large 'shopping environment' in order to attract more consumers in their existing market (Segal and Giacobbe, 1994; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002).*

- ***Pessimistic perspective:*** *Hypermarkets despite their strengths in the areas of 'facility convenience' and large 'shopping environment', they are weak in the areas of 'convenient service and product' 'shopping convenience' and 'price* *incentive'. Management needs to act strategically to improve on these weak areas in order to attract consumers in 'value clusters, 'efficient clusters' and 'convenient clusters'. In addition, the fact that hypermarkets already have competitive advantage in offering low prices on every items, does not attract most shoppers, suggest the need to enhance 'every day low price' promotion strategy (Arnold, 1999; Moye and Kincade, 2003).*

<u>For Supermarkets:</u>

- ***Optimistic perspective: Su****permarkets should use their strengths in the areas of 'convenient service' and 'convenient product' to enhance their capability in meeting and exceeding the demands of consumers in the 'efficient' and 'convenient' clusters. The main reason for this strategy is based on the fact that according to Solgaard and Hansen (2003) supermarkets have benefited efficient and convenient shoppers who like the convenient products and services provided by supermarkets - these attributes can easily be maintained or enhanced.*

- ***Cautious perspective:*** *Because of cost-benefit considerations, Supermarkets should continue to do want they are good at by maintaining or enhancing their strengths in the areas of 'convenient services' and 'convenient products' in order to attract more consumers in their existing market (Segal and Giacobbe, 1994; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002).*

- ***Pessimistic perspective:*** *Supermarkets despite their competitive advantage in the areas of 'convenient products' and 'convenient services', they are weak in the areas of 'facility convenience' 'shopping environment' 'shopping convenience' and 'price incentive'. Management needs to act strategically to improve on these weak areas in order to attract consumers in 'value clusters, 'environment clusters' and 'leisure clusters'. Even though supermarkets already have competitive advantage in convenient products and services, they are still unable to attract most shoppers, to do so they would need to improve on facilities, modern in-store décor and environment for easy shopping as well as enhancing price promotion (Arnold, 1999; Moye and Kincade, 2003).*

<u>For Traditional markets:</u>

Optimistic perspective: *Traditional markets should use their strengths in the areas of 'price incentive' and 'shopping convenience' to enhance their capability in* *meeting and exceeding the demands of consumers in the 'value' and 'convenience' clusters. The main reason for this strategy is based on the fact that according to Hackett and Foxall (1994) traditional markets have benefited value and convenience shoppers who like to bargain over the price and location proximity to their home - these attributes can easily be maintained and enhanced.*

- ***Cautious perspective:*** *Because of cost-benefit considerations, traditional markets should continue to do want they are good at by maintaining or enhancing their strengths in the areas of 'shopping convenience' and 'price incentives' in order to attract more consumers in their existing market (Segal and Giacobbe, 1994; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002).*

- ***Pessimistic perspective:*** *Traditional markets despite their strengths in the areas of 'shopping convenience' and 'price incentive', they are weak in the areas of 'facility convenience', 'shopping environment', and 'convenient products and services'. Management needs to act strategically to improve on these weak areas in order to attract consumers in 'environment clusters, 'efficient clusters' and 'leisure clusters'. In addition, since traditional markets already have competitive advantage in location proximity, friendly services, and low prices, they may need to attract more shoppers, by adding convenient facility, enhancing clean shopping environment and providing more convenient products and services (Arnold, 1999; Moye and Kincade, 2003).*

(7) Strategic Implementation and Control

Finally, to complete the loop shown in Figure 5.4 on page 272, for each of the above strategic options to be successfully implemented, management of hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets need to have in place appropriate internal capabilities to ensure organisational objectives are achieved. An extensive review of the literature suggest that McKinsey's 7S framework may be use to assess the capabilities of each store format to successfully implement and control the process of achieving set objectives (Douglas and Craig, 1995; Johnson et al., 2007). From Table 5.3 it can be seen that Hypermarkets appear to have a brighter future based on the fact that:

Table 5.3
Assessment of Capabilities
Source: Based on McKinsey's 7S Framework in Johnson et al. 2007

McKinsey framework	Hypermarket	Supermarket	Traditional
Strategy (1)	Optimistic, Cautious, Pessimistic	Optimistic, Cautious, Pessimistic	Optimistic, Cautious, Pessimistic
Structure (2)	Formal	Formal	Informal
Systems (3)	Formal	Formal	Informal
Staff (4)	Trained	Trained	Untrained
Skills (5)	Marketing	Marketing	Non skills
Style (6)	Decentralised	Centralised - Decentralised	Centralised
Shared Values (7)	International culture	International- Local cultures	Local culture
Future outlook – by 2012	Optimistic	Cautious	Pessimistic

- *Of the three store formats, Hypermarkets because of their global experience in food retail internationalisation are most likely to set and achieve their optimistic strategies, because they have in place appropriate structures, staff, skills, internal control systems, management and leadership style, and a culture for excellence i.e. a culture for achieving superior performance results.*

- *Hypermarkets are most like able to combine deliberate and emergent approaches to marketing strategy implementation and control by putting in place appropriate feedback and feed-forward integrated marketing information systems in order to response quickly to the needs and expectations of consumers in Taiwan (Cliquet, 2000; Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005).*

5.6. Summary of Chapter

This chapter provided a critical discussion of the empirical results and a reflective interpretation of the thesis findings leading to the development of a conceptual framework for successful implementation of retail internationalisation in Taiwan. The conceptual framework underpins the thesis main contribution to knowledge. This section provides a comprehensive summary of the critical discussions and interpretations of the empirical results and findings.

Factors impacting retail internationalisation in Taiwan:

Section 5.2 discussed the factors impacting on hypermarket, supermarket, and traditional market food retail store formats in Taiwan. These factors are linked to the extended marking mix variables and to the seven themes identified from the exploratory focus group interviews, namely: (1) prices of products, (2) products offered, (3) sales promotion, (4) location of the store, (5) shopping environment, (6) facilities and (7) services provided in the store. These themes were the most important determinants for retail store patronage in Taiwan. All these seven themes are strongly linked to ‘family factors’ or family shopping behaviour, which are also associated with the seven (7) marketing mix variables, i.e. (1) price, (2) product, (3) promotion, (4) place, (5) physical presence, (6) processes and (7) provision of services in determination of store preference towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets, and are consistent with the work of Simpson and Thorpe (1995). The results suggest that ‘family factors’ are becoming a main consideration for Taiwanese shopping at different store formats. From the perspective of retail internationalisation, it suggests that international retailers ought to develop differential advantage in order to reflect different market needs and expectations.

Critical success factors impacting retail internationalisation in Taiwan:

From the discussion it can be seen that the generic list of themes identified from the exploratory focus group interviews are linked to the six (6) critical success factors emerging from the questionnaire survey: (1) Facility convenience, (2) Shopping environment, (3) Convenient product, (4) Price incentive, (5) Convenient service, (6) Shopping convenience. The fact that these six factors have differential levels of criticality suggest that they impact on retail internationalisation in varying degrees measured in terms of their alpha coefficient values. From the discussion in Section

5.5.1 it can be seen that ‘facility convenience’ had the highest level of criticality or impact and ‘shopping convenience’ the lowest level of impact on consumers’ shopping preferences and choices as far as Taiwan is concerned. The factors most critical for hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market shoppers are listed in the table below.

	Hypermarkets	**Supermarkets**	**Traditional**
Critical Factors	1. Facility convenience 2. Shopping environment	1. Convenient product 2. Convenient service	1. Price incentive 2. Shopping environment

The implication for global food retail strategists is that from the factors listed in the above table it is possible to link these factors to shopping clusters in order to determine the competitive positions of the three store formats in Taiwan.

Clusters as sources of competitive advantage in Taiwan grocery market

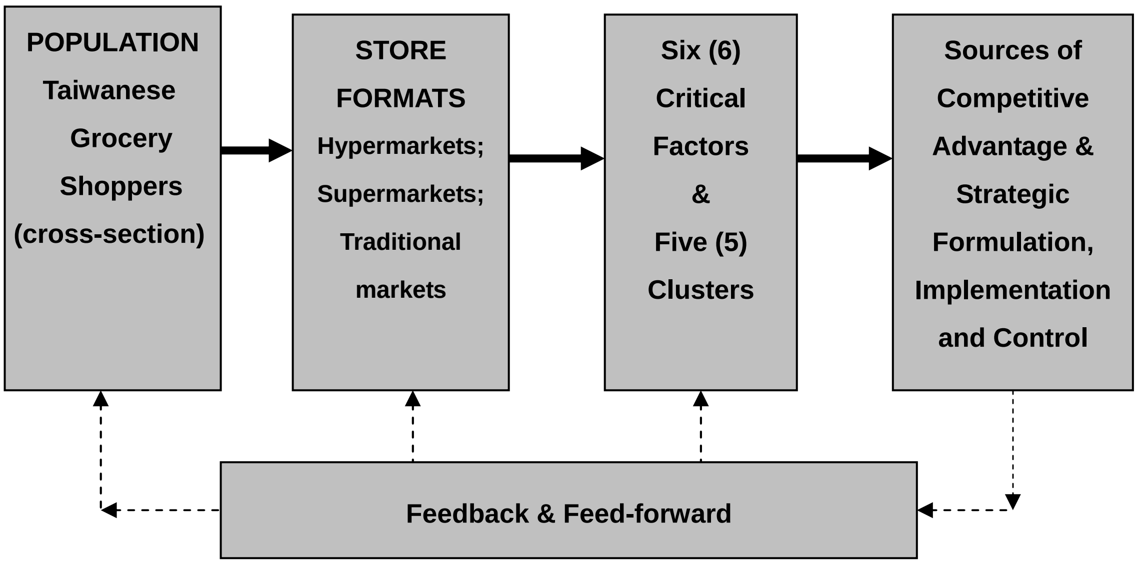
The six critical factors in the table above have been linked to the five shopping clusters identified in the thesis. During the period of this thesis, three clusters, namely, ‘Value clusters’, ‘efficiency clusters’ and ‘convenience clusters’ were identified as the key sources of competitive advantage for successful formulation and implementation of retail internationalisation strategies by global retailers operating in Taiwan. In addition, other clusters such as ‘environmental clusters’ and ‘leisure clusters’ were also identified - these clusters though not yet of any critical importance are steadily becoming significant as a result of the increasing adoption of western life style of Taiwanese.

Relationship between Taiwanese shoppers’ preferences and store format

From the hypothesis and chi-square results and findings, it can be seen that for each store format there is a relationship between store attribute and consumers' demographic characteristics, such as 'age', 'gender', 'education level', and 'size of family'. For example, Taiwanese shoppers under 39 years old and highly educated, with small family size, strongly prefer hypermarket store attributes, followed by traditional markets and have least preference for supermarkets. This suggests that when competition becomes intensive between hypermarkets and supermarkets, hypermarkets will attract loyal shoppers from supermarkets. It further suggests that the store image of traditional markets and supermarkets might move closer to hypermarket store image in the future.

The conceptual framework for successful implementation of retail internationalisation in Taiwan

Below is a simplified version of the conceptual framework developed in this thesis presented in Figure 5.4 on page 272 - the building blocks for the framework came from the cross-sectional study of Taiwanese grocery shoppers, who patronise Hypermarkets, Supermarkets, and Traditional markets.



From the analysing of the empirical data collected the list of six critical success factors and five shopping clusters mentioned earlier was identified. These led to identification of sources of competitive advantage which formed the foundation for generating and evaluating alternative optimistic, cautious, and pessimistic retail internationalisation strategies for grocery retailers using hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional market store formats in Taiwan. The conceptual framework also has a feedback and feed forward loop – this is consistent with development of decision making models as espoused by strategic management experts (De Wit and Meyer, 2004). It is the intention of this researcher to subject the conceptual framework to validation at a post-doctoral level using a case study of well known global grocery retailers operating in Taiwan.

The next chapter provides a comprehensive conclusion of the thesis and offers practical recommendations to global food retailers already operating or those wishing to entry Taiwan and the Asia Pacific region.

Chapter Six

Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1. Introduction

This chapter concludes the thesis and provides practical recommendations to global food retailers already operating or intending to entry Taiwan. It assesses the extent to which the three research objectives have been achieved, followed by a clear identification of the major contributions to knowledge. It discusses the major limitations of the thesis in the context of the extent to which the results and findings could be generalized, and makes recommendations for further research at the post-doctoral level. Finally, there is a section on personal reflection on the research process linked to personal developmental objectives at the post-doctoral level.

Section 6.2, assesses the extent to which the three research objectives have been achieved, Section 6.3 reveals the major contributions made by the thesis to knowledge in the subject area of food retail shopping preferences and choices relating to retail internationalisation in Taiwan. Section 6.4, discusses the research limitations and identifies areas for further research. Finally, Section 6.5 reflects on the researcher's personal development in relation to the research process.

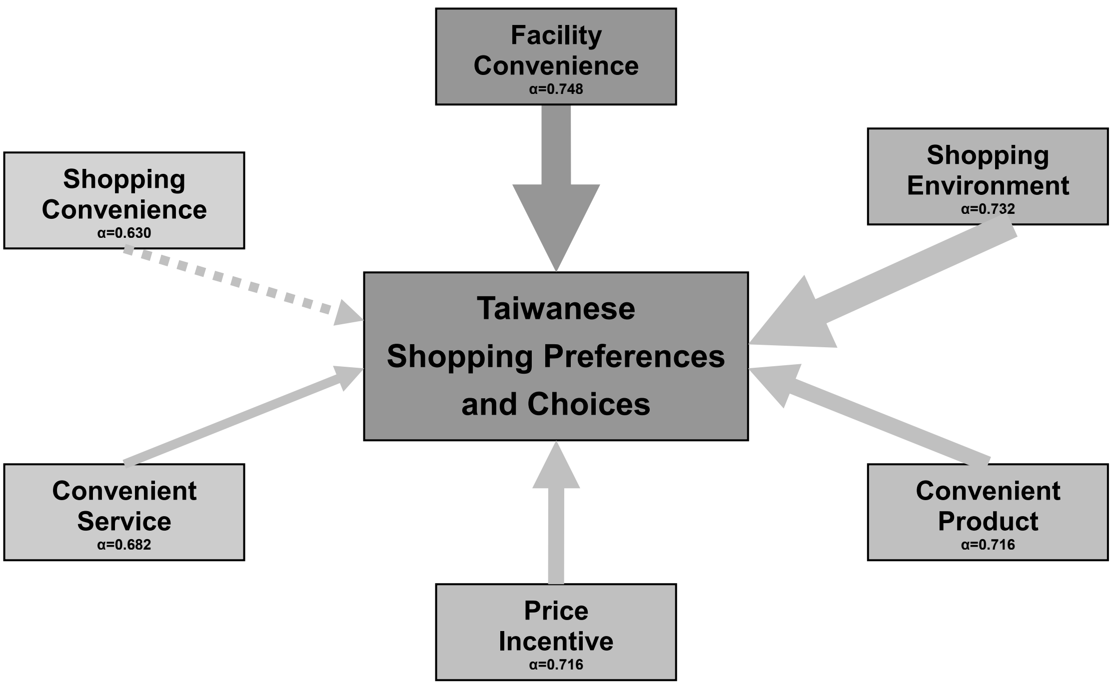
6.2. Assessing the extent to which the research objectives have been achieved

The overall aim of the thesis was to explore how global food retailers using hypermarkets store format can successfully enter overseas market, such as Taiwan. An extensive critical review of a wide range of existing literature from 1958 to 2006 led to identification of research gaps and problems, which led to statements of three research objectives. To achieve the research objectives an empirical cross-sectional survey of Taiwanese hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets was conducted. The extent to which these three research objectives have been achieved is assessed in the sub-sections below.

6.2.1. To identify the critical factors or variables impacting on food retail internationalisation across hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan

The exploratory focus group interviews coupled with the extensive questionnaire survey led to the identification of six critical success factors impacting on food retail internationalisation in Taiwan. These six factors are shown in Figure 6.1 below, arranged in order of their declining alpha coefficient values which reflect their level of impact on Taiwanese shopping preferences and choices.

Figure 6.1
Six critical impacting Factors on Taiwanese Shopping Preference and Choices
Source: Based on Chapter Five, Section 5.3.1, page 254



For example ‘facility convenience’ (with the highest alpha coefficient value of α = 0.748) has the greatest influence on Taiwanese shoppers’ decisions to patronise any of the three store formats. On the other hand, ‘shopping convenience’ (with the lowest alpha coefficient value of α = 0.630) has the least influence on Taiwanese shopper’s store patronage decisions. In terms of level of critical of these factors to each store format, the results reveal that, for hypermarkets ‘facility convenience’ and ‘shopping environment’ were the most critical factors which attract shoppers into the stores. For supermarkets the critical factors are ‘convenient product’ and ‘convenient service’. Finally, for traditional markets, ‘price incentive’ and ‘convenient service’ were the most critical factors in sustaining store patronage.

Secondary to the identification of the six critical factors for effective retail internationalisation there was a logical need to link the factors with the different shopping clusters in Taiwanese food retail market. The results of the factor analysis revealed the identities of five shopping clusters, namely, (1) Value shoppers, (2) Environment shoppers, (3) Efficient shoppers, (4) Leisure shoppers, and (5) Convenient shoppers.

Based on the empirical evidence provided in this thesis this researcher believes that the first or exploratory research objective stated above has been achieved.

6.2.2. To describe the nature of the critical factors impacting on consumer behaviour towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan

In order to describe the nature of the six critical factors identified in Figure 6.1 above, the results of the factor analysis revealed a set of variables associated with each factor (see Table 6.1 below). These variables help us to understand the nature of each factor and how they impact on Taiwanese shoppers' behaviour towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. A descriptive account of each of the six (6) critical success factors is highlighted as follows:

(1) Facility convenience:

In the case of hypermarket shoppers, the three key variables linked to the 'facility convenience', suggest that Taiwanese shoppers are attracted to hypermarkets because they provide: (1) larger car parking spaces and other services, (2) pleasant shopping atmosphere, and (3) more security for large family shopping. It is clear from the results that 'facility convenience' did not influence the preferences and choices of supermarket and traditional market shoppers to any significant extent during the period of study.

Table 6.1

A description of the nature of critical success factors

Source: Based on Chapter Four, Tables 4.22a, 4.22b, 4.22c

List of Critical Success Factors	Descriptive nature of critical success factors		
	Hypermarkets	**Supermarkets**	**Traditional markets**
1. **Facility Convenience**	1. provides **large car packing space and services** 2. provides **pleasant shopping atmosphere** 3. provides **more security for large families**	The empirical results show that supermarket shoppers were not influence by 'facility convenience' to any significant level during the period of study	The empirical results show that traditional market shoppers were not influence by 'facility convenience' to any significant level during the period of study
2. Shopping Environment	1. shopping was seen as a form of **pleasure** 2. shopping was considered a **leisure activity** 3. provides **other alternative stores** in the same retail park 4. provides **large, clean and spacious shopping area** 5. provides a **separate sections** for different items	Provides **hygienic, clean, good decor and air-conditioned shopping environment**	The empirical results show that traditional market shoppers were not influence by 'shopping environment' to any significant level during the period of study

Table 6.1 - Continuation
A description of the nature of critical success factors

3. Convenient Product	Offers a **wider assortment of products**	1. have **clearer date marks** on products 2. provides **selection of national brands** 3. provides **organic products** 4. provides **imported products**	1. provides **better quality fresh food** 2. provide **special order** services 3. provides **small or large quantity** of foods 4. provides **special foods**
4. Price Incentive	1. provides **low price** products 2. provides frequent of **special offers and promotions**	1. provides **frequent sales or special promotions** 2. provides **receipts** 3. provides **value coupons**	1. prices can be **bargained** 2. provides **complimentary vegetables** 3. have **friendly** vendors for ease buying. 4 provides **cheaper food**
5. Convenient Service	1. provides **loyalty and bonus schemes** 2. offers **money back guarantees** 3. accepts **credit card payments** 4. offers **longer opening hours**	1. offers **long opening hours** 2. accepts **credit card** payments. 3. have **accurate, pleasant checkout clerks** 4. provides **money back guarantees** 5. offers **loyalty and bonus schemes**	1. consumers can **discuss the food characteristics** with vendors 2. Vendors are **friendly, caring and humorous** 3. offers **free delivery service**
6. Shopping Convenience	1. offers **safe and convenient** children's trolleys 2. after shopping, consumers can also go to **nearby shopping centre/street**	1. provides **marked prices** on all items. 2. consumers can buy food and groceries **under one roof** 3. provides **good layouts** for easy shopping	1. provides a good **place** to go with family during holidays 2. consumers can **take time** to select individual fresh products 3. consumers can enjoy the **shopping atmosphere** 4. consumers are **used to** buy foods and groceries 5. provides **cheap and fashion** clothes, shoes and accessories

(2) Shopping environment:

In the case of hypermarket shoppers, there were five key variables linked to 'shopping environment', which suggest that Taiwanese shoppers are attracted to hypermarkets because shopping at hypermarkets was seen as a form of pleasure, and was considered a leisure activity. It was also attractive because it provides other alternative stores in the same retail park, and also provides large, clean and spacious shopping areas, in addition to separate sections for different items. It is clear from the results that 'shopping environment' did not influence the preferences and choices of traditional market shoppers to any significant extent during the period of study, while supermarket shoppers were influence by hygienic, clean, good décor, and air-conditioned environment.

(3) Convenient product:

In the case of supermarket shoppers, the four key variables linked to the 'convenient product', suggest that Taiwanese shoppers are attracted to supermarkets because they provide: (1) clearer date marks on products, (2) a selection of national brands, (3) organic products, and (4) imported products. However, for hypermarket shoppers, it is clear from the results that 'convenient product' influence the preferences and choices of shoppers because hypermarkets offers a wider assortment of products. Finally, the results suggest that Taiwanese shoppers are attracted to traditional markets because they provide (1) better quality fresh food, (2) special order services, (3) small or large quantity of foods, and (4) special foods.

(4) Price incentive:

The four variables linked to the 'price incentive' factors suggest that Taiwanese shoppers are attracted to traditional markets because these markets provide: (1) opportunities for shoppers to bargain over prices, (2) complimentary vegetables, (3) friendly vendors for ease buying, and (4) cheaper food products. However, in the case of hypermarkets shoppers are attracted by low prices and frequent special offers and promotions. Finally, shoppers are attracted to supermarkets because of the frequent sales promotion, issue of receipts and value coupons on purchases.

(5) Convenient service:

In the case of supermarket shoppers, the five key variables linked to the 'convenient service', suggest that Taiwanese shoppers are attracted to supermarkets because they: (1) have longer opening hours, (2) accepts credit card payments, (3) have accurate and pleasant checkout clerks, (4) provides money back guarantees, and (5) offers loyalty and bonus schemes. It also clear from the results that the 'convenient service' factor influences the preferences and choices of both supermarket and hypermarket shoppers in a similar way but very different from traditional markets. Traditional market shoppers however are attracted by the fact that they are able to discuss food characteristics with vendors who are friendly and offer free delivery services.

(6) Shopping convenience:

Finally, in the case of the sixth critical factor, the results for traditional markets identified five variables linked to 'shopping convenience', suggesting that Taiwanese shoppers are attracted to traditional markets because: (1) they provide a good place to go to with their families during holidays, (2) consumers can take time to select individual fresh products, (3) consumers can enjoy the shopping atmosphere, (4) consumers are used to buying foods and groceries and (5) they provide cheap and fashion clothes, shoes and accessories. On the other hand, for hypermarkets, it is clear from the results that 'shopping convenience' influence the preferences and choices of hypermarkets shoppers due to the fact that they offer safe and convenient children's trolleys, and shoppers can also go to nearby shopping centre/street after shopping. Finally, it can be seen that the variables which attract supermarket shoppers include the fact that supermarkets provide (1) marked prices on all items, (2) one stop shopping experience, and (3) good floor layout for easy shopping.

Secondary to describing the nature of the six critical factors there was the need to describe the nature of the five shopping clusters in Taiwan (see Table 6.2 below).

Table 6.2
Description of Shopping Clusters in Taiwan
Source: Based on Tables 4.23a, 4.24a, and 4.25a

Shopping Clusters	Descriptive Characteristics
1. Value shoppers	VALUE: • Most Hypermarket shoppers with **low spending power** perceive **price incentives** as a **value adding** activity. • Some Supermarket shoppers with **moderate** spending power perceive price incentives as a value adding activity. • Some Traditional market shoppers with **low** spending power perceive price incentive as a value adding activity.
2. Environment shoppers	ENVIRONMENT: • Hypermarket shoppers with **moderate enjoyment** of shopping are interested in the shopping **environment** and the **quality** of products. • Supermarket shoppers with **high enjoyment** who **highly recommended** supermarkets were concerned about the **quality** of products and services. • Note: Traditional market shoppers were not in this cluster.
3. Efficient shoppers	EFFICIENCY: • Hypermarket shoppers with **high spending power** perceive **one-stop shopping** and **shopping convenience** as efficiency adding activity. • Supermarket shoppers with **high** spending power perceive **convenient products and services** as efficiency adding activity. • Traditional market shoppers with **low spending** power perceive **convenient products** as efficiency adding activity.
4. Leisure shoppers	LEISURE: • Hypermarket shoppers with **high spending power**, enjoyment levels and recommending intention perceive pleasant, spacious shopping environment and convenient facility as providing **leisure**. • Supermarket shoppers with **low spending power**, moderate enjoyment level and moderate recommending intention perceive clean, hygienic and good décor shopping environment as providing **leisure**. • Traditional market shoppers with **high spending power**, enjoyment level and recommending intention perceive convenience service offered by vendors, as providing **leisure**.
5. Convenient shopper	CONVENIENCE: • Hypermarket and Supermarket shoppers were not in this cluster. • Traditional shoppers with average spending, low enjoyment level and low recommending intention attracted by **convenient products and services** offered by vendors.

Based on the empirical evidence provided in this thesis this researcher believes that the second research objective stated above has been achieved.

6.2.3. To explain the nature of the relationships between the critical factors as basis for developing a conceptual framework for successful retail internationalisation in Taiwan

Relationship between Critical Factors and Shopping Clusters:

The empirical results and findings from the hypothesis and chi-square testing reveal that there is a relationship between the six (6) critical success factors and the five (5) shopping clusters identified and described by the first and second thesis research objectives. As shown in Table 6.3 below, the results are not conclusive in the sense that further research is needed in order to explain the exact strength of the relationship between each critical success factor and each shopping cluster – a potential area for further research at the post-doctoral level.

Table 6.3

Relationship between Critical Success Factors and Shopping Clusters

Source: Based on Figure 5.1 and 5.2

SIX Critical success factor		FIVE Shopping clusters
• Facility convenience • Shopping environment • Convenient product • Price incentive • Convenient service • Shopping convenience	*The exact strength of the relationship between each critical factor* *and each shopping cluster is not yet well understood*	• Value shoppers • Environment shoppers • Efficiency shoppers • Leisure shoppers • Convenient shoppers

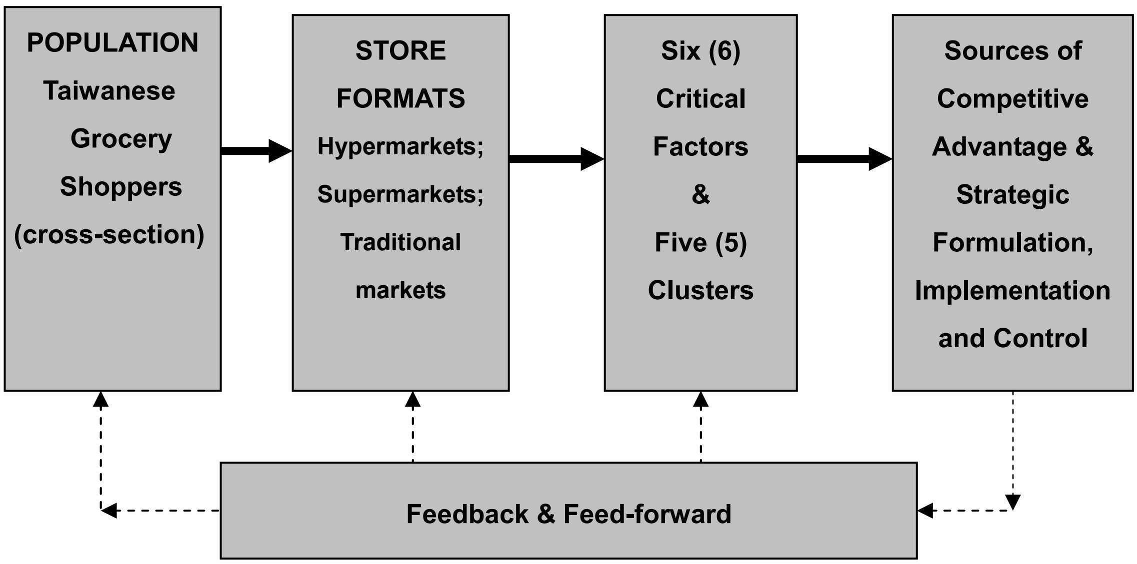
From Critical Factors and Shopping Clusters to the Conceptual Model:

The establishment of a relationship between the six (6) critical factors and five shopping clusters led to identification of sources of competitive advantages for hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional market store formats (see Table 5.2 on page 280). These sources of competitive advantage formed the base for constructing the conceptual framework for retail internationalisation in Taiwan – a simplified version of the model is shown in Figure 6.2 below.

Figure 6.2

Simplified Conceptual Framework for Retail Internationalisation in Taiwan

Source: See full version in Figure 5.4 page 272



This researcher believes that the above conceptual framework is theoretically sound for two main reasons. First it is based on the empirical results and findings from the thesis, second, it is underpinned by the principles and concepts of strategic marketing management and decision-making process which require clear identification of problems followed by generation and evaluation of alternative strategies, and finally implementation and control coupled with feedback and feed-forward mechanisms (Douglas and Craig, 1995; De Wit and Meyer, 2004).

6.2.4. An assessment of the extent to which the research question has been answered

This researcher strongly believes that the thesis ‘research question’ restated below which was derived from the ‘research gap’ following extensive literature review has been comprehensively answered.

“Can global food retailers using hypermarket store formats achieve and sustain their competitive advantage in emerging economies such as Taiwan.”

The main reason for this belief is based on the fact that the three research objectives stated above earlier were derived from the research question. This suggests that by achieving the three research objectives the research question has been answered. Indeed the pool of questions used in designing both questionnaires and focus group interviews were drawn from the thesis research question. The results and findings from analysing the empirical data reveal that the three research objectives have been achieved.

- *The **first objective** identified six (6) critical factors impacting on food retail internationalisation and five (5) shopping clusters across hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan - this was achieved using exploratory focus group interviews coupled with extensive questionnaire survey.*
- *The **second objective** described the nature of the relationship between the six (6) critical factors and the five (5) shopping clusters identified by research objective - this was achieved using content analysis, factor and cluster analysis.*
- *Finally, the **third objective** used the researcher’s understanding of the nature of the relationships between the critical factors and shopping clusters as sources for competitive advantage, leading to the developing a conceptual framework for successful retail internationalisation in Taiwan.*

This researcher recognises the fact the results and findings are specific to Taiwan and could not be generalised to a great extent. It however provides a base for future research involving other developing economies in the Asia Pacific Region.

6.3. Major contributions to knowledge

This section outlines the general and specific contributions the thesis makes to knowledge. The main purpose is to enable the researcher draw out areas for future research at the post-doctoral level.

6.3.1. Two general contributions to the subject area of Food retail internationalisation in emerging markets

- *Extensive review of the works of key authors including Dawson (1994), Dupius and Prime (1996) and Trappey and Lai (1997a) led to the identification of a significant research gap for retail internationalisation in emerging markets such as Taiwan. The research gap revealed a significant level of misunderstanding about Taiwanese grocery shoppers' behaviour towards Hypermarkets. The thesis identified the critical factors impacting on different shopping clusters in Taiwan which would reduce the level of misunderstanding thereby helping to close the research gap.*

- *The conceptual framework presented in the thesis contributes to better understanding of Taiwanese consumer patronage of hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional market store formats in the food retail industry. This has serious implication for global food retailers in the broad area of food retail internationalisation strategy development – though there is a limited extent to which the model could be generalised across emerging economies in the Asia-Pacific Region.*

6.3.2. Three specific contributions to food retail internationalisation in the context of Taiwanese food retail markets

The inconsistent sales performance of hypermarkets operating in Taiwan from 1989 to 2008 and in other Asia-Pacific countries such as Thailand, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Korea and Indonesia (Dupius and Prime, 1996; Gielens and Dekimpe, 2007; Financial Times, 2008) may be linked to lack of understanding of Taiwanese shopping preferences and choices. This thesis provides empirical results and findings which led to the following conclusions:

- *That six (6) critical factors, namely, Facility convenience; Shopping environment; Convenient products; Price incentives; Convenient services; and Shopping convenience impact on five (5) Taiwanese shopping clusters, in terms of their level patronage of hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. This is a significant finding judging from the fact that to date there are only a few published empirical research in the context of Taiwan (Dupius and Prime, 1996; Gielens and Dekimpe, 2007).*

- *The fact that the conceptual framework presents results and findings from a cross-sectional investigation of hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional market shoppers provides a rich source of data and information on consumer behaviour which can be taped into to explore sources for achieving and sustaining competitive advantage in Taiwan and other emerging markets in the Asia-Pacific region, such as China, Thailand, Korea, Indonesia, and Malaysia.*

- *The work of Burt and Carralero-Encinas (2000) suggest that global food retailers need to fully understand the components of store image in competitive positioning in other countries. The six (6) critical success factors and five (5) shopping clusters identified in this thesis would provide more insight into how Taiwanese shoppers behave towards hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets. This is consistent with the views of global marketing strategists who suggest that multinational enterprises (MNEs) should think globally but act locally (Douglas and Craig, 1995).*

6.4. Recommendations to retailers of the hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Taiwan

The thesis results and findings clearly suggest that pleasant shopping environment and suitable facilities for family shopping, assortment with quality of products and services, and convenient location for easy accessed as well as a competitive price strategy are crucial factors for food retailers to succeed in Taiwan. Taiwanese consumers choose the hypermarkets because of the assortments and low prices and also because they provide comfortable shopping environment and necessary facilities for family shopping together. They choose the supermarket for the convenient location, quality of products and service, promotions, and a clean and hygienic shopping environment. Alternatively they choose the traditional market for the convenient location, fresh products, low price and friendly service.

As the Taiwanese food retail market reaches saturation, the marketing strategy of the food retailers is to establish and maintain their market segments, to enhance their strengths in the areas of competitive advantage and improve their weaknesses, and to differentiate themselves with rivalries. Therefore, increasing the percentage of own label products, providing distinctive service and products, adding facilities for easy shopping, providing family shopping environment and enhancing customer relationship marketing may create competitive advantage and profit growth in the Taiwanese food retailing market.

Traditional market retailers:

The traditional markets are established by the Taiwanese government and supported by local communities. Although their original competitive advantages were in the area of low prices, convenient shopping location, freshness of food, very personal friendly service and localised products along with the reconstructed project provided by government, the traditional markets are in a position of pessimism due to lack of integrated marketing systems and relative small scale. Consumers like to shop at the traditional markets for the convenient location, for the freshness of products and for better opportunities to bargain over prices as well as friendly service by vendors (Jhuang, 2002). The traditional markets are seen to possibly maintain their market share in Taiwan in a short run. This research therefore suggests that the traditional markets may enhance their competitive strength using their strengths in the areas of ‘price’, ‘convenience’ ‘proximate’ and ‘service’ to enhance their capability to satisfy value, convenient and leisure shoppers.

Supermarket retailers:

For the supermarkets, faced with competition from the hypermarkets and experiencing decline in market share; they are in the position of caution. Although they provide ‘convenient product’ and ‘convenient service’ for their target segment—the efficient shoppers, the environmental shoppers and the leisure shoppers, the supermarkets are weak in differentiating their products and services from those of hypermarkets. They need to develop a differentiation strategy. This research suggests that offering competitive prices strategy, exclusive assortment, high quality fresh food and service, and an easy shopping environment and facility will provide opportunity for supermarkets to maintain their market share (Davidson and Rummel, 2000). In addition, supermarket retailers have to focus on particular market segments, such as efficient shoppers, environmental shoppers and leisure shoppers, in order to establish store loyalty among consumers. As lifestyle changes, more consumers may need to shop at night. The supermarket retailers which provide 24-hour operation need to take this opportunity by providing distinctive products and service as part of their market segmentation strategy. Furthermore, they should provide specialty products and services for specific consumers during the night, to help establish a group of loyal consumers (Arnold and Luthra, 2000).

Hypermarket retailers:

Taiwanese shoppers primarily chose the hypermarkets for assortments, plenty of car parking space and pleasant shopping environment. As the Taiwanese food retail market reaches saturation, having their competitive advantages in facility convenience and large shopping environment, the hypermarkets are in the position of optimism. The hypermarkets not only have global operation experience along with a culture for achieving superior performance but have dedicated marketing strategy and information systems in order to meet the needs and expectations of the Taiwanese consumers. This research suggests that hypermarkets can further establish market segments and to differentiate themselves from supermarkets and traditional market (Plamer, 2005). It is possible for the hypermarkets using their competitive strength of large shopping space to increase the percentage of own label products and introduce more competitive pricing strategies for the value searching shoppers, provide distinctive services and products for the time constrain shoppers, and enhance the leisure and entertainment facilities along with improving customer relationship marketing for the leisure shoppers (Brown, 2004; Carpenter and Moore, 2006). This research suggests that targeting particular segments and creating highly differentiated store image are mandatory requirements for the hypermarkets to succeed in the Taiwanese food retailing market.

6.5. The major limitations of the thesis and areas for further research at the post doctoral level

Major limitations relating to reliability, validity and bias:

The single most important limitation of the thesis relates to the generalisability of the thesis findings. The focus on global food retailers using Hypermarket store formats in Taiwan meant that the sample size for both focus group interviews and questionnaire survey may be considered relatively small, suggesting that the results and findings only reflects the Taiwanese context, and cannot be justifiably generalised across other emerging economies in the Asia-Pacific Region. This research thesis like most doctoral research studies which require a number of years of investigation faced serious constraints or limitations in the actual implementation of the research methodology and the need to respond to changes in the research environment.

Coupled with this is the fact that research on consumer perception is problematic because consumer behaviour is not predictable and is continuously changing. This has led to the suggestion by some research methodologists that consumer research findings intends to be inherently less reliable, less valid and highly bias (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). Furthermore, because these issues impact directly or indirectly on the extent to which the thesis findings could be generalised, this section therefore highlights the major limitations relating to the reliability, validity, and bias inherent in the thesis findings (see Table 6.4 below).

Table 6.4
Major limitations relating to Reliability, Validity and Bias

Issues	***Personal Reflections*** **Impact of issues on Generalisability of Thesis Findings**
Reliability of thesis results and findings	• Although a phenomenological research philosophy was adopted in this thesis, the need to make the research findings more reliable meant that, a mix of qualitative and quantitative data has to be used as part of the process of data triangulation (Saunders et al., 2007). • This led to the use of both focus group interviews and questionnaires as the main research instruments. • No correlation was observed between the 'level of reliability' and the 'level of generalisability' of the thesis findings – the two variables were mutually exclusive in this thesis.
Validity in the construction or design of research questions 'construct validity'	• Questions were deemed to have elicits the expected responses during both focus group interviews and questionnaire surveys of hypermarket, supermarket and traditional market shoppers. • This observation enhanced the reliability of the empirical data collected and the thesis findings. • The strong construct validity increases the potential for wider generalisability of the thesis findings. Though the converse may be false it provides scope for proactive approach to retail internationalisation.
Bias in favour of local conditions	• Focus on context may be considered a bias in favour of Taiwanese consumer behaviour towards food retail store formats, at the expense of what is happening internationally – particularly with reference to emerging markets in the Asia-Pacific Region. • The thesis provides clear evidence in support of existing literature suggesting that the factors impacting on consumer behaviour in Taiwan may be different from those in Korea. • This observation clearly suggests that there is a limited extent to which the thesis findings could be generalised locally and internationally.

The difficulties faced by this researcher during the implementation stage of the research process itself, coupled with having to deal with the challenges in responding to changes in the research environment is fully discuss later in Section 6.6.

Areas for further research at post-doctoral level:

From the major limitations impacting on the generalisability of the thesis findings identified in Table 6.3 above the following four key areas for future research have been identified:

- *Testing the conceptual framework by widening the sample size to cover other cities in Taiwan. This would make the framework more relevant to the Taiwanese environment.*
- *Testing the conceptual framework in other emerging markets in the Asia-Pacific Region, such as China and Korea. This may enhance the external validity of the research findings.*
- *A comparative study to identify trends in grocery shopping behaviour involving hypermarkets, supermarkets and traditional markets in Europe and Asia. This would investigate cross cultural factors in different cultural settings in order to further explain the importance of functional attributes on consumer's store preferences and choices.*
- *The empirical results and findings from the hypothesis and chi-square testing reveal that there is a relationship between the six critical success factors and the five shopping clusters, the fact that the results were not conclusive suggest that further research is needed in order to explain the exact strength of the relationship between each critical success factor and each shopping cluster.*

6.6. Personal reflection on the research process

I never knew I could be finishing the concluding chapter to my doctoral thesis, but fortunately I have. The journey had been a rather very long one with a lot of ups and downs, but I managed with the support of my family, friends and supervisors at the

University of Sunderland. To illustrate how I overcame some of the difficulties I faced during the period of study, I would use the linear approach to research recommended by Churchill and Iacobucci (2005) - my personal comments are contained in the table below under each stage of the linear research process.

Linear model of the research process (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005)	**Difficulties and challenges faced by the researcher**
Stage One: Extensive Literature Review, Expert Interviews, Exploratory Research - Identification of the Research Problem or Opportunity: Research Gap, Question, Objectives	• **Main difficulties**: Deciding the research area and topic. The topic had to be modified to reflect changing circumstances. • **Main challenges**: Occasional lose of direction and lack of faith and confidence • **Areas for improvement**: Quality of literature search, and quality of supervision
Stage Two: Extensive Review of Research Methodology: Deciding research philosophy, approach, strategy	• **Main difficulties**: Deciding the research philosophy and using mix methods. Providing justification for choice. • **Main challenges**: Seeking expert advice, and networking • **Areas for improvement**: Ability to evaluate alternative approaches, and research guidance
Stage Three: Fieldwork: Primary data collection, documentation, presentation, analysis	• **Main difficulties**: High cost travelling, getting focus group participants in other cities in Taiwan, administration of questionnaires. • **Main challenges**: Cash flow and time management; Initial low response rate • **Areas for improvement**: Effective sampling techniques; Response rates
Stage Four: Annual Reviews: First, Second Draft Thesis	• **Main difficulties**: Lack of direction • **Main challenges**: Lack of expert opinion • **Areas for improvement**: Effective engagement with supervision team
Stage Five: Final draft submission and preparation for viva voce examination	• **Main difficulties**: High cost of travel and living expenses from Taiwan • **Main challenges**: Pressure from proof-reading drafts • **Areas for improvement**: Effective time management

Overall my experience has been very positive and would love to continue to test the conceptual framework thesis in other emerging economies at the post doctoral level - this I believe would further enhance my future academic career development.

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APPENDICES:

Appendix A
Rank of Top 25 Global Grocery Retailers

Global grocery retailer ranking, by 2007 net sales

	Group	Country of Origin	Formats	Net Sales 2007 (Billions)	No. of Stores	Countries of operation
1	Wal-Mart	USA	Discount, Hypermarket Supermarket, Superstore, Warehouse,	312.40	6,380	Argentina, Brazil, Canada, China, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Germany, Guatemala, Honduras, Japan, South Korea, Mexico, Nicaragua, Puerto Rico, United Kingdom, United States
2	Carrefour	France	Cash & Carry, Convenience Discount, Hypermarket, Specialty, Supermarket,	92.6	12,179	Argentina, Bahrain, Belgium, Brazil, China, Colombia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Dominican Republic, Egypt, France, French Polynesia, Greece, Guadeloupe, Indonesia, Italy, Malaysia, Martinique, New Caledonia, Oman, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Reunion, Romania, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Slovakia, Spain, South Korea, Switzerland, Taiwan, Thailand, Tunisia, Turkey, United Arab Emirates
3	Tesco	United Kingdom	Convenience, Department, Hypermarket, Supermarket, Superstore	69.6	2,365	China, Czech Republic, France, Hungary, Ireland, Japan, South Korea, Malaysia, Poland, Slovakia, Taiwan, Thailand, Turkey, United Kingdom
4	Metro Group	Germany	Cash & Carry, Department DIY, Food Service Hypermarket, Specialty, Superstore	69.3	2,458	Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, India, Italy, Japan, Moldova, Morocco, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia and Montenegro, Slovakia, Spain, Turkey, United Kingdom, Vietnam
5	Kroger	USA	Convenience, Discount, Specialty, Supercentre, Supermarket, Warehouse	60.6	3,726	United States
6	Ahold	Netherlands	Cash & Carry, Convenience, Discount, Drug, Hypermarket, Specialty, Supermarket	55.3	6,422	Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Slovakia, Sweden, United States
7	Costco	USA	Warehouse	52.9	460	Canada, Japan, South Korea, Mexico, Puerto Rico, Taiwan, United Kingdom, United States
8	Rewe	Germany	Cash & Carry, Discount, DIY, Drug, Hypermarket, Specialty, Supermarket, Superstore	51.8	11,242	Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Romania, Russia, Slovakia, Switzerland, Ukraine
9	Schwarz Group	Germany	Discount, Hypermarket, Superstore	45.8	7,299	Austria, Belgium, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom
10	Aldi	Germany	Discount, Supermarket	45.0	7,788	Australia, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, United Kingdom, United States

11	Walgreens	USA	Drug	42.2	4,953	Puerto Rico, United States
12	Auchan	France	Department, DIY, Hypermarket, Specialty, Supermarket	41.8	2,686	Angola, China, France, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, Morocco, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Taiwan
13	Ededa	Germany	Discount, Supermarket	41.3	19,001	Austria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Russia
14	Albertsons	USA	Convenience, Drug, Supermarket	40.4	2,541	United States
15	AEON	Japan	Convenience, Drug, Department, Discount, DIY, Food Service, Specialty, Supermarket, Superstore	40.2	10,132	Canada, China, Hong Kong, Japan, South Korea, Malaysia, Philippines, Taiwan, Thailand, United Kingdom, United States
16	Safeway (USA)	USA	Supermarket	38.4	1,914	Canada, Mexico, United States
17	Intermarché	France	Cash & Carry, Convenience, Discount, DIY, Food Service, Specialty, Supermarket, Superstore	37.7	3,932	Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, France, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Serbia and Montenegro
18	Leclerc	France	Convenience, Hypermarket, Supermarket	35.4	581	France, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain
19	Seven &I	Japan	Convenience, Food Service, Specialty, Supermarket	35.3	21,136	Australia, Canada, China, Denmark, Guam, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, South Korea, Malaysia, Mexico, Norway, Puerto Rico, Singapore, Sweden, Taiwan, Thailand, Turkey, United States
20	Tengelmann	Germany	Cash & Carry, Discount, DIY, Drug, Hypermarket, Specialty, Supermarket, Superstore	29.8	7,730	Austria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Czech Republic, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, United States
21	Sainsbury	United Kingdom	Convenience, Hypermarket, Supermarket, Superstore	29.2	808	United Kingdom
22	Casino	France	Cash & Carry, Convenience, Department, Discount, Food Service, Hypermarket, Specialty, Supermarket, Warehouse	28.3	9,388	Argentina, Bahrain, Belgium, Benin, Brazil, Cameroon, Colombia, Comoros, France, Guadeloupe, Latvia, Lithuania, Lebanon, Madagascar, Martinique, Mauritius, Mexico, Morocco, Netherlands, New Caledonia, Poland, Reunion, Saudi Arabia, Switzerland, Taiwan, Thailand, Togo, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, Uruguay, United States, Venezuela, Vietnam
23	Woolworths (AUS)	Australia	Department, Discount, Supermarket	28.0	2,744	Australia, New Zealand
24	Coles Myer	Australia	Discount, Supermarket	27.9	2,755	Australia, New Zealand
25	Delhaize Group	Belgium	Cash & Carry, Convenience, Drug, Specialty, Supermarket	23.1	2,637	Belgium, Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Indonesia, Luxembourg, Romania, United States

Source: M+M Planet Retail, http://www.planetretail.net; SN research

Appendix B
Taiwan Profile

Taiwan was formally declared as the Republic of China (ROC) in 1949. It is also known as 'Formosa'--a name given by the Portuguese, meaning beautiful island and/or 'Island China'--in contrast to the 'Mainland China' (GIO, 2005).

Geographic location of Taiwan

Source: Government of Information Office, Taiwan 2006

Figure above shows the location of Taiwan in East Asian. In its geography, Taiwan includes the island of Taiwan, Penghu Islands, Kinmen and Matsu offshore Islands, and numerous other islets. With a total area of nearly 36,000 sq. km, the island of

Taiwan is separated from the mainland by the Taiwan Strait, which is about 220 km wide at its widest point and 130 km at its narrowest point (GIO, 2005).

According to the Ministry of Information Office (MIO) in Taiwan, Taiwan has a population of 22.7 million at the end of 2004, however the slow growth of population has resulted in the government applying policies to encourage more births. The urban population, which is not different from most of the developing markets that are concentrated in a single area, is concentrated in five major metropolitan areas. By the end of 2002, the proportion of the population living in towns of 100,000 or more inhabitants had increased to 68.75 percent; urbanisation has contributed to the reduction of the average household to 3.21 persons by 2003. GNP per capita is US$14,770 in 2004, while average family income per household is around US$35,800 (MIO, 2005).

Historical development up to the 1980s

The traditional markets

The oldest food retail outlets and food distribution channels in Taiwan are known as the traditional markets. The traditional markets are commonly referred to as “wet markets” and usually operate in the ground floor of a building where booths are rented to individual retailers to sell fresh meat, vegetables and fruits as well as ready-to-eat food items. Roadside grocery stores and free stalls are other forms which come under the category of traditional market, i.e., individual vendors set up roadside stores or stalls to sell food items which are similar to those sold in the traditional markets. These roadside vendors tend to congregate around the traditional markets to share the benefit of aggregation of the food shopping population (Hsu and Chang, 2002). This is due to many early traditional markets in Taiwan having been located around temples and along central streets with higher traffic flow and resident populations (Trappey and Lai, 1997a).

The old distribution system also played an important role in Taiwanese food retail market. The most common feature of the Taiwanese distribution system was the use of regional wholesalers in the distribution channel: manufacturer → regional wholesalers → retailers → consumers (Chung, 2001). Today, the traditional markets of Taiwan have been developed to include public and private managed markets as well as roadside vendors. The number of traditional markets (including traditional wholesale markets and retail markets) is calculated to be 606; the number of vendors including free stalls has grown to 260,000 and the population who participate in the traditional markets is 400,000 which accounts for 4.2 percent of the whole population (MOE, 2005).

The public and private traditional markets are organised by independent vendors. The majority of products sold in the traditional markets comprise fresh vegetables, fruits, poultry, seafood, meat, and some precooked or processed food. Because most of the vendors are not equipped with refrigeration and storage, the quantities sold are limited and consequently they tend to operate only in the morning. There are few promotions in the traditional markets. However, consumers do haggle over the price or seek to gain complimentary vegetables, thus establishing a friendly camaraderie with the vendors in the process (Su, 1989; Cai, 2002).

After the introduction of supermarket and hypermarket systems into Taiwan, traditional markets did not become obsolete, but instead coexisted with the divergent types of markets. This fact contradicts popular belief, i.e., that new grocery formats would demonstrate serious challenges to the traditional markets (Goldman, 2000). Trappey and Lai (1997a) believed that as the economy rapidly progressed and the socio-cultural environment was thus changed in the process, the old and limited local traditional markets would not satisfy consumers' needs. Modern food retail formats would not only take the market share from the traditional market but also force the traditional market to change its operational practices or close down. However, the traditional markets in Taiwan are still dominant in the food retail market and fresh food items continue to be sold in the market (Hsu and Chang, 2002).

The supermarket

The development of supermarkets within the Taiwanese food retail market was very slow in the early, developmental, stage in the 1970s. The reason for this could be consumers' established patronage of the traditional formats coupled with limited knowledge about the supermarket. The products sold in the supermarket comprised packaged or very little fresh food, all at a higher price than in the traditional markets. The operation was small, and usually consisted of a single storey in the early growth stage (Shih, 1996; Syu, 2001; Ou, 2002).

With support from the local authority, the first public supermarket chain was established in 1981 in Taipei city. This public supermarket chain was operated by the Taipei Agricultural Association and Taipei City government and supplied low price fresh vegetables which was aimed to complement the food retail market. This kind of integration between supplier, retailer and local authority made the public supermarket chain a successful model of supermarket operation in Taiwan (Su, 1989). Furthermore, the increase in household income and the familiarity of consumers with the supermarkets, which offered a comfortable and hygienic shopping environment with longer opening times, quickly led to the rapid development of supermarkets during the

1980s. Since the 1980s, the introduction of Western-style supermarkets from Hong Kong and Japan has further accelerated their growth. The organisational operation of the supermarket was similar to that of the chain store, using logistical aids and computer aided management applied by trained professionals in supermarket retailing (Syu, 2001).

However, the growth of sales has begun to slow down as competitive rivalry is intensifying influencing the slower development of supermarkets since the 1990s. The competition from the new emerging retail stores (i.e. the hypermarkets) is now vigorous and the supermarkets are at a competitive disadvantage, lacking similar economies of scale or an equally efficient, smaller central distribution system (Ou, 2002; Trappey and Lai (1996b). These factors coupled with the density of Taiwan's population, the scarcity of land, and current zoning laws all favour the development of hypermarkets over supermarkets. Hypermarkets do not require multiple outlets in the same area or central distribution and thus they minimise personnel and product handling costs by combining storage space with retail floor space. At the same time, low price competition from the hypermarkets and the rapid increase in the number of convenience stores has forced the supermarkets to lose their market share year upon year. Under these competitive environments, some small scale supermarkets have been forced to go out of business or merge with other supermarket chains (Syu, 2001).

Rise of the hypermarket

Niche opportunities in overseas markets (Alexander, 1990; Williams, 1992) have encouraged the French leading hypermarkets to invest in the Asian market. Carrefour is the first hypermarket retailer to invest in the Asian market, and Taiwan is its first market. The first hypermarket was established at the end of 1989. As the research mentioned earlier, the French hypermarket concept is based on three major features: large premises selling both food and non-food items, low prices, and large free car parks. In Taiwan, hypermarket retailers quickly adapted this concept to the local situation. Initially, hypermarkets were very simply undecorated and factory-like in appearance, located in rural industrial areas and providing only limited facilities for shoppers (Jhang, 2002). However, store attributes, manifesting in such features as a large free car park, and expansive shopping area, offering a variety of assorted products, along with overall cost advantages as compared to other food retail outlets led to the hypermarket bringing a new shopping experience that attracted the Taiwanese and successfully penetrated into their markets. In additional, according to Prime and Dupuis (1996), the ability to adapt to the local environment and choose a good joint venture partner led to the successful integration of the hypermarket concept into the Taiwanese retail market.

Two further environmental factors may explain the rise of the popularity of the hypermarket in Taiwan. The first, a political economic factor is attributed to the Taiwan Ministry of Economic Affairs in recognising the need for the large, modernised store to promote efficiency and effectiveness within the Taiwanese food retail market (Chen, 2001). Impact was made in the field of logistics, management and marketing throughout all levels of the retail sector, as the government promoted the large store concept within the Taiwan market after terminating Martial Law in 1987. The second, a socio-economic factor, stems from high urbanisation, the increase in disposable household income and growth in family mobility which has generated a need for mass retailing outlets to serve the urban population. Accordingly, while it is estimated that in order to sustain a hypermarket successfully, the minimum GNP per capita needed is US$ 2,000 (Dupuis and Prime, 1996). The average GNP per capita in Taiwan had reached US$ 5,000 by 1987.

A noticeable change in the growth of hypermarket activity since the year 2000 has seen the trend towards construction of newly developed hypermarkets locating these in areas of higher population density within the metropolitan region, and a consequent marked increase in competition. Some external factors may throw light upon such changes. These include the introduction of the two-day weekend which created a need for a safe family shopping destination. Political innovation by the government, which has introduced new regulation regarding land usage, has benefited the development of large stores in urban areas (Yang and Li, 2003). Moreover, there have been new joint ventures set up between European hypermarket retailers and Taiwan's local hypermarket retailers which, in turn, brought more competitive rivals to the hypermarket industry. All of these factors have led retailers to develop a store image consistent with the contemporary urban lifestyle of Taiwan, delivering a customer friendly, pleasant and secure shopping experience.

Contemporary food retail market in Taiwan

The food retail market in Taiwan is very competitive mainly due to emphasis being put upon a free economic system of capitalism and the opening up of retail markets to international retailers. The food retailing industry has gone through a rapid evolution and expansion process; new food retail outlets have incorporated modern technology, improving customer service, and have provided one-stop shopping with a comfortable shopping environment. These are advances that are being developed especially by the larger food retailers. While it is true that they have contributed to both the decline of traditional and small corner stores the evolution in traditional food distribution channels and outlets has resulted in the major concentration of and increased efficiency in modern Taiwanese food retail markets (Hou, 2000; Chen, 2001).

The total food retail sales in Taiwan, including the modern retail outlets and the traditional retail markets were estimated to be worth US$58 billion in 2003. Despite continuing evolution and development of the newer markets modern retailing outlets (hypermarkets, supermarkets and convenience stores, and the chain store system) have grown to only 20% of the Taiwanese food retailing sales while traditional markets are still dominant with 80% market share (Global Retail Concentration, 2002). It would appear, therefore, that competition is more evident within sectors, for example although EU hypermarkets (e.g. Carrefour, Auchan and Géant) have continued making inroads into the share of the market in Taiwan since the mid-1990s and by 2002 the first big three hypermarket retailers have achieved over 80% sales within the hypermarket sector the whole of the hypermarket sector remains small relative to total food sales. However, competition among hypermarkets, where the emphasis is on service and variety, heavy discounting and larger shopping areas has led to an over supply of retail space, has increased competitive response from other retail outlets and this in turn, has seen a weakened sales performance in the hypermarket (Chen, 1997; Jhu et al, 2000). These effects have increased hesitation at new store opening and led to a consolidation within the hypermarket and supermarket sector.

A trend toward merging, acquisition and concentration of leading retailers has had a detrimental effect particularly in the food retailing industry since the year of 2000[1], especially with regard to the hypermarket and supermarket. In order to further reach out to consumers, hypermarket and supermarket chain retailers have opened a high

[1] The local Far-East hypermarket retailer, established in 1990, set a joint venture with French Géant in 2000. The Rt-MART hypermarket chain store, established in 1996, set a joint venture with French Auchan in 2001. Tesco established its first store in 2000.

number of outlets within the metropolitan areas, possessing strong purchasing power and marketing power (Syu, 2001). Consequently, three warehouse type hypermarkets have closed down in Taiwan, this includes the Dutch Makro Warehouse, ending its operation in 2003 and two local hypermarket chain stores. On the other hand, internet retailing, a new retail channel in the food industry, has helped transform the traditional retailing landscape in Taiwan. Many traditional independents and farmers' and fishermen's organisations, with guidance given by government, have developed private labels and provide internet shopping into their existing operations to extend their market reach (China Times, 05. 11, 2003). The slow growth of the Taiwanese population, combined with intense competition in the retail market has led to slower sales growth in the hypermarket and supermarket sector, however, one has to take account of the hypermarket model in Taiwan having yet to be developed to its full potential. According to hypermarket retailers' reports it is estimated that every 100,000 of the population can support one hypermarket store, if this is the case then it is apparent that the food retail market in Taiwan can support at least 200 hypermarket stores. Ting (1999) further indicates that because hypermarket store attributes meet consumer preferences, the hypermarket is likely to continue to grow and ultimately surpass the lead currently held by the department store and finally become the major player in the Taiwanese grocery retailing sector.

Nowadays, most of the newly developed hypermarket stores are located on the edge of cities or in dense metropolitan areas. Today's hypermarket is a tall, multi-story, state-of-the-art building with a parking facility designed to provide over 1,000 parking spaces within a modernised complex. The size varies across cities and counties; the breadth and depth of product assortment being different, depending on the size of the store. The new stores are relatively much larger than, say, the UK, typically over

360,000 square feet in area. [Essentially, a superstore with an area of 40,000 to 60,000 square feet would be regarded as a large grocery store in U.K.] They carry over 40,000-60,000 items. There are all kinds of restaurants and food courts for eating and drinking, computer solutions, home decoration, fashion shops, cosmetic stores, pharmacies, car dealers, child care facilities and various forms of entertainment in the hypermarket shopping area (Ting, 1999; Jhang, 2002).

In summary, the developing processes of the food retail sector in the Taiwanese market from the 1960s up until the present day have been summarised in Table 1.1 indicating that the traditional markets dominated the food retail market in the 1960s. However, the emergence of supermarkets and convenience stores threatened the market share of the traditional markets in the 1970s. The rapid development of the supermarkets and the convenience stores further reduced the market share of the traditional market and forced many traditional corner stores to become convenience stores in the 1980s. Until their emergence in the 1990s, hypermarkets and convenience stores rapidly expanded, thus posing a threat to the development of the supermarkets, while the traditional market remained at a standstill.

From 2000 onward, competition within the food retail market became intensified. An international warehouse store retailer, Makro, ended its operation disadvantaged by its location and the intensification of low-price competition from the hypermarkets. Hypermarket retailers have since slowed the speed at which they have opened new stores. The hypermarket and supermarket are now in a stage of consolidation. At the same time, traditional markets are also undergoing renovation, being modernised by central and local governments.

Appendix C1a
Screening Criteria:

Profile of focus group participants

1. **Your gender:** ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. **Your age:** ☐ Under 30 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ Over 60

3. **Your marital status:** ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced/separated

   ☐ Widowed

4. **The highest level of education you have completed:**

   ☐ ~High School ☐ College/University ☐ Postgraduate

5. **Your present work?**

   ☐ Executive or managerial ☐ Professional ☐ Self-employee

   ☐ Civil service ☐ Clerical ☐ Semi-skilled ☐ Framer or fisherman

   ☐ Full-time homemaker ☐ Student ☐ Retire

   ☐ Other________(please specify)

6. **Your family's total annual income?**

   ☐ Under NT$ 1,000,000 ☐ NT$ 1,000,001 – 1,800,000

   ☐ NT$ 1,800,001 – 2,400,000 ☐ NT$ 2,400,001 or more

Appendix C1b
Discussion Guide for Consumers' Perception of the Hypermarket, Supermarket and Traditional Market

I. Explanation of focus group/rules (10 minutes)

1. Explain focus groups and the purpose of this discussion.
2. No correct answers-only your opinions. You are speaking for many other people like yourself.
3. Need to hear from everyone.
4. Audiotapes and videotapes. Because I want to concentrate on what you have to say, so I don't have to take notes.
5. Please, only one person talking at a time. No side discussions. I am afraid I'll miss some important comments.
6. Do not ask me questions because what I know and what I think are not important. It is what you think and how you feel that are important. That's why we are here.
7. Do not feel bad if you do not know much about some of the things we'll be talking about, that's OK. If your view is different from that of others in the group, that is important for us to know. Do not be afraid to be different. We are not looking for everyone to agree on something unless they really do.
8. We need to cover a series of topics, so I will need to move the discussing along at times. Please do not offend.

II. Opinions and attitudes toward – hypermarket, supermarket, and traditional market - where you buy food and groceries for you and your family (60 minutes)

1. Please give us your own opinions regarding where you buy food and groceries, and how you feel about it. (20 minutes)
2. Do you and your family also go shopping at other formats? Please state your

reasons. And how you feel about it. (20 minutes)

3. a) To what extent do religious, belief, customs, values and life style factors influence your store choice? (10 minutes)

   b) To what extent has changing shopping habits affected you and your family' life style? (10 minutes)

III. The contents of the questionnaire (20 minutes)

Now, I will give you a questionnaire. Please fill it out and mark the sections and sentences you do not quiet understand or awkward wording. Let's do it section by section and discuss it. How you dislike it.

IV. Overall evaluation (10 minutes)

Now, before we break up, I'd like you to state your own opinion regarding today's discussion on different retail formats. Your comments on this discussion will be most valuable.

Appendix C2a
大賣場座談會

2002/11/30　15:00　士林 **簡太太家**　女姓：**7** 人

（其中劉太太因實際在大賣場購買經驗較少，故未參與座談，實際座談人數變爲 6 人）

壹、　座談會規則之說明及大家自我介紹

貳、　問題：

1. 你對大賣場的看法

黃太太：因爲需要，我與先生常去逛大賣場當作散步，他喜歡看汽車用品，我則看一般日用品。

莊太太：我喜歡去 Costco 和家樂福，特別是 Costco 因爲它的品質，不管是吃的、用的、喝的都比較好，但相對的數量較大，所以價錢較高。像菜、牛奶我就會在家樂福購買，我的考量主要是量與質。我因在美國待過，所以對 Costco 比較會想去。對大賣場有促銷商品時我會去買，日用品有急需時我會就近購買。有時也會和朋友一起到大賣場去閒逛。

蔡太太：我會依食品與日用品來考慮購買地點，一般日用品在大賣場有各種品牌所以我會去大賣場買，有時它們也會有促銷，這時我可能會多買一些，生鮮食品我會去傳統市場買，冷凍食品就會到大賣場去。大賣場的選擇性多，產品又重視保存期限，又有大停車場，假日時，我們就會來一次全家一起購物，這是傳統市場所不能給予的，而且它的營業時間也比較長。

吳太太：我喜歡到大賣場去，因它有一些進口商品，而且它有停車場，下雨天也不會淋到雨，時間上也很方便，晚上假日去逛個二小時都很合適，而且它們都有周期性的打折活動，東西便宜，同時是大公司，品質上也比較好，可放心購買，同時許多東西在傳統市場也看不到，我也會看到大賣場的促銷廣告而去不同的大賣場，同時全家一起去時也促銷全家和樂。

吳小姐：我們家不開伙，所以沒有買菜的問題。我喜歡到大賣場去，是因爲我可以一邊看一邊想那些可以買，例如看見牛奶，就想到我兒子要喝牛奶，大賣場可以吹冷氣，又好停車，買完東西後可以直接將推車推到車旁相當方便。

簡太太：到大賣場可以試吃，好吃就會買回來。因爲我先生是賣飲料香料的，所以常到大賣場與超市看看有那些新產品。

1. 你與家人還會去其它市場嗎？

簡太太：我會去傳統市場，東西看得到，摸得到，而且攤商和藹可親，會稱呼你的名字，東西可以要多少就買多少。

吳小姐：我頂多會去超市買藥品，不是刻意去，只會去百貨公司時順道去。

吳太太：我們家青菜吃得多，不會去超市或大賣場買，因爲他們都整理過，裝袋價格比較高，非常划不來，我會在傳統市場買，同時，攤商也比較客氣，買久了也有感情、肉類也會在傳統市場買，比較新鮮，一般的乾料食品偶而會在超市買。

蔡太太：傳統市場可選擇肉類的部位及數量，而且比較新鮮、蔬菜也是傳統市場比較新鮮，超市的保麗龍包裝不符合環保，同時它的蔬菜也水洗過比較不容易保鮮。

莊太太：我不常煮飯，偶爾需要會去超市買一點，當晚要的菜兩三樣、也會去黃昏市場，大部分是方便性考量，那裏有那裏買。

黃太太：到傳統市場可以討價還價

2. 價值觀或生活型態的改變，會影響你的市場選擇嗎？

黃太太：都沒改變，因爲方便就好。

莊太太：時間足夠我會去大賣場，不夠則去超市，若家裏有特別需要我去傳統市場，各方面都是以方便時效爲考量。

蔡太太：大賣場東西多，選擇多，一般的用品我都會去大賣場買，生鮮食品我還是去傳統市場，而且傳統市場也在轉變中，變得比較乾淨，同時買東西後也可請他們送回來，這是超市與大賣場所沒有的。大賣場的營業時間較長，對上班的我好處也很多。

吳太太：因爲考慮新鮮度，我一定會到傳統市場買菜及雞鴨魚肉，至於日用品我會到大賣場，不僅便宜，同時銷售比較快，所以產品比較新，比較有保障，雖然大賣場的雞鴨魚肉比較便宜，但品種品質比較差所以我不會在那裏買。

吳小姐：大賣場寬敞，買的東西排列整齊，容易購買，不像傳統商店，黑暗擁擠，至於價值多寡不會影響我的購買意願。

簡太太：我和她相反，我會去傳統商店買，因爲可以問老闆商品的使用方法。

莊太太：我認爲不是價錢會影響，是因爲根本沒殺想到傳統市場和大賣場的價格會相差很大，只是因爲方便考量而就近購買。

3. 宗教信仰會影響您的市場選擇嗎？

黃太太：我們信佛教，傳統市場有我們需要的一切東西。

莊太太：超市無法提供我要拜拜的東西，而傳統市場的老闆會爲你準備你要拜拜的東西，因爲自己不懂，所以需要有人告訴你要如何購買，實在是方便的。

蔡太太：拜拜的東西我都會在傳統市場買，因爲老闆會告訴你如何使用，在超市沒有人會告訴你如何拜。去年我公公過逝，商店老闆就會教我買什麼東西拜拜。

吳太太：我會在傳統市場買所有拜拜的東西，雖然大賣場有，不過對他們的品質不信任，我還是會在傳統市場買。

吳小姐：我沒有這種問題，因爲我不拜拜，也不煮飯。

簡太太：我喜歡在傳統市場買回來，自己整理比較乾淨，比較放心。

4. 傳統習俗會影響你的市場選擇嗎？

簡太太：傳統節日我會到傳統市場去買，因爲選擇性很多。

黃太太：超市的年糕因爲要保存久，所以通常放了防腐劑，新鮮度比較差。

吳小姐：我們家都固定在某些專賣店購買過節的商品，因爲它們的東西比較好吃。

吳太太：吃的東西我們一定會在傳統市場購買，而乾料如餅乾、罐頭，我就會到大賣場買，一次可購足，不僅便宜，還可刷卡好處多多。

蔡太太：傳統市場的商品比較符合我們的口味，而大賣場因大量製造，口味上就比傳統市場差，因此食品我們在到傳統市場買，乾料等會在大賣場買。

莊太太：我也是一樣，食品會在特定的商店購買（因爲好吃，我信任它們），一般的飲料，罐頭則到大賣場買。

吳太太：大賣場有些商品不能買，例如蛋黃酥，外面一個３５元，大賣場一個只賣１７元，品牌一樣，吃起來就是不一樣。

莊太太：消費者現在已聰明了，什麼東西要在那邊買都非常清楚了。

5. 問卷（請大家現在填問卷）——並給于評論

- 問題太多了
- 看到問題這麼多根本就不想填
- 台灣民俗風情不同，根本不想幫你
- 我們也告訴小孩不能在外面填問卷
- 利用小孩從學校帶回來，我們會填

6. 消費習慣的改變，是否改變你與家人的生活型態？

莊太太：帶來更多的方便性。

蔡太太：可以帶小孩去，親子關係更好。

吳太太：有些商品是小孩喜歡的，我會很樂意的幫他買，也會邀他們一起去，對我是一種鼓勵。

吳小姐：大賣場有些商是自己小孩所喜愛的，買回家後會得到小孩的肯定。

簡太太：小孩喜歡和我去大賣場，因他們可要求幫他們買他們喜歡的東西，一方面小孩高興，另外也增進親子關係。

Appendix C2a
Focus Group Discussion of the Hypermarket

Date and Time : 30/11/2002 Saturday 15:00-16:20
Venue : Si-Lin, Taipei City
Participants : Six females and Researcher

I. Introduction

Researcher: Self-introduction and explanation of discussion guide and rule.

II. Discussion – Opinions and attitudes toward the hypermarkets

Researcher: Please give us your own opinions regarding the hypermarket where you buy food and groceries, and how you feel about it.

Mrs. Wong: My husband and I will go to the hypermarket because of our needs. We also treat shopping in the hypermarket as taking a stroll. My husband likes to look at the things for vehicles and I like to look the daily necessities in general.

Mrs. Chong: I like to go to Costco and Carrefour, in particular, in Costco, the quality of the food and the commodities is better. As the relative quantity per package is big, the price is higher. I will buy vegetable and milk in Carrefour. My consideration mainly is the quantity and the quality. As I once lived in the United States, I prefer to shop at Costco. When the hypermarkets have some special sales, I will go there. If I have some urgent needs of the daily necessities, I will go to the shops nearby. Sometimes, I will go to the hypermarkets with my friend and have a walk.

Mrs. Choy: I will decide where to shop according to the kinds of the food and daily necessities. In hypermarkets, they sell different brands of the daily necessities. So, I will go to the hypermarkets to buy these things. If they have special sales, I may go there and buy some as well. For fresh food, I will go to the traditional market. For frozen food, I will go to the hypermarkets. In hypermarkets, you will have a lot of choices, and they also pay attention to the expiry date of the preservation of the commodities. They also provide large car parks. On holidays, my whole family will go there together for shopping. It cannot be comparable to the traditional markets. Moreover, the opening hours of the hypermarkets are relatively longer.

Mrs. Wu: I like to go to shop in the hypermarkets because they sell imported commodities. Besides, they have car parks and you will not get wet to enter into the hypermarkets even in the rainy days. Time is also convenient, and it is also suitable to shop in the hypermarkets for a few hours in the evening or on holidays. Moreover, they also have periodical special discount sales and the commodities are cheap. Since they are big companies, I can rely on the quality. They also sell a wider variety of commodities than in the traditional markets. I will go to the hypermarkets when I know from their advertisements that there are special sales. My whole family will go to the hypermarkets as a kind of entertainment.

Miss Wu: Since my family does not have dinner at home very often, I don’t need to go to the market for vegetable. I like to go to the hypermarkets because I can walk around and buy what I need. For example, when I see milk on the shelf, it will remind me to buy it for my son. Besides, the hypermarkets are air-conditioned and have car parks. After the purchase, I can use the trolley and get all the stuff to my car direct. It is very convenient.

Mrs. Kan: Sometimes, the hypermarkets offer food trials. You can try the food before you buy it. As my husband sells drinks and spice, we like to go to the hypermarkets and supermarkets to have a look of those new products.

Researcher: Do you and your family also go to other places to buy food? And how you feel about them?

Mrs. Kan： I go to the traditional market as I can see and touch the commodities. Besides, the vendors are kind and friendly; they will even call your name. I can buy the exact quantity I like.

Miss Wu: I will go the supermarket to buy medicine. But I will not go there particularly but just on my way to the department store.

Mrs. Wu: My family likes to eat green vegetable. I do not like to buy it from the supermarkets or hypermarkets, because they process it and the price after packaging is expensive. Therefore, I will go to the traditional markets to buy it. Besides, the vendors are more polite to the customers and you will build up a relationship with them. The meat in the traditional market is relatively fresher. For the general dry commodities, I will buy from the supermarkets.

Mrs. Choy: In traditional markets, I can choose which part and how much of meat I will buy. Moreover, it is relatively fresher. Same for the vegetable. In supermarkets, the packaging is not environmental friendly. The vegetable has been washed and that is the reason it is difficult to keep it freshness.

Mrs. Chong: I do not often cook. Sometimes, I will go to the supermarket to buy something for dinner. I will go to the evening market as well. I will consider the convenience and decide where to buy.

Mrs. Wong: In traditional markets, I can negotiate the price.

Researcher: What the effect on value judgment or lifestyle influent your choice of market?

Mrs. Wong: No much change, only the consideration of convenience matters.

Mrs. Chong: If time permits, I will go to the hypermarket. If not, I will go to the supermarket. I will go to the traditional market if I need something special there. In all, time effectiveness is the main consideration for me.

Mrs. Choy: In hypermarkets, they sell a wider variety of commodities and I can have more choices. For general necessities, I will go to hypermarkets. For fresh food, I will go to the traditional markets. I notice that the traditional markets are changing as well, they become cleaner. Besides, after the purchase, you can ask them to deliver the things to your home. It makes no difference with the supermarkets and hypermarkets in respect of this. The opening hours of hypermarkets are longer and it is beneficial to the working people.

Mrs. Wu: Because of the importance of freshness, I will go to the traditional markets to buy vegetable, poultry and fish. For daily necessities, I will go to hypermarkets, not only because the price is cheaper, but also they sell the commodities more quickly. The products are relatively new and have better protection. Although the poultry and fish are cheaper in the hypermarkets, the qualities are not so good. That's why I will not go there to buy the same.

Miss Wu: The hypermarkets are spacious and the commodities are put on the shelves very tidily. It is easy to buy. Unlike the traditional shops which are dark and crowded. The value of the commodities will not affect my desire to buy.

Mrs. Kan: I hold the opposite opinion from her. I will go to the traditional shops to buy commodities because you can consult the shopkeepers for the instructions or methods for their application.

Mrs. Chong: I think the price will not affect the choice of the markets because the price difference of the commodities between the traditional markets and hypermarkets is not so great. The only consideration is the distance convenience.

Researcher: What the effects on religions or beliefs, influent your choice of market?

Mrs. Wong: My family members are Buddhists. The traditional markets have all kinds of commodities we need for my religion.

Mrs. Chong: Supermarkets do not sell the things we require for the worship. The vendors in the traditional markets will help you prepare the things require for the worship. Sometimes, I don't know what I need for the worship. So, it is very convenient if someone can tell you what to buy.

Mrs. Choy: I will buy the things for worship in the traditional markets because the vendor will tell you how to use the things. But in supermarkets, no one will tell you how to worship. Last year, my grandfather passed away, the vendor taught me what to buy for the ceremony.

Mrs. Wu : I will buy all the things for worship in the traditional markets. Although you can buy the same in the hypermarkets, I don't trust the quality. I will buy in the traditional market.

Miss Wu: I don't have such a problem, because I don't worship or cook.

Mrs. Kan: I like to buy from the traditional markets. I feel more comfortable if I deal with the things by myself.

Researcher: Will the traditional customs/festival affect your choice of markets?

Mrs. Kan: On traditional festival, I will go to the traditional markets to buy things because the choices are wider.

Mrs. Wong: The lunar cakes in the supermarket contain preservatives for the purpose of preserving for a longer time. Therefore, they are not so fresh.

Miss Wu: My family will go to some specialty shops to buy the food for the traditional festivals because the food is more delicious.

Mrs. Wu: My family will go to the traditional markets to buy food. But for the dry items, like biscuits, canned food, I will go to the hypermarkets to buy the same. You can go there and buy all you need under one roof. The commodities are cheaper and you can use credit card for payment.

Mrs. Choy: The commodities in the traditional markets are much more suitable to our taste. The commodities in hypermarkets are produced in a large quantity; the taste will be poorer than those in the traditional market. So, I will go to the traditional market to buy food and to the hypermarkets for dry items.

Mrs. Chong: Same for me. I will go to the specific shops for food because it is more delicious and I trust them. For drinks and canned food, I will go to hypermarkets.

Mrs. Wu: There is something you should not buy in the hypermarkets. For example, egg yolk pastry is sold at NTD 35 outside and in hypermarkets; it only costs NT$ 17. The brand may be the same but the taste is so different.

Mrs. Chong: Customers become wiser now. They know clearly about the right place to buy the right things.

Researcher: Does the change of the consumption habit affect the lifestyle of you and your family? Or does the lifestyle of you and your family affects your consumption habit?

Mrs. Chong: It brings a lot of convenience.

Mrs. Choy: I can bring my children to go to the hypermarkets together, which will enhance the parental relationship with the children.

Mrs. Wu: I am very willing to buy some commodities for my children. I will ask them to go together. It is a kind of encouragement to me as well.

Miss Wu: There are some commodities in hypermarkets, which the children like very much. I will buy them to get them home and I can get the affirmation from the children.

Mrs. Kan: The children like to go to the hypermarkets because they can ask us to buy something they like. They are happy and it enhances the loving relationship between the parents and children.

III. Questionnaire:

Researcher: Now, lets doing the questionnaire. Please feel free to ask questions when you don't understand or feel confuse about the wording?

Participants: Comments on the questionnaires

- Too many questions.
- I don't want to fill in the questionnaires when I see there are too many questions.
- In Taiwan, the culture is so different. The people are reluctant to help you fill in the questionnaires.
- I always teach my children not to help strangers to fill the questionnaires outside.
- If my children bring the questionnaires back from school, I will complete them.

Appendix C2b
超級市場座談會

2002/12/06 13:00 淡水 女姓：**7** 人

壹、 座談會規則的說明及自我介紹

貳、 問題討論

1. 你對超市的看法？

李太太：超市裏有空調，擺設都很整齊，很容易買到你想要買的東西，對上班族來說，下班後用半小時的時間即可在超市裏買齊，省時省力好處很多。而且超市的品質也比較好，對提高生活水準很有幫助。

賴小姐：因爲我家附近就有超市，所以便利性是第一考量。同時它也會有促銷商品，開店時間比較長，時間的便利性對上班族也是很有吸引力，整體的清潔與空調讓人感到很舒服。

溥小姐：我一般會去傳統市場買菜，日用品則到超市去買，超市買日用品很方便，可以自己挑選，生鮮食品除非臨時需要才會到超市買。

楊奶奶：我比較喜歡到傳統市場買菜，因爲常可以買到剛從田裏收割下來的蔬菜，吃起來比較健康。到超市去主要買日用品。

沈小姐：傳統市場我是比較常去，超市讓人感到乾淨舒適。我會在超市特賣期間優閒的購物，通常都會買更多的東西回來。

張小姐：到超市買東西要發票，又因我有記帳的習慣，所以到超市買菜對我來說更爲方便。

陳小姐：我大部分時間都在傳統市場購買，魚類決不會在超市買，因爲已包起來，不知已放了幾天也不知道，至於日用品我則會在超市或大賣場購買。

2. 你還會去其它市場嗎？

陳小姐：我家人偶而會去大賣場，東西不僅便宜，也有很多進口商品，同時也可消磨時間，常常不知不覺中就在裡頭走上半天，花費將近萬元。在那裏常可買到外面所沒有的商品，又不用受風吹雨打。

張小姐：以前我們家常會去大賣場購買，每次都買很多，回家用很久才會用完，同時也需額外空間去放置這些東西，久了發現如此並未省下多少錢，目前已改到超市購買了。

沈小姐：上大賣場是我們全家的活動，一到假日小孩常會要求上大賣場，我們會在那裏吃飯、買東西、消磨半天。

楊奶奶：我們會到大賣場買日用品，但是生鮮食品絕不到超市或大賣場買，因爲過去有過不好的經驗，家人從此喜歡到傳統市場買生鮮食品，以新鮮爲考量。

溥小姐：過年節時，傳統市場的價格會上漲，我會到超市去買，平時我則到傳統市場去買。

賴小姐：我不是很喜歡到大賣場去，因爲每次都會買了一些不該買的東西回來。至於家裏有家電用品要替換時，就會上大賣場。有時小孩會要求上大賣場，我們就會帶他們去。我們家是小家庭，生鮮食品除了上傳統市場買外，也很喜歡到超市買小包裝的。

李太太：到傳統市場可以買到小時候想吃的東西，各種點心都可以在傳統市場得到回味，假日時，全家人都可一起到大賣場去，又可在裡面用餐，東西種類也多，進口商品也很多，好處很多。

陳太太：又在超市及大賣場常會有新產品試吃，我可以從中了解新品的特點，以幫助我的日後購買。

3. 價值觀對市場選擇的影響

李太太：我喜歡追求流行愛用外國產品，因此常到大賣場或超市購買進口商品，這樣讓我能不時得跟上國際的潮流。傳統的東西我就會到傳統市場買。

賴小姐：我會依我所要商品的性質而決定到不同的市場，例如傳統市場有時也會有好看、便宜、而又流行的服飾，我會買來穿，而家電產品我會直接到大賣場參觀比較，然後決定購買，日常的居家用品我也選擇上超市或大賣場，我喜歡在乾淨、舒適的環境下購買。

溥小姐：我都是以方便爲主，臨時急需的東西我會在我家附近的超市買，若時間足夠的話我會多逛逛，我會在超市買買零嘴、鮮奶。生鮮食品一定會到傳統市場購買，因爲超市的東西好像放好多天了，沒有信心。家電產品我不會到大賣場買，因爲那天壞了，搬來搬去的很麻煩。

楊奶奶：我比較傳統，大部分東西我會到傳統市場買，先生會陪我上傳統市場，女兒陪我上大賣場，女兒喜歡大賣場，所以有女兒陪伴就會上大賣場。

沈小姐：我會上大賣場買東西，因爲它有不滿意、不適用可退貨的保証。至於好一點的東西或進口產品，我喜歡到超市購買，品質好，價錢公道。普通的居家用品或用一用就要丟棄的東西，我就會到傳統市場去買，因爲它實在便宜許多。

陳小姐：我的兒女都很喜歡到大賣場，因此假日時我會常和他們到大賣場，平時我喜歡在早上人還不多

的時候，自己一人到大賣場逛，很輕鬆、很自由。不過我不會在大賣場買家電，因爲常聽人說大賣場的電器用品大都是次級品，因爲買回家還沒用就壞了，送修又很麻煩，所以我家都是在專賣店買。

4. 宗教信仰傳統習俗會影響你的市場選擇嗎？

陳小姐：重要的節日例如過年時，我會到各種不同的市場比較價錢，因爲我是家庭主婦，時間比較多，那裏便宜那裡買。傳統市場到了節日時反而會漲價，所以我大部分都會在超市、大賣場買，因爲大節日時，它們反而會有折扣促銷活動。

沈小姐：民俗節日時，傳統市場非常擁擠，而且價錢還會提高，所以我反而喜歡到超市買各種食品、零嘴。不過魚就不會在超市買。

楊奶奶：過節時我會在傳統市場或超市購買，但過年時傳統市場東西變貴，又放假，所以我反而會到超市購買家裏的需要。因爲人口少不會到大賣場去。

溥小姐：我都一樣和平時沒有多大的改變，平日上傳統市場，過年過節上超市和大賣場，因爲那時傳統市場東西賣得比較貴。

賴小姐：民俗節日時，我反而會到傳統市場去，因爲在那裏可以買到各種拜拜時要用的東西，一次可以全部買齊，相當方便。

李太太：拜拜的日子我會到傳統市場，過年過節時我會到超市或大賣場。傳統市場的攤商都會爲拜拜的日子，準備各種材料、物品以利我們拜拜。

5. 生活型態的改變，會影響您的市場選擇嗎？

李太太：我的小孩都長大出國念書，我也自然的常到國外，因此接觸到國外產品，而且他們的東西功能品質都比國產品牌好，因此當我在國內時常會上大賣場或超市買進口產品，現在的生活像是中西合壁，生活習性改變不少。

賴小姐：過去因爲跟婆婆住在一起，她只愛傳統市場的東西，現今小孩長大了，我們也搬出來住，我們是小家庭，因此上超市的比例也增加了，偶而也會去大賣場。

溥小姐：生活變得更方便了，選擇性也增加了，愛上那兒買就可上那兒買，假日時我都會和先生一同到大賣場，看看有什麼是家日常需要的東西。

楊奶奶：過年過節更是方便了，生活上因爲有更多的選擇方便不少。

沈小姐：真是太好了，大賣場進到台灣來，我們全家都可一起上街購物，什麼

都可買，全家都很高興，生活上的樂趣增加太多了，東西便宜，皆大歡喜。

陳小姐：有了超市及大賣場後，我的先生會跟我去買，過去他都不與我上傳統市場，而且我的女兒也會上大賣場購物。

6. 現今的政治、經濟、社會問題會影響你的市場選擇嗎？

陳小姐：生活一樣要過，外面如何變動，我們還是一樣沒有改變。

沈小姐：應該是沒有影響。

楊奶奶：是有影響，東西是會少買一點，也不會沒事就去逛街。

傅小姐：經濟的不安確實影響了我家的購買習慣，我會到不同市場比較價錢後

再決定要到哪裡去買。

賴小姐：吃的及生活日用品，這些東西不能少，其他東西能省的就不去買。

李太太：穿的、用的能省就省，吃的反而不能省，同時更必須兼顧到健康，該省的要省，該用的要用，吃要吃的健康。

結論: 生活形態受超市、大賣場的影響？

多元化、時間更多、選擇更多、更多選擇，任何時間都可上超市買，便利增加，價格便宜，東西有保障，不喜歡可以退貨

參、 問卷填寫

Appendix C2b
Focus Group Discussion of the Supermarket

Date and Time: 06/12/2002, Friday at 13:00~14:00
Venue: Tam-Sui, Taipei County
Participants: Six females and the Researcher

I. Introduction

Researcher: Self-introduction and Explanation of Discussion Guide and Rule

II. Discussion – Opinions and attitudes toward supermarkets

Researcher: Please give us your own opinions regarding the supermarket where you buy food and groceries, and how you feel about it.

Mrs. Li : The supermarkets are air-conditioned and very tidy. You can easily find the commodities you want to buy. As a member of the working class, I can make use of half an hour after work to go to the supermarket and buy everything I need. It saves much time and effort. Besides, the quality of the commodities is relatively better and the living standard is raised.

Miss Lai: As there is a supermarket near to my home, the convenience is my first consideration. Besides, it has special sales. The opening hours are longer and time convenience is also one of the attractions to the working class. In general, the clean and air-conditioning environment makes people feel very comfortable.

Miss Pou: I go to the traditional market to buy food. For daily necessities, I buy from supermarkets. It is more convenient to buy daily necessities from the supermarket and I can select those commodities I like. If I need the fresh food urgently, I will go to supermarket to buy it.

Mrs. Yang: I prefer buying food in the traditional market because I can always buy vegetable, which is freshly harvested from the field. It is healthier to eat fresh vegetables. For daily necessities, I buy from supermarkets.

Miss Shen: I usually go to the traditional markets. But the clean and neat environment of the supermarkets makes people feel comfortable. I go to the supermarkets for shopping when there are special sales. I often buy a lot of commodities.

Miss Chang: I can get the receipts for what I buy from the supermarkets. Since I use to keep an account of my expenses, it is more convenient to buy from the supermarkets.

Miss Chen: I always go to the traditional markets to buy food. I don’t buy fish or seafood in the supermarkets because most of them are wrapped. I don’t know how long they have kept it actually. I go to the supermarkets or hypermarkets for buying daily necessities.

Researcher: Do you and your family go to other places to buy food? And how do you feel about them?

Miss Chen: Occasionally, my family goes to the hypermarkets because the price is cheaper and they have a lot of imported commodities. We spend our time easily. Time goes so quickly that you may not notice that you have already spent half a day and a lot of money in the hypermarkets. I can find some commodities, which may not be found in other places. I can also shop in the hypermarkets regardless of the bad weather.

Miss Chang: In the past, my family used to shop at the hypermarkets. But every time, we bought a lot of things and it took a long time to use them all. Besides, we needed additional spaces to store those things. Then we found that it did not save money. Now, we have changed to shop at the supermarkets.

Miss Shen: Going to the hypermarket is a family activity. The children ask to go to the hypermarket on holidays. We eat and shop there. We usually spend half of the day there.

Mrs. Yang: We go to the hypermarkets for buying daily necessities. But we do not buy fresh food from the supermarkets or hypermarkets because we had some unhappy experiences in the past. We like to buy fresh food from the traditional markets. Freshness is the main consideration for us.

Miss Pou: During the Chinese New Year, the price will go up in the traditional markets. Then, I will buy from the supermarkets. Normally, I will buy from the traditional markets.

Miss Lai: I don’t like to shop at the hypermarkets because every time I go there, I will buy something I do not need. But if I need some electrical appliances, I will go to the hypermarket. Sometimes, when the children ask us to go to the hypermarkets, we will go there together. We are a small family. Apart from the traditional markets, I will go to the supermarkets to buy some food, which is in small packets.

Mrs. Li: In traditional markets, I can buy the food I like to eat. I can also buy different kinds of Dim Sum in the traditional markets, which bring a lot of good memories. On holidays, my family likes to go to the hypermarkets. We can eat there. The variety of commodities is very wide and different imported commodities are offered there. There are many advantages.

Mrs. Chen: In supermarkets and hypermarkets, I can try the new products and learn about the characteristics of the new products. It helps me decide what to buy in the future.

Researcher: What is the impact of value judgment on your choice of the markets?

Mrs. Li: I like to pursue and use the recently-invented imported goods. Therefore, I often go to the hypermarkets or supermarkets to buy imported goods. It enables me to understand the international trend. For general traditional things, I buy from the traditional markets.

Miss Lai: I go to different markets according to the nature of the goods I need. For example, I sometimes go to the traditional markets to buy some good-looking, cheap and fashionable clothes. For household electrical appliances, I go direct to the hypermarkets to compare. For daily household items, I buy from the supermarkets or hypermarkets. I like to shop in a clean and comfortable environment.

Miss Pou: I think convenience is important. If I need something urgently, I will buy from the supermarket near to my home. If time allows, I will shop at the supermarkets to buy snacks and milk. For fresh food, I will go to the traditional markets because the food in the supermarkets seems to have been kept for many days. I just don’t have confidence in the quality of their food. For household electrical appliances, I will not buy them from the hypermarkets, because if the appliances are not working after I buy them home, I have to bring it back to the hypermarkets for repairs or replacements.

Mrs. Yang: I am quite conservative and I like to buy most of the things from the traditional markets. My husband will go to the traditional markets with me. My daughter likes to go to the hypermarkets and I will go together with her.

Miss Shen: I buy from the hypermarkets because if I am not satisfied with the goods or I find them unsuitable, I can rely on the guarantee and return the goods and get refund. For some better goods and imported goods, I buy them from the supermarkets. The quality is better and the price is reasonable. For ordinary household items and disposable items, I buy them from the traditional markets because the price is lower.

Miss Chen : My children like to go to the hypermarkets very much. So, I go there with them on holidays. On weekdays, I like to shop at the hypermarkets by myself in the morning when there are not many people. It is so relaxing and carefree. I do not buy the household electrical appliances from the hypermarkets because the people always tell me that the hypermarkets sell the inferior ones. If the electrical appliances are not working after you buy them home, it is very troublesome to give them back for repairs. Therefore, we buy the electrical appliances at the specialty shops.

Researcher: What is the impact of traditional festivals and religions on your choice of markets?

Miss Chen: On some important traditional festivals like Chinese New Year, I will go to different markets to compare the prices. Being a housewife, I have a lot of time. So, I will go to the market where the goods are cheaper. In traditional markets, the prices will become higher on traditional festivals and I will buy most of the goods from the supermarkets or hypermarkets. They will have special sales on traditional festivals.

Miss Shen: On traditional festivals, the traditional markets are very crowded and the prices usually rise. I will go to the supermarkets to buy different kinds of food and snacks. But for fish, I will not buy it from the supermarkets.

Mrs. Yang: On traditional festivals, I will buy from traditional markets or supermarkets. During the Chinese New Year, the things in the traditional markets will become expensive. They will also close on Chinese New Year holidays. Therefore, I will go to the supermarkets to buy the things I need. Since my family does not have many members, I will not shop at the hypermarkets.

Miss Pou: It does not matter to me whether it is traditional festival or not. I go to the traditional markets as normal. But I will shop at the supermarkets and hypermarkets on traditional festivals or Chinese New Year because the goods become relatively expensive at that time in the traditional markets.

Miss Lai: On traditional festivals, I will shop at the traditional markets because I can buy all the things required for worship. It is so convenient.

Mrs. Li: When I need to worship, I will go to the traditional markets. The vendors in the traditional markets will help us prepare all the materials and things for the worship. On traditional festivals and the Chinese New Year, I will also shop at the supermarkets or hypermarkets.

Researcher: Does the change of the consumption habits affect the lifestyle of you and your family? Or does the lifestyle of you and your family affect your consumption habits?

Mrs. Li: Since my children study abroad, I have many opportunities to go abroad as well. I know many foreign brands and I find that their quality and functions are better, compared to the local products. Therefore, I like to go to the hypermarkets to look for the imported goods. Now, my lifestyle is like “East mix with West” and has changed a lot.

Miss Lai: In the past, I lived with my grandmother who likes to shop in the traditional markets. Now, I have grown up and have a small family of my own. I go to the supermarkets more often. Sometimes, I go to the hypermarkets as well.

Miss Pou: Life becomes more convenient as there are many choices available. You can shop at anywhere you like. On holidays, I go to the hypermarkets with my husband and look for something for our daily family needs.

Mrs. Yang: The hypermarkets and supermarkets provide much convenience on traditional festivals or Chinese New Year. They give us much more choices for our everyday life.

Miss Shen: It’s great as the hypermarkets enter into the Taiwanese market. Our whole family can go shopping together and buy a lot of things. We are happy and we get a lot of fun. The commodities are cheap and therefore everyone is very happy.

Miss Chen: After the existence of the supermarkets and hypermarkets, my husband will go shopping with me. In the past, he would not go to the traditional markets with me. Moreover, my daughter likes to go shopping at the hypermarkets as well.

Researcher: To what extent do political, economic, or social factors affect your choice of the markets?

Miss Chen: Life is the same, no matter how the external factors may change. We do not change much on the choice of the markets.

Miss Shen: I think there should not be any influence.

Mrs. Yang: Yes, it affects in such a way that we buy fewer things. We will not go shopping if not required.

Miss Pou: The instability of the economy really affects our consumption habit. I like to go to different markets to compare the prices before I decide where to buy the goods.

Miss Lai: Food and daily necessities are essential to our life. We save money by not buying the unnecessary things

Mrs. Lee: We try to save money on clothing and goods. We do not save money on food. At the same time, we consider our health. We save money as we should, buy as we should and eat the healthy food as we should.

Researcher: What is the impact of the change of lifestyle on your choice of markets?

Participants: Multi-purposes / more spare time / can choose more / more choices available / can buy from the supermarkets at any time / much more convenient / cheaper prices / more protection for the purchase of the commodities / if you don't like the commodities, you can return them and get refund.

III. Questionnaire:

Researcher: Please complete the questionnaire and feel free to ask questions when you don't understand or feel confused.

Time is running out. Some of the participants have to leave the focus group discussion and return to chorus now. Therefore the participants are unable to answer the remaining questions of the questionnaire.

Appendix C2c
傳統市場座談會

17/12/2002 Sunday 13:30-15:00 女姓：**8** 人

壹、 座談會規則之說明及大家自我介紹

貳、 問題討論

1. 你對傳統市場的看法

游媽：古時候的傳統習慣東西看的也摸得到，感覺新鮮，不像超市什麼東西都包起來在傳統市場買久了，與攤商間有親切感。

彩蓮姐：我喜歡到各種大小的傳統市場逛逛，看到喜歡的東西我就將它們買回家。

牧師娘：傳統市場離我家近，而且我也習慣在那裡買東西，與攤商間都非常熟悉，有親切感，地點近，東西也新鮮，所以我對傳統市場很有興趣。

郭太太：我也是一樣，傳統市場有親切感，品質較好，例如：豬肉品質比超市好，買回家打開不會有異味，而且豬肉彈性也不一樣，也可事先預定自己家裡想要買的部位及份量，與攤商熟悉後，他們了解你的需求，很有方便性，菜類也是一樣，買熟悉後他們會送你薑或蔥，這可是超市所沒有的，其實時間允許的話，在傳統市場也可一次購足。

安娜：我喜歡傳統市場，因東西有可以比較，例如可以在不同肉攤間比較肉質與價錢，但是到大賣場沒有人告訴你東西的好壞，只能挑自己喜歡的商品了。

雅音：人潮是吸引我去傳統市場的原因，人潮而且熱鬧，還可遇見認識的朋友，現在的家庭主婦常利用此機會東西可挑、可摸、例如魚可仔細檢視它的新鮮度，可以幫老闆挑剔它的品質，同時可增進彼此的信賴。雖然超市乾淨，卻很冷淡，冷漠，所以我喜歡去傳統市場。

張太太：大同小異喔！因爲買的很熟悉了，都在固定攤位買，攤主都會主動告訴你今天有你喜歡東西喔！因我特別在乎新鮮度，又可以依需要買多或買少，比超市方便多了。

另外問大家一個問題，多少天上傳統市場一次：每天去，常去，二天一次，想去就去，一星期一次因在上班。

2. 你有家人也到其他地方去買菜嗎？

張太太：因爲其他地方有拍賣，在這市場買久了，到其它市場比較一下，因爲好奇心。

雅音：我大都因爲晚上煮飯有少量急需，會到超市購買，否則一定到傳統市場。

安娜：我會到大賣場去買非食物類商品。

郭太太：我會在大賣場或超市有特賣活動時，例如：奶粉、咖啡、飲料等，不僅產品非常集中，而且常可發現剛上市的新產品，有時會因新產品的好奇心態而在大賣場買東西回來，而我去傳統市場就一定會買東西回來。

林太太：我會在大賣場有活動時或我有特定需求時，會到大賣場去買，例如日用商品或家電產品我會在大賣場購買。

牧師娘：我未曾去過大賣場，我會去超市買牛奶、牙膏、牙刷這類產品其它吃的東西我會到傳統市場買。爲何你不曾去大賣場？因爲需有人帶我去，我才會去，我會挑離我家最近的地方，取其方便。

彩蓮姐：我都與我兒子去大賣場，全部由兒子買，我只是去逛逛而已，不買任何東西。

游媽媽：因爲大賣場就在我家附近，我會去買衛生紙及各種調味料，現在又已退休，所以無聊時我會去走走，但每次都會買點東西回來，又大賣場有雜誌電器可看，有時覺得實用也會買回來。

3. 價值觀影響

游媽媽：因爲我家人口少，吃不多，所以買東西以精緻爲主，新鮮爲主，不需最上等貨色，例如電器不會去買便宜貨。

彩蓮姐：沒什麼影響，因爲都是由兒子決定。

牧師娘：以實用爲主，買吃的，日用品類我會到傳統市場。電器類我會考慮到大賣場買，主要考慮它的

使用耐久性，也會到其他的電器專賣店參觀比較。

林太太：我會以口碑的好壞決定購買的地點，一班耐用的電器我會到大賣場去買，一班的非耐久商品價錢不高的我會到附近的商品買。

郭太太：我會依商品的使用價值來考慮購買的地點，同時也會依家庭的預算來考慮購買的地點。

安娜：我會考慮價值可用性，若某地方有便宜好用的東西我會去買的。

雅音：吃的東西，我會追求精緻，而大賣場都以大包裝爲主，吃不完反而浪費，所以吃的東西會到傳統市場買。而電器用品，我不會到傳統市場買沒品牌的，我會考慮去大賣場，因有許多品牌可同時做比較。

張太太：我比較懶，不喜歡逛街，東西喜歡就買，但買電器類商品我會考慮售後服務，有品牌的商品比較有保障，不考慮到大賣場買，而會到電器專賣店去買，大賣場買的電器需要自己安裝，非常不方便。

4. 民間傳統習俗宗教信仰的影響？

游媽媽：家庭聚會時我會去買，反而民間習俗的節慶我不會去買，因爲太擁擠了，我會提早兩日去買。

彩蓮姐：因家庭冰箱大，而且市場近，所以特殊節日到，反而不須到市場去跟人家擠。

牧師娘：因家裡只有兩人，所以不會爲特別節目買東西。

林太太：平時上班，所以會利用節日或休假日去買東西。

郭太太：因爲我是基督徒所以不會因特別節日而去買特別的東西。

安娜：現代人的營養都很夠了，除了生日的特別日子外，我們不會爲節日而多買一些菜，只是會應節日而買一些食品。

雅音：家裡雖然不拜拜，但會因節日而購一些特別的食品，而且特別節日傳統市場的東西會更多，更好，更值得去逛逛。

張太太：我不喜歡在節日前去市場買菜，不僅擁擠，因我比較粗心，皮包被偷走而不自知。

5. 生活型態的改變會影響嗎？

張太太：我們家人口少，家人要吃什麼我就買什麼，所以我們家生活型態改變並未改變我的購買習慣。

雅音：應該沒影響，因為已習慣熟悉在固定的地方購買，年輕一代或許會改變。

安娜：我們家人的口味都沒什麼改變，因此大賣場的出現我家仍喜歡在傳統市場購買，我煮什麼他們就吃什麼。

郭太太：因為小孩子都已長大，也上班了，因此每天開伙次數減少，賣菜次數也減少，所以並沒有固定的購買時間或地點，有時會暫回家路上的超市買點東西帶回家。有時也會在週日時上市場一次購足，但蔬菜會再平日每天買一點，以維持新鮮度。

林太太：我們家到傳統市場或超市、大賣場買菜都只買一到二天的份量，不僅新鮮而且不容易浪費。

牧師娘：因家中只有兩人所以飲食很簡單，在附近市場買就好。

彩蓮姐：我家只需買魚和肉，蔬菜家中有種，而且我喜歡每天上市場買一點點。

游媽媽：退休前，每星期上市場買菜一次，每次買很多，因此東西也常常壞了。現在退休了，天天上市場買菜，每天買一點，也可打發時間。

休息

6. 政治、經濟或社會問題會影響你的商店選擇嗎？

游媽媽：政治並沒有影響，經濟有影響，現在買東西會節制一點，不過還是繼續在傳統市場購買，需要

多少才買多少，不會多買，社或狀況不好反而喜歡到傳統市場去因可獲得一些資訊。

彩蓮姐：因現在只有兩人住在一起，經濟問題對我們沒有影響，我也沒上班，所以社會如何變化都對我沒有影響。

牧師娘：都不會有什麼大影響，只是在傳統市場買菜，常常會遇到大家在討論政治與經濟的問題。不過也看到大家大包小包的買，好像都沒有受到經濟問題的影響，大家都說吃的歸吃的，不能受經濟的影響。

林太太：經濟影響很大的，我們公司近來都沒有發獎金，所以過去到大賣場會大包小包買很多，現今只會有需要才買，不會多買。因爲社會的變遷，大部分時間都在上班，有時間才會到大賣場，不然都以附近方便就好。

郭太太：政治沒有很直接的影響，經濟影響的購買力，買東西時多少會考慮到預算問題，家庭主婦買菜大都會往鄰近的市場，我是上班族，我會在回家路上會鄰近公司市場買。

安娜：過去沒上班時，我時常上市場逛，現在上班後反而沒有那麼有時間，經濟狀況不好，我都會在購買時買少一點，不會像過去那樣大方。

雅音：現在到市場去好像大部分東西都比較便宜了，我家在購買上都有固定的預算，因此經濟的影響很小。

張太太：我去市場買菜，若發現攤商與我是不同政黨，我會不跟他買。

7. 消費習慣的改變是否影響您與家人的生活型態，或是生活型態的改變而影響了你的消費習慣？

游媽媽：因爲以再上班又沒有週休二日，週日又得上教堂，每有多餘的時間，所以每次上市場買菜都很趕，隨便買一大推。現在退休了，兒女都會在週日回來，所以我會在週六上市場挑選，週日時請他們送週日的菜來，這樣比較新鮮，實用。

彩蓮姐：小孩很少回家吃飯，我也不喜歡到大賣場，因此我的消費習慣沒什麼改變，都由小孩買回來。

牧師娘：我的小孩及媳婦都會在週一回來，因此週一的菜會比較多，買他們喜歡的。現在買的東西較重視健康，煮菜的方法也追求少油少調味料。

林太太：我上課有機課後，現在買菜，煮菜都用有機菜，雖然超市大賣場有賣有機食物，但數量及品質上的考慮，我都會到專賣店去買。

郭太太：小孩子長大後，我們家的生活型態慢慢改變了，隨著社會的進步，我們的生活也跟著改變，因此方便性與時間性的考量決定了我家的消費習慣。

安娜：因小孩都以上班了，因此我們兩老時常到外面吃，煮飯次數也減少了，買的食物重視健康，少肉多蔬菜，煮菜以水煮爲主。

雅音：因小孩外宿，我會到大賣場買餅乾或便利的東西讓小孩帶去。

張太太：我們家沒有多大改變，依然在傳統市場買。

郭太太：現在大賣場飲料都是一箱一箱的賣，無形中也造成現代人的肥胖。

游太太：現在大都是小家庭，年輕婦女大都不會煮飯，平時又喜歡到外面吃，加上外面餐廳日益增加，買菜的人也就越少。

8. 另外各位會到市場、超市或大賣場買已經煮好的食物嗎？

不太會，口味不合，種類少，會去大賣場買火鍋料

參、問卷塡寫與評估：

A.已婚，寡居

B.我都是自己一人去買

C.公里數？走路時間？買的金額過大？

E.解釋第 21 題，要發票的，大都會去超市或大賣場。

問卷內容整體評估：

- 內容很適當
- 內容應簡化，字體放大，家庭收入是敏感話題
- 內容太長了
- 可能只有老太太才會幫你塡，上班族不可幫你塡的。

Appendix C2c
Focus Group discussion of Traditional Market

Date and Time : 17/12/2002 Sunday 13:30-15:00
Venue : Si-Lin, Taipei City
Participants : 8 persons (all female) and Researcher

I. Introduction

Researcher: Self-introduction and Explanation of the Discussion Guide and Rule (about 6 minutes)

Participants: Mrs. Yu; Mrs. Lau; Mrs. Yang; Mrs. Ko; Anna; Yi-Ing; Mrs. Chung; Mrs. Lin.

II. Discussion – Opinions and attitudes toward traditional markets

Researcher: Please give us your own opinions regarding the traditional market where you buy food and groceries, and how you feel about it.

Mrs. Yu: Since a long time ago, it has been a custom for the people to go to the traditional market. You can see and touch the things selling in the traditional market. You can feel their freshness. It is not comparable to those selling in the supermarket, where everything is wrapped. When you go to the traditional market more often, you can also develop a friendly relationship with the vendors in the traditional market.

Mrs. Lau: I like to shop around the traditional markets of different sizes. When I see something I like, I will buy it.

MRS. YANG: The traditional market is close to my home and I get used to buy things there. I am very familiar with the vendors. I feel friendship in the traditional market. As the traditional market is located nearby and the food is fresher than others, I like traditional market.

MRS. KO Me, too. I feel warmth and friendliness in the traditional market. Moreover, the quality of the food in the traditional markets is better, such as pork. The quality of pork selling in the traditional market is better than that in the supermarket. There is no odd smell from the pork bought in the traditional market. The tenderness of the pork is also different.

Besides, you can order in advance for the pork specifically as to which part and how much you require. If you are familiar with the vendors, it will be more convenient as they will know your needs. Similarly, the quality of vegetables in the traditional market is better. When you are familiar with the vendors, they will give you some complimentary ginger or spring onions. In supermarkets, they won't give you the same. In fact, if time allows, you can buy all you want in the traditional market just for one visit.

ANNA: I like traditional market, because I can compare the goods. For example, I can compare the price and quality of the food selling in different butchers in the traditional market. But in the hypermarket, no one will tell me whether the goods are good or not and I will only choose the brands I like.

YI-ING: The flock of customers is the reason why I like to go to the traditional market. There are usually many people in the traditional market and the atmosphere is very busy. Sometimes, I can meet some of my friends there. Nowadays, many housewives take that opportunity to meet their friends.

You can choose and pick the things you want. For example, you can check the freshness of fish. You can criticize the quality of the goods selling in the traditional market and discuss with the vendors. It helps build up the mutual understanding and trust between the customers and the vendors. Although the supermarket is cleaner than the traditional market, the atmosphere of the supermarket is cold, without warm feeling or friendliness. That's why I like to go to the traditional market.

MRS. CHUNG: I go to the traditional market with similar reasons as mentioned before. I am very familiar with the traditional market. The vendors can be found in their permanent stalls. Sometimes, when I arrive at the traditional market, the vendors will tell me that they have something I like. Because I am very concerned with the freshness of the food and I can buy the quantity according to my needs, it is more convenient to buy from the traditional markets than in the supermarkets.

Researcher: I would like to ask another question: How often you go to the

traditional market?

Participants: Everyday/often/once every two days/go whenever I want/once a week.

Researcher: Do you and your family go to other places to buy food? And how do you feel about them?

MRS. CHUNG: Yes, because there are sales in other places. When I buy things in that traditional market, I will go to other markets to compare. I am interested to know about the difference.

YI-ING: I usually cook at night. Sometimes, I need something at the time I cook. Then, I will go to the supermarket to buy it. Otherwise, I will buy from the traditional market.

ANNA: I go to the hypermarket to buy non-food items.

MRS. KO: I buy from the hypermarkets or supermarkets when they have some special sales for the products, like milk powder, coffee, drinks etc. In hypermarkets and supermarkets, the products of similar categories are put together and you can find new products as well. Sometimes, I go to the hypermarket to buy the new products I am interested in. But whenever I go to the traditional market, I will buy something.

MRS. LIN: I will go to the hypermarket when there are sales or I need something special. I buy daily necessities or household electrical appliances from the hypermarket.

MRS. YANG: I have never been to the hypermarket. I go to the supermarket to buy milk, toothpaste, toothbrush and something like these. I buy food from the traditional market.
(Researcher: Why haven't you been to the hypermarket?)
It is because I need someone to drive and give me a lift to go to the hypermarket. If I go, I will choose the one which is near to my home.

Mrs. Lau: I go to the hypermarket with my son. He buys things but I don't. I just look around.

Mrs. Yu: Since there is a hypermarket near to my home, I go there to buy tissue and other seasoning materials. Now, I am retired. I go there to look around when I don't have anything to do. I buy something every time I go there. Besides, there are many magazines and electrical appliances in the hypermarket. If I find something useful, I will buy it.

Researcher: What is the impact of value judgment on your choice of the markets?

Mrs. Yu: Since my family does not include many members, we don't eat much. I like to buy something of fine and fresh quality. I don't need the superior quality but I don't buy electrical appliances of inferior quality.

Mrs. Lau: It does not have any specific impact, because my son will decide what to buy.

MRS. YANG: I buy things, which are useful. I buy daily necessities from the traditional market. For electrical appliances, I consider buying them from the hypermarket. The main concern is the durability of the appliances. I will go to other specialty shops for electrical appliances to compare as well.

MRS. LIN: I rely on the words of mouth to decide where to buy. For general durable goods, I buy them from the hypermarket. For other non-durable or inexpensive goods, I buy them at the shops nearby.

MRS. KO: I consider the utility value of the goods in order to decide where to buy them. At the same time, I also think about the budget for the family.

ANNA: I am concerned with the price and utility value. If there is something cheap and useful in any market, I will go and buy there.

YI-ING: For food, I choose the good quality. As the food in the hypermarket is usually packed in a large quantity, it may become a waste if we can't finish it before the expiry date. Therefore, I like to buy food from the traditional market.

For electrical appliances, I don't go to the traditional market to buy any lesser known brands. I go to the hypermarket where there are many brands available for comparison.

MRS. CHUNG: I don't like shopping, so I buy the things wherever I like. But for electrical appliances, their after-sale services are important to me. I think the good brands will have a better protection for the consumers. I will not consider buying them from the hypermarkets, but from the specialty shops. It is because, sometimes, you have to fix the electrical appliances yourself after you buy them in the hypermarkets. It is not convenient.

Researcher: What is the impact of traditional festivals and religions on your choice of markets?

Mrs. Yu: I buy from the traditional market when I have family gatherings at home. But I will not go there on traditional festivals because it will be very crowded. I will go there and buy the goods two days in advance.

Mrs. Lau: Because my family has a big refrigerator and the market is close to my home, we don't need to go to the market and squeeze with other people on traditional festivals.

MRS. YANG: Since my family only consists of two persons, we don't need to go to the traditional market to buy things on traditional festivals.

MRS. LIN: I need to work, so I go to the market to buy things on festivals or holidays.

MRS. KO: Because I am a Christian, I do not need to buy anything specifically for traditional festivals.

ANNA: The people nowadays have sufficient nutrients. Except birthdays, we don't buy something special or extra for the festivals. But sometimes, we do buy some special foods for celebration of the festivals.

YI-ING: My family does not worship the gods relating to the traditional festivals. But we will buy some special foods for the traditional festivals. In traditional market, we can buy more and better things for the traditional festivals. It is worthwhile to go and shop in the traditional markets.

MRS. CHUNG: I do not like to go to the traditional market to buy food, not only because of the crowded condition, but also because of the pickpockets.

Researcher: What is the impact of the change of lifestyle on your choice of markets?

MRS. CHUNG: My family has a few members only. I will buy what they want to eat. The change of lifestyle does not change my consumption habits.

YI-ING: It should not have any impact. I get used to buy things at certain places. It may be different for the young generation.

ANNA: My family has not changed a lot about the taste of the food. We like to go to the traditional market and buy food there. My family eats whatever I cook.

MRS. KO: Since my children have already grown up and they are working now, my family eats less at home in relation to the number of meals and the quantity of food. The number of visits I go to the market has also reduced. Therefore, I don't have any fixed time schedule or particular places for buying food. Sometimes, I will buy something from the supermarket on my way home. Sometimes, I will go to the market on Sunday once and buy everything for the week. But for vegetables, I will buy it everyday in order to ensure that it is fresh.

MRS. LIN: My family goes to the traditional markets, supermarkets and hypermarkets. We buy the food sufficient for one to two days only so that we can keep the food fresh and will not cause wastes.

MRS. YANG: Because my family has two members only, the way we eat is very simple. We will buy the food in the market nearby.

Mrs. Lau: My family only needs to buy fish and meat in the market because we grow vegetable ourselves. I like to buy fresh food everyday.

Mrs. Yu: Before I became retired, I went to the market once a week. I would buy a lot of food each time and very often, the food went bad. Now, as I am retired, I go to the market everyday to buy food. I can kill my time as well.

Rest for 5 minutes

Researcher: To what extent do political, economic, or social factors affect your choice of the markets?

Mrs. Yu: Political factor does not have any influence but economic factor does. Now, we will be more cautious when I buy. I will continue to buy from the traditional market. I will buy exactly how much I need and I will not buy more than that.

Mrs. Lau: Since my family has only two members, the economic factor does not have a great impact on us. I don't need to work and I don't think the change of the social factor will affect me.

MRS. YANG: I don't think those factors have a lot of influence. When I go to the traditional market, I notice that the people there will discuss the political and economic problems. But they buy things as usual and they are not affected by the poor economic condition. I think the food is the basic necessity and will not be affected by the economic factor.

MRS. LIN: Economic factor has a great impact. My company has not paid bonus in recent years. I used to buy a lot of things in hypermarket but now I will only buy what I need. The social condition is changing, as people have to work longer hours. If I have time, I will buy from the hypermarkets. Otherwise, I will go to the market nearby.

MRS. KO: Political factor does not have direct effect but economic factor does affect the purchasing power of the people. When I buy, I have to consider my budget. Most of the housewives go to the market nearby. As I have to work, I will buy from the market, which is near to my office or on my way back home.

ANNA: When I did not need to work a few years ago, I used to shop in the traditional market. Since I am working now, I don't have much time to shop. As the economy is not very good, I will buy less.

YI-ING: When I go to the market now, I find that the prices have lowered. My family has a fixed budget for buying things, so the economic factor does not have a big influence.

MRS. CHUNG:I go to the market to buy food. If I find that the vendors do not support my favourite political party, I will not buy the things from them.

Researcher: Does the change of the consumption habits affect the lifestyle of you and your family? Or do the lifestyle of you and your family affect your consumption habits?

Mrs. Yu: I worked six days a week in the past. Besides, I went to Church every Sunday. I did not have much time to shop at that time. Now, I am retired and my children will come back for dinner on Sundays. So, I go to the market on Saturdays and ask the vendors to deliver the food to us on Sundays. Thus, it is efficient and the food is fresh.

Mrs. Lau: My children seldom eat at home. I don’t like to shop at the hypermarket, but my children do. It does not change my consumption habit.

Mrs. Yang: My children and daughter-in-law will come to my home and have dinner together on Mondays. So, I buy more food on Mondays. Now, I also buy more healthy food. The way I cook has also changed as well. I use less oil and less artificial favouring.

MRS. LIN: I have attended some courses about organics. Now, I buy organic foods. Although you can buy organic foods in supermarkets and hypermarkets, I think the quantity and quality is not very good. I prefer buying the same from the specialty shops.

MRS. KO: As my children have grown up, the lifestyle of my family has changed. With the progress of the society, our lifestyle has changed as well. Convenience and time are the main factors for our consumption habit.

ANNA: Our children are working, so my husband and I usually go out for meals. I do not cook very often now. I am health-conscious and I like to buy more vegetables and less meat. I mainly cook my food with water now.

YI-ING: As my children do not live at home, I will go to the hypermarket to buy biscuits and other snacks for them.

MRS. CHUNG: My family does not have a great change. We use to go to the traditional market to buy things.

MRS. KO: In hypermarkets, they sell things in a large quantity. I think that is the reason why the people become fat.

Mrs. Yu: We have small families nowadays. The young couples do not cook very often and they like eating out. The number of restaurants is also increasing now and that's why the people do not need to buy much food.

Researcher: Will you buy the ready-to-eat food in the supermarkets and hypermarkets?

Participants: No, because the food is not fresh or healthy. There are not many choices.

III: Questionnaire

Researcher: Now, lets' do the questionnaire. Please feel free to ask questions when you don't understand or feel confused?

Researcher: Please give your overall evaluation.

Participants: If this questionnaire is distributed outside the market, the questionnaire has to be modified, with fewer questions, larger words and straight wording. Income is a sensitive question. The questionnaire should be simplified as it is too long (too many questions) to complete. Most of the workers are not willing to spend time on answering any kinds of questionnaires even they are offered rewards. Asking our children to bring the questionnaire home would be a more reliable way to ensure the completion of the questionnaires. There have been a lot of cases that the interviewers make use of the personal details from the questionnaire for commercial purpose. In order to avoid trouble, most of the parents nowadays will definitely ask their children not to answer any questionnaires when they are out.

Appendix D1
消費者對大賣場（量販店）認知的調查

親愛的女士/先生

您對大賣場（量販店）特徵的理解和意見，將有助於我們的研究。您的寶貴意見，我們將作爲研究之用，並保證不會提供給他人作爲其它用途；同時十二萬分的感謝您撥空參與我們的研究。

真理大學企管系

請您在 ☐ 勾選適當的答案

A. 基本資料

下列敘述是有關於您與您的家人

1. 您的年齡
☐ 30 歲以下 ☐ 30-39 歲 ☐ 40-49 歲 ☐ 50-59 歲 ☐ 60 歲以上

2. 性別
☐ 男性 ☐ 女性

3. 婚姻狀況
☐ 單身（未婚） ☐ 已婚 ☐ 離婚/分居

4. 最高學歷
☐ 高中(職)或以下 ☐ 專科 ☐大學 ☐ 研究所或以上

5. 您目前的工作內容/狀況 (請只選一項)
☐ 管理/決策階層 ☐ 專業人士 (如教師、醫師、律師、工程師等) ☐ 自由業/自行僱用
☐ 人民公僕 (如公務員、軍人等) ☐ 一般職員 (如行政人員、業務員、服務人員等)
☐ 技術人員 (如工程人員、操作員等) ☐ 農民、漁民 ☐ 全職家庭主夫/主婦
☐ 學生（含剛畢業） ☐ 退休 ☐ 其它__________(請說明)

6. 請問您家庭的全年收入
☐ NT$ 1,000,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 1,000,001 – 1,800,000 ☐ NT$ 1,800,001 – 2,400,000
☐ NT$ 2,400,001 以上

7. 請問有多少家庭成員貢獻您的家庭全年收入
☐ 1 人 ☐ 2 人 ☐ 3 人 ☐4 人或以上

8. 請約略估計您家房屋的坪數
☐ 30 坪以內 ☐ 30-39 坪 ☐ 40-49 坪 ☐ 50-59 坪 ☐ 60-69 坪
☐ 70 坪以上

9. 包含您自己有多少家庭成員住在目前的地址
大人,19-59 歲: ☐☐人
大人,60 歲以上: ☐☐人
小孩,18 歲以下: ☐☐人

10. 您目前住家的郵遞區號: ☐☐☐

B. 消費習慣

下列敘述是有關於您與您家人的消費習慣

1. 您與您的家人大部分在哪裡買菜與日用品 (請只選一項)
☐ 大賣場 ☐ 超級市場 ☐ 傳統市場(含路邊小販)
☐ 大賣場與傳統市場 ☐ 超級市場與傳統市場
☐ 大賣場與超級市場 ☐ 全部都常去

2. 在一星期當中您與您的家人通常喜歡在哪些天買菜

☐ 週末（星期六、日） ☐ 星期一至星期五 ☐ 以上兩者皆是

又通常喜歡在何時去買 (可複選)

☐ 早上 ☐ 下午 ☐ 傍晚/晚上 ☐ 夜晚/深夜

3. 您與您的家人會特別爲國定假日或傳統民俗節日上街買菜嗎

☐ 會 ☐ 不會

4. 假如會的話您們會比較喜歡去哪裡買 (請只選一項)

☐ 大賣場 ☐ 超級市場 ☐ 傳統市場含路邊小販

☐ 大賣場與傳統市場 ☐ 超級市場與傳統市場

☐ 大賣場與超級市場 ☐ 全部都會去

5. 平均一星期您與您的家人大約會去市場幾次

☐ 0-1 次 ☐ 2 次 ☐ 3 次 ☐ 4 次 ☐ 5 次 ☐ 6 次 ☐ >7 次

6. 平均一星期大約花多少時間買菜

☐ 少於 1 小時 ☐ 1-2 小時 ☐ 3-4 小時 ☐ 5-6 小時

☐ 7-8 小時 ☐ 9 小時或以上

7. 平均一星期您與您的家人大約用多少錢買菜及日用品

☐ NT$ 2,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 2,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-6,000 ☐ NT$ 6,001-8,000

☐ NT$ 8,000-10,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 10,000

8. 請您約略估算去年您家在大賣場花了多少錢購買耐用商品（如：家具、電腦、冰箱、電視等）

☐ 沒買過 ☐ NT$5,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 5,001-20,000 ☐ NT$ 20,001-50,000

☐ 超過 NT$ 50,000

9. 您會再回到大賣場購買耐用商品嗎

☐ 一定會 ☐ 可能會 ☐ 不一定 ☐ 可能不會 ☐ 一定不會

C. 最近一次的購買

下列敘述是有關您與您的家人<u>最近一次到大賣場（量販店）</u>的購買情形

1. 您與您的家人最近一次是到那家大賣場(量販店)

☐ 家樂福 ☐ 愛買吉安 ☐ 大潤發 ☐ 特易購 ☐ 其它__________

2. 您與您的家人是利用哪種交通工具

☐ 走路 ☐ 開車 ☐ 騎機車/腳踏車 ☐ 公車 ☐ 捷運/火車

3. 從您家來到賣場大約要用多少時間

☐ 少於 10 分鐘 ☐ 10-30 分鐘 ☐ 31-60 分鐘 ☐ 超過 1 小時

4. 從您家來到賣場大約多遠

☐ 少於 1 公里（步行約 12 分鐘） ☐ 1-3 公里（步行約 12-30 分鐘） ☐ 3-7 公里

☐ 7-12 公里 ☐ 12-20 公里 ☐ 超過 20 公里

5. 您與您的家人大約用多少錢於購買<u>食品</u>

☐ NT$ 500 以內 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000

☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-5,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 5,000

同時大約用多少錢於購買<u>非食品及日用品</u>

☐ NT$ 500 以內 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000

☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-5,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 5,000

6. 來這賣場的主要目的是爲了購買(可複選)

☐ 生鮮食品 ☐ 非生鮮食品及日用品 ☐ 這裡才買得到的特別商品或特價品

☐ 耐用商品(電器、家具、電腦等) ☐ 其它__________________(請說明)

7. 除了您自己還有那些人陪您來 (可複選)

☐ 我自己一個人來 ☐家中長輩

☐ 我的先生/太太
☐ 家人/親戚/朋友，有幾人： ☐ 1 人 ☐ 2 人 ☐ 3 人 ☐ 超過 4 人
☐ 小孩少於 18 歲，有幾人： ☐ 1 人 ☐ 2 人 ☐ 3 人 ☐ 超過 4 人

D. 其它市場

下列敘述是有關於您與您的家人在其他市場的消費

1. **除了這家大賣場以外，近兩個月內您與您的家人是否還去過其它地方買菜嗎?**
   ☐ 是 ☐ 否，沒去過其它地方（若否，請跳至E項作答）
   假如是的話，去哪裡 (可複選)
   ☐ 家樂福 ☐ 愛買吉安 ☐ 大潤發 ☐ 特易購 ☐ 其它_________
   ☐ 一般的超級市場 ☐ 傳統市場(含路邊小販)
2. **同上一題，您與您的家人花了多少錢在那些地方購買**
   ☐ NT$ 1,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 1,001-3,000 ☐ NT$ 3,001-5,000 ☐ NT$ 5,001-10,000
   ☐ NT$ 10,001-20,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 20,000
3. **您與家人會多久到其它市場一次**
   ☐ 一星期好多次 ☐ 一星期一次 ☐ 一個月二三次
   ☐ 一個月一次 ☐ 一年有好幾次
4. **您與家人會爲了哪些特別商品到其它市場** (可複選)
   ☐ 生鮮食品 ☐ 非生鮮食品及日用品 ☐ 這裡才買得到的特別商品或特價品
   ☐ 耐用商品(電器、家具、電腦等) ☐ 其它____________(請說明)

E. 大賣場（量販店）的特徵

您同意下列對大賣場的敘述嗎（請您與超市及傳統市場作比較）

		非常同意	同意	沒意見	不同意	非常不同意	不知道
1	大賣場商品的種類比超市及傳統市場多	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	大賣場的商品賣價比超市及傳統市場便宜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	大賣場接近我家或我的工作地點	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	其它市場的促銷活動比大賣場少	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	大賣場提供了免費停車與相關的汽車服務	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	超市及傳統市場的商品品質比大賣場好	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	大賣場提供的服務比較好	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	超級市場對貴賓卡持有者提供的優惠/服務沒有大賣場多	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	大賣場提供商品不滿意退錢的保證	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	大賣場因空間較大所以很適合全家一起去	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	大賣場通常較明亮有空調可以享受愉快的購物氣氛	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	其它市場通常位於小街道所以交通比較不方便	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

		非常同意	同意	沒意見	不同意	非常不同意	不知道
13	大賣場的走道通常比超級市場及傳統市寬敞乾淨	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	即使不買任何東西在大賣場逛逛也是很愉快	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	在大賣場裡通常還有其它的商店或商店街可供消費與飲食	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	超級市場的商品分類沒有像大賣場那樣的清楚明確	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	我喜歡在大賣場買熟食（已經煮好的食物）回家吃	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	在超級市場及傳統市場無法像大賣場那樣可一次購足	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	大賣場有比較長的營業時間	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	超級市場及傳統市場沒有提供停車場或其它的相關服務	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	在大賣場可買到最新的商品	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	大賣場通常接受信用卡購買	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	在大賣場買完東西後，我可以順便到鄰近區域（商圈）逛街	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	超級市場及傳統市場並不像大賣場那樣，有很多相同商品可供比較	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	在大賣場購物可當作是一種休閒活動而不僅是買生活必需品/日用品而已	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26	大賣場的購物車可供幼兒乘坐，提供方便與安全的購物	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27	依照您的看法，第 1 題到第 26 題哪三項敘述，您認爲較爲重要而影響您與您的家人來此大賣場購買，請將<u>**題號**</u>依重要性塡寫在右列空格：	最重要 ☐	第二重要 ☐	第三重要 ☐			

28 您最不喜歡大賣場的哪一方面？________________________________

F. 整體評價

1. 您可能會推薦這家大賣場(您最近一次去的大賣場)給您的家人或朋友

☐ 非常可能 ☐ 可能 ☐ 不一定 ☐ 不可能 ☐ 非常不可能

2. 您如何陳述在這家大賣場的購物經驗

☐ 非常愉快 ☐ 愉快 ☐ 尙可 ☐ 不愉快 ☐ 非常不愉快

3. 在這份問卷裡是否還有任何有關於您對大賣場裡的了解與購物經驗，您認爲很重要而我們並未將其列入，請您爲我們提供您的寶貴意見

____

____

感謝您的參與並提供我們這些寶貴經驗

Appendix D1
Survey of consumers' perceptions of the Hypermarket

Dear Sir/Madam,
Your perceptions and opinions with regard to the important characteristics of the hypermarket in which you are currently shopping are very important to this study. Your participation in this study and your comments will be treated in confidence, and we thank you very much for your time in taking part in this survey.

Please tick the answer most relevant to you.

A. Demographic Characteristics
The following are some questions about you and your family.

1. **What is your age?**
   ☐ Under 30 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ Over 60
2. **What is your gender?**
   ☐ Male ☐ Female
3. **What is your marital status?**
   ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced/separated ☐ Widowed
4. **What is the highest level of education you have completed?**
   ☐ ~High School ☐ College/University ☐ Postgraduate
5. **How would you describe your present work?**
   ☐ Executive or managerial ☐ Professional ☐ Self-employee ☐ Civil service
   ☐ Clerical ☐ Skilled/semi-skilled ☐ Framer or fisherman ☐ Full-time homemaker
   ☐ Student ☐ Retired ☐ Other_________(please specify)
6. **What is your family's total annual income?** (£1=NT$55)
   ☐ Under NT$ 1,000,000 ☐ NT$ 1,000,001 – 1,800,000 ☐ NT$ 1,800,001 – 2,400,000
   ☐ NT$ 2,400,001 or more
7. **How many members of your family contribute to your family's annual income?**
   ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 and above
8. **Approximately, what is the area of your house?** Level ground (1 level ground=36square feet)
   ☐ Under 30 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60-69 ☐ over 70
9. **Counting yourself, how many family members live in your household?**
   Adult age 19-59: ☐☐
   Adult age 60~: ☐☐
   Child age ~18: ☐☐
10. **What is the ZIP code at your place of living?** ☐☐☐

B. Shopping Habits
The following are some questions about the shopping habits of you and your family.

1. **Where do you and your family buy most of the food and groceries for your family?**
   ☐ Hypermarket ☐ Supermarket ☐ Traditional market
   ☐ Hypermarket and Traditional market ☐ Supermarket and Traditional market
   ☐ Hypermarket and Supermarket ☐ All of them
2. **When do you and your family usually shop for food and groceries during a week?**
   ☐ Weekend (Saturday and Sunday) ☐ Weekday (Monday to Friday) ☐ Both
   Which time of day is usual for a major shopping trip
   ☐ Morning ☐ Afternoon ☐ Evening ☐ Late night

3. **Do you and your family shop especially for public holidays or traditional festivals?**
   ☐ Yes ☐ No ***(if No, go to number 5)***

4. **If so, where do you and your family shop for holidays?**
☐ Hypermarket ☐ Supermarket ☐ Traditional market
☐ Hypermarket and Traditional market ☐ Supermarket and Traditional market
☐ Hypermarket and Supermarket ☐ All of them

5. **What is the total number of shopping trips for food and groceries that you and your family do in an average week?**
☐ 0-1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ >7

6. **Please estimate the total time spent on shopping for food and groceries for you and your family in an average week?**
☐ Less than 1 hour ☐ 1-2 hours ☐ 3-4 hours ☐ 5-6 hours
☐ 7-8 hours ☐ 9 hours or more

7. **Please estimate the total amount of money spent on shopping for food and groceries by you and your family in an average week?** (£1=NT$55)
☐ Under NT$ 2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-6,000 ☐ NT$ 6,001-8,000
☐ NT$ 8,001-10,000 ☐ Above NT$ 10,000

8. **Please estimate your household's expenditure in durable goods in the hypermarket in the last year?** (£1=NT$55)
☐ None ☐ Under NT$5,000 ☐ NT$ 5,001-20,000 ☐ NT$ 20,001-50,000
☐ Above NT$ 50,000

9. **Would you return to the hypermarket to buy durable goods?**
☐ Definitely yes ☐ Probably yes ☐ Neutral ☐ Probably no ☐ Definitely no

C. The Last Shopping Trip to a hypermarket

The following are some questions about the last shopping trip of you and your family.

1. **Which hypermarket did you and /or your family shop at on the last shopping trip?**
☐ Carrefour ☐ Fa-Geánt ☐ Rt-Mart ☐ Tesco ☐ Others________

2. **What kind of transportation did you and/or your family use for travelling to the shop?**
☐ By foot ☐ Car ☐ Scooter ☐ Bus ☐ Train or Metro

3. **Approximately how much time does it take you and/or your family to travel to the shop from your home?**
☐ Under 10 minutes ☐ 10-30 minutes ☐ 31-60 minutes ☐ More than 1 hour

4. **Approximately how far is it to the shop from your home?** (1 mile=1.6 km)
☐ Under 1 km ☐ 1-3 km ☐ 3-7 km ☐ 7-12 km
☐ 12-20 km ☐ Above 20 km

5. **What amount of money have you and/or your family spent this time on <u>food items</u> in this shop?** (£1=NT$55)
☐ Under NT$ 500 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000
☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-5,000 ☐ Above NT$ 5,000
and on <u>non-food items</u> in this shop?
☐ Under NT$ 500 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000
☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-5,000 ☐ Above NT$ 5,000

6. **What was the purpose of that shopping trip?** ***(Please tick the appropriate boxes)***
☐ Fresh food items ☐ Non-fresh food items/general groceries ☐ Durable goods
☐ Special items available here with/without advantageous price ☐ Others

7. **Who came with you on this shopping trip?**
☐ Alone
☐ Elder family member(s)
☐ Husband/Wife
☐ Child under 18, how many ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ Over 4
☐ Other family member(s)/Friends/Relatives, how many ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ Over 4

D. Other Shops

The following are some questions about other shops that you and your family go to in addition to this one.

1. **Apart from this hypermarket store, have you and/or your family also shopped in other store(s) within the last two months?** ☐ Yes ☐ No ***(if NO, go to Section E)***

   If Yes which one*:* (Please tick the appropriate boxes)
   ☐ Carrefour ☐ Fa-Geánt ☐ Rt-Mart ☐ Tesco ☐ Other_______
   ☐ Supermarkets ☐ Traditional markets or independent grocers

2. **How much have you and/or your family spent at the other store(s) in the last two months?** (£1=NT$55)
   ☐ Under NT$ 1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-3,000 ☐ NT$ 3,001-5,000 ☐ NT$ 5,001-10,000
   ☐ NT$ 10,001-20,000 ☐ Above NT$ 20,000

3. **How often do you and/or your family also shop at other stores?**
   ☐ Once a week ☐ More than once a week ☐ Once a month
   ☐ 2~3 times a month ☐ Several times a year

4. **For what particular goods did you and your family shop at other stores? *(Please tick the appropriate boxes)***
   ☐ Fresh food items ☐ Non-fresh food items/general groceries ☐ Durable goods
   ☐ Special items available here with/without advantageous price

E. Shopping Preferences and Attitudes

The following are statements about the hypermarket in comparison with supermarkets and traditional market. Please indicate your agreement with each statement by ticking the appropriate box.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Response
1	The hypermarket offers a wider assortment of products than other shops (supermarkets and traditional markets)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	Hypermarket prices are lower than other shops	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	The hypermarket is close to my home or work place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	Special offers and promotions by other shops are less than hypermarket	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	The hypermarket provides plenty of parking spaces and car services	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	Other shops provide better quality products than the hypermarket	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	The hypermarket provides better consumer service than other shops	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	Loyalty and bonus schemes offered in other shops are less than those offered in the hypermarkets	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	The hypermarket offers money back guarantees	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	Other shops are less spacious and not very safe for (large) family shopping	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	The hypermarket has a pleasant atmosphere, is air-conditioned and well lit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	Other shops are located in an area which is not very easy to access	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	The aisles of the hypermarket are large, clean and more spacious than other shops	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	Shopping in the hypermarket is pleasurable even I do not buy anything	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

15	There are other kinds of stores in the same hypermarket retail park, providing shopping, eating and drinking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	The sections for different items in other shops are not as clearly marked as in the hypermarket	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	I can buy take-away or ready-to-eat food packages in the hypermarket	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	I cannot buy all necessities under the same roof in other shops	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	The hypermarket has longer opening hours than other shops	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	Other shops do not provide car parking, and other services liker car tyre change or car wash and valeting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	The hypermarket supplies the latest products	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	The hypermarket accepts credit card payments	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	After shopping in the hypermarket, I can also go to nearby shopping center/street	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	There are fewer brands of the same product available for comparison in other shops	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	Shopping in the hypermarket is a leisure activity, rather than just for buying groceries and life necessities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26	The hypermarket offers safe and convenient children's trolleys	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27	Which are the 3 most important of the above (1~24) statements in your opinion for shopping at this shop. Give them in order of importance	***Most Important*** ☐	***Second Important*** ☐	***Third Important*** ☐			

28 What do you dislike about the hypermarket? ____________________

F. Overall Evaluation

1. **How likely would you be to recommend that hypermarket to your family/friends?**
   ☐ Highly likely ☐ Likely ☐ Neutral ☐ Unlikely ☐ Highly unlikely
2. **How would you describe the shopping experience in this shop?**
   ☐ Very enjoyable ☐ Enjoyable ☐ OK ☐ Disagreeable ☐ Very disagreeable
3. **Is there any factor/feature/characteristic that you think is important when you shop at the hypermarket but we have not included in the questionnaire? Please comment.**
   ____
   ____

Thank you for taking part in this survey and provide us with this information.

Appendix D2
消費者對超級市場認知的調查

親愛的女士/先生

您對超級市場特徵的理解和意見，將有助於我們的研究。而您的寶貴意見，我們將作爲研究之用，並保證不會提供給他人作爲其它用途；同時十二萬分的感謝您撥空參與我們的研究。

真理大學企管系

請您在 ☐ 勾選適當的答案

A. 基本資料

下列敘述是有關於<u>您與您的家人</u>

1. 您的年齡

☐ 30 歲以下 ☐ 30-39 歲 ☐ 40-49 歲 ☐ 50-59 歲 ☐ 60 歲以上

2. 性別

☐ 男性 ☐ 女性

3. 婚姻狀況

☐ 單身（未婚） ☐ 已婚 ☐ 離婚/分居

4. 最高學歷

☐ 高中(職)或以下 ☐ 專科 ☐大學 ☐ 研究所或以上

5. 您目前的工作內容/狀況 (請只選一項)

☐ 管理/決策階層 ☐ 專業人士 (如教師、醫師、律師、工程師等) ☐ 自由業/自行僱用
☐ 人民公僕 (如公務員、軍人等) ☐ 一般職員 (如行政人員、業務員、服務人員等)
☐ 技術人員 (如工程人員、操作員等) ☐ 農民、漁民 ☐ 全職家庭主夫/主婦
☐ 學生（含剛畢業） ☐ 退休 ☐ 其它__________(請說明)

6. 請問您家庭的全年收入

☐ NT$ 1,000,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 1,000,001 – 1,800,000 ☐ NT$ 1,800,001 – 2,400,000
☐ NT$ 2,400,001 以上

7. 請問有多少家庭成員貢獻您的家庭全年收入

☐ 1 人 ☐ 2 人 ☐ 3 人 ☐4 人或以上

8. 請約略估計您家房屋的坪數

☐ 30 坪以內 ☐ 30-39 坪 ☐ 40-49 坪 ☐ 50-59 坪 ☐ 60-69 坪
☐ 70 坪以上

9. 包含您自已有多少家庭成員住在目前的地址

大人,19-59 歲: ☐☐人
大人,60 歲以上: ☐☐人
小孩,18 歲以下: ☐☐人

10. 您目前住家的郵遞區號: ☐☐☐

B. 消費習慣

下列敘述是有關於<u>您與您家人</u>的消費習慣

1. 您與您的家人大部分在哪裡買菜與日用品 (請只選一項)

☐ 大賣場 ☐ 超級市場 ☐ 傳統市場含路邊小販
☐ 大賣場與傳統市場 ☐ 超級市場與傳統市場
☐ 大賣場與超級市場 ☐ 全部都常去

2. 在一星期當中您與您的家人通常喜歡在哪些天買菜
☐ 週末（星期六、日） ☐ 星期一至星期五 ☐ 以上兩者皆是
又通常喜歡在何時去買 (可複選)
☐ 早上 ☐ 下午 ☐ 傍晚/晚上 ☐ 夜晚/深夜

3. 您與您的家人會特別爲國定假日或傳統民俗節日上街買菜嗎
☐ 會 ☐ 不會

4. 假如<u>會</u>的話您們會比較喜歡去哪裡買 (請只選一項)
☐ 大賣場 ☐ 超級市場 ☐ 傳統市場含路邊小販
☐ 大賣場與傳統市場 ☐ 超級市場與傳統市場
☐ 大賣場與超級市場 ☐ 全部都會去

5. 平均一星期您與您的家人大約會去市場幾次
☐ 0-1 次 ☐ 2 次 ☐ 3 次 ☐ 4 次 ☐ 5 次 ☐ 6 次 ☐ >7 次

6. 平均一星期大約花多少時間買菜
☐ 少於 1 小時 ☐ 1-2 小時 ☐ 3-4 小時 ☐ 5-6 小時
☐ 7-8 小時 ☐ 9 小時或以上

7. 平均一星期您與您的家人大約用多少錢買菜及日用品
☐ NT$ 2,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 2,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-6,000 ☐ NT$ 6,001-8,000
☐ NT$ 8,000-10,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 10,000

8. 請您約略估算去年您家在大賣場花了多少錢購買耐用商品（如：家具、電腦、冰箱、電視等）
☐ 沒買過 ☐ NT$5,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 5,001-20,000 ☐ NT$ 20,001-50,000
☐ 超過 NT$ 50,000

9. 您會再回到大賣場購買耐用商品嗎
☐ 一定會 ☐ 可能會 ☐ 不一定 ☐ 可能不會 ☐ 一定不會

C. 最近一次的購買

*下列敘述是有關您與您的家人**<u>最近一次到超級市場</u>**的購買情形*

1. 您與您的家人是利用哪種交通工具來到這賣場
☐ 走路 ☐ 開車 ☐ 騎機車/腳踏車 ☐ 公車 ☐ 捷運/火車

2. 從您家來到這賣場大約要用多少時間
☐ 少於 10 分鐘 ☐ 10-30 分鐘 ☐ 31-60 分鐘 ☐ 超過 1 小時

3. 從您家來到賣場大約多遠
☐ 少於 1 公里（步行約 12 分鐘） ☐ 1-3 公里（步行約 12-30 分鐘） ☐ 3-7 公里
☐ 7-12 公里 ☐ 12-20 公里 ☐ 超過 20 公里

4. 您與您的家人大約用多少錢於購買<u>食品</u>
☐ NT$ 500 以內 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000
☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-5,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 5,000
同時大約用多少錢於購買<u>非食品及日用品</u>
☐ NT$ 500 以內 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000
☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-5,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 5,000

5. 來這賣場的主要目的是爲了購買 (可複選)
☐ 生鮮食品 ☐ 非生鮮食品及日用品 ☐ 這裡才買得到的特別商品或特價品
☐ 耐用商品(電器、家具、電腦等) ☐ 其它__________________(請說明)

6. 除了您自己還有那些人陪您來 (可複選)
☐ 我自己一個人來 ☐ 家中長輩
☐ 我的先生/太太
☐ 家人/親戚/朋友, 有幾人: ☐ 1 人 ☐ 2 人 ☐ 3 人 ☐ 超過 4 人
☐ 小孩少於 18 歲, 有幾人: ☐ 1 人 ☐ 2 人 ☐ 3 人 ☐ 超過 4 人

D. 其它市場

下列敘述是有關於您與您的家人在其他市場的消費

1. 除了這家超級市場以外，近兩個月內您與您的家人是否還去過其它地方買菜嗎?
☐ 是 ☐ 否, 沒去過其它地方（若否, 請跳至E項作答）
假如是的話，哪裡 (可複選)
☐ 家樂福 ☐ 愛買吉安 ☐ 大潤發 ☐ 特易購 ☐ 其它_________
☐ 其它的超級市場 ☐ 傳統市場(含路邊小販)

2. 同上一題，您與您的家人花了多少錢在那些地方購買
☐ NT$ 1,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 1,001-3,000 ☐ NT$ 3,001-5,000 ☐ NT$ 5,001-10,000
☐ NT$ 10,001-20,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 20,000

3. 您與您的家人會多久到其它市場一次
☐ 一星期好多次 ☐ 一星期一次 ☐ 一個月二三次
☐ 一個月一次 ☐ 一年有好幾次

4. 您與您的家人會爲了哪些特別商品到其它市場 (可複選)
☐ 生鮮食品 ☐ 非生鮮食品及日用品 ☐ 這裡才買得到的特別商品或特價品
☐ 耐用商品(電器、家具、電腦等) ☐ 其它________________(請說明)

E. 超級市場的特徵

您同意下列對超級市場的敘述嗎（請您與大賣場及傳統市場作比較）

		非常同意	同意	沒意見	不同意	非常不同意	不知道
1	超級市場商品價格比大賣場或傳統市場便宜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	其他賣場並不如超級市場那樣提供衛生、乾淨與舒適的購物環境	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	超級市場所有商品的標價都很清楚	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	大賣場的收銀人員不像超級市場那樣的親切	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	超級市場接受信用卡付款	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	在超級市場我可以在同一棟建築物內購齊我要的所有商品	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	超級市場購買後會有發票，我可用來對獎	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	其它市場沒有像超級市場，提供折價劵	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	超級市場時常有促銷活動	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	超級市場提供不滿意退錢的保證	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	超級市場的地點接近我家或我的工作地點	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	超級市場的商品有很清楚的使用期限標示	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	超級市場商品的品質通常比較好	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	其它賣場的開放時間不像超級市場那樣的長	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	超級市場提供很好的大眾化商品組合	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

		非常同意	同意	沒意見	不同意	非常不同意	不知道
16	其它賣場的設計與擺設方式不像超市那樣很容易購買	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	超級市場有很好的服務人員可供諮詢	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	其它市場提供的進口商品比超級市場少	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	在超級市場購買後等待收銀的時間通常較短	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	在大賣場及傳統市場不容易買到不含農藥的有機食品	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	在超級市場裡買的食品大都已經過處理，回家後可以直接煮來吃	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	其它市場的位置離我家或我的工作地點較遠	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	在超級市場購買可累積點數，日後可以換商品	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	大賣場並未提供如超級市場的小包裝商品	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	依照您的看法，第 1 題到第 24 題哪三項敘述，您認爲較爲重要而影響您與您的家人來此超級市場購買，請將**<u>題號</u>**依重要性填寫在右列空格：	最重要 ☐	第二重要 ☐	第三重要 ☐			

26 您最不喜歡超級市場的哪一方面？____________________________________

F. 整體評價

1.您可能會推薦這家超級市場(您最近一次去的超級市場)給您的家人或朋友

☐ 非常可能 ☐ 可能 ☐ 不一定 ☐ 不可能 ☐ 非常不可能

2.您如何陳述在這家超級市場的購物經驗

☐ 非常愉快 ☐ 愉快 ☐ 尚可 ☐ 不愉快 ☐ 非常不愉快

3.在這份問卷裡是否還有任何有關於您在超級市場裡的購物經驗與了解，您認爲很重要而我們並未將其列入，請您爲我們提供您的寶貴意見

____

____

感謝您的參與並提供我們這些寶貴經驗

Appendix D2
Survey of consumers' perceptions of the Supermarket

Dear Sir/Madam,

Your perceptions and opinions with regard to the important characteristics of the supermarket in which you are currently shopping are very important to this study. Your participation in this study and your comments will be treated in confidence, and we thank you very much for your time in taking part in this survey.

Please tick the answer most relevant to you.

A. Demographic Characteristics

The following are some questions about you and your family.

1. **What is your age?**
   ☐ Under 30 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ Over 60
2. **What is your gender?**
   ☐ Male ☐ Female
3. **What is your marital status?**
   ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Widowed ☐ Divorced/separated
4. **What is the highest level of education you have completed?**
   ☐ ~High school ☐ College/University ☐ Postgraduate
5. **How would you describe your present occupation?**
   ☐ Full-time job ☐ Part-time job ☐ Retired ☐ Looking for work
   ☐ Full-time at home ☐ Student ☐ Other________(please specify)
6. **What is your family's total annual income?** (£1=NT$55)
   ☐ Under NT$ 1,000,000 ☐ NT$ 1,000,001 – 1,800,000 ☐ NT$ 1,800,001 – 2,400,000
   ☐ NT$ 2,400,001 or more
7. **How many members of your family contribute to your family's annual income?**
   ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 and above
8. **Approximately, what is the area of your house?** Level ground (1 level ground=36square feet)
   ☐ Under 30 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60-69 ☐ over 70
9. **Counting yourself, how many family members live in your household?**
   Adult: ☐☐ Adult age over 60: ☐☐
   Child of 18: ☐☐
10. **What is the ZIP code at your place of living?** ☐☐☐

B. Shopping Habits

The following are some questions about the shopping habits of you and your family.

1. **Where do you and your family buy most of the food and groceries for your family?**
   ☐ Hypermarket ☐ Supermarket ☐ Traditional market
   ☐ Hypermarket and Traditional market ☐ Supermarket and Traditional market
   ☐ Hypermarket and Supermarket ☐ All of them
2. **When do you and your family usually shop for food and groceries during a week?**
   ☐ Weekend (Saturday and Sunday) ☐ Weekday (Monday to Friday) ☐ Both
   Which time of day is usual for a major shopping trip
   ☐ Morning ☐ Afternoon ☐ Evening ☐ Late night
3. **Do you and your family shop especially for public holidays or traditional festivals?**
   ☐ Yes ☐ No (if No, go to number 5)

4. **If so, where do you and your family shop for holidays?**
☐ Hypermarket ☐ Supermarket ☐ Traditional market
☐ Hypermarket and Traditional market ☐ Supermarket and Traditional market
☐ Hypermarket and Supermarket ☐ All of them

5. **What is the total number of shopping trips for food and groceries that you and your family do in an average week?**
☐ 0-1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ >7

6. **Please estimate the total time spent on shopping for food and groceries for you and your family in an average week?**
☐ Less than 1 hour ☐ 1-2 hours ☐ 3-4 hours ☐ 5-6 hours
☐ 7-8 hours ☐ 9 hours or more

7. **Please estimate the total amount of money spent on shopping for food and groceries by you and your family in an average week?** (£1=NT$55)
☐ Under NT$ 2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-6,000
☐ NT$ 6,001-8,000 ☐ NT$ 8,000-10,000 ☐ Above NT$ 10,000

8. **Please estimate your household's expenditure in durable goods in the hypermarket in the last year?** (£1=NT$55)
☐ None ☐ Under NT$5,000 ☐ NT$ 5,001-20,000 ☐ NT$ 20,001-50,000
☐ Above NT$ 50,000

9. **Would you return to the hypermarket to buy durable goods?**
☐ Definitely yes ☐ Probably yes ☐ Neutral ☐ Probably no ☐ Definitely no

C. The Last Shopping Trip to a Supermarket

The following are some questions about the last shopping trip of you and your family.

1. **What kind of transportation did you and/or your family use for travelling to this shop?**
☐ By foot ☐ Car ☐ Scooter ☐ Bus ☐ Train or Metro

2. **Approximately how much time does it take you and/or your family to travel to this shop from your home?**
☐ Under 10 minutes ☐ 10-30 minutes ☐ 31-60 minutes ☐ More than 1 hour

3. **Approximately how far is it to this shop from your home?**
☐ Under 1 mile ☐ 1-3 miles ☐ 3-7miles ☐ 7-12 miles
☐ 12-20 miles ☐ Above 20 miles

4. **What amount of money have you and/or your family spent this time on <u>food items</u> in this shop?**
(£1=NT$55)
☐ Under NT$ 500 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000
☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,000-5,000 ☐ Above NT$ 5,000
and on <u>non-food items</u> in this shop?
☐ Under NT$ 500 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000
☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,000-5,000 ☐ Above NT$ 5,000

5. **What was the purpose of that shopping trip? *(Please tick the appropriate boxes)***
☐ Fresh food items ☐ Non-fresh food items/general groceries ☐ Durable goods
☐ Special items available here with/without advantageous price ☐ Others___________

6. **Who came with you on this shopping trip?**
☐ Alone
☐ Elder family member(s)
☐ Husband/Wife
☐ Child under 18, how many ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ Over 4
☐ Other family member(s)/Friends/Relatives, how many ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ Over 4

D. Other Shops

The following are some questions about other shops that you and your family go to in addition to this one.

1. **Apart from this supermarket store, have you and/or your family also shopped in other store(s) within the last two months?** ☐ Yes ☐ No ***(if No, go to Section E)***
   If Yes which one*: (Please tick the appropriate boxes)*
   ☐ Carrefour ☐ Fa-Geánt ☐ Rt-Mart ☐ Tesco ☐ Others________
   ☐ Other Supermarkets ☐ Traditional markets or independent grocers
2. **How much have you and/or your family spent at the other store(s) in the last two months?** (£1=NT$55)
   ☐ Under NT$ 1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-3,000 ☐ NT$ 3,001-5,000 ☐ NT$ 5,001-10,000
   ☐ NT$ 10,000-20,000 ☐ Above NT$ 20,000
3. **How often do you and/or your family also shop at other stores?**
   ☐ Once a week ☐ More than once a week ☐ Once a month
   ☐ 2~3 times a month ☐ Several times a year
4. **For what particular goods did you and your family shop at other stores? (Please tick the appropriate boxes)**
   ☐ Fresh food items ☐ Non-fresh food items/general groceries ☐ Durable goods
   ☐ Special items available here with/without advantageous price ☐ Others__________

E. Shopping Preferences and Attitudes

The following are statements about the supermarket in comparison with hypermarkets and traditional market. Please indicate your agreement with each statement by ticking the appropriate box.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Response
1	Supermarket prices are lower than other shops (hypermarkets and traditional markets)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	Other stores do not supply hygienic, clean, air-conditioned and good decor shopping environment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	The supermarket has clearly marked prices on all items	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	Other stores, like hypermarkets, may not have accurate, pleasant checkout clerks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	The supermarket accepts credit card payments	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	In the supermarket, I can buy food and groceries under one roof	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	The supermarket issues receipts and I may get a prize from the government’s lottery	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	Other stores do not offer value coupons	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	The supermarket has frequent sales or special promotions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	The supermarket provides a money back guarantee	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	The location of the supermarket is close to my home or work place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	Supermarkets have clearer date marks on products than other stores	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	The supermarket provides good product quality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	Other stores do not have long opening hours	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

15	The supermarket provides a good selection of national brands	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	Other stores do not have as good layouts for easy shopping	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	The supermarket has helpful personnel to serve	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	Other stores offer fewer imported foods than supermarkets	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	The supermarket has short waits for checkout	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	It is not as easy to buy organic product from hypermarkets and traditional markets as it is at supermarkets	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	Most of the supermarket's food has been prepared and is ready to cook or eat	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	Other stores are far away from my home or work place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	The supermarket offers loyalty and bonus schemes	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	Some other stores don't provide small packets of products	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	Which are the 3 most important of the above (1~24) statements in your opinion for shopping at this shop. Give them in order of importance	*Most Important* ☐	*Second Important* ☐	*Third Important* ☐			

26 What do you dislike about the supermarket? ______________________________

F. Overall Evaluation

1. **How likely would you be to recommend that supermarket to your family/friends?**
   ☐ Highly likely ☐ Likely ☐ Neutral ☐ Unlikely ☐ Highly unlikely
2. **How would you describe the shopping experience in this shop?**
   ☐ Very enjoyable ☐ Enjoyable ☐ OK ☐ Disagreeable ☐ Very disagreeable
3. **Is there any factor/feature/characteristic that you think is important when you shop at the supermarket but we have not included in the questionnaire? Please comment.**

   ____

   ____

Thanks for your time to complete this survey and provide us with these information.

Appendix D3
消費者對傳統市場認知的調查

親愛的女士/先生

您對傳統市場特徵的理解和意見，將有助於我們的研究。您的寶貴意見，我們將作爲研究之用，並保證不會提供給他人作爲其它用途；同時十二萬分的感謝您撥空參與我們的研究。

真理大學企管系

請您在 ☐ 勾選適當的答案

A. 基本資料

下列敘述是有關於<u>您與您的家人</u>

1. 您的年齡
☐ 30 歲以下 ☐ 30-39 歲 ☐ 40-49 歲 ☐ 50-59 歲 ☐ 60 歲以上

2. 性別
☐ 男性 ☐ 女性

3. 婚姻狀況
☐ 單身（未婚） ☐ 已婚 ☐ 離婚/分居

4. 最高學歷
☐ 高中(職)或以下 ☐ 專科 ☐大學 ☐ 研究所或以上

5. 您目前的工作內容/狀況 (請只選一項)
☐ 管理/決策階層 ☐ 專業人士 (如教師、醫師、律師、工程師等) ☐ 自由業/自行僱用
☐ 人民公僕 (如公務員、軍人等) ☐ 一般職員 (如行政人員、業務員、服務人員等)
☐ 技術人員 (如工程人員、操作員等) ☐ 農民、漁民 ☐ 全職家庭主夫/主婦
☐ 學生（含剛畢業） ☐ 退休 ☐ 其它__________(請說明)

6. 請問您家庭的全年收入
☐ NT$ 1,000,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 1,000,001 – 1,800,000 ☐ NT$ 1,800,001 – 2,400,000
☐ NT$ 2,400,001 以上

7. 請問有多少家庭成員貢獻您的家庭全年收入
☐ 0 人 ☐ 1 人 ☐ 2 人 ☐ 3 人 ☐4 人或以上

8. 請約略估計您家房屋的坪數
☐ 30 坪以內 ☐ 30-39 坪 ☐ 40-49 坪 ☐ 50-59 坪 ☐ 60-69 坪
☐ 70 坪以上

9. 包含您自已有多少家庭成員住在目前的地址
大人,19-59 歲: ☐☐人
大人,60 歲以上: ☐☐人
小孩,18 歲以下: ☐☐人

10. 您目前住家的郵遞區號: ☐☐☐

B. 消費習慣

下列敘述是有關於<u>您與您家人</u>的消費習慣

1. 您與您的家人大部分在哪裡買菜與日用品 (請只選一項)
☐ 大賣場 ☐ 超級市場 ☐ 傳統市場(含路邊小販)
☐ 大賣場與傳統市場 ☐ 超級市場與傳統市場
☐ 大賣場與超級市場 ☐ 全部都常去

2. 在一星期當中您與您的家人通常喜歡在哪些天買菜
☐ 週末（星期六、日） ☐ 星期一至星期五 ☐ 以上兩者皆是
又通常喜歡在何時去買 (可複選)
☐ 早上 ☐ 下午 ☐ 傍晚/晚上 ☐ 夜晚/深夜

3. 您與您的家人會特別爲國定假日或傳統民俗節日上街買菜嗎
☐ 會 ☐ 不會

4. 假如會的話您們會比較喜歡去哪裡買 (請只選一項)
☐ 大賣場 ☐ 超級市場 ☐ 傳統市場含路邊小販
☐ 大賣場與傳統市場 ☐ 超級市場與傳統市場
☐ 大賣場與超級市場 ☐ 全部都會去

5. 平均一星期您與您的家人大約會去市場幾次
☐ 0-1 次 ☐ 2 次 ☐ 3 次 ☐ 4 次 ☐ 5 次 ☐ 6 次 ☐ >7 次

6. 平均一星期大約花多少時間買菜
☐ 少於 1 小時 ☐ 1-2 小時 ☐ 3-4 小時 ☐ 5-6 小時
☐ 7-8 小時 ☐ 9 小時或以上

7. 平均一星期您與您的家人大約用多少錢買菜及日用品
☐ NT$ 2,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 2,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-6,000 ☐ NT$ 6,001-8,000
☐ NT$ 8,000-10,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 10,000

8. 請您約略估算去年您家在大賣場花了多少錢購買耐用商品（如：家具、電腦、冰箱、電視等）
☐ 沒買過 ☐ NT$5,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 5,001-20,000 ☐ NT$ 20,001-50,000
☐ 超過 NT$ 50,000

9. 您會再回到大賣場購買耐用商品嗎
☐ 一定會 ☐ 可能會 ☐ 不一定 ☐ 可能不會 ☐ 一定不會

C. 最近一次的購買

*下列敘述是有關您與您的家人**最近一次到傳統市場**的購買情形*

1. 您與您的家人是利用哪種交通工具來到這市場
☐ 走路 ☐ 開車 ☐ 騎機車/腳踏車 ☐ 公車 ☐ 捷運/火車

2. 從您家來到這市場大約要用多少時間
☐ 少於 10 分鐘 ☐ 10-30 分鐘 ☐ 31-60 分鐘 ☐ 超過 1 小時

3. 從您家來到這市場大約多遠
☐ 少於 1 公里（步行約 12 分鐘） ☐ 1-3 公里（步行約 12-30 分鐘） ☐ 3-7 公里
☐ 7-12 公里 ☐ 12-20 公里 ☐ 超過 20 公里

4. 您與您的家人大約用多少錢於購買食品
☐ NT$ 500 以內 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000
☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-5,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 5,000
同時大約用多少錢於購買非食品及日用品
☐ NT$ 500 以內 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000
☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-5,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 5,000

5. 來這市場的主要目的是爲了購買 (可複選)
☐ 生鮮食品 ☐ 非生鮮食品及日用品 ☐ 這裡才買得到的特別商品或特價品
☐ 耐用商品(電器、家具、電腦等) ☐ 其它________________(請說明)

6. 除了您自己還有那些人陪您來 (可複選)
☐ 我自己一個人來 ☐ 家中長輩 ☐ 我的先生/太太
☐ 家人/親戚/朋友, 有幾人: ☐ 1 人 ☐ 2 人 ☐ 3 人 ☐ 超過 4 人
☐ 小孩少於 18 歲, 有幾人: ☐ 1 人 ☐ 2 人 ☐ 3 人 ☐ 超過 4 人

D. 其它市場

下列敘述是有關於您與您的家人在其他市場的消費

1. **除了這個傳統市場以外，近兩個月內您與您的家人是否還去過其它地方買菜嗎?**

☐ 是 ☐ 否, 沒去過其它地方（若否, 請跳至E項作答）

假如是的話，去哪裡 (可複選)

☐ 家樂福 ☐ 愛買吉安 ☐ 大潤發 ☐ 特易購 ☐ 其它________

☐ 其它的超級市場 ☐ 其它的傳統市場

2. **同上一題，您與您的家人花了多少錢在那些地方購買**

☐ NT$ 1,000 以內 ☐ NT$ 1,001-3,000 ☐ NT$ 3,001-5,000

☐ NT$ 5,001-10,000 ☐ NT$ 10,001-20,000 ☐ 超過 NT$ 20,000

3. **您與您的家人會多久到其它市場一次**

☐ 一星期好多次 ☐ 約一星期一次 ☐ 一個月二三次

☐ 約一個月一次 ☐ 一年有好幾次

4. **您與您的家人會爲了哪些特別商品到其它市場** (可複選)

☐ 生鮮食品 ☐ 非生鮮食品及日用品 ☐ 這裡才買得到的特別商品或特價品

☐ 耐用商品(電器、家具、電腦等) ☐ 其它______________(請說明)

E. 傳統市場的特徵

您同意下列對傳統市場的敘述嗎（請您與大賣場及超級市場作比較）

		非常同意	同意	沒意見	不同意	非常不同意	不知道
1	傳統市場接近我家或我上班地點	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	除了在傳統市場外，大賣場及超級市場不容易買得到傳統民俗節慶的用品	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	傳統市場的生鮮食品品質比大賣場及超級市場好	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	大賣場及超級市場賣的食品比傳統市場貴	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	傳統市場的食物比大賣場及超級市場新鮮	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	在超級市場及大賣場買菜無法得到免費的蔥或薑	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	某些傳統市場攤商提供免費的送到家服務	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	大賣場及超級市場的熟食沒有傳統市場好吃	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	在傳統市場買東西可以討價還價	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	大賣場及超級市場並未提供個別的(特別的)訂購服務	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	在傳統市場我可以依照需要，購買我所要的數量	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	除傳統市場外，大賣場及超級市場並未提供某些特別的食物與材料	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

		非常同意	同意	沒意見	不同意	非常不同意	不知道
13	傳統市場的地點對我比較方便	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	在大賣場及超級市場我無法與服務人員討論有關食材與商品特性	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	我喜歡傳統市場的購買氣氛	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	大賣場及超級市場的服務人員沒有像傳統市場的攤商那樣具有人情味	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	在傳統市場我可以慢慢的挑選我要買的食物	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	在大賣場及超級市場不容易遇見我的朋友與鄰居	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	假日時傳統市場適合我帶家人一起來	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	在傳統市場可以買到便宜流行的服飾、鞋子與飾品	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	在傳統市場中較容易與攤商建立友誼而方便購買	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	我已經習慣在傳統市場購買食物與日用品	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	依照您的看法,第 1 題到第 22 題哪三項敘述，您認爲較爲重要而影響您與您的家人來此傳統市場購買，請將<u>題號</u>依重要性填寫在右列空格：	最重要 ☐	第二重要 ☐	第三重要 ☐			

24 您最不喜歡傳統市場的哪一方面？________________________________

F. 整體評價

1.您可能會推薦這個傳統市場(您最近一次去的傳統市場)給您的家人或朋友

☐ 非常可能 ☐ 可能 ☐ 不一定 ☐ 不可能 ☐ 非常不可能

2.您如何陳述您在這市場的購物經驗

☐ 非常愉快 ☐ 愉快 ☐ 尙可 ☐ 不愉快 ☐ 非常不愉快

3.在這份問卷裡是否還有任何有關於您在傳統市場裡的購物經驗與了解，您認爲很重要而我們並 未將其列入，請您爲我們提供您的寶貴意見

____

____

感謝您的參與並提供我們這些寶貴經驗

Appendix D3

Survey of consumers' perceptions of the Traditional Market

Dear Sir/Madam,

Your perceptions and opinions with regard to the important characteristics of the traditional market in which you are currently shopping are very important to this study. Your participation in this study and your comments will be treated in confidence, and we thank you very much for your time in taking part in this survey.

Please tick the answer most relevant to you.

A. Demographic Characteristics

The following are some questions about you and your family.

1. **What is your age?**
   ☐ Under 30 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ Over 60
2. **What is your gender?**
   ☐ Male ☐ Female
3. **What is your marital status?**
   ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced/separated ☐ Widowed
4. **What is the highest level of education you have completed?**
   ☐ ~High School ☐ College/University ☐ Postgraduate
5. **How would you describe your present work?**
   ☐ Executive or managerial ☐ Professional ☐ Self-employee ☐ Civil service
   ☐ Clerical ☐ Skilled/semi-skilled ☐ Framer or fisherman ☐ Full-time homemaker
   ☐ Student ☐ Retire ☐ Other________(please specify)
6. **What is your family's total annual income?** (£1=NT$55)
   ☐ Under NT$ 1,000,000 ☐ NT$ 1,000,001 – 1,800,000 ☐ NT$ 1,800,001 – 2,400,000
   ☐ NT$ 2,400,001 or more
7. **How many members of your family contribute to your family's annual income?**
   ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 and above
8. **Approximately, what is the area of your house?** Level ground (1 level ground=36square feet)
   ☐ Under 30 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60-69 ☐ over 70
9. **Counting yourself, how many family members live in your household?**
   Adult: ☐☐ Adult age over 60: ☐☐
   Child of 18: ☐☐
10. **What is the ZIP code at your place of living?** ☐☐☐

B. Shopping Habits

The following are some questions about the shopping habits of you and your family.

1. **Where do you and your family buy most of the food and groceries for your family?**
   ☐ Hypermarket ☐ Supermarket ☐ Traditional market
   ☐ Hypermarket and Traditional market ☐ Supermarket and Traditional market
   ☐ Hypermarket and Supermarket ☐ All of them
2. **When do you and your family usually shop for food and groceries during a week?**
   ☐ Weekend (Saturday and Sunday) ☐ Weekday (Monday to Friday) ☐ Both
   Which t**ime of day is usual for a major shopping trip**
   ☐ Morning ☐ Afternoon ☐ Evening ☐ Late night
3. **Do you and your family shop especially for public holidays or traditional festivals?**
   ☐ Yes ☐ No ***(if No, go to number 5)***

4. If so, where do you and your family shop for holidays?

☐ Hypermarket ☐ Supermarket ☐ Traditional market
☐ Hypermarket and Traditional market ☐ Supermarket and Traditional market
☐ Hypermarket and Supermarket ☐ All of them

5. What is the total number of shopping trips for food and groceries that you and your family do in an average week?

☐ 0-1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ >7

6. Please estimate the total time spent on shopping for food and groceries for you and your family in an average week?

☐ Less than 1 hour ☐ 1-2 hours ☐ 3-4 hours ☐ 5-6 hours
☐ 7-8 hours ☐ 9 hours or more

7. Please estimate total amount of money spent on shopping for food and groceries by you and your family in an average week? (£1=NT$55)

☐ Under NT$ 2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-6,000 ☐ NT$ 6,001-8,000
☐ NT$ 8,001-10,000 ☐ Above NT$ 10,000

8. Please estimate your household's expenditure in durable goods in the hypermarket in the last year? (£1=NT$55)

☐ None ☐ Under NT$5,000 ☐ NT$ 5,001-20,000 ☐ NT$ 20,001-50,000
☐ Above NT$ 50,000

9. Would you return to the hypermarket to buy durable goods?

☐ Definitely yes ☐ Probably yes ☐ Neutral ☐ Probably no ☐ Definitely no

C. The Last Shopping Trip to a traditional market

The following are some questions about the last shopping trip of you and your family.

1. What kind of transportation did you and/or your family use for travelling to this market?

☐ By foot ☐ Car ☐ Scooter ☐ Bus ☐ Train or Metro

2. Approximately how much time does it take you and/or your family to travel to this market from your home?

☐ Under 10 minutes ☐ 10-30 minutes ☐ 31-60 minutes ☐ More than 1 hour

3. Approximately how far is it to this market from your home? (1 mile=1.6 km)

☐ Under 1 km ☐ 1-3 km ☐ 3-7 km ☐ 7-12 km
☐ 12-20 km ☐ Above 20 km

4. What amount of money have you and/or your family spent this time on <u>food items</u> in this market?
(£1=NT$55)

☐ Under NT$ 500 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000
☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-5,000 ☐ Above NT$ 5,000

and on <u>non-food items</u> in this market?

☐ Under NT$ 500 ☐ NT$ 501-1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-2,000 ☐ NT$ 2,001-3,000
☐ NT$ 3,001-4,000 ☐ NT$ 4,001-5,000 ☐ Above NT$ 5,000

5. What was the purpose of that shopping trip? ***(Please tick the appropriate boxes)***

☐ Fresh food items ☐ Non-fresh food items/general groceries ☐ Durable goods
☐ Special items available here with/without advantageous price ☐ Others

6. Who came with you on this shopping trip?

☐ Alone
☐ Elder family member(s)
☐ Husband/Wife
☐ Child under 18, how many ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ Over 4
☐ Other family member(s)/Friends/Relatives, how many ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ Over 4

D. Other Shops

The following are some questions about other shops that you and your family go to in addition to this one.

1. **Apart from this traditional market store, have you and/or your family also shopped in other store(s) within the last two months?** ☐ Yes ☐ No ***(if NO, go to Section E)***
   If Yes which one*:* (Please tick the appropriate boxes)
   ☐ Carrefour ☐ Fa-Geánt ☐ Rt-Mart ☐ Tesco ☐ Other_______
   ☐ Supermarkets ☐ Other traditional markets or independent grocers
2. **How much have you and/or your family spent at the other store(s) in the last two months?** (£1=NT$55)
   ☐ Under NT$ 1,000 ☐ NT$ 1,001-3,000 ☐ NT$ 3,001-5,000 ☐ NT$ 5,001-10,000
   ☐ NT$ 10,001-20,000 ☐ Above NT$ 20,000
3. **How often do you and/or your family also shop at other stores?**
   ☐ Once a week ☐ More than once a week ☐ Once a month
   ☐ 2~3 times a month ☐ Several times a year
4. **For what particular goods did you and your family shop at other stores? *(Please tick the appropriate boxes)***
   ☐ Fresh food items ☐ Non-fresh food items/general groceries ☐ Durable goods
   ☐ Special items available here with/without advantageous price ☐ Others

E. Shopping Preferences and Attitudes

The following are statements about the traditional market in comparison with hypermarkets and supermarket. Please indicate your agreement with each statement by ticking the appropriate box.

		Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**	**No Response**
1	The traditional market is close to my home or work place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	I cannot buy special goods for traditional festivals except in traditional market	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	The traditional market has better quality fresh food than other stores (e.g. hypermarkets and supermarkets)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	Food in other stores is more expansive than in the traditional market	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	Food in the traditional market is fresher than other stores	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	I cannot get complimentary vegetables from other stores	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	Some vendors of the traditional market offer free delivery service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	The ready-to-eat food at other stores is not as delicious as that of the traditional market	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	I can bargain over the price in the traditional market	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	Hypermarkets and supermarkets do not provide special order services as the traditional market does	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	I can buy as small or as large a quantity as I wish in the traditional market	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	I can buy something special (food) only in the traditional markets	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13	The location of the traditional market is near to my home or work place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	I can discuss the food and /or groceries characteristics with vendors of the traditional market but not in other stores	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	I enjoy the atmosphere of the traditional market.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	Vendors of the traditional market are friendly, caring and humorous	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	I can take my time to select individual fresh products in the traditional market	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	It is difficult to meet my friends and neighbours in other stores	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	The traditional market is a good place to go with my family during holidays	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	I can buy cheap and fashionable clothes, shoes and accessories in the traditional markets	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	I can make good friendships with the vendors, this makes for ease for buying	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	I am not used to buying foods and groceries from other stores	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	Which are the 3 most important of the above (1~22) statements in your opinion for shopping at the market. Give them in order of importance	**Most Important** ☐	**Second Important** ☐	**Third Important** ☐			

24 What do you dislike about the traditional market? ______________________________

F. Overall Evaluation

1. **How likely would you be to recommend that traditional market to your family/friends?**
   ☐ Highly likely ☐ Likely ☐ Neutral ☐ Unlikely ☐ Highly unlikely
2. **How would you describe the shopping experience in this market?**
   ☐ Very enjoyable ☐ Enjoyable ☐ OK ☐ Disagreeable ☐ Very disagreeable
3. **Is there any factor/feature/characteristic that you think is important when you shop at the traditional market but we have not included in the questionnaire? Please comment.**
   ____
   ____

Thank you for taking part in this survey and provide us with this information.