chapter number-two

review of literature
## CHAPTER TWO
### CHAPTER CONTENTS AT A GLANCE

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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PROLOGUE:
An attempt has been made by the researcher to put forward a bird eye-view on the review of literature.

A well structured review of literature is characterized by a logical flow of ideas; current and relevant references with consistent and appropriate referencing style; proper use of terminology; and an unbiased and comprehensive view of the previous research on the topic (Cooper H, 2010). This chapter is an outcome of browsing, classification, compilation and critical examination of theses, research reports, dissertations, as well as scholarly published articles, research papers, empirical studies, reference books and publication of the proceedings of the seminars, conferences, workshops relating to the chosen area of the research study.

2.0: REVIEW OF LITERATURE:
In this chapter, an attempt has been made by the researcher to put forward a brief review of existing and relevant literature on the selected areas viz., Shopping Orientations; Store Attributes; and Retail Formats. The researcher has carried out review of literature on the selected store attributes viz., Atmosphere, Store Image, Visual Merchandising, Institutional Factors, Physical Facilities, Store Layout, Ambience, Accessibility, Sales Promotion Schemes, Range of Products, and Behaviour of Sales Staff. The researcher has also provided review of literature on shoppers’ satisfaction, and shopper patronage.

After the launch of New Industrial Policy the retail sector in India has undergone a paradigm shift. The retailers’ in the unorganized market used to offer price discounts, gifts and other freebies in order to attract the consumers’ in their stores. The modern day retailer offers a wide range of store attributes to attract the shopper. The consumer is at the nucleus for any retail outlet. Retailing is always consumer oriented and studying the consumer shopping behavior is of paramount significance for the retailers. The consumer now is known as a prosumer as he is actively involved and engaged in the shopping journey. This active participation makes him a shopper as he is very cautious and prudent in terms of the products that he/she selects for buying. The shopper is one who is not only characterized by active participation but also by his/her choice of the shopping environment which he/she will remain loyal to while choosing and buying various products. (Source: PWC Retail Report, 2015).
The subject domain of retailing mainly comprises of the aspects of the behavioural science such as shoppers’ attitudes, expectations from retail stores, perception and preferences towards attributes offered, shopping motives, patronage intentions etc.

The other key areas of research from the retailers’ perspective are retail store attributes, store formats, merchandise management, assortments quality and variety, supply chain management, display and visual merchandising, store ambience and store atmospherics.

There are ample of studies conducted on various aspects of retail in the last decade pertaining to different geographies and demographics, some of them have been covered in this chapter.

This chapter is an outcome of an intensive study on the related literature available in the area of retailing. The researcher in this chapter has made a humble attempt to study the research carried out by others so as to identify a gap and study it in detail so as to build a premise for further empirical investigation in the later part of the study.

An attempt has been made by the researcher to review the existing and relevant literature on selected areas viz., Retailing formats; shopping orientations, and store attributes which is briefly discussed in the following section.

According to Swinyard (1997), shopping patterns of consumers are more sophisticated, they expect high level of services and merchandise quality (Swinyard, 1997).

Gupta et al. (2004) in his study opined that the Indian consumer behavior in the past decade is going through a radical transformation due to availability of large assortment of major products leaving an impact on their level of consumption and consumption structure. The consumer is no longer shopping from the local market; rather the place of shopping has shifted to the stores in malls which offer a wide variety of assortments (Gupta et al., 2004).

Moschis (1992) studied that malls are generally having entertainment value which caters to the younger population segments. The Shopping behaviour of younger consumers’ will be dominated by entertainment orientation. The older consumer focuses on convenience and leisure and hence tends to be utilitarian in their shopping journey. (Moschis, 1992).

According to Mishra (2007), India is swiftly entering into the next wave of modern retailing. This can be characterized by huge retail stores and plazas located in prime locations of the city which offer shopping facilities along with entertainment and leisure to the consumers. The retailers are also offering different experiences to shoppers by having varied formats which suit the shoppers’ style of shopping. The retail formats are typical store models which carter and assist shoppers for buying various products (Mishra, 2007).
Mishra (2008) in his study identified that store capaciousness, favourable demography, rise in younger working population, wide availability of brands, variety of consumer financing schemes, changing lifestyle, modern retail formats and foreign direct investment are the strengths and opportunities for modern retail models (Mishra, 2008).

Arshad et al. (2008), Kaur and Singh (2007) and Ghosh et al. (2010) identified the prospects of retail sector growth in India. He opined that India is a young nation as around 47 per cent of India’s population is having the average age of 25 years. This figure is expected to reach around 55 per cent by the end of the year 2015. It is clearly evident that this buoyancy of the aspirational and consuming class will lead to growth of retail sector in India.

Dash and Candy (2009), Technopak Retail Report (2011) in their research study revealed that growing middle class having high disposable income will lead to the growth of retail sector in India.

**Figure Number: 2.1: Framework of Emerging Retail Formats And Consumer Preferences**

Source: Ghosh P, Tripathi V, Kumar A, 2010
2.1: THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF SHOPPING ORIENTATIONS AND STORE ATTRIBUTES:

In this section the researcher has made an attempt to highlight the conceptual framework of shopping orientations and store attributes.

Models and concepts developed by Darden (1980), Donovan and Rossiter (1982), Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992b), and Mehrabian and Russell (1974) were studied to form the framework for this study.

Darden (1980) developed a patronage model of consumer behavior. The overall objective of this model was to operationalize consumer patronage intentions. Darden's model proposed relationships between personal characteristics i.e., terminal values, lifestyles, social class, and stage in the family life cycle) and shopping orientations, personal characteristics and information sources, and information sources and shopping orientations. In addition, Darden proposed direct sequential relationships among shopping orientations, store attributes, and patronage behavior (Darden, 1980).

The purpose of this process is to find a store and/or product combination that will satisfy the needs of the consumer. The consumer decides to visit stores within the evoked set. Decisions about stores are made based on store attribute beliefs and store attribute salience. These attributes, as well as inhibitors (i.e., income, time, and social pressure) create patronage intentions, which determine patronage behavior and results in stores visited and products purchased. Finally, patronage behavior modifies attribute beliefs, shopping orientations, and results in the reduction of consumer needs through social experiences. Additionally, patronage behavior results in immediate or direct consumption over a period of time (ibid).

Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992a) have relied upon the popular model of Darden for patronage behaviour as the base of their theoretical framework for their study. They modified Darden's model to examine the patronage behavior of apparel shopping. This research was the first of a two-part study of apparel shopping (Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1992a).

The researcher has made an attempt to provide a brief conceptual framework and the model to be used in the research study as follows.
Figure Number: 2.2: Model of Shopping Orientation and Store Attributes

Demographics
- Age
- Gender
- Level of Education
- Marital Status
- Number of children
- Occupation
- Residence
- Level of Income
- Social Class
- Family Life Cycle

Psychographics
- Lifestyle
- Environmental Disposition
- Values

Socio-cultural Variables
- Social Class
- Family Life Cycle
- Culture
- Sub-culture

Information Sources

Store Attributes
- Store Image
- Visual Merchandising
- In-Store Communication
- Store Location
- Service Dimensions
- Store Convenience
- Accessibility
- Range
- Sales Promotion Schemes
- Behavior of Staff
- Store Layout /Ambience
- Facilities
- Location
- Institutional Factors

Attitude

Approach/avoidance Behaviour

Emotional State

Consumer Satisfaction

Patronage Behaviour

Store Loyalty

Source: Visser E.M, 2006 [Adopted Proposed Conceptual Theoretical Model of Store Attributes and Related Consumer Behaviour Variables]

Confirmed relationships
Contradictory findings
Darden (1971) studied several variables that determine the patronage behaviour of shoppers’. The variables identified were store attributes, shopping orientatttions, information sources and personal variables. The objectives of the study was to predict patronage behavior of apparel shopping; to predict store attributes, which influence patronage behavior; to predict shopping orientations, which influence store attributes; and to predict information sources, which impact shopping orientations (ibid).

The framework given by Darden in his patronage model is taken as a reference in this research study so as to investigate the relationship between shopping orientations and store attributes in the selected cities of the Gujarat State.

**Figure Number: 2.3: Darden’s Patronage Model of Consumer Behaviour**

![Diagram showing the relationship between personal characteristics, information sources, shopping orientations, and patronage behavior.](image)

Source: Darden, 1980

Moschis (1992) concluded that Lifestyles and shopping orientations are good predictors of various aspects of shopping behavior such as store loyalty and preferences for types of retail outlets (Moschis, 1992). According to Darden’s (1980), shopping orientation serve as key construct in a patronage choice model.

Shim & Kotsiopulos, (1992a,1992b) studied the antecedent variables to shopping orientations include personal characteristics such as lifestyle, social class and family life cycle and information sources. It was also hypothesized that shopping orientation to a large extend determined by the store image, which in turn impact on patronage behavior (Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992a,1992b).
2.2: SHOPPING ORIENTATIONS:

In this section, an attempt has been made by the researcher to offer a brief discussion on selected literature pertaining to the area of shopping orientation.

Shopping orientations are the typical and unique ways that a shopper exhibits while buying products and services. The shopping orientation can also be used as a market segmentation tool by which the retailers’ can reach to their target market by clearly having a focused and well defined personalized communication strategies to motivate a particular segment in the market.

Moschis (1992) has defined shopping orientations as shopper patterns that include consumer activities, interests, and opinions about the shopping process (Moschis 1992). The way of shopping indicates their attitude for shopping which is deep rooted in their mind. For example, with respect to values and orientations may reflect consumers’ favorable attitude for green and environmentally friendly products. Shopper orientations may be used to represent consumers’ personal, economic, recreational and social motivations for shopping (Darden and Dorsch, 1980). Researchers have found a link between shopping orientation and consumer patronage which is noteworthy. The conceptual models show the influence of shopping orientations on patronage behaviour. Consumers have shown preference or lack of preference for stores, brands, advertisements and other marketing stimuli such as product attributes, brand associations by expressing a favorable or unfavorable attitude (Moschis 1992). These orientations vary from consumer to consumer (Luomala 2006) and they represent rather “long enduring characteristics of individuals” (Westbrook and Black 1985).

The study conducted by Birtwistle; Doyle and Fenwick on retail shoppers’ behaviour conceptualize the perception of the individual shopper with reference to the store attributes which are in turn affected by their shopping orientations (Birtwistle et al. 1999; Doyle and Fenwick 1974). Lumpkin (1985) investigated the influence of shopping orientations of the shoppers’ on the perceived image of a store (Lumpkin 1985; Mason et al. 1983; Osman 1993). Hanna and Wozniak (2001) studied that perception of the store attributes by the shoppers’ is not simply dependent on the orientations of the consumers, but is the result of both psychological and emotional constructs of shopping (Hanna and Wozniak, 2001). Jarratt (1996) had made an attempt to segment and categorize the shoppers’ into various groups. He derived taxonomies of various groups who have different value propositions such as economic, recreational, emotional, social, entertainment oriented etc. (Jarratt, 1996).
Further, empirical investigations and their deduced shopper typologies are given by Osman (1993).

Westbrook and Black (1985) extensively summarized other research studies and opined that there are shoppers’ who shop with various attitudinal predispositions while they are in the retail store. Some shoppers’ give more attention to price, convenience and the variety of goods sold, whereas some have a very low involvement and low motivation towards shopping across all dimensions (Westbrook and Black, 1985). The first pioneering research work in the area of shopping orientation was carried out by Stone. Stone (1954) interviewed women buying apparel and identified four kinds of shoppers; Economic shoppers who would evaluate the store on its offerings in terms of merchandise and prices; Personalizing shoppers who would develop relations with the salespersons. Ethical shoppers were those who shopped to help the “little guy.” Apathetic who displayed lack of interest in shopping (Stone, 1954). This study became the base for all the studies in this area of shopping orientation. A study in Chicago Tribune in 1955 used in-depth interviews and projective techniques to study the women shoppers deduced that the shoppers’ can be categorized as Dependent, Compulsive, and Individualistic (Brown and Reid, 1955). Gillett (1973) in his research study found that the attitude of those who shops from home using online shopping were same as those who shop from retail stores (Gillett, 1973). Darden and Ashton (1974-1975) interviewed housewives and observed that they are more conscious about their shopping preferences compared to working women (Darden and Ashton ,1974-75). Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) in their research study propounded the shopper typology where they identified that there are recreational shoppers who shop in their leisure time whereas others were rational regarding shopping and gave more importance to price. They found that women were more attracted to store image (Bellenger and Korgaonkar, 1980). Westbrook and Black (1985) classified shoppers based on their involvement with shopping. (Westbrook and Black, 1985).

Tauber (1972) studied and concluded that Shopping is an activity aimed at collecting information. The search processes give shoppers an opportunity to ensure that they take the right decision. In addition, they also derive emotional satisfaction (Tauber, 1972).

Carpenter, J.M., Moore, M., (2006) studied shopping activities and identified that it involves a “see-touch-feel-select” sequence. The degree to which the shoppers follow the whole or part of this process varies with brand, product categories, and other elements of the marketing mix (Carpenter, J.M., Moore, M., 2006).
In an exploratory study conducted in India (Sinha et. al. 2002), it was found that the extent also depended on the association that the shopper had with the store. Shoppers, who were new to the store or were, considering buying a brand for the first time, showed a higher level of information search. Those who were frequent buyers of the store would either go straight to the stack or pick up the product or would ask the retailers when trying a new brand. In some cases they would pick up the product. The shopping orientation is a construct that represents the way shoppers do perform the shopping activity. It is a science of shopping that is affected by the environmental cues presented by the retailer in order to motivate the shopper to buy more (ibid). The retailer always attempts to influence the orientation by offering good store layout, attractive format for shopping and store environment (Ward, P., Davies, B.J. & Kooijman, D., 2007). The shopping orientation is also affected by the demographic profile of the shoppers. This results into unique ways that shoppers’ do exhibit when they shop from the retail store that is often based on their attitude (ibid). They are conceptualized as a specific dimension of lifestyle and operationalized on the basis of activities, interests and opinion statements pertaining to acts of shopping. (Visser and Preez, 2000).

Tauber (1972) in his research study opined that shoppers do perform shopping for the purpose of enjoyment, fun, pleasure and self satisfaction. The act of shopping and visiting a store gives a sensory stimulation and a social experience outside the home (Tauber, 1972). In his study he pointed out that such shoppers’ will only go to those store where they get heavy discounts and products at cheaper prices regardless of the quality. A shopper who does not like shopping tends to shop in stores that are close to their homes Stone (1954) studied that Personalizing shoppers include those who prefer shopping at a store “where they know my name”(Stone, 1954). There are peculiar shoppers who prefer an individual treatment while shopping at a given retail store.

From the review of literature on shopping orientation it can be understood that shoppers do shop with pre defined approaches and their lifestyle affects such a pre-disposition. Several studies have found support for the influence of shopper orientation on the perceived image of a store (Mason, Durand and Taylor 1983, Lumpkin 1985).

Shopping orientation reflects shopper styles and the consumers’ needs for product and services (Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992a,1992b). Therefore, consumers with various characteristics showed different shopping orientations, which reflect their unique needs and preferences (Gutman & Mills, 1982; Lumpkin, 1985; S. Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992a, 1992b).
Apparel shopping orientation is defined as the shoppers’ particular styles when they are shopping for apparel products. Apparel shopping orientation can be determined by consumer characteristics, demographics, information sources and store attributes, such as store environment (Moschis, 1992).

Shopping orientations have been shown to be reliable predictors of customer patronage behaviour in other retail formats such as catalogue and mall shopping (Bloch et al. 1994; Gehrt and Carter 1992; Gehrt et al. 1992).

Recreational shoppers, for instance, view shopping as a social activity, and often combine shopping with socializing (Bellenger and Korgaonkar, 1980). Other classifications are based on shoppers’ preferences for in-home shopping and mall shopping (Darden and Reynolds, 1971; Hawes and Lumpkin, 1984; Lumpkin et al., 1986), shopping proneness (Arora, 1985), and the importance placed on convenience (Lumpkin and Hunt 1989). Korgaonkar (1984) tested hypotheses related to consumers’ shopping orientations and their intentions to patronize non-store retailers, and found that convenience and price-oriented shoppers would be more likely to use non-store alternatives when compared to brand conscious shoppers. These results resonated with Gehrt and Carter’s (1992) findings that convenience and recreational orientations are related to catalogue shopping. Vijayasarathy and Jones (2000) found that in-home shopping and mall shopping orientations were significant discriminators between low and high intentions to shop online. Existing research supported this idea, indicating that consumers are motivated to go shopping for different reasons other than pure product acquisition (Buttle & Coates, 1984; Tauber, 1972; Westbrook & Black, 1985). Some consumers simply enjoyed shopping with or without purchasing. For consumers, shopping is both a short-term and long-term relationship with the marketplace, depending on a variety of factors that include the nature of the experience, information search, the type of product or service sought, and the price point of the goods being considered (Gilmore, R., 1987). Time, money, safety, the choice among alternatives of products and retailers, and perceived value are some of the factors of interest that consumer’s feel that they can control.

Retailing has changed along with its customers. Consumers have become increasingly more sophisticated and demanding during the past two decades with the availability and abundance of products, services, information, and technology, as well as a new abundance of retail stores and channels (Terblanche & Boshoff, 2006). Today, the shopping experience has become a central element of consumers’ lives, and for the postmodern consumer, consumption has become an act of experience production and an expression of the self or self-image (Firat & Dholakia, 1995).
In response, many retailers are strategizing to turn shopping into a high-value pursuit and are generating consumer value as an important source of competitive advantage (Woodruff, 1997). Schewe and Balazs (1992) discussed that role transitions may result in changes in consumer behavior due to the enactment of new roles. Therefore, we assume that changes in college senior students’ apparel shopping orientations may be due to the student’s need to redefine his or her self-concept as a result of the assumption of a new role (Gentry, Kennedy, Paul, & Hill, 1995).

People’s motives for shopping are a function of numerous variables, many of which are unrelated to the actual buying of products. Shopping experience is a utilitarian effort aimed at obtaining needed goods and services as well as hedonic rewards. Literature in marketing and related behavioural sciences suggests a breadth of consumer motives for shopping. The idea that consumers are motivated by more than simply the utilitarian motive to obtain desired items has been acknowledged at least as far back as the 1960s by Howard and Sheth (1969). Their consumer behaviour model, in addition to considering traditional explanatory variables such as needs, brand attitudes, and the impact of shopping behaviour on promotions, also examined less explicitly utilitarian consumer motives such as arousal seeking and symbolic communication. Skinner (1969) identified the basic consumer motives in selecting a supermarket for the retail food industry. His study revealed that six variables: friendliness, selection/assortment, cleanliness, parking, fast checkout service, and ease of shopping to increase the probability of the shopping trip being pleasant. Tauber (1972) advanced the idea that shoppers were often motivated by a number of personal and social factors unrelated to the actual need to buy products. He proposed that people shop not just to purchase goods, but to learn about new trends, to make themselves feel better, to gain acceptance with their peers, and simply to divert themselves from life’s daily routine. He identified eleven hidden motives that drive people to the stores and often lead to ‘impulse buys’ among consumers who initially were not planning on buying anything at all. This included social interaction which consists of a variety of social motives, such as, social interaction, reference group affiliation and communicating with others having similar interests. The information-seeking motive, as proposed by Tauber, included information seeking, comparison, and accessing in a retail context. Tauber (1972) suggested that a traditional emphasis on information processing related to specific product attributes, and resultant focus on what may be termed utilitarian shopping considerations, does not completely explain purchase and consumption behavior.
Researchers have identified a segment of consumer ‘market mavens’ who are particularly likely to provide other people with information on obtaining the best values for particular purchases. Individuals scoring highest on the maven scale were found not only to engage in more information search and provide others with more information, but also to enjoy shopping more (Feick and Price, 1987; Slama and Williams, 1990; Belch et al., 2005). Thompson et al. (1993) similarly observed hedonic and utilitarian shopping motives coexisting among consumers, although one mode tended to dominate some consumers. Schindler (1989) suggested that while some consumers may be strongly influenced by the utilitarian benefits of obtaining a valued product at a good price, ‘ego-expressive’ desires to bolster one’s self-concept as a smart shopper may be a stronger motivator. He did not formally test this hypothesis. Numerous researchers (e.g., Feick and Price, 1987; Lichtenstein et al., 1990; Schindler, 1990; Slama and Williams, 1990) have focused on the feelings of mastery experienced by consumers who feel responsible for being able to obtain good deals. It is evident that consumers often experience an involvement in the shopping process which far exceeds a detached effort to obtain desired products in an efficient and cost-effective manner. This experience may be primarily recreational in nature, or may be motivated more in terms of ego-involvement in one’s shopping skills. In the retail shopping experience, a recreational shopper is seen to be one who enjoys shopping and appreciates the process and enjoyment of shopping. Tauber (1972), Rohm and Swaminathan (2004) identified two concepts of retail shopping motives. On one hand, retail shopping experience refers to the enjoyment of shopping as a leisure-based activity and second, it taps into aspects of the enjoyment of shopping for its own sake. It was argued that, in many instances, consumers may desire to obtain a higher level of experiential consumption relative to utilitarian consumption (Kim, 2001). Shopping enjoyment is an enduring individual trait that influences enduring shopping style and has previously been associated with transient emotional responses (Dawson et al., 1990; Koufaris et al., 2002). That is the underlying and enduring shopping enjoyment trait impacts transient emotions that may arise during particular shopping episodes. Positive emotions such as excitement, pleasure, and satisfaction have also been identified as significant determinants of consumer shopping behaviour. The importance of the emotional element for successful retailing has been evidenced in the emphasis on emotional retailing (Kim et al. 2002). Regarding the emotional responses of consumers to the textile/apparel product offerings at stores, Kim et al. (2002) found that consumers in Shanghai gave higher ratings to utilitarian responses, i.e. efficient, timesaving, convenient than to hedonic responses, i.e. excited, surprised, interested.
Korean consumers rated utilitarian and hedonic responses approximately equally. This result reflected how consumers at discount stores in the two country markets responded to their present textile/apparel offerings at the stores. It was also suggested that satisfying shoppers in the discount store format with utilitarian attributes of textile/apparel products is critically important to eliciting positive hedonic emotions as well as utilitarian emotions (ibid).

Consumers in China who generally believe that shopping is very important to their life rated high in both utilitarian and hedonic responses. Also, Chinese consumers who go shopping for the purpose of getting away from daily routines exhibited stronger utilitarian responses. In other words, shopping at a discount store is an important leisure activity to the Chinese consumer. However, Korean consumers’ responses to textile/apparel products were not affected by either individual consumers shopping involvement or shopping motives. Haanpa (2005) made a comparison of different motives and shopping styles. Her study revealed that Finnish consumers were very functionally oriented; they valued ease and convenience and very tangible elements of shopping, such as having the possibility to buy alimentary concurrently when going shopping for other purposes than daily consumer goods. The factor dimensions produced with principal component analysis formed two experiential and gratification type factors, labeled as Hedonistic and Recreational motives. The other two factors were named as Economic and Convenience motive. The analysis of variance revealed that there were, to a certain extent, differences among different consumer groups.

Consumers that were demanding enjoyable experiences in their shopping trips were typically young females especially when it came to shopping are hedonic and escapist elements. Young consumers looked for interesting shopping experiences that were a mixture of social and emotional needs and wants and related to interaction and communication with other people. Parsons (2002) in a follow-up study reported that many of the hidden motivations uncovered by Tauber thirty years prior are relevant to internet shopping today. His findings revealed that online shoppers are commonly driven by personal motives such as diversion, self-gratification, and learning about new trends; and social motives, including social experiences outside the home, communications with others having a similar interest, peer group attraction, and status and authority. Birtwistle et al. (1999) stated that defining market segments through behavioural aspects supply a more concrete foundation for a marketing strategy. By understanding the characteristics of the segments, effective communication can be developed. Du Preez (2001) chose demographics, family life cycle, lifestyle, cultural consciousness, patronage behaviour, shopping orientation, and place of distribution to form clusters of female apparel shoppers.
Some variables chosen by other researchers to investigate shopping behaviour were information sources, situational influences, shopping orientation, product-specific variables, media usage, store-specific variables, socio-psychological attributes, clothing involvement, demographics, socio-cultural, clothing store dimensions, and clothing orientation.

It also includes factors viz., psychographics, personal characteristics and self-concept (Gutman & Mills, 1982, Visser et. al., 1996, Shim & Bickle, 1994; Visser & Du Preez, 1996). Lewison (1997) defined patronage as how individuals choose an outlet for shopping. Store choice and patronage patterns are based on consumer’s perceptions, images, and attitudes formed from experiences, information, and need. Furthermore, patronage behavior involves a decision process related to where consumers shop, how they shop, and what they purchase. This decision process is often initiated by patronage motives, which determine why consumers shop and make purchases at certain retail stores (Neuborne, 1999). As stated by Coleman et al. (1961) the patronage decision process involves three basic components viz., retailer attributes, consumer characteristics and the choice context. Preference for certain retailer attributes differs by consumer and these preferences are reflected in store choice. The store attributes are store prices and values, merchandise selection, purchasing convenience, services offered, merchandise quality, treatment by store personnel, and store reputation (Finn, 1996). Additionally, he stated that patronage behavior was influenced by consumers’ demographic characteristics, store characteristics, competitive environment, and socio-economic environment.

A report of retail consumer survey was conducted by CBRE (2015) to identify current and future shopping trends across the Asia Pacific (APAC) region and findings related to way of shopping of Indian consumer showed that 81 percent favour overall ‘shopping large regional shopping centers experience; 69 percent feel that addition percent shop at physical stores (Abhinav Joshi, 2015). Keeping in mind the value-conscious average Indian consumer, 97 percent of respondents also referred to price as a key factor. Other important decision factors included convenience to travel 97 percent, presence of parking facilities 96 percent and range of retailers 96 percent. Shopping centers are seen as having important social roles, being places for social gatherings and cultural celebrations. Overall experience did matter in their choice of destinations. Areas suggested for improvement for retail store by consumers includes Introduction of free parking; more events; addition of new international brands and Renovation of the retail store (ibid).
Shopper Typology:
There are different shopper types depending on the orientation that they possess, which is discussed in the following section.

Brand conscious and or loyal shopper is a shopper category that reflects the consumer’s desire to purchase certain well-known brands of clothing from particular stores (Cash R. Patrick, 1986).

Convenience and or time conscious shopper is a shopper category that reflects the consumer’s desire to purchase clothing at the most convenient store. Also, this shopper prefers not to spend too much time planning clothing shopping (Baker, 1992).

Economic/price conscious shopper is a shopper category that reflects that consumers’ desire to shop around for bargains and pay attention to clothing prices (Williams, R.H., Painter, J.J., Nicholas, H.R., 1978). Fashion-conscious shopper is a shopper category that reflects consumers that keep their wardrobe up-to-date with latest trends, one who is confident about shopping for clothing and feels that dressing is an important part of one’s life. This shopper thinks of herself as a good clothing shopper, has the ability to choose the right clothing and will usually purchase clothing without hesitation (Baker, 1992 and Donthu, N and Gilliland D, 1996).

- **Economic Shoppers:**
  Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) obtained a profile of 324 recreational shoppers in Atlanta, GA. Lumpkin also studied economic shoppers (Bellenger and Korgaonkar, 1980). These are the shoppers’ who only seek economic value in their entire shopping journey. They have a tendency to obtain highest economic value i.e. value for money.

- **Personalizing shoppers:**
  The personalizing shoppers’ are those who want a personal attention while they carry out their shopping related activities. They are very sensitive and may get irritated if the retailer does not pay attention to their needs and wants. They want a personalized and customized shopping experience and put their choices in the first priority (ibid).

- **Ethical shoppers:**
  Lumpkin et. al. (1985) categorized rural consumers into three shopping orientation groups. Consumers were identified as inactive in shoppers, active out shoppers, and thrifty innovators. Out shoppers were those that shopped outside their hometown or those that used other buying methods such as catalogue shopping.
• **Apathetic shoppers:**
  These people are least interested in their task of shopping. Lumpkin et al. (1982) also examined apathetic shoppers among elderly consumers. They can be described as shopping less than the other two shopper types economic and active shoppers.

• Apathetic shoppers were characterized as those who did not like to shop, wanted to get through the shopping activity with minimum time and effort. They have negative views of stores and their policies. These shoppers often established relationships with sales people, usually in specialty stores to select their clothing (Lumpkin et al., 1982).

• **Recreational shoppers**
  Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) examined the recreational shopper. The recreational shopper tended to be an active shopper who preferred a pleasant store atmosphere with a large variety of high quality merchandise. This shopper spent more time shopping even after making purchases, tended to buy something she liked regardless of urgency or need, and spent less time deliberating before purchases. The recreational shopper engaged in more information seeking than the economic shopper did (Bellenger and Korgaonkar, 1980).

2.3: **RETAIL FORMATS AND STORE ATTRIBUTES:**
Here, in this section an attempt has been made to review the existing literature on retail formats and selected store attributes respectively.

2.3.1: **RETAIL FORMAT:**
According to Hino (2010) the emergence and expansion of supermarkets have gradually decreased the market share of the traditional formats. The factors that helped supermarkets gain consumer preference over the traditional stores are the ‘consumers’ economic ability’ and the ‘format output’. Kuruvilla and Ganguli (2008), Rajagopal (2009), Srivastava (2008) and Jhamb and Kiran (2012) opined that mall development was expected to grow at a rapid pace in metros and mini metros. Shukla (2007) described that food and grocery, health and beauty, apparel, jewellery, footwear, home furniture, household goods, personal goods and consumer durables are the fastest growing categories of organized retail. The most appropriate retail formats for various items are food and grocery supermarket; health and beauty care services supermarket; clothing and apparels’ mall; entertainment mall; watches hypermarket; pharmaceuticals hypermarket; mobile, accessories and services hypermarket; and foot wares departmental store (Goyal et al., 2009).
The results of the study by Mishra (2007) showed that consumers buy essentially convenience goods with lower level of risk from organized outlets and essential products with higher risk from traditional retailers. Mishra (2007) tried to explore the way organized retail had dramatically changed not only the Indian traditional retailing structure but also in the consumption behaviour. Benito et al. (2007) analyzed the relationship between the geo-demographic profile of consumers and retail format choice while accounting for the effects of spatial convenience.

Aggarwal (2008) highlighted the emergence of organized retailing in India and view the catalytic effects of retail on the Indian Economy. Employment generation, growth of real estate, increase in disposable income and development of retail ancillary market are the various catalytic effects on Indian economy.

Further, several researchers noted that the transformation of traditional formats into new formats, viz., departmental stores, hypermarkets, supermarkets, speciality stores and malls taking the lead in attracting consumers in the metro and mini metros. Aggarwal (2008) and Bhardwaj et al. (2007) indicated that the organized retail industry will mean thousands of new jobs, increasing income level, improved standard of living, better products, better shopping experience etc. Consumers have multiple options to choose, ranging from the shopkeeper to the most sophisticated supermarkets, departmental stores, plazas and malls which provide the latest and better quality products. All this has made India the top spot among the favoured retail destination as observed by Gupta (2004), India Retail Report (2009), and Hino (2010). The study by Dash et al. (2009), Kaur et al. (2007) depicted that the growing middle class, large number of earning youth customers, increase in spending, and improvement in infrastructure, and liberalization of the Indian economy offer tremendous opportunities for organized retailing in India. Accordingly, six emerging retail formats viz. malls, speciality stores, convenience stores, discount stores, hyper/supermarkets and departmental stores have been taken up in the present study in the selected cities of Gujarat State.

2.3.2: STORE ATTRIBUTES:

In this section, an attempt has been made to review the selected store attributes that were selected in the research study.

Herpen and Pieters (2000) categorize that the store attribute-approach is more successful as it motivates the consumer to buy the products. The product attributes get a boost from a pleasing store atmosphere. This helps the retailer to be more profitable as not only the sales per person increase but the shopper will prefer to visit the same store again in future.
The study also revealed that both products as well as store attributes play an important role in attracting and retaining the shoppers’ in the retail store. The focal point of research is store attributes that is the retailers’ attribute to portray store as a brand (Herpen and Pieters, 2000). Popkowski et al. (2001) studied that the emerging retail formats are offering a wide range of service attributes which leads to ease of shopping for the shoppers’. Due to emergence of various store formats the shoppers’ can now select many products in less time. Popkowski et al., (2001) and Gupta (2004) is of the view that consumers’ prefer modern retail formats due to latest and better quality products (Gupta, 2004). Urbonavicius and Ivanauskas (2005) methodology is based on evaluation of attributes of the retail outlet offered to the shoppers’ and its perception by shoppers’. The various store attributes include quality of the goods sold, assortment of the goods and prices. They identified that image of the retail outlet was given more importance by the shoppers’ compared to the other store attributes (Urbonavicius and Ivanauskas, 2005). In a research study conducted by Lather and Kaur (2006) and Gupta (1988) the major store attributes that were given due recognition by shoppers’ was the price of the goods sold, sales staff behaviour, quality of goods, assortment and variety of goods. (Lather and Kaur , 2006).

The study by Jackson et al. (2011) and Tendai and Crispin (2009) in their research study illustrate that consumer choice between stores can be understood in terms of accessibility and convenience. When the shoppers’ are inside the store value, price, and quality of products play an important role (ibid). Erdem et al. (1999) observed that there exists a relationship between shoppers’ orientation and the importance that they associate with store attributes. The study indicated that shoppers; give prime importance to the various store attributes and will have loyalty intentions for those stores which not only offer them value for money but also a pleasing and a stimulating shopping environment (Erdem et al., 1999). Thang and Tan (2003) and Dalwadi et al. (2010) studied that modern day shopper prefers to visit a shopping mall and is influenced by various factors like location, ambience, assortment, sales promotion schemes and in-store services. The availability of all products’ under a single roof and the image of “One-Stop-Shop” were given more importance. Such outlets were found it more convenient, time saving and satisfactory (Dalwadi et al., 2010). Mittal and Mittal (2008) studied and opined that the retailers while formulating the marketing strategy ought to consider two sets of key attributes namely loyalty drivers and shopping experience enhancers. These attributes will have to be integrated into the retail format to create a robust strategy to win in a competitive retail market.
The key for success is to give memorable, pleasing, and exciting experience to the shoppers’ by creating a fun filled and enriching shopping environment that leads to impulsive buying among consumers and the shoppers will prefer to visit the store frequently as they get attached to the various attributes offered by these stores (ibid). A study conducted by Gopal, Jain R. and S. Bagdare (2009), and Jacobs et al. (2010) points out the various store attributes like layout, ambience, display, self service kiosks which the shoppers’ give importance to while shopping in the retail outlet.

The study emphasizes that the hedonic aspects of shopping are more important for modern day shoppers’ (Spangenberg et. al., 2005). The study conducted by Jackson et al. (2011) investigate the degree to which attitudes toward store characteristics and shopping value are derived from a store across different demographic parameters (Jackson et al. 2011).

Store atmospheric attributes form the overall context specific imagery within which shoppers make decisions of store selection and patronize the same retail stores in future. Retailers have now realized the importance of such attributes and systematically try to avail of an ambience, including appropriate colors, music and so on that will attract their target customers (Kotler, 1973-1974). Erdem et al. (2003) examined the linkage between consumer values and the importance of some salient store attributes. The study indicated that the important judgments for store attributes were influenced by the set of terminal and instrumental values viewed as important by the shoppers. Thang et al. (2003) and Dalwadi et al. (2010) supported that consumers’ choice of shopping malls over traditional market stores is influenced by various factors like location, ambience, assortment, sales promotion schemes and in-store services.

The facility of one stop-shop had a positive response from the consumers, who found it more convenient, time saving and satisfactory. Mittal et al. (2011) suggested that the retailers’ marketing strategy will have to take into account two sets of attributes such as loyalty drivers and shopping experience enhancers. These attributes would have to be integrated into the retail format. According to Jayaraman and Aggarwal (2001), Rajagopal (2007), Jain and Bagdare (2009) and Jacobs et al. (2010) opined that layout, ambience, display, self service, value added services, technology based operations and many more dimensions with modern outlook and practices are the major determinants of emerging retail formats.

Herpen and Pieters (2000) pointed out that the attribute-approach captures consumers’ perception of assortment variety better than the product-based approach and it offers new insights into assortment variety. Popkowski et al. (2001) observed that the changing retail structure has provided the consumers with more options in the form of formats and services such as a large variety of products, quality products and less travel time, etc.
Gupta (2004) and Urbonavicius et al. (2005) were of the view that consumers prefer emerging retail formats due to its significant product attributes which include product quality, assortment of merchandise, variety and product prices. According to Lather et al. (2006) studied six main indicators namely, price, sales personnel, quality of merchandise, assortment of merchandise, advertising services and convenience services play a key role for retailers in choosing the type of retail formats.

Sinha & Banerjee (2004) established the relation between the store attributes and the consumers’ motivation in selecting various store formats. Mittal & Mehta (2011) explored the factors influencing the shoppers of grocery stores in India with the help of six store attribute factors such as Store Ambience and Layout, Service and loyalty schemes, Price and Quality, One Stop Shopping, Convenience and Salesmen.

Another research in context to store attributes carried out by Verma & Madan (2011). Martineau (1958) was the first researcher to work on store attributes (Erdem, Oumlil, & Tuncalp, 1999). He described store attributes as factors responsible for store image formation. Further, he opined that the store image leads to create personality of the store in the mind of customers and customers’ decisions are influenced by the picture of the entire store. The image of the store is formed in customer mind by some store attributes viz., Layout, Architecture, Symbols and Colours, Advertising, and Sales personnel matched with various patterns of consumer behaviour. Through literature review, Kunkel & Berry (1968) understood that store image had increased notably in past decades but the rate of knowledge has not progressed accordingly. In their research study they opined that a man selects a store for buying based his experiences while shopping in a store. Work in this area carried out by developing a behavioural concepts (influenced by societal and subculture norms) of store images (formed by 12 store attributes viz., Price of Merchandise, Quality of Merchandise, Assortment of Merchandise, Fashion of Merchandise, Sales personnel, Location convenience, other convenience factors, Services, Sales Promotion, Advertising, Store Atmosphere and reputation on Adjustments). Lindquist (1974-75) conducted a survey of empirical and hypothetical evidence for defining the meaning of image. He summarized the image-related attributes found by scholars in the field of defining store image through store attributes. He found that following attributes were important viz., Assortment; Merchandise Quality; Merchandise Pricing; Locational Convenience; Merchandise Styling; Fashion; Service; and Salesclerk Services. The studies related to store selection were based on consumer perceptions, which are formed or influence by store attributes.
Lambert (1979) found that consumers’ perceptions about the store image are likely to be influenced by the types of stores visited repeatedly in past and attributes of these stores such as Color, Lighting, Signage, Clientele, Salespeople. Treblanche (1999) identified the determining factors of store attributes influencing consumer perception about a store viz., types of customer, store location, price levels, services offered, merchandising mix, and Physical facilities. He suggested that store image could be defined in the consumers’ mind as a combination of the store’s functional qualities and an impression of the store’s psychological attributes.

The study also found that the more favourable the image, the more likely it is the consumers would shop and buy at the store. In an effort to identify determinants of retail patronage, researchers have highlighted store image as the most important determinant (Erdem et al., 1996).

Store image has multiple dimensions and should be measured by multiple attributes as suggested by Kim and Jin (2001a). According to Yue and Zinkhan (2006), store atmospherics mainly focus on the physical store attributes. In fact, the atmosphere of the store is often designed to induce emotions in shoppers. In-store elements such as displays, lighting, music, scent, color, helpful employees and product demonstrations or samples are designed to evoke positive feelings within shopper in the environment (Solomon, 2007). Considerable research efforts have been directed to identify important store attributes that constitutes to reimage, which affects consumers’ store choice and patronage (Lindquist, 1974-1975). Lindquist (1974–1975) synthesized the store attributes in to nine dimensions viz., merchandising, service, clientele, physical facilities, convenience, promotion, store atmosphere, institutional factors and past transactions. Among these, product related considerations such as quality, assortment and price are treated to be the most critical dimensions. However, the importance of various store attributes varies by store format and customer base (Jin and Kim et al., 2001). A study by Erdem et al. (1996) identified three key store attributes for clothing shopping viz., status, merchandise and price. The study revealed that the importance of the store attributes may vary depending on the purpose of shopping and thus may vary for different retail store formats. There is a positive association found in store attributes and consumers’ subjective psychological states of enjoyment and arousal (Sherman et. al., 1997). A study by Pan and Zinkhan (2008) suggested that several attributes affect consumer’s preferences and expectations of retail stores, such assortment, service, product quality, store atmosphere, store location, price level, checkout speed, hours of operation, friendliness of salespeople, and parking facilities.
Shoppers’ perception of product and service quality was also found to be positively related to the store patronage (Baker et al., 1994; Darley and Lim, 1993; Sirohi and McLaughlin, 1998; Zeithaml and Berry, 1996). Other studies suggest that consumer demographic variables may also be related to store patronage (Bellenger et al., 1977; Korgaonkar et al., 1985), although no consensus existed on this relationship. They studied the convenience attribute in a service setting and define it as “all types of convenience that reduce consumer’s time or effort in shopping, such as operating hours, or credit availability, belong to the domain of service convenience” (Dube, L., Chebat, J.C. & Morin, S., 1995). Attributes such as location, hours of operation, payment conditions, employee service and assistance, parking and store access, all belong to the concept of service convenience. Consumers’ perceptions of convenience were found to have a positive effect on their satisfaction with the service provided (Baker, 1987). Cash, R. Patrick, (1991) had defined store patronage is “a store choice behavior which represents an individual’s preference for a particular store for purchasing apparel products’. The physical environment is “a composite of the tangible elements of form as reflected in the way land, building, equipment, and fixtures are assembled for the convenience and comfort of both consumers and retailer” (Lewison, 1994). Environmental dimensions were physical store attributes such as air quality, lighting, layout, carpeting, aisle placement and width, temperature, noise, and background music used to project store image and influence store choice (Bitner, 1992).

Suz Jack Chan, Cheng Ling Tan (2016) collected from a survey of 194 customers from community pharmacies in Malaysia using partial least square method for analyzing the data results revealed that security and reliability and store attributes have direct effects on the specific dimensions of customer emotional experiences. This implies store attributes and reliability of community pharmacies are a significant predictor of customer emotional experience among community pharmacies customers (Suz Jack Chan, Cheng Ling Tan, 2016). Ladeira Wagner, et.al, (2016) examined how the context in which the product is purchased and product value influence consumer satisfaction. The findings from structural equation modeling suggested that a specific combination of store attributes and hedonic product value has a positive influence on satisfaction. Results also showed that tangible store attributes have a stronger positive impact on utilitarian product value, and that intangible store attributes have a positive impact on hedonic product value. However, we found that only hedonic product value has a positive impact on satisfaction. This research contributes to theory by showing that a match between store attributes and hedonic product value can positively influence satisfaction.
In managerial terms, the findings provide insights on how to improve consumer satisfaction in retail environments through store attributes and hedonic product value (Ladeira Wagner, et.al, 2016).

Martínez-Ruiz María Pilar, et. al., (2017) attempted to understand which specific factors of retail stores’ offering affect unplanned buyers’ satisfaction may be of great interest to store managers as they could set ad hoc strategies to target these consumers and establish long-term, profitable relationships with them.

Satisfied unplanned buyers could indeed return to the store where they purchased their unplanned item(s) and/or positively talk about it with other customers.

This Survey data were gathered on consumers’ store satisfaction and perceptions of store attributes in Spain during two time periods: in the year 2008, when the crisis was barely noticed by Spanish consumers, and five years later, when consumers were experiencing this economic situation. The results obtained evidence how grocery retailers can respond to customers’ awareness of the crisis by providing some managerial recommendations for bolstering satisfaction in consumer segments with diverse levels of unplanned buying behavior (Martínez-Ruiz Maria Pilar, et. al., (2017).

Radhika, P. and Sellappan, R. (2015) explored the significant relationship between personality and various store attributes considered important by the customers while purchasing apparels in Coimbatore city. The data were collected through structured questionnaire using store intercept technique and three stage area sampling method to select 30 stores on the basis of its store image and reputation. Responses are elicited from 50 customers from each of the selected store and Factor Analysis was used to condense the fifteen factors of store attributes. The result confirmed the relationship between various personality dimensions and store attributes (Radhika, P. and Sellappan, R., 2015).

Cristina Calvo-Porral & Jean-Pierre Lévy-Mangin (2017) in their research attempted to study if the store-based attributes have different influence on customer satisfaction and loyalty, according to the quality perception of products, and suggest the moderating role of products’ perceived quality. The research examine the role of the products’ perceived quality in the context of the specialty food retailing, aiming to analyze whether the quality perception of products influences consumer satisfaction and loyalty towards the specialty food stores (Cristina Calvo-Porral & Jean-Pierre Lévy-Mangin, 2017). The finding suggested that the store service is a key factor influencing consumer satisfaction in specialty food retailing, for consumers who have a low product quality perception. Compared with high perceived quality consumers who put more emphasis on the store environment.
The consumers with low perceived quality demand specialty retailers to provide more valuable services, and maybe expect extra benefits from the specialty stores, including better help, advice and service from the employees. So it seems that, when customers perceive specialty products as having poor quality, they are demanding great service and an attractive store environment in order to come back to the store.

Consequently, specialty store service, environment and distribution influence customer satisfaction regardless the product quality perception; despite the degree of influence varies according to the level or perceived quality (Cristina Calvo-Porral & Jean-Pierre Lévy-Mangin, 2017).

Christina S. Simmers and Nancy K. Keith (2015) compared the attributes and dimensions measured by retail store comment cards to the attributes, sub-dimensions, and dimensions of the Retail Service Quality Scales (RSQS). Findings revealed that the comment cards do not include two RSQS sub-dimensions, convenience (physical aspect), and promises (reliability), and eighteen of the RSQS scale items. Further, comment cards measured attributes that were not captured by RSQS, including the friendliness and professionalism of the sales staff, check-out, delivery, loading and availability of service, price, selection, value, condition, usability, styling and preference of the product, and the location of the store facilities (Christina S. Simmers and Nancy K. Keith, 2015).

Dr. M. Selvalakshmi and Dr. K. Ravichandran (2015) attempted to understand the women customers’ expectations and perceptions of Retail Service and the perceived Retail service quality Gap in the women’s apparel segment using Retail Service quality measure and also to infer the key factors contributing to the customer expectations and perceptions using factor analysis. The findings from the study confirmed that the major retail service quality gap was experienced with the dimensions contributing to the reliability and researcher emphasized on the need for the retail firms to focus on attributes related to reliability of retail services (Dr. M. Selvalakshmi and Dr. K. Ravichandran, 2015).

**2.3.2.1: Store Attributes and Shopping Experience:**

Lambert (1979), Lumpkin et al. (1985), and Mason and Bearden (1978) implied that store attributes and shopping patterns of the elderly are based on their perceptions of how the retailers meet their wants and needs. Mason and Bearden (1978) suggested that elderly consumers often shop for reasons other than buying goods. Dychtwald and Flower (1990) aver that the "mature consumer is more interested in purchasing experiences than things". Some research has been conducted regarding the shopping patterns of the elderly. For example, Mason and Bearden (1978) conclude that the elderly prefer to shop in the mornings.
Also, Lumpkin and Hite (1988) and Mason and Bearden (1978) did not confirm that the elderly are not frequent users of catalogs, nor are they as homebound as stereotypically portrayed. However, Lumpkin's study (1984) contradicts other studies that suggest the elderly enjoy the shopping experience (Gelb, 1982; Lambert, 1979; Mason and Bearden, 1978). The shopping patterns of the elderly support the perception that the elderly possess store loyalty. Although stores offering senior discounts are viewed more favourably, the elderly are not likely to change their store patronage just to try something different (Lambert, 1979; Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982; Mason and Bearden, 1978. Bone (1991) suggested that the mature market can be attracted by offering special discounts based on age. However, Bone (1991), and other researchers caution marketers that it is a "false assumption that the mature market has low discretionary income and thus the price is the determinant attribute". Hence, assuming that price is the key determinant can be misleading. Smith and Moschis (1985) suggested that age relates positively to the use of money saving sales promotion offers, such as cents off and/or coupons; yet, their research does not support this view.

In many instances, price and price-related aspects are of lesser importance, which could explain the preference for department store shopping by the mature patron as opposed to discount store shopping (Lambert, 1979; Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982; Lumpkin et al., 1985; Mason and Bearden, 1978). Lambert (1979), Lumpkin et al. (1985), and Mason and Bearden (1978) agreed that the most important attributes of store selection relate to the relationship of quality to price and the finding of satisfactory products. The elderly consumer prefers quality products yet wants attractive prices, value for the money. The elderly want fashionable clothing and the ability to return unsatisfactory goods (Greco, 1986; Lumpkin et al., 1985). Another group of attributes which affected the store choice of the elderly consumer is sales (Lambert, 1979; Lumpkin et al., 1985). Another important consideration is the availability of advertised products and the ease in locating these advertised products within the store. Also included in the group of important attributes are helpful and courteous salespeople and the readability of tags or labels, which are either in or on the products (Greco, 1986; Hildebrandt, 1988; Lambert, 1979; Lumpkin et al., 1985; Mason and Bearden, 1978). Dychtwald and Flower (1990) asserted that the older consumer is also searching for convenience, including the convenient use of the product or service, as well as convenient procurement of the product. This includes the purchase arrangements and delivery, setup, and instructions for use if required. Lumpkin et al. (1985) reported that attributes not perceived as primary determining factors in store choice by the elderly are those which deal with tangible aspects, such as carry-out, parking, and location.
The elderly desire to be comfortable, but it is not a primary consideration; nor is a great deal of emphasis placed on uncrowded stores or package carry-out. These findings contradicted other research (Lambert, 1979; Mason and Bearden, 1978) which suggested that these attributes are important to the elderly.

Ehren Lee Sze Tseng and Rashad Yazdanifard (2015) studied mobility in retailing and on providing convenience and a sense of engagement to consumer’s experience. Data analysis showed it’s important to better understand consumers in the aspect of how they behave, interact, and purchase a certain type of product. Mobile retailers need to take note of the issues regarding security and privacy of customer data such issues have to be addressed promptly so that they are able to build a trusting bond between their consumers (Ehren Lee Sze Tseng and Rashad Yazdanifard, 2015).

Sarah Ehren et. al. (2015) in their research study found that consumers did not always want an attentive salesperson but do want their autonomy respected while being seen as desirable by the salesperson. This examination of perceived salesperson attentiveness led to the identification of four possible shopping experiences viz., bonding, negligence, stalking, and autonomy. Understanding these experiences and when they apply can help managers re-evaluate how salespeople can use insightful discretion to provide assistance to retail customers.

Their research study revealed that customers expect the service provider to understand when they want attention from sales associates and when they do not. A majority of the participants in the study note that sales associates need to be trained to understand when customers really need help and when they want to be left alone. Furthermore, the qualitative findings indicated that the customer’s goal and shopping context are predictors of the desire for attention. A salesperson should be able to determine in the initial interaction the customer’s goals and provide an appropriate level of attentiveness based on customer response. Attention is a key component of the approach phase of the sales process, so these results can be applied to improve the relationships between customers and sales people, including the important outcome measures that are associated with better relationships resulting into higher satisfaction, better word-of-mouth, and higher patronage intentions (ibid). Haiyan Hu & Cynthia (2015) conducted a research study of a random sample of 2,500 consumers from some of the largest metropolitan areas of the U.S. to examine the role that consumers’ shopping experience plays when consumers choose online or shopping malls to shop.
Also if channel choice varies across the five product categories: clothing, electronics, books, toys, and video/music; conducting multiple regression analysis with percentage share of purchase online or at the mall as dependent variables.

The results showed that consumers who choose to shop online for these products are not seeking shopping experience instead shopping out of consideration of time and effort saved. The more consumers recognize the mall to be the source of activities and destination for clothing shopping, the more likely they would shop online. On the other hand, the uniqueness of the mall likely draws consumers back to the mall. Across the product categories, shopping mall as the destination for clothing shopping contributes to the share of mall purchases, except for books and toys. Activities at the mall lead to the lower share of clothing purchase at the mall. The uniqueness of the mall, on the other hand, helps increase the share of clothing purchase at the mall. Therefore, although special events and activities can increase traffic, it does not increase clothing expenditure. As for consumer characteristics, a consumer with higher income is more likely choose a shopping channel other than the mall, at least for consumer electronics, books, and toys. Older consumers are more likely to shop at the mall for clothing and electronics (Haiyan Hu & Cynthia, 2007).

Steven Skinner and Karl Swensen (2014) opined that providing the ideal customer experience in stores is really an ongoing effort. Retailers must first take stock of how to delight the customer and then gradually build key omnichannel capabilities. This will allow them to carefully work through the retailing fundamentals needed to deliver a seamless omnichannel shopping experience that compares favorably with competitive retailers, whether online or not (Steven Skinner and Karl Swensen, 2014).

Marta Blázquez (2014) The aim of this quantitative research is to gain a better understanding of multichannel fashion-shopping experiences, focusing on the role of IT and the crossover effects between channels. The results from a quantitative survey of 439 consumers in the United Kingdom suggest the need to redefine the in-store shopping experience, promoting the use of technology as a way to create an engaging and integrated experience among channels. Retailers must think in all channels holistically, boosting interactive and new technologies for the Internet and taking advantage of all touch points with the consumer, including mobile devices and social networks (Marta Blázquez, 2014). Mithilesh Pandey and Rajesh Verma (2015) made an attempt to identify the factors influencing the consumers buying behavior towards Organized Retail Stores in Jalandhar. The study found that there are certain important stores as well as environmental factors which influence the consumer buying behavior.
The results showed that for Jalandhar consumers, product variety, price and service quality are the most important store factors and credit is least important for them. It was also found that TV advertisements, peers/friends, and print advertisements were the most important environmental factors that affected the buying behavior of the consumers of Jalandhar (Mithilesh Pandey and Rajesh Verma, 2015).

Aamir Hasan and Subash Mishra (2015) find out that shopping experience, store image and value for money had a significant impact on the shopping behavior of the customer in both hypermarkets and supermarkets. Focusing on the drivers of greatest importance is significant as they have the highest share in influencing the shopping behavior of the customers in the retail store, and would enable the retail store to identify their strengths and weaknesses and also the opportunities and the threats of the external environment. Thus, it is inferred from the results that better display of merchandise, keeping the store clean, reducing the billing time, and a positive store atmosphere can lead to a more satisfying buying experience (Aamir Hasan and Subash Mishra, 2015).

Reynaldo Misla (2015) had identified eight general trends that exemplify what retailers are doing to respond to today’s digitally motivated customer and how they can create a tactile, memorable experience inside a physical retail store. These trends identified were viz., make your store disruptive, challenging the convention or paradigm that customers expect to see when they walk into a store; make your store personal for the individual shopper; make your store “now,” taking advantage of the selfie culture; make the experience collaborative; make your store local by paying attention to local neighborhoods and communities.; make your store immersive by creating experiences that allow customers to forget they are shopping; make the experience educational and make the experience educational (Reynaldo Misla, 2015).

**2.4: ATMOSPHERE:**

In some instances, the place, or to be more specific, the atmosphere of the place, is more influential than the product itself in the purchase decision (Kotler 1973-1974). Although today there is an increasing emphasis on store design, interior design, and overall environmental programming by retail merchandisers, many retailers still tend to underestimate the potential of using the atmosphere as a marketing tool (Markin, Lillis, and Narayana 1976). In many cases, merchandisers are still more concerned with the tangible product, focusing their interest on practical and functional dimensions, while neglecting the aesthetic factor in purchase behavior. Interior designers, architects, and landcapers have acknowledged the extensive influence of the environment on behavior for years.
Psychologists have studied environment-behavior relationships, resulting in the swiftly growing psychological discipline known as "environmental psychology" (Donovan and Rossiter, 1994). This discipline attempts to predict the collective effect of stimuli in a particular environment upon different peoples' feelings and behavior (Mehrabian 1976). Thus, the main concerns in environmental psychology may be summarized as “the direct impact of physical stimuli on human emotions and the effect of the physical stimuli on a variety of behaviors, such as work performance or social interaction” (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). Environmental psychology has rarely been applied to the retail store environment. Previous studies have, however, suggested using atmospherics as an important part of the overall merchandising strategy (Kotler 1973-74; Markin, et al. 1976). Kotler defined atmospherics as "the effort to design buying environments to produce specific emotional effects in the buyer that enhance his purchase probability". Markin, Lillis, and Narayana (1976) in their study acknowledged that space affects customer behavior and that design and atmosphere may be used to shape and modify the behavior of shoppers. Pan et al. (2008) opined that research on store context evidenced that the atmosphere of a store is the key element in consumers' purchasing attitudes in the consumer decision process, particularly for unplanned shopping.

Dion (2004) stated that crowding is not simply a matter of density in a given space. Crowding appears to arise through the juxtaposition of density with certain social and personal circumstances which sensitize the individual to the potential constraints of limited space. The perception of such constraints leads to a recognized disparity between the amount of space demanded or considered to be adequate, by the individual, and the amount of space available to them. Emberson et al. (2006) were of the opinion that recent initiatives, such as efficient consumer response, have raised the profile of in-store merchandising as a possible solution. Improving on customer traffic flow and on-shelf availability has become something of a mantra within retailing. Laroche et al. (2005) stated that, in a shopping environment, consumers not only evaluate merchandise quality but also consider service quality. A store environment can serve as an important basis for consumers' evaluations of merchandise products. The store atmosphere has been found to shape consumers' merchandise value perceptions, which, in turn, influence store patronage intentions. As a retailer, one of the most direct channels to influence consumer behaviours is the retail store environment.
From past literature, strong evidence can be found on the impact of store environments on impulse purchase (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Mattila & Wirtz, 2001; Morrin & Chebat, 2005; Youn & Faber, 2000). Besides, impulse buying behaviour was proved to be significantly affected by consumer emotions (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Youn & Faber, 2000), which can be induced by store environment (Beatty & Ferell, 1998; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Donovan Rossiter, 1994; Marcoolyn & Nesdale, 1994). Donovan & Rossiter (1982) proposed that store environmental stimuli would affect customers’ emotional response and thus resulted in approach or avoidance behaviour. Impulse buying is one type of the approach behaviour. Wirtz & Mattila (2007) had shown that a ‘more than desired excitement’ store environment will create a positive impact on an impulse purchase. Spangenberg, Crowley & Henderson (1996) had indicated that the presence of an inoffensive scent can lead to enhanced subject experience and increase customers’ approach response such as intentions to visit and purchase. Sharma & Stafford (2000) had pointed out that store atmospherics can positively influence customers’ perceptions on the credibility of salespeople. Morrin & Chebat (2005) had expressed that different environmental cues work well on shoppers with different shopping style. Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal & Vos (2002) had demonstrated that music perception influence store patronage intentions indirectly, while store design factor has great potential to affect shopper’s shopping experience and store patronage behaviours. According to Levy and Weitz (2009), store atmosphere was referred as the attribute that aims to intensify the store environment with the combination of different cues such as lighting, colour, music, and scent. Milliman (1986) categorized atmosphere as a term that is used to explain our feeling towards the shopping experience which cannot always be seen. Store atmosphere plays a vital role in the consumer's experience. Atmospherics involve a conscious designing of space to affect customers’ sensory experience. It mostly has to do with the ‘spatial aesthetic’ features of the store and serves as a ‘silent language’ in communication to consumers (Kotler, 1973-1974). These sensory experiences affect a person's emotional state and therefore the way in which product information will be evaluated. A positive store experience enhances satisfaction and will lead to increased shopping frequency, and therefore lead to increased sales (Koo, 2003). Store atmosphere, specifically in reference to design and ambient factors, is a significant variable as it influences consumer preference, interpersonal service quality, merchandise quality and monetary price perception, as well as shopping experience cost (Baker et al., 2002; Thang & Tan, 2003). Furthermore, Newman and Patel (2004) reported that store atmosphere is one of the crucial factors and determinants of store choice.
Richardson et al. (1996) found that the aesthetics of a store can improve the evaluation of the quality of products by customers. Samli et al. (1999) included the attribute interior décor in their study on the contrast between management and customer perceptions of store image. The results indicated that décor is perceived as slightly less important by management than by customers.

However, this attribute was included in their service quality dimension with the notation that the retailer could very easily exceed customer expectations through the use of these attributes. Terblanché and Boshoff (2006) supported this by indicating that store décor is important to the store environment as it is a controllable aspect that can contribute to creating customer satisfaction through fulfilling expectations. This is due to the fact that décor and popular music can align a store with its target market (Newman & Patel, 2004). Smell as part of store interior serves as a very strong emotional trigger. The sense of pleasant arousal derived from fragrance increases exploratory tendencies behaviour (Orth & Bourrain, 2005).

The emotional experience is as important as the shopping experience because consumers have affective expectations too (Wirtz, Mattila & Tan, 2007). According to Sway (2007), scent marketing can make a consumer feel comfortable and put consumers in a good mood that could positively influence purchasing decisions. Smell is a strong emotional trigger. However, Donovan and Rossiter’s (1982) evaluation of the emotional states aroused by store atmosphere and the effect on approach/avoidance behaviour came to the conclusion that research on store atmosphere does not achieve strong results because it affects an emotional state which is difficult to verbalize and is transient, therefore difficult to recall. Their research, therefore, proposed that store atmosphere affects emotion and this, in turn, affects shopping related intention. Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn, and Nesdale (1994) also found that emotional state not only affects intention but actual purchase behaviour as well. A positive emotional experience engendered by store atmosphere will increase the estimated spending and time spent in the store. According to Donovan et al. (1994), this is partly due to the emotional variable being evaluated apart from cognitive variables, e.g. quality and price perception. Wirtz et al. (2007) confirmed the positive effect of emotional arousal congruence on in-store behaviours. Based on the expectations of the target market, store designers should, therefore, make tactical decisions regarding store atmosphere, in order to positively influence consumers’ in-store experience (Hartman & Spiro, 2005). From the above-mentioned, it is clear that an atmosphere is a significant tool since it provides management with the power to manipulate the effect of store environment on consumer behaviour.
The influence of environmental cues on consumer behaviour has been widely discussed in the scientific literature since Donovan and Rossiter (1982) introduced the concept of environmental psychology to marketing research. Their basic model assumes a Stimulus-Organism-Response taxonomy, where the environment has an impact on the emotional states of consumers along three dimensions, pleasure, arousal or dominance (organism). These act as mediators on the response, which is behaviour characterized as avoiding or approaching (Mehrabian & Russell 1974). A significant effort had been made to understand which specific environmental cues need to be modified in a store viz., lightning, scent, and music in order to increase sales, extend the time spent in the store or other approach behaviours. The service scape literature has stressed that both customers and employees are an important part of the environment, and the model has been extended to include the effects of atmospherics on people, whose behavior, in turn, had an effect on other people (Bitner, 1990). The notion that store atmosphere influences consumer behaviour was introduced to marketing research by Kotler, who initially defined atmosphere to be a component of store image along with other variables, such as brightness and crowding (Kotler 1973-74). In a consumer environment, the large number of individual atmospheric effects makes identifying and influencing these individually a complex undertaking. Mehrabian-Russell (1974) therefore proposed a general measure of atmospherics, the information rate, or a load of an environment, which they assume causes a certain level of arousal. The model assumes that the environment influences a person’s emotional state, which can be described along three orthogonal dimensions Pleasure-Displeasure, Arousal-Non arousal and Dominance-Submissiveness (the PAD model). Pleasure indicates the degree to which a person is happy, pleased, satisfied, contented, hopeful, and/or relaxed. A person would score high on the Arousal construct if he/she is frenzied, jittery, aroused, stimulated or excited. Dominance refers to the extent to which a person feels in control of the situation and is able to act freely in the environment (Donovan et al. 1994). An important extension was offered by Bitner (1990) who notes that in service industries, the built environment (which she coined ‘servicescape’) affects not only customers but also employees as both “interact with each other within the organization’s physical facility” (Bitner 1992). She states that the effect of perceived environmental cues on the organism is being moderated by personal as well as situational factors. In addition to personality traits, also expectations, mood states of individuals entering an environment and so on are influencing the impact of servicescapes on internal responses.
While mood states are a personal feature, they have been shown to be affected by the environment itself; as a highly arousing atmosphere will affect a person in an anxious and fatigued state differently than a relaxed and awake individual. People who are time sensitive will be more affected by crowding in a store then those who showed patience (Harrell & Hutt 1976).

Mishra, Sinha, and Koul (2014) study aimed to explore the theme of creating and managing the store atmosphere of exclusive stores from a customer’s point of view. The finding from the study indicates that store atmospheric factors have a significant positive correlation with customer approach behaviors, with intangible factors having the most significant impact among all factors. Store atmospheric factors influence not only customer emotions but also customer perceptions of commodities and services. Price shows a negative correlation with the customer behavioral response. An important finding of the study reflects that a customer’s perceptions and emotional state can affect their behavioral responses and perceptions. Emotional responses act as a moderator between store atmosphere and customer behaviors. A very interesting finding of the study is that the customer behavioral responses are influenced by both social and intangible factors. So, although social factors are difficult to manage, they are of considerable importance to the service provider. The study explored the relationship between the environment and human behavior in a retail context by using the M-R model, the emotional states induced, and the approach-avoidance behavior of the shoppers.

The finding clearly supports that the store atmosphere factors will impact customer behavioral response significantly. Store atmospheric factors will impact customer perceived value. Customer perceived value will affect customer approach behavior significantly. Customer perceptions and emotional states showed a moderating effect between store atmospherics and customer behavioral responses. Customer perceptions acted as an interface between the store atmospherics and behavioral responses. Similarly, emotional state responses showed a moderating effect between store atmospherics and behavioral responses. The interface effect was not very obvious, which indicated that store atmospheric factors influenced customer behavioral responses through channels (Mishra, Sinha and Koul, 2014).

Shalini Jha, Bharti Singh and Suresh K P (2014) reviewed the process of developing a scale for measuring consumer buying behavior in a store environment in three stages, namely, item generation, scale development and scale evaluation. To measure the effect of store environment cues, specifically background music and behavior of salesperson on consumer buying behavior, a scale was developed.
The factors include, perception of merchandise quality, perception of overall environment, perception of ambient music, perception of affability of salesperson, emotion/pleasure/arousal, and behavior/approach/avoidance. The scale constructed to measure the consumer buying behavior in a store environment for the environment cue of music and salesperson with the six dimensions is the first of its kind measuring consumer perception, emotion, and behavior in Indian retail setting.

The developed scale can also be used to measure emotion and behavior of shoppers in various manipulated environments of retail settings with different atmospheric and social cues. The scale can be used for similar studies in other emerging economies as well (Shalini Jha, Bharti Singh and Suresh K. P., 2014).

Ishita Sachdeva and Sushma Goel (2015) conducted a research study and focused on aspects whether the shoppers were attracted to the visual extravaganza or did they stay longer, or eventually returned with a purchase. Observations and interactions with customers and store owners from organized as well as unorganized retail stores indicated that most of the customers visiting these stores were inspired, desired to purchase the merchandise even though they were window shoppers, felt satisfied with the store design and wanted to visit the store again. The research revealed that the customers got enticed by the look of the store and eventually converted this attraction towards the jewellery acquisition/purchase (Ishita Sachdeva and Sushma Goel, 2015).

**Figure Number: 2.4: Model of Store Atmospherics Effect on Consumer and Employee Behaviour**

![Model of Store Atmospherics Effect on Consumer and Employee Behaviour](source: Model Recreated from Mehrabian & Russell (1974))
One early definition of store atmospherics calls them “buying environments designed to produce specific emotional effects in the buyer that enhance his purchase probability” (Kotler, 1973-74). Although increasing sales may be the prime objective of most store designs, research studies typically group possible reactions into two forms of behaviour approach or avoid the store.

In fact, avoidance (Mehrabian & Russell 1974) may actually be a valid objective in some instances, as one may want to avoid under aged from entering a Casino or make restaurant patrons leave their table as soon as possible to allow new customers taking their seats (d’ Astous 2000). Among the service marketing literature, the surroundings in which service encounters take place have been coined ‘servicescapes’ in the early 1990’s. Servicescapes are “all of the objective physical factors that can be controlled by the firm to enhance (or constrain) employee and customer actions” (Bitner 1992).

This definition added the important notion, that atmospherics affect employees as well as customers (Baker, Levy & Grewal 1992). A somewhat broader definition suggests they are “consciously designed places, calculated to produce commercially significant actions” (ibid).

While the scope in terms of objectives is wider, this approach assumes that enterprises are actually able to influence all elements of the servicescape, or at least limits atmospherics to those cues which are being deliberately designed.

However, there can be no doubt that environments affect consumers regardless of the fact if they were consciously designed or not. Since Kotler (1973-1974) introduced the term atmospherics to the marketing literature, a fair number of publications have discussed the environmental cues influencing consumers in a shopping environment. Studies have influenced various stimuli including colour, music, and scent in order to measure their effect on shopping behaviour. Although it has been suggested, that the importance of individual components of the servicescape is likely to vary between individual organizations (Bitner 1992), several authors had suggested universal categories (Baker 1987, Berman & Evans 1995, Turley & Milliman 2000). Hu and Jasper (2006) believed that store environment is a socially constructed reality composed of both physical and social elements, and that the perception of a store can be based on both physical and the social cues. In a retail environment, social meaning is usually conveyed through visual merchandising. Visual merchandising involves a number of highly technical and artistic elements viz., color, texture, lighting, mannequins, fixture, graphics, and signage (Pegler, 1998). So there is a consensus that social cues in the store environment should include person-to-person interactions as well as physical elements in the store environment that convey social meaning.
As a result, social cues have an effect on examining store image. Several studies have examined the effects of environmental elements such as color, background music, and scent on store evaluation and patron behavior (Bellizzi, Crowley, & Hasty, 1983; Bellizzi & Kite, 1992; Milliman, 1982; Spangenberg, Crowley, & Henderson, 1996).

Mittal and Lassar (1996) stated that the central focus of a store is the point of sale. The sales transaction that occurs between salesperson and customer is the defining social moment in a store's existence. The quality of this social encounter is determined by how well a salesperson can interpret a customer's needs and interact in a congenial manner. An enhanced interaction between the sales associate and customer is referred to as personalization of service. Personalization is characterized by an employee's politeness and courtesy, attempts to get to know customers as individuals, and engagement in friendly conversation. Mittal and Lassar (1996) found that personalization significantly influences customer evaluations of service quality; and that consumers seek familiar, friendly service providers and retail salespeople.

The classification of various dimensions of Store Atmosphere is depicted in the figure number 2.1.

**Table Number: 2.1: Classifications of Store’s Atmospherics Dimensions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Atmospheric dimensions</th>
<th>Specifications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kotler</td>
<td>1973-1974</td>
<td>Four dimensions: visual; aural; tactile; olfactory</td>
<td>This is the earliest typology about dimensions of atmosphere and does not include the crowd and the employee dimensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baker</td>
<td>(1986;1994)</td>
<td>Three dimensions: ambient; design; social</td>
<td>This typology takes into account the social dimension, but does not include the facility exterior-exterior design of the retail store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bitner</td>
<td>(1992)</td>
<td>Three dimensions: ambient conditions; spatial layout and functionality; signs, symbols, and artifact</td>
<td>This conceptual framework is a complete one. Nevertheless, research on the employee side is rare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berman and Evans</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Four dimensions: exterior; general interior; store layout; interior displays</td>
<td>This framework does not include human component and the ambient factors dimension is considered among</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D’Astous</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Three dimensions: irritant ambient factors; irritant design factors; irritant social factors</td>
<td>This framework is inspired by Baker’s (1986) typology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turley and Milliman</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Five dimensions: general exterior; general interior; layout and design; the point of purchase and decoration; human variables</td>
<td>This framework is built on Berman and Evans’s (1995) typology. It includes the human variables. And we believe is a complete one.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the context of the retail store, “atmospherics” refers to aesthetics and ambiance of the store. The atmospheric cues such as color, music, lighting, smell, crowding, windows display and storefront reflect the store atmosphere and play an important role in shoppers' perception and evaluation of the store at large. Ideally, retail stores should be perceived to be pleasant and moderately arousing. Stores with pleasant and moderately arousing atmospheres are likely to contribute to the overall favorableness of the store and effect buyer behavior in a positive way. (Chebat and Sirgy, 2010).

A study by Caine (2003) showed that 26 percent of consumers are often persuaded by window displays to make a purchase; 15 percent of consumers use seasonal and festive period for product displays to reach purchase decisions (Caine, 2003).

Much as billboards of cigarettes and alcohol use social cues to create a perception of social rewards that the consumer will feel desired enough to step into a store and make a purchase (Bell & Ternus, 2002; Pegler, 1998). Consumer affect toward a store is mainly described by two dimensions viz., pleasure-displeasure i.e. the degree to which the person feels good in the environment and arousal-nonarousal i.e. the extent to which a person feels excited or stimulated (Baker, Levy, & Grewal, 1992). The holistic view defines store image as the total impression a store makes on the minds of its customers. Typically, a semantic differential scale such as good/bad, favorable/unfavorable, or like/dislike is used (Yoo, Park, & Maclnnis, 1998).

The concept of an atmosphere is ambiguous and in the same time is a commonly used term both in everyday life and in the business context. In spite of several efforts to define this concept, the meaning of the term still remains vague, nonetheless, the atmosphere remains important and it really counts (ibid).

The atmospheric stimuli are classified into five basic categories as shown in Figure 2.5. This image is adopted to Turley and Milliman (2000) work which was a little-modified version of the original illustration used by Bitner (1992) and is used here to show the way store atmosphere affect consumer behavior.

Several factors from this figure are considerable, the physical environment interacts with the characteristics of individual to determinate their response. Therefore, an atmosphere that produces a certain response in one individuals or group of people at a given point of time may produce an absolutely different response in another individual or group. An example in this way can be considered this, for young shoppers, an atmosphere that produces a positive response, may produce a negative response, for older shoppers.
In the same time, the store’s atmosphere influences both the customers and the store’s employees, who, in turn, through their interactions, influence each other.

**Figure Number: 2.5: The Influence of Retail Atmospheres: S-O-R Model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ATMOSPHERIC STIMULI</th>
<th>ORGANISM</th>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent Variables</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intermediating Variables</strong></td>
<td><strong>Dependent Variables</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exterior</td>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>Employees</td>
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<tr>
<td>Store front</td>
<td>Career Objectives</td>
<td>Mood</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marquee</td>
<td>Training</td>
<td>Effort</td>
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<tr>
<td>Entrances</td>
<td>Personal Situation</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display Windows</td>
<td>Social Class</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building Architecture</td>
<td>Stage of HLC</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parking</td>
<td></td>
<td>Skill</td>
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<tr>
<td>Surrounding Area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>General interior</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Flooring/Carpeting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lighting</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Scent</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sounds temperature</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cleaniness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fixtures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wall Coverings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cash Register Placement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Store Layout</td>
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<tr>
<td>Flore Space Allocation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Product Groupings</td>
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<td>Traffic Flow</td>
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<td>Department Locations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Allocations within Departments</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interior Displays</td>
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<tr>
<td>Product Displays</td>
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<tr>
<td>Racks and Cases</td>
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<td>Posters</td>
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<tr>
<td>Signs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cards</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wall Decorations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Human Variables</td>
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<tr>
<td>Crowding</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Customer Characteristics</td>
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<td>Employee Characteristics</td>
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<td>Employee Uniforms</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

2.5: STORE IMAGE:

Store image should be viewed from both the consumer's and the retailer's perspective. Consumers' perceptions of stores are determined by the messages and cues they receive from the store as well as their perceived importance of store attributes moderated by previous experiences. The retailers' perception of their store's image is based on the company's personality and identity and consequently, those attributes they perceive as important to their customers. These attributes should be managed in their retailing strategy to build and maintain patronage (Osman, 1993). This is especially critical for retail internationalization as consumers of different countries hold different views on the importance of store image attributes and dimensions (Burt & Carralero-Encinas, 2000). Martineau (1958), described store image as a store's personality and the way in which the store is defined in the shoppers' mind, partly by its functional qualities and psychological attributes. According to Lindquist (1974-1975) store image constituted a combination of tangible or functional and intangible or psychological factors that consumers perceive to be present in retail stores. Another perspective is that store image is a set of attitudes based on the evaluation of those store attributes deemed important by consumers (James, Durand & Dreeves, 1976). Dichter (1985) followed a more holistic/gestalt approach stating that store image is "the total impression an entity makes on the minds of others". Store image definitions have some commonalities, in that they include tangible and intangible aspects of perceptual processes together with cognitive and affective dimensions that contribute to the formation of store image. Martineau (1958) was the first researcher who indicated that store image consists of the following components: layout and architecture, symbols and colours, advertising and sales personnel. Lindquist (1974-1975) developed nine store image attribute dimensions (Lindquist referred to "groupings"), including merchandise, service, clientele, physical facilities, convenience, promotion, store atmosphere, institutional factors and post-transaction satisfaction, which incorporated but also expanded Martineau’s components. James et al. (1976) derived six dimensions from their study, namely assortment, personnel, atmosphere, service, quality and price, supporting Lindquist’s dimensions. According to O’Connor (1990), the primary factual elements or attributes determining a retailer’s image, include price, variety, assortment within product categories, quality, products, service (or lack thereof) and location. Type of customer, shop location, price levels, services offered, merchandise mix, advertising and the characteristics of the physical facilities are listed by Terblanché (1998) described some of the factors determining store image.
He observed that the most commonly studied store image dimensions are viz., merchandise, service, clientele, physical facilities, promotion, convenience and store atmosphere, which closely resemble Lindquist’s proposed dimensions. Sheth and Mittal (2004) stated that "Store image, the sum total of perceptions customers have about a store, is determined by these merchandise, service, and price factors; it is also determined by atmospherics, advertising, and store personnel." Research into store appearance has allowed retailers to create positioning strategies and enabled them to differentiate their stores in terms of the products and prices or services on offer (Birtwistle and Shearer, 2001). The significant role played by store appearance within food retailing is unquestionable and many authors have long advocated that a desirable store appearance, facilitated by an effective positioning strategy, can be considered a core element of the retail mix and can be integral in influencing store choice. Consumer loyalty will be more likely when the consumer perceives the appearance of a store to be desirable. A wide belief exists that consumers perceive store appearance to be desirable when the store image is congruent with their self-image or the image to which they aspire (ibid).

Estelami and Bergstein (2006) were also of the same opinion that consumers typically form an overall impression of a retail store through various information processing mechanisms, such as advertising, word-of-mouth, or personal experience.

The resulting store appearance helps to create consumer expectations that may subsequently influence a consumer's assessment of the behaviours and actions of the retailer in future transactions. Thang and Tan (2003) further asserted that attributes of store image and appearance affect consumers’ preference for the stores. The stimulus that pertains to store attributes includes merchandising, store atmosphere, in-store service, accessibility, reputation, promotion, facilities and post-transaction service. Consumers’ preference is based on their post-visit ranking of the stores. Memery et al. (2005) noted that store appearance is acquired through experience and thus learnt, and found retail store appearance to be the total conceptualised or expected reinforcement that a person associates with shopping at a particular store. According to Hu and Jasper (2006), the holistic view defines store appearance as the total impression a store makes on the minds of its customers. In the past, store displays were mainly used for promotional purposes. However, as consumers became more sophisticated, retailers have discovered new roles for effective appearances: communicating product information and store image, assisting consumers in making purchase decisions, and creating an exciting shopping environment.
Diversity across stores with respect to their retail strategy, store design and their commitment to serving their customers’ needs results in variance in consumer’s store image. Based on previous research (Richardson et al., 1994; Richardson et al., 1996), a powerful effect was expected from store image on attitude towards the store brand. The concept of retail store image first came of interest when Pierre Martineau (1958) described the ‘personality of the retail store.’ Since that pronouncement, it has generally been acknowledged that, over time, consumers form thoughts and feelings associated with stores, and that these overall impressions strongly influence their shopping and patronage behaviours (Porter & Claycomb, 1997). Many conceptualizations of store image have been advanced in the past (Doyle & Fenwick, 1974; Kunkel & Berry, 1968; Marks, 1976). The dominant attitudinal perspective that is taken in the literature treats store image as the result of a multi-attribute model (Marks, 1976; James et al., 1976). Image is expressed as a function of the salient attributes of a particular store that are evaluated and weighted against each other. Store image has been defined as the complex of a consumer’s perceptions of a store on different (salient) attributes (Bloemer & de Ruyter, 1998). This definition is in line with the definition of Houston and Nevin (1980). Retail store image is an overall impression of a store as perceived by consumers (Keaveney & Hunt, 1992).

One of the commonly accepted formal definitions of retail store image is an individual’s cognitions and emotions that are inferred from perceptions or memory inputs that are attached to a particular store and which represent what that store signifies to an individual (Baker, Grewal & Parasuraman, 1994; Mazursky & Jacoby, 1986). However, over the years different authors have distinguished different store attributes or characteristics that are part of the overall image towards the store. Lindquist (1974), in his study on the store image literature, had combined models from nineteen studies and came up with nine different elements viz., merchandise, service, clientele, physical facilities, comfort, promotion, store atmosphere, institutional and post-transaction satisfaction.

Similarly, Bearden (1977) suggested the characteristics viz., price, quality of the merchandise, assortment, atmosphere, location, parking facilities and friendly personnel. However, more recently, store image is supposed to be composed of the different elements of the retail marketing mix as introduced by Ghosh (1990). These elements identified were viz., location, merchandise, store atmosphere, customer service, price, advertising, personal selling and sales incentive programs. The concept of store image was used by Martineau (1958) for the first time. He defined it as “a store defined in customers’ mind partly based on functional attributes and partly based on psychological attributes.”
He claimed that store image includes its characteristic attributes and it makes customers feel the store different from others. Functional attributes are assortment of commodities, layout, location, price value relation, and service that consumers can objectively compare with other stores. Psychological attributes are attractiveness and luxuriousness that represent special attributes of that store. Since that effort of Martineau, a lot of researcher carried the research in this area and focused on specific set of attributes and even related store image with store loyalty and store choice. A research by Jinfeng, W. and Zhilong, T. (2009) indicated the positive effect of store image dimensions such as convenience, perceived price, physical facilities, employee service, and institutional factors on retailer equity dimensions as antecedents of retailer equity. Store image affects purchase intentions indirectly, by reducing perceived risk and increasing Store brand quality perceptions (Liljander, V. et al. 2009). Another study by Yoo-Kyoung Seock (2009) examined the influence of Hispanic consumers’ perceived importance of apparel retail store environmental cues and demographic characteristics on their apparel store patronage behavior across various retail store formats. Out of these three dimensions, Customer Service appeared as a significant determinant in Hispanic consumers’ decision to shop at department stores, specialty stores, and mass merchant stores. Convenience was significantly, but negatively, related to the use of specialty stores. Physical Atmosphere appeared as significant determinants of Hispanic consumers’ use of Internet websites. A cross-cultural examination of the effects of social perception styles on consumers' store image formations was conducted by Haiyan Hu, Cynthia R. Jasper (2007) to find out that Chinese students were more significantly affected by the social cues that are embedded within the store environment than American students. Retailer reputation is an important factor that influences consumer's store patronage (Wei-Ming Ou, Russell Abratt, Paul Dion, 2006). They suggested that stores with favorable store image create customer satisfaction which in turn leads to store loyalty. Store image can be defined as the way that consumers view the store, i.e. their impression or perception of the store. The corporate image of the store is defined as a combination of the store as a brand, and the selection of store brands and manufacturer brands offered by the store (Grewal et al., 2003b). Prior research has found that store brands contribute to greater store differentiation rather than to greater price sensitivity in the market (Sudhir and Talukdar, 2004). Other researchers concluded that it is important for retailers to retain a balance between store brands and national brands to attract and retain the most profitable customers (Ailawadi and Keller, 2004).
Retailers have used manufacturer brands to generate consumer interest, patronage, and store loyalty (Ailawadi and Keller, 2004). They investigated how store image factors and various categories of perceived risk associated with product attributes affect consumer evaluations of store-branded product (Ailawadi and Keller, 2004). In their study they identified significantly influencing consumer preferences that were merchandising, accessibility, reputation, in-store service and atmosphere of the stores. Store image in the sense of the store as a brand is usually measured as consumers’ perceptions of store performance. This choice is based on the notion of value-percept diversity that is customers are likely to be more satisfied with the offering as the ability of the offering to provide consumers what they need, want, or desire increases relative to the costs incurred. A general assumption in the branding literature is that a favorable brand image will have a positive impact on consumers’ behavior towards the brand, such as the opportunity to command premium prices, buyers who are more loyal, and more positive word-of-mouth. Translated to a retailing context, it is likely that a favorable store image increases satisfaction with the store which in turn increases store loyalty (ibid).

Bearden (1977) mentioned the influence of store image as ‘consumers choose stores they feel close to their self image,’ and he tried to find out store attributes that affect store choice and loyalty for downtown and suburban shopping centers. Hansen and Deutscher (1977-1978) showed that the store image and its attributes make an important role in their choice of retail stores in his study on image attributes.

In their model of the process of store choice, Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (1990) claimed that purchasers’ distinguished acceptable stores from unacceptable stores in the process of comparing their evaluation standards with perceived image attributes, and that ‘store image is a variable that consumers depend on in their choice of stores.’ James, Durand and Dreves (1976) found that image attributes influence consumers’ perception and attitudes and they are directly related to sales profits. Schiffman, Dash and Dillion (1977) focused on description of image existing in the competing types of retailers and explained that store image attributes made an important role in the choice of the store type. Hildebrandt (1988) said, ‘major success factor in retail industry is store image and measurement model of store image that conceptualize the perception of store image attributes such as price level is used to forecast marketing performance as a business success measure.’ And he analyzed the relation between store image and store image attributes using casual relationship model and found again that store image was a cause variable of store performance. Explaining the store image emphasizing design part, Levy and Weitz (1996) claimed, ‘Store tell customers with all visible outside factors and real set-up structure of facilities make most of purchase possible.’
Their claim means that purchases are resulted from the stimulus of store image to customers. From above, we can say that store image attributes can be an important explanatory variable in choice of store. Nevin and Houston (1981) used Huff’s stochastic model in their study on the importance of store image as a factor of attracting customers in competitive shopping areas. They showed the development and management of favourable store image was one of the most important abilities of retailers in the market position. In addition, they emphasized the role of store image since store image was considered important in the development of marketing strategies to determine shopping areas. Mason, Mayor, and Ezell (1994) argued that store image was important to determine to buy whether in downtown shops or in a shopping center after consumers decided to purchase. And they added that it was important for marketers to know how the consumers felt retail stores to develop marketing strategies of retailing to attract them. The particular image that a store conveys might, therefore, be the key determining factor when a consumer chooses a store (Varley, 2005). Differentiation should be established through focusing resources and attention on establishing retailer brands, and by aligning all the activities of the company with the values of a specific market (Lewis & Hawksley, 1990; Varley, 2005).

Differentiation has become the main approach to brand positioning due to strong competition and a saturated market. Visser et al. (1996) found that store dimensions are key factors in determining shopping behaviour. By developing and maintaining store image dimensions that are attractive to the target market, a sustainable competitive advantage can be developed (Birtwistle & Shearer, 2001). We can say that store image is an important factor in the choice of the store and it can be a cause in the formation of true loyalty. And it can be a major cause variable for future performance and success that raises purchases of consumers and profits and thus a valuable asset for retail marketing management. Korgaonkar, Lund and Price (1985) have reported direct linkages between Store Image and intensity of Store Loyalty. Thus, we can conclude that more positive the Store Image the greater is the degree of loyalty.

2.6: VISUAL MERCHANDISING:

The interior design within the store can maintain customer interest, encourage customers to lower their psychological defenses and easy to make purchasing decisions (Kotler, 1974; Walters and White, 1987; Bitner, 1992; Omar, 1999; Davis and Ward, 2003a). Therefore, Marketers have recognized that point of visual merchandising in retailing makes a significant effect on consumer buying decisions (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000). Most of the researches conducted in supermarket concept in western base countries are referring to different superstore system compared to Sri Lankan condition.
Though they are labeled as supermarkets, these are only retail outlets providing self-services. Kerfoot, Davis, and Ward (2003) found that Visual merchandising is the main element of store choice behavior. The study conducted by Sinha and Banerjee (2004), found that in-store environment is not important on store choice decisions in evolving market. Shopping is a recreational activity and selecting a store is perceived to be high on “entertainment” value. (Woodside et al., 1992). As well as some researchers have argued that store choice behavior depends on supermarket location and its service level. According to Hartline (2000) the behaviors of frontline service employees are critical to customer evaluations of service encounter. McIntosh (2007) illustrated that merchandising is more than simply the arrangement of products on the shelf. It is an integral component of the business image. It should be considered when designing the retail mix. Pleasant shopping atmosphere positively affects the shopping time and the money that customers spend in a store as well as the emotion of shopping (Kim and Jin, 2001). Sinha and Banerjee (2004) contended that convenient stores’ shoppers attach more importance to merchandise display. These shoppers prefer to visit those stores that have depth and width of products. The importance of relationship/comfort level with the retailer is stressed with regard to grocery stores. The shopper is willing to trade-off the extra travel effort with the experience. Krishnan et al. (2002) commented that the availability of consumers' most preferred merchandise in an assortment positively influences consumers’ perceptions of assortment size. The attributes of merchandise that were included in the research study were merchandise assortment, merchandise style, merchandise price and merchandise quality. Thang and Tan (2003) included selection and assortment, styling and fashion as attributes, while Birtwistle et al. (1999) included assortment, merchandise quality, and merchandise style. According to Collins-Dodd and Lindley (2003), as well as Thang & Tan (2003), merchandise was considered the most important factor contributing to consumer store preference. This view was supported by Birtwistle and Shearer (2000), Collins-Dodd and Lindley (2003), Sullivan et al. (2002), who found that merchandise, had a significant influence on brand perception and store choice across consumer segments. Brand and product assortment are part of the assortment strategies followed to satisfy consumer needs and influence brand perception. Consumers tend to seek stores with a greater assortment of merchandise to satisfy their needs (Sullivan et al., 2002). But brand assortment is also a strategy to build a store’s image through developing a private brand label (Ailawadi & Keller, 2004). According to Ailawadi and Keller (2004), the consumer segment most likely to buy private brand labels are price sensitive, of middle income, and educated.
This then indicates that merchandise strategies should be formulated on the basis of target market demographics, as it influences consumer preference and patronage behaviour. In-store displays can be product displays, including point-of-purchase or shelf space, signs, cards or wall decorations. They play an important role in any retailers’ strategy, and therefore receive significant coverage in the literature (Berman & Evans 1995, Levy & Weitz, 2009) however to our knowledge; no study investigates the environmental psychological aspects of interior displays. Product displays in a store increase consumer’s sensitivity to promotions and prices and decrease brand loyalty (Bawa, Landwehr & Krishna, 1989). Studies showed also that the way how a product is displayed has an impact on the effect. For example, yogurts displayed by brand lead to customers buying a larger variety of brands then if they are organized by flavour (Simonson & Winer, 1992). Product displays increase the probability of unplanned purchase, but not of planned purchase. This effect is significantly stronger for product categories that are purchased relatively often (Inman, Winer & Ferraro, 2009). Attaching signs stating a promotional price in large letters to certain brands increases the likelihood of choice. While individuals which are likely to process additional issue-relevant information (high-need-for-cognition individuals) would only react if the price displayed actually was lower than the standard price, others change behaviour purely because of the signage being present (Inman, McAlister & Hoyer, 1990). Furthermore, not only the content but also purely the amount of information contained on in-store displays positively influences consumer choice. When customers need to decide between two very similar products, they would prefer those which contain most information. However, if a product is of superior quality to another, it is advisable to provide less information (Patton, 1981). Online shoppers can be equally influenced by environmental in-store stimuli (Vrechopoulos et al. 2004, Breugelmans, Campo & Gijsbrechts, 2006). Examining effects for ten fast moving consumer goods, a study showed that displays can substantially increase brand market share, but that their effectiveness largely depends on the type of display, with displays located on the ‘first screen’ having the largest effect, followed by aisle displays. Shelf tag displays did not influence online buyer’s choice (Breugelmans & Campo, 2011).

2.7: INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS:

Corporate identity is a mix of characteristics that organizations possess as an entity (Gylling & Lindberg-Repo, 2005). Corporate image is the presentation of this identity and is intentionally constructed to elicit certain specific responses and reactions. Morin (2006) stated that executives recognized the importance and value of defining their business position and corporate identity to reinforce their strategic goals.
Further, he also stated that build and maintain their brands and guide their businesses in today's global marketplace. A critical finding is that managing the corporate identity is the key to a company's success (Gylling & Lindberg-Repo, 2005). Corporate image must provide a sense of coherence and support to various parts of the organization with the strength of the entire organization's distinguishing attributes. Consistency and congruency between the different vehicles that communicate the unique organization's image are crucial to the successful communication of a corporate image (Abratt, 1989; Bernstein, 1984; Olins, 1978). This ensures clear differentiation from the competition. The various vehicles of outward communication of the corporate identity are therefore of particular importance (Markwick & Fill, 1997; Stuart, 1999). Design, branding and identity are the expressions of an effective positioning strategy (Abratt, 1989; Morin, 2006). Newman and Patel (2004) reported that poor levels of performance could result from ineffective positioning and indicate failure with regard to the positioning strategy. To maintain the positioning strategy, the communication strategy has to be controlled by management. This allows the organization to define how it wants to be perceived by the stakeholders. It encompasses distinguishing characteristics and unifying attributes (Morin, 2006). There are two main positioning concerns. The first is consumer positioning, which concentrates on portraying how the product fulfills the consumers' needs and values. The second is competitive positioning; this is the way in which the company differentiates its corporate image from that of the competition (Assael, 1992). Thus, a retailer seeks to position itself as a separate entity from the other retailers, but also to fulfill the specific needs of customers. Retailers should strive to achieve both simultaneously. Visser E.M. et. al. (2006) identified and described institutional, store reputation and store association attributes and grouped them together as the institutional dimension of store image. The institutional dimension plays a significant role in the overall impression of the corporate identity. Before an identity or the reputation of the company can affect consumer behaviour, the consumer should have experienced some involvement and identification with the identity. This is explained through the low involvement theory and classical conditioning, which states that repetition, builds awareness, whereupon a particular emotion will be associated with the stimulus (Alessandri, 2001). This positive association influences consumer behaviour. According to Newman and Patel (2004), identity adds a much needed symbolic aspect to shopping, therefore store image imitates the corporate identity to encourage the association which customers form, and subsequently uses the association to influence patronage behaviour.
Huddleston et al. (1990) described reputation as a desirable characteristic that attracts consumers. Huddleston et al. (1990) investigated the relationship between retail store attributes and the lifestyle characteristics of mature female consumers. They found a relationship between lifestyle and store reputation, suggesting that lifestyle influences consumer preference for store reputation. An investigation into the perception of preference for retail stores based on multi-attributes of store image concluded that a reputable store is preferred because better quality and value is assumed (Thang & Tan, 2003). Reputable stores are better able to secure consumer affiliation and trust, and thereby build store loyalty and encourage repeat purchase. A store can even improve its reputation by carrying a reputable in-store brand, which will positively influence the store brand reputation, therefore strengthening store loyalty even further (Collins-Dodd & Lindley, 2003). The fact is that reputation builds a brand name, and this conveys useful information to consumers in their pre-purchase decision-making process (ibid).

Erdem et al. (1999) studied the relationship between the importance of consumer values and the importance of store image attributes. The results indicated that consumers who attached high importance to a comfortable life, an exciting life, pleasure and social recognition, would also attach high importance to store status, which includes clientele and reputation. According to Shostack (1982), the store’s reputation and clientele were the functions of retailing and merchandise, thus they cannot be separated. The institutional dimension is consequently dependent on the quality and class of service and merchandise. Newman and Patel (2004) noted that this relationship works both ways, in that reputation influences the quality and price perceptions held by customers. Sales personnel should therefore ‘live the brand’ (Wilson et. al.). These authors state that sales personnel’s behaviour will align with the values of the corporate identity if internal communication and human resource management are aligned with the same values. Corporate reputation influences customers’ intention to buy, assures quality and service and influences customer loyalty (ibid). This is because customers identify with the corporate identity and expect its values to be present in the store image. It is thus apparent in the fiercely competitive marketplace that the institutional dimension as a representation of the corporate identity and reputation in store image is imperative as it influences consumer store preference.
2.8: PHYSICAL FACILITIES:

According to a survey report of CB Richard Ellis Inc., (CBRE), almost 98 percent of our respondents agreed that cleanliness was an important criterion that helped them decide which particular shopping facility to visit; almost 52 percent considered it as an extremely important decision factor, the highest amongst all parameters. Close on the heels was safety, with 98 percent responding affirmatively to security / personal safety as an important factor while favouring a shopping destination (Abhinav Joshi et. al., 2016). The physical appearance of a firm’s premises can have a positive effect on customer attribution and satisfaction. A study evaluating service companies showed that neat, well kept, organised customer service areas achieved higher satisfaction ratings by customers after a service failure occurred (Bitner, 1990). Positive perceptions of the environment of a shopping mall have been shown to have some positive effect on the level of excitement, which in turn leads to higher repatronage intentions. The decor, layout, music, etc. of a mall are especially important to keep customers in a mall once they enter (Wakefield & Baker, 1998).

In CBRE consumer research report of 2016 the consumers were of the opinion that Indian developers need to further customize their offering to suit consumer tastes, moving away from the idea that a food court is enough for fulfilling F&B requirements or that providing entertainment in the form of a gaming arcade or cinema hall is sufficient (Abhinav Joshi et., at., 2016). Facilities refer to the provisions made to ease the shopping process and the infrastructure that enhances the consumer's comfort while shopping (Nevin & Houston, 1980).

According to Thang and Tan (2003), consumers tend to view a store with good facilities in a favourable light. Consumers’ shopping orientations determine their preference for facilities (Moye & Kincade, 2002), therefore facilities contribute in differentiating the retailer from its competition. Features which could differentiate a store by easing the shopping process are the availability of changing rooms, fast checkout facilities and layout (Newman & Patel, 2004). These authors postulated that customers’ perceptions and behaviour could be altered through any small change made in store image, specifically store entrances, checkouts and queuing. However, if inappropriate, these features could also create an unwillingness to remain in a store. Lee, Ibrahim and Hsueh-Shan (2005) investigated the importance that male consumers place on certain attributes and found a friendly design layout to be one of the few variables obtaining high scores, ‘which is not difficult to rationalize given prominence in shaping the retail environment and enjoyment level’.
Kent (2003) focused on the design behind a store image. This study focused on the design of the brand with the retailer environment centered on consumer buying behaviour. He found that the interior design as well as the functional elements enhance the brand identity and create a strong experience. The focus of design therefore is also on the facilities now, not only on merchandise and store fronts. Kent (2007) concentrated on factors such as the ability to actually reach products, the significance of floor space and the maximization of sales space by arranging a lot of stock in a manner that seems spacious through the use of open aisles. Hence, by changing a store’s style of layout, specifically, facilities can create and support the brand identity. The space chosen for a store ideally is what will affect the layout and store appearance; the decision, for example, cannot solely be based on location. Even though the importance of facilities is established, Marianne (2003) reported that fitting rooms and fitting room lighting have not received enough attention over the years, due to the fact that management perceive these aspects to be less important to customers. Kerfoot, Davies and Ward (2003) conducted a study on visual merchandising, and found that the role of lighting should not be to merely provide light through brightness or fluorescent lights, but should rather aim to be inviting. Their research also brought perceptions regarding fixtures and aisles to light. Consumers consistently indicated that glass was the best material for presentation. Furthermore, consumers felt that clear aisles increased browsing through the perception of a route to follow, whereas a store without a clear aisle made it difficult for consumers to decide where to start browsing and hard to move through the store (Kerfoot et al., 2003).

In other studies where the importance of store image attributes was investigated, facilities did not receive very high importance ratings (Bearden, 1977; Hansen & Deutscher, 1977-1978; Lee et al., 2005). Facilities form a part of the complete store image presentation, and neglect thereof can have a negative impact on the perception of the store as a whole (Kent, 2007).

2.9: STORE LAYOUT:

Store layout is an important factor affecting consumer behaviour and a critical determinant towards the creation of store image. Well designed layouts are extremely important because they strongly influence in-store traffic patterns, shopping atmosphere, shopping behaviour, and operational efficiency (Vrechopoulos et al., 2004). When an inconsistency occurs, some consumers will abandon that establishment in search of another one which offers fast, convenient and better services. Taking a more strategic approach to store layout can reap big rewards by boosting sales, increasing customer loyalty and ultimately increasing turnover (Clark, 2003).
There is an apparent lack of studies analyzing how variables such as traffic flow, location of departments, and allocation of merchandise within departments impact the emotional states of customers and their behaviour. Most research in this area has dealt with the subject of store layout as a means to provide customers space to shop easily (rather related to the concept of crowding) or to control traffic flow on the floor (Levy & Weitz, 2009). For example, a prominent floor display of a product increases sales significantly irrespective of the type or size of retail store (Gagnon & Osterhaus, 1985). Another article reports that the layout of merchandise in power aisle has an effect on perceived price levels (Smith & Burns 1996).

One of the biggest concerns for every store retailer is the store layout. In his research on pathway design, Juel Jacobsen (2015) argues that well-established principles of urban retail designs are very important for retail managers, in particular for supermarkets and larger retail stores. According to Lewison (1994) the store layout influences both shopping atmosphere and shopping behaviour of consumers visiting the store. A well designed store layout can contribute to a positive shopping atmosphere, which results in the kind of shopping behaviour a retailer wants to achieve. However, currently, lots of stores tend to build on traditional and repetitive designs for their store layout, resulting in outdated store layouts (Juel Jacobsen, 2015).

One important determinant for a consumers’ comfort experience inside a store is personal space. According to the observations of Bitner (1992) and Turley and Miliman (2000), personal space can both influence the retail experience as well the actual choices people tend to make within a store. In their research on the effect of space experience on purchase behaviour, Levav and Zhu (2009) state that the amount of perceived space a consumer has influenced the choice the consumer makes inside a store. They conclude that consumers that are in spatial confinement are more variety-seeking in their purchases. When this spatial confinement is generated by a high density within a store, consumers tend to “reaffirm their identity as independent and unique individuals” (Levav and Zhu, 2009; Xu et al., 2012). They also state that this results in purchase behaviour in which consumers tend to choose more products that they can use to carry out their distinctive identity. Adding to these conclusions, the researchers suggested that people who are in a crowded shopping environment are more likely to focus on prevention, resulting in safety-related product choice.

In current retailing, there are three common conventional layout types that stores nowadays use; freeform, grid and racetrack layout (Vrechopoulos et al., 2004).
For retailers, the type of layout chosen is of great importance regarding the image the store has on consumers (Baker et al., 1994).

Store image is an important factor affecting the in-store consumer behaviour (Erdem et al., 1999). Furthermore, the internal traffic patterns and operational efficiency of the store are strongly dependent on a well-designed store layout (Lewison, 1994). Store layout design also contributes to consumers’ satisfaction (Cil, 2012), and even can create and alter the wants and preferences a consumer has (Simonson, 1999). But most importantly, an efficient store layout design both contributes to product sales and store profitability (Cil, 2012).

To start, all three layout design structures that are mentioned above (freeform, grid and racetrack) are discussed as follows:

- **Grid Layout:**
  In this type of layout contains long pathways which are placed parallel to each other. Retailers are in favour of this layout style because the rectangular arrangement of the shelves fits well in the shopping behaviour of consumers, and it facilitates an efficient and fast shopping experience. Grid layout form is universally the most preferred layout style by supermarket retailers (Levy and Weitz, 2001; Lewison, 1994; Vrechopoulos et al., 2004).

- **Freeform Layout:**
  In contradiction to the grid form, the freeform layout is, as the name already reveals, a layout form containing an unstructured arrangement of aisles, shelves, and displays. The freeform layout is mostly used by clothing stores (Levy and Weitz, 2001; Lewison, 1994; Vrechopoulos et al., 2004). In this design, the emphasis is on increase the ease with which shoppers can find products throughout the store, which is illustrated by the fact that most freeform stores have low shelves. Another characteristic of this store layout is that consumers tend to spend more shopping time in stores using this form. Interestingly for retailers; previous studies argue that extended shopping time can be an important factor to determine how much consumers will spend whilst being in a store (Anic and Radas, 2006).

- **Racetrack Layout:**
  This store layout contains one central main aisle, leading the consumer to the complete store. The function of that main aisle is to guide the consumer through as much as possible store areas. The store is divided into several departments, each with an own product category. Using a racetrack layout form results in an unusual and interesting shopping experience (Lewison, 1994; Vrechopoulos et al., 2004). In a study on the efforts a consumer has to deliver to find products they want to buy, Titus and Everett (1995) stated that there are both a possible positive as well negative aspects of the consumers’ in-store search process.
They argue that an in-store navigational challenge in some cases might be very enjoying and challenging. Whereas on the other hand, consumers can become easily frustrated due to the fact that they are not able to find the products they are looking for, resulting in the effect that consumers tend to break down their search effort (ibid).

In their research on the effect of store layout on online shopping behaviour, Vrechopoulos et al. (2004) conclude that consumers visiting a supermarket prefer shopping in a grid layout store environment, which can be easily explained by the fact that grid layouts enable efficient shopping behaviour. The authors also state that freeform layout is considered as the most entertaining kind of layout, which can be easily traced to the challenging effect the freeform layout has due to the amount of effort a consumer has to make to find products.

2.10: AMBIENCE:

As quoted by d’Astous (2000), an ambient factor is defined as ‘background conditions that exist below the level of our immediate awareness’. This includes temperature, humidity, ventilation, sound, scent, cleanliness, and brightness, etc. In other words, an ambient factor is the element that cannot be seen directly but can be felt by customers. This factor tends to act on the subconscious level of customers (Campbell, 1983) and alter customers’ behaviours in a way that they are not aware. The linkage between store ambient factor and impulse purchase has been reflected by previous works concerning the effect of this factor on approach response and impulsive behaviour. For instance, Sherman, Mathur & Smith (1997) had found that ambience has a positive impact on the arousal of customers, and arousal has a positive impact on the number of items bought, money and time spent in a store.

Many attentions have been devoted to ‘music’ and ‘scent’ for their role in the shopping environment (Chebat & Michon, 2003; Mattila & Wirtz, 2001; Morrin & Chebat, 2005; Spangenberg et al., 1996; Yalch & Spangenberg 1990; Youn & Faber, 2000). For impulsive buying behaviour, Youn & Faber (2000) have discovered that upbeat music is one of the cues that triggered impulse purchase. Morrin & Chebat (2005) have studied the effect of pleasant music and scent on the expenditure of consumers with different shopping attitude. The result showed that pleasant music increased the expenditure on impulsive buyers while scent works well on contemplative shoppers. Besides, Mattila & Wirtz’s (2001) have presented that when the combination of music and scent in the store are matched to provide a coherent ambience, they have greater impact on consumer’s behaviours than considering each environmental cue separately. The cleanliness is one of the important factors determining how customer judge the physical characteristics and appearance of store as well as the overall store image (Burt & Carralero Encinas,2000; Dabholkar et al.,1996; Stephenson 1969).
Baker (1987) had identified environmental cues in a store to be Ambient Factors, Design Factors, or Social Factors as given in Table number 2.2. Based on her view, ambient factors, such as music, scent or air quality do not motivate purchase decisions when they are simply meeting customer expectations. Also, an extreme ambient factor, such as very high or very low temperature can lead to avoidance behaviour. There could be exceptions, however, when extreme levels may have an impact on consumer behaviour, for example, the scent of fresh bread attracting customers to a bakery (Baker, 1987). She defined design factors to be either aesthetic or functional: Aesthetic factors are physical cues which customers observe (colour, architecture, style, materials etc.) and influence the level of pleasure in the service experience (ibid). Functional factors facilitate the behaviour of customers in the servicescape and include layout, signage and comfort (Baker, 1987). Social Factors included the influence by human presence in the servicescape, which was not completely integrated in the early studies in environmental psychology (Baker, Levy & Grewal 1992). The service personnel present in a customer environment, it's size, appearance, and behaviour, has been shown to impact on consumer behaviour (Baker, Levy & Grewal 1992, Bitner 1990, Turley & Milliman 2000). Furthermore, the appearance, behaviour and number of other customers are a crucial human facet of the environment (Eroglu & Machleit, 1990; Machleit, Kellaris, & Eroglu, 1994).

**Table Number: 2.2: Components of the Physical Store Environment:**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Ambient Factors</th>
<th>Background conditions that exist below the level of our immediate awareness</th>
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<td>- Air Quality</td>
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<td>- Temperature</td>
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<td>- Humidity</td>
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<td>- Circulation/Ventilation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Noise (Level/Pitch)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Scent</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Cleanliness</td>
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<tr>
<th>Design Factors</th>
<th>Stimuli that exist at the forefront of our awareness</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Aesthetic</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Architecture Colour Style</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Materials Decor</td>
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<td>- Scale Shape</td>
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<td>- Texture, Pattern</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Functional</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Layout</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Comfort</td>
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<td>- Signage</td>
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<td>- Accessories</td>
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<tr>
<th>Social Factors</th>
<th>People in the Environment</th>
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<td>- Audience (Other Customers)</td>
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<td>- Number, Appearance,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Behaviour</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Service Personnel</td>
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Source: Baker, 1987
• **Cleanliness:**
Cleanliness is the appearance of the retail chain outlet that improves the atmosphere which affects the customers feeling towards the outlet. Customers create positive or negative word of mouth about retail chain outlet by looking at the cleanliness (Banat & Wandebori, 2012). Cleanliness can improve store atmosphere (Gajanayake, Gajanayake & Surangi, 2011). Cleanliness of a store creates a positive impression among consumers and makes them stay longer in the store. Product display and Cleanliness are very important for the outlet selection (Wanninayake & Randiwela, 2007). Cleanliness of the outlets creates an image of comfort and luxury in the customer's mind due to which customers stay for more time in retail chain outlets and make more purchases (Yun & Good, 2007).

• **Lighting:**
Lighting is used to highlight products. It creates excitement and has a positive impact on consumer purchasing behavior. When the lighting used in the retail chain outlets is of good color, consumers are inclined to touch products to assess quality (Areni & Kim, 1994). Consumer’s choice of store is moderately influenced by the lighting and store layout (Wanninayake & Randiwela, 2007). Stores with proper lighting, music, color, scent and displays will motivate the customers to visit the store again in the future (Yoo, Park, & MacInnis, 1998). The main purpose of using brighter lighting in retail outlets is to grab the customers’ attention so that they start purchasing from the outlets due to their comfort.

• **Colour:**
Colour schemes applied in elements of the interior design of environments have been shown to have an effect on shopping behaviour (Ellis & Ficek 2001, Babin, Hardesty & Suter 2003.). Shoppers can be more attracted to a retail display (Bellizzi, Crowley & Hasty 1983), were more likely to purchase, be aroused, have a different image of store and merchandise or spend more time in the environment (Bellizzi & Kite 1992), depending on the colours applied. While some studies showed that lightning factors can influence both store image, examination and handling of merchandise (Baker, Levy & Grewal 1992, Summers & Hebert 2001, Babin et. al (1994), others found no significant effect (Areni & D. Kim 1994).
Color builds feelings and affects consumer behavior and attitude (Banat & Wandebori, 2012). It could stimulate memories, thoughts, and experiences. For instance; “red retail environments tend to be generally unpleasant, negative, tense, and less attractive than green and blue” (Bellizzi, Crowley, & Hasty, 1983). Color has a great impact on the consumer’s perception about the merchandise (ibid).
Good color of the retail chain outlet will grab the customers’ attention and create a positive perception about the merchandise (Crowley, 1993). Lewison (1994) discussed the store environment relative to the five senses that are sight, sound, scent, touch, taste. The store and its environment are important because 70 to 80 percent of purchase decisions are made in the store while inspecting the merchandise. Retail management should attempt to create a motivating, comforting store environment, with exciting store interior and appealing merchandise presentation. Lewison describes how a retailer can use sensory appeals, sight, sound, scent, touch and taste appeal to effect a favorable store image and a pleasant shopping environment. For example, the retailer might use sight appeal to arouse the consumer’s attention. The use of sight appeal can be accomplished by creating harmonious, contrasting, or clashing visual relationships in the display, layout, or physical arrangement of the store. In general, harmonious relationships are seen in quieter, plusher, more formal retail settings, while contrasting and clashing relationships are found in more exciting, cheerful, and informal stores.

**Music:**


The extent of the effect depends on the type of music, e.g., foreground vs. background music (Yalch & Spangenberg 1988, Yalch & Spangenberg 2000), the tempo and volume of music (Milliman 1986, Milliman 1982), and the age of the patron (Yalch & Spangenberg 1990). Several studies point out that the outcome of ambient music is mediated by its congruity with other environmental cues. For example, the genre of music needs to be congruent with a restaurant's atmosphere to increase the length of stay and spending (Baker, Levy & Grewal 1992, Grewal et al. 2003, Vida 2008). Finally, if customers like the music, they tend to evaluate the environment more positively (Dube & Morin 2001), perceive waiting time to be shorter (Hui, Dube & Chebat 1997, Bailey & Areni 2006), and spend more (Caldwell & Hibbert 2002). Music has been observed as a powerful stimulus in shaping retail experience. It is widely used for attention, identification, association, and remembrance in retailing. As a key ambient factor in retail environment, music engages, entertains, energizes, refreshes, involves, and creates a pleasurable and memorable experience for the shoppers (ibid).
Background music has a direct impact on shopping experience by influencing the purchase needs, overall affective evaluations, and service evaluations (Herrington and Capella 1994). Music is a dominant atmospheric factor. It is easily visible and its effect can be measured with great accuracy. The amount of literature on the effects of music on consumer behaviour is relatively limited, but has steadily grown over the last two decades. Bruner (1990) provides a review of the literature up to the beginning of the 1990s and continued interest in the topic is demonstrated by more recent work by authors such as North and Hargreaves (1996), Areni and Kim (1993), and Kellaris and Altsech (1992). The two main domains in which the effects of music have been explored are advertising (Gorn, 1982) and service environments (Areni and Kim, 1993; Yalch and Spangenberg, 1990; Milliman, 1986;1982). From the relevant and specific review of literature the research that focuses on service environments, have investigated the effects of music in retail stores or shopping malls. Bruner (1990) notes that "Music is not a generic sonic mass, but rather a complex chemistry of controllable elements". Music can vary along various dimensions, including timbre, rhythm, and tempo. The effect of music on behaviour has been suggested to operate via its effect on cognitive and emotional processes. Much of the research that has considered the effects of music on individuals' emotional states draws on arousal hypothesis that preference, and thus pleasure for aesthetic stimuli such as music, is related to the arousal potential of the stimuli. Highly arousing music is defined as loud, erratic, and difficult to predict with a quick tempo, while music with low arousal qualities is soft, monotonous, very predictable, and with a slow tempo (Seidman, 1981). One of the more consistent findings of the research into the effects of particular components of music on behaviour, is that music that is more arousing leads to individuals spending less time on activities (ibid). Smith and Cunrow (1966) revealed that when loud music was played in a supermarket, customers spent less time shopping, and Milliman (1982) demonstrated that music tempo affects the speed with which consumers moved around a store. Milliman (1986) later showed that the tempo of music in a restaurant affected the time that people spent in the restaurant, such that individuals dining under the fast music condition spent less time at their tables than individuals dining under the slow tempo condition. Similar evidence of the effects of music tempo includes research by Robaley et al. (1985), who found that it affected the number of bites taken per minute in a university cafeteria and McElrea and Standing (1992), who recorded that music tempo influenced the speed with which drinks were consumed at a bar.
Background music is enticing in luxury category, and tempting in garment stores. It varies with the demographics as well. Elder people find decision making difficult, whereas younger ones tend to appreciate background music.

It is cacophony if played too loud. Familiar music, relative to unfamiliar music, may cause individuals to spend less time in shopping, but to perceive themselves as spending more time. Consumers are more likely to visit new service environments that play music that they like (Broekemier, Marquardt, Gentry 2008). Retail managers believe, and observations confirm that consumers tend to buy more when they shop for a longer time. If managers seek to influence shopping times by creating a familiar atmosphere, the results of this study show that they may not get the intended effect. Although individuals reported shopping longer when listening to familiar music, they actually shopped longer when listening to unfamiliar music. (Yalch and Spangenberg 2000). Music influences a customer’s mood. Slow tempo music relaxes the customer and causes them to linger in the store longer, whereas fast tempo music may be better for stores and restaurants that need rapid turnover. Music is not just about speed or the type of music must match the store (ibid).

- **Scent/Aroma:**

Also, scents and aroma as an interior variable have been examined, albeit with varying outcomes (Spangenberg, Crowley & Henderson 1996, Mattila & Wirtz 2001). Several studies had confirmed that the mere presence or absence of a scent has a significant influence on consumer behaviour, irrespective of the odour. Bone and Ellen (1999) identified 34 studies showing statistically significant effects of scent presence on consumers' response. In general it can be assumed that pleasantly scented environments lead to approach behaviours while unpleasant environments cause avoidance. This reaction may occur without customers even being aware of the presence of the smell (Bradford & Desrochers, 2009). The effect appears to depend on the specific type of the scent. Firstly, the scent needs to have a perceived association with the store-type to gain positive responses. Presence of a pleasant but non associated scent may even lead to negative responses (Parsons, 2009). Secondly, the presence of mediation variables, such as gender, needs to be considered. For example, one study confirmed that in the presence of gender-congruent ambient shoppers perceive to have spent more time in the store, bought more items and spent more money on their purchases (Spangenberg et al., 2006).

Mitchell, Kahn and Knasko (1995) examined the effects of scent congruity and incongruity on cognitive variables that are involved in the consumer decision making processes.
The results revealed that pleasant ambient odor influence consumer decision making, congruent odors lead to a greater access to congruent attitudes, autobiographical memories, and thoughts regarding prior experience with the product class and product class knowledge. Incongruent scents may determine cognitive interference.

Scent congruity condition resulted in more time spent in decision making and increased distribution of decisions across product choice groups in each product category compared with scent incongruity. Chebat and Michon (2003) found that ambient scent is used directly to build a favorable perception of the mall environment and indirectly for product quality. Since odors may affect mall perception, retailers should consider that citrus scent as a powerful way of influencing product perception. Perception of the mall environment affects shoppers’ arousal very strongly, whereas perception of product quality has very little impact although it is significant on emotions (Chebat and Michon, 2003). Michon and Chebat (2004) studied the effects of background music and ambient scent on shopper’s perception of service quality in a mall atmospheric context. The results show that ambient scent, background music has no direct effect on consumers’ perception of service quality, these variables act as mediators rather than moderators of service quality. Michon, Chebat and Turley (2005) examined the effects of ambient odors on shoppers’ emotions, perceptions of the retail environment and perceptions of product quality under various levels of retail density in the context of shopping mall. The authors combined moderating effects of ambient scent and retail density which are measured on shoppers’ positive affect and on their perception of the mall environment.

Bone and Ellen (1999) defined three dimensions of the odor which are considered to be important: the presence (or absence) of smell; pleasantness of smell and the congruity of smell with the object studied. The authors reveal that smell influence respondents in relation to: elaboration, as defined from both discursive and image processing perspectives; effective and evaluative response; purchase and repeat visit intention; behavior in terms such as time spent and decision making. Bone and Ellen (1999) suggest that researchers have to examine whether odor effects on affective and behavioral outcomes are direct or are partially or fully mediated by mood state, cognition and other variables. Ward, Davis and Kooijman, (2003a) examined the linkage between the research conducted in various field of scholarship and its potential application in retailing. The authors consider that ambient smell is a stimulus which leads consumers to develop a holistic impression of the store which can be considered its atmosphere which links to the notion of retail identity, retail image and consumer behavioral responses in terms of approach and avoidance behavior (Ward, Davis and Kooijman, 2003a).
The holistic impression of a store helps retailers to develop a clear, consistent and coherent brand identity that is communicated and vested in the store itself, and the understanding on the importance of the use of smell in this process it is very important (Ward, Davis and Kooijman, 2003a).

Marketers interested in using scents rely on two physiological conditions which strongly impact the cognitive psychologically based premises of associative learning and emotional processing. First, smell is one of our most primal and deeply rooted senses and functions as our chemical alert system. It is hardwired to perceive whether the molecules around our bodies are beneficial or dangerous, a determination of fundamental importance to the survival of all forms of life (Zaltman, 2003). When a person smells something, the odor receptors produce an immediate, instinctive reaction (Zaltman 2003; Vlahos 2007). “With all of the other senses, you think before you respond, but with scent, your brain responds before you think,” (Vlahos 2007). Thus the sense of smell is of interest to marketers because of its potential to create uncensored reactions to marketing stimuli. Second, the sense of smell is considered to be the most closely related to emotional reactions. The olfactory bulb is directly connected to the limbic system in the brain, which is the system related to immediate emotion in humans (Wilkie, 1995). 75 percent of emotions are generated by smell (Bell and Bell 2007). Consequently, smell represents a direct line to feelings of happiness and hunger and is a sensory bandwidth that cannot be turned off (Wilkie, 1995; Vlahos 2007). Thus, from a marketer’s perspective, smell has an instantaneous good or bad effect.

Scent Presence or absence of scent in the retail chain outlets has noticeable impact on the consumer purchase intention. Scent is a pleasant fragrance that influences customer mood and emotions which make the customers stay more time and feel excited (Banat & Wandebori, 2012). Right use of scents improves evaluations of products that are unfamiliar or not well liked (Morrin & Ratneshwar, 2000). Scent has a major effect on how consumer evaluates the merchandise (Spangenberg, Sprott, Grohmann, & Tracy, 2006) Customers spend more time in shopping when the environment contains good music and scent (Yalch, Richard, Eric, & Spangenberg, 2000). Selection of one scent should be preferred over multiple scents. Shoppers spend more money at the outlets with single scent compared to those consumers who are exposed to multiple fragrances (Haberland, 2010). The selection of scent must consider the targeted gender to make theme pleasing, so that customers spend more time and money at a retail outlet to purchase goods (Spangenberg et al., 2006).
• Temperature/Air-conditioning:

Ambient temperature level was found to influence interpersonal attraction of people (Griffitt, 1970). However, other studies had found no measurable effect of temperature levels on desire to stay in a shopping mall (Wakefield & Baker, 1998). It seems likely that while acceptable levels of temperature go unnoticed by customers, too high or low levels increase the probability of avoidance behaviour (Baker, 1987).

Temperature at retail outlet is among those atmospheric variables that greatly impact the consumer purchase intention. Extreme temperature—very low or very high—creates negative feelings among customers; it leads to dissatisfaction among the customers and consequently, customers spend less time in outlet and produce negative word of mouth (Lam, 2001).

2.11: ACCESSIBILITY:

The location research is also considered a useful tool in examining other economic phenomena, such as mergers of several retail chains.

An interesting example of such work focuses on possible application of the spatial analysis to the merger problem and introduces a framework for improving the process of merge in retail area. The store location techniques used in the latest time suggest that there is a considerable shift towards more sophisticated models (Clarkson et. al., 1996). There are several major directions in the literature on the store location, which are depicted in competitive location literature and store choice literature (Colome and Serra, 2003). They developed a notion of partial coverage, which is defined as a function of the distance of the demand point to the facility. In the model the demand point can be fully covered within the minimum critical distance, partially covered up to a maximum critical distance, and not covered outside of the maximum critical distance. Based on the revised model the author makes a computation and compare the results with the results of the general model, which demonstrates that including the partial coverage has significant affects on the solution of the problem. Here the authors develop a generalized maximal cover location problem (GMCLP) by introducing a multiple sets of coverage levels for each demand point, where the coverage level is a decreasing function of the distance to the closest facility. Nowadays, retail location area experiences a trend of encompassing the store choice attributes in the competitive location models. One of the successful examples is the work of Colomé Serra (2003) who presented a new approach for determination which store attributes should be included in the new Market Capture Model and how they ought to be reflected using the Multiplicative Competitive Interaction model, as the latest stands to reason that any retail location model should take into account the processes underlying consumers’ choice of store.
81 percent of Indian consumers agree that the overall experience when visiting a shopping destination is most critical, rather than only the choice of shops (Abhinav Joshi et., at., 2016). Access convenience concerns the speed and ease with which consumers can reach a retailer. It considers attributes such as accessible location, parking availability, store hours, proximity to other stores, and telephone and internet access. The speed and ease that consumers can make contact with retailers powerfully influence their retail choices.

Empirical evidence shows that easy accessibility has a high correlation with the choice of a shopping center (Bellenger et al., 1977). In addition to a convenient location, other convenience incentives provided by retailers, such as longer operating hours or ample parking, can draw patrons to a store (Hansen and Deutscher, 1977-78). This is consistent with another study that finds that the main reason for consumers not patronizing a c-store was inconvenient location (Lassk, 2000).

Search convenience is the speed and ease with which consumers identify and select products they wish to buy. This dimension considers helping consumers find the right products through focused merchandising, intelligent store design and layout, knowledgeable sales persons, customer interactive systems, and visual merchandising practices, especially product displays, packaging, and signage. One study found that when shopping at convenience stores, customers want courteous and helpful clerks, but not too friendly so that they don’t engage in extended conversations (Sutton and Rafaeli, 1988). Other literature suggested that consumer’s evaluation of the store atmosphere also affects their perceptions of value and their store patronage intentions (Hui, M.K. & Bateson, J.E.G., 1991).

Possession convenience is the speed and ease with which consumers can obtain desired products. It results from a retailer’s strong in-stock position, timely production or timely delivery. One stop shopping offers consumers possession convenience by bringing together a vast variety of goods and services in one store. The literature supports this and several studies have found that merchandise assortment is positively related to retail store choice (Arnold et al., 1983; Oppewal and Koelemeijer, 1999; Louviere and Gaeth, 1987), and is found in some cases even more important than price for store choice (Stassen et al., 1999). Transaction convenience refers to the speed and ease with which consumers can effect or amend transactions. Once the consumers selects a store, and selects the products they want to purchase, they still must participate in a transaction to complete the purchase. Transaction convenience concerns how quickly and easy it is to do the business with a firm, and considers attributes such as different payment methods, quick service, well trained employees, and well designed service systems.
Time savings elements for consumers such as fast checkouts are also found to influence their retail choice (ibid). Convenience is a vital part of society at present. With expanding internet facilities and individuals spending more time at work and less time at home, time spent on shopping is an expensive resource. Chowdhary (1999) noted that convenience is a specifically desirable characteristic for older consumers. Hyllegard et al. (2005), however, found that convenience was less important to consumers aged 56 to 88, but very important to the age groups between 18 and 55.

They furthermore established that the preference for convenience differed across nationalities (Spanish, European and American consumers). They, however, did not find any gender differences in terms of preference. In a study by Kim and Jin (2001) convenience was cited as a reason for consumers preferring multi-national discount stores over national stores. Store hours comprise another aspect of convenience. Hyllegard et al. (2005) found that store hours are less important to older consumers because older consumers have more time to shop.

They concluded that store hours and convenience have the strongest influence on patronage behaviour across nationalities. Retail stores focusing on younger markets should, therefore, incorporate a focus on convenience and extended shopping hours. This greater concern identified in the younger market could be due to changing lifestyles and busy social lives (Hyllegard et al., 2005). A vital part of convenience is site selection/ location planning, because it influences parking, location and transportation. This is a significant decision because it cannot be altered once made. Location, transportation and traveling time influence the consumer market patronizing the store and, inevitably, sales (Wood & Browne, 2007). Thang and Tan (2003), for instance, noted that retailers are chosen on the basis of accessibility, ease of transportation and time duration of travel. They found that accessibility of a store is rated second to merchandising and that even stores located on the same street still engendered varying perceptions with regard to accessibility. The smallest distance can, however, influence a store’s success or failure (Wood & Browne, 2007). The importance of traveling distance in influencing intention to remain loyal to a store was noted by Miranda et al. (2004). Newman and Patel (2004) reported that, by focusing on features which influence the ease of shopping, retailers are able to differentiate themselves from the competition.

Koo (2003), on the other hand, investigated the inter-relationships among store images, store satisfaction, and store loyalty among Korean discount retail patrons, and found that convenience has a direct and indirect impact on store loyalty, but not on store satisfaction.
This is contradicted by Chang and Tu (2005), who found that convenience, has a direct relationship with customer satisfaction and customer loyalty, as well as an indirect relationship with customer loyalty through customer satisfaction. Retailers should, therefore, consider convenience and its sub-dimensions carefully as this can help build a consumer base and consumer loyalty (John, M.D Bryant, B.E., 1980).

2.12: SALES PROMOTION SCHEMES:
Many studies had focused on the effects of promotion on brand switching, purchase quantity, and stockpiling and have documented that promotion makes consumers switch brands and purchase earlier or more.

The consumers’ consumption decision has long been ignored, and it remains unclear how promotion affects consumption (Blattberg et al. 1995). Emerging literature in behavioural and economic theory has provided supporting evidence that consumption for some product categories responds to promotion. Using an experimental approach, Wansink, Brian (1996) established that significant holding costs pressure consumers to consume more of the product. Wansink and Deshpande (1994) showed that when the product is perceived as widely substitutable, consumers will consume more of it in place of its close substitutes. They also show that higher perishability increases consumption rates. Adopting scarcity theory, Folkes et al. (1993) showed that consumers curb consumption of products when supply is limited because they perceive smaller quantities as more valuable. Chandon and Wansink (2002) showed that stockpiling increases consumption of high convenience products more than that of low-convenience products. In an analytical study, Assuncao and Meyer (1993) showed that consumption is an endogenous decision variable driven by promotion and promotion-induced stockpiling resulting from forward-looking behaviour. There are some recent empirical papers addressing the promotion effect on consumer stockpiling behaviour under price or promotion uncertainty. Erdem and Keane (1996) and Gonul and Srinivasan (1996) established that consumers are forward looking. Erdem et al. (2003) explicitly modeled consumers’ expectations about future prices with an exogenous consumption rate. In their model, consumers form future price expectations and decide when, what, and how much to buy. Sun et al. (2003) demonstrated that ignoring forward looking behaviour leads to an over estimation of promotion elasticity. Blattberg, Eppen, and Lieberman (1981), Gupta (1988), Neslin, Henderson, and Quelch (1985), Shoemaker (1979), Ward and Davis (1978), and Wilson, Newman, and Hastak (1979) found evidence that promotions are associated with purchase acceleration in terms of an increase in quantity purchased and, to a lesser extent, decreased inter purchase timing.
Researchers studying the brand choice decision—for example, Guadagni and Little (1983) and Gupta (1988) had found promotions to be associated with brand switching. Montgomery (1971), Schneider, 1990 and Kirshnan et. al. 1995), and Webster (1965) found that promotion-prone households were associated with lower levels of brand loyalty.

There are other variables that may be used to describe purchase strategies, examples are whether the household purchases a major or minor (share) national brand, store brand, or generic, or whether it is store-loyal or not. McAlister (1983) and Neslin and Shoemaker (1983) used certain segments derived from those of Blattberg, (1990) but added a purchase acceleration variable to study the profitability of product promotions.

Non-price promotions such as sweepstakes, frequent user clubs, and premiums add excitement and value to brands and may encourage brand loyalty (e.g., Aaker 1991; Shea, 1996). In addition, consumers like promotions. They provide utilitarian benefits such as monetary savings, added value, increased quality, and convenience, as well as hedonic benefits such as entertainment, exploration, and self-expression (Chandon, Laurent, and Wansink, 2002).

A large body of literature had examined consumer response to sales promotions, most notably coupons (Sawyer and Dickson, 1984; Bawa and Shoemaker, 1987 and 1989; Gupta, 1988; Kirshnan, 1995; Leone and Srinivasan, 1996). Despite this, important gaps remain to be studied. It is generally agreed that sales promotions are difficult to standardize because of legal, economic, and cultural differences (e.g., Foxman, Tansuhaj, and Wong, 1988; Kashani and Quelch, 1990; Huff and Alden, 1998). Multinational firms should therefore understand how consumer response to sales promotions differs between countries or states or province.

Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) focused on building a clear position and image through integrated marketing, with advertising being an important channel (Kliatchko, 2005). Sales incentives, displays, and advertising are attributes of promotion. The goal of IMC is to build a stronger brand and increase sales through the influence of consumers. Promotions are a precondition of brand recognition and enhancement, which influenced sales (Ratnatunga & Ewing, 2005). One of the major changes in marketing includes new technology in which advertising is consumer focused to nurture customer satisfaction and loyalty (Kliatchko, 2005). The promotions dimension is, therefore, a significant tool in the IMC process because of its proximity to consumers and its direct influence on consumer behaviour. Although promotion is viewed as a positive stimulus by management, a study of patronage motives and product purchase patterns found that special events/exhibits and promotions were among the least mentioned motives for product purchase.
They were therefore indicated as less important than other store image attributes (ibid). This is in contrast to other research. Paulins and Geistfeld (2003) reported a distinct difference between highly educated and less educated consumers in the response to advertising. The fact that educated consumers are more selective makes them more difficult to entice through advertising.

Thang and Tan (2003) found that promotions have a significant influence on consumer preference. Consumers have to be constantly attracted by advertising to stimulate interest and create store awareness. But consumers are exposed to a large amount of information and advertising messages; therefore an integrated and consistent marketing communication strategy is critical for strengthening the message which marketers strive to send.

A strong communication strategy is vital in competing in the marketplace and in managing the corporate identity, while promotions provide the key in conveying information to consumers (Markwick & Fill, 1997). Samli and Lincoln (1999) assessed the influence of actually promoting store image attributes. They found that consumers who had seen the relevant advertisements gave higher image scores than the consumers who did not see the advertisements.

Du Frene, Engelland, Lehman and Pearson (2005) found that consumer-centric advertising through interactive e-mailing changed consumers’ attitudes towards the brand, which, in turn, affected intention to purchase. According to Sen, Block and Chandran (2002), displays do not hold high incentive value for consumers, but rather act to make customers aware of the possible purchase and usage of the merchandise. Window displays, for example, relay information before a client enters a store and contribute to store entry and product purchase. It is evident that the expenditure on promotions should be viewed as a contributing factor to building store image and subsequent profit. The key for smaller shopping centers is to create a buzz by connecting with the local community. This could be achieved by holding small scale performances, farmer's markets, and liaising with institutions or social groups in the neighborhood to design and host activities suited to their defined catchment (Abhinav Joshi et., at., 2016).

2.13: RANGE OF PRODUCTS:

According to CBRE consumer research report of 2016 the Indian consumer was of the view that prime shopping centers in India, along with aiming to attract exclusive or popular brands, should also focus on brands which have a reputation for providing an experiential in-store experience, thereby assuring more physical visits to the store; and in turn, to the mall (Abhinav Joshi et., at., 2016).
Kotler and Armstrong (2001) defined merchandise as the products and services or lines that a retailer offers to the target market. In other words, merchandise is the product or service meant for sale and that is capable of giving satisfaction to the consumer.

Cox and Brittain (1993) stated that while some retailers adopt specialized merchandise policy like in the case of those dealing with specialty goods, others operate a scrambled merchandise policy that offers a wide range and variety of product lines. Examples are those retailers that carry convenience and shopping goods such as supermarkets, superstores, and multiple shops. Merchandise assortment is defined by Bovie and Thill (1992) as the unique mix of products offered by a retailer. It includes the breadth and depth in which these lines are stocked.

Similarly, Kotler and Keller (2005) defined product mix or product assortment as a set of all products and items a particular seller offers for sale and this consists of various product lines (ibid).

Not only does the retailer stock goods that meet customer requirements, he must also consider products that can trigger purchase whenever the customer enters the store. Hodge (2004) carried out a study to ascertain the type of product that can easily drive impulse buying in the store and discovered that low marginal products, short life-span products, light or easily carried items, and easily stored products are commonly purchased spontaneously by customers. Merchandise display is another important element of the retail store. Merchandise in the retail store should be positioned in particular ways to aid customer selection and stimulate sales. Merchandise displays are special presentations of a store’s products used to attract and entice the buying public (ibid).

Cox and Brittain (1993) observed that a good display continues to catch the customer’s eyes the moment he enters the store. He studied that a stimulating and attractive in-store display of products can bring about high stock turnover and economical space management. The store layout and merchandise display involve planning the internal arrangement of different sections according to merchandise variety and assortment. By so doing, the retailer is able to manage available space, and give customers adequate space to move round the store without any traffic jam. When items in store are strategically located, they draw the customer into the store and facilitate purchase of impulse and complimentary goods. Rook (1987) observed that impulse buying occurs when a consumer experiences a sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately. Furthermore, Miller (2002) described impulse buying as a situation where most purchase decisions are made in-store without a prior plan before entering the store. In this study, therefore, impulse buying shall be defined in relation to product and store features.
Thus, impulse buying is defined as a buying action that occurs when the consumer is exposed to an attractively presented or conveniently located product in a store. Ghag (2013) opined that to influence customer buying behaviour, the store design should attract customers, enable them to locate merchandise, keep them in the store for a long time, motivate them to make unplanned or impulse purchase and provide them with a satisfying customer experience. Khan (2014) suggested that knowing the customer in and out will help tremendously when creating an effective display of range of products in the retail store. According to his research study it is not only being familiar with demographic data like age, income and educational level, but digging a little deeper into psychographics and behaviours or their lifestyle. Khan further stated that the retail space should be the most productive and most efficient salesperson and that maximizing revenue involves employing the art and science of visual merchandising. Since a good merchandise display is a product of a good store layout, it should be done in such a way as to allow merchandise to be displayed without obstructing the movement of the customers along the store shelves. Consumer choice models often assume that customers are perfectly knowledgeable about their preferences and the product offerings. Therefore, consumers are always better off when they choose from a broader set of products. However, empirical studies show that consumer choice is affected by their perception of the variety level rather than the real variety level (ibid).

This perception can be uninfluenced by the space devoted to a category, the presence or absence of a favorite item, or the arrangement of the assortment (Simonson, 1999). Hoch et al. (1999) define a measure of the dissimilarity between product pairs as the count of attributes on which a product pair differs. They show that this measure is critical to the perception of variety of an assortment and that consumers are more satisfied with stores carrying those assortments perceived as offering high variety. Van Herpen and Pieters (2002) find the impact of two attribute-based measures that significantly impact the perception of variety. These measures are entropy that is whether all products have the same color or different colors and dissociation between attributes that is whether color and fabric choice across products are uncorrelated. The perception of variety at a store is especially important for variety-seeking consumers. Variety seeking consumers tend to switch away from the product consumed on the last occasion. Variety seeking literature demonstrated that consumers adopt this behavior when purchasing food or choosing among hedonic products such as restaurants and music (ibid).
The assortment serves an important function in retailing linking supply with demand by providing a selective range of merchandise for consumers to purchase. As a key element of the retail marketing mix, merchandise is the primary reason for a consumer to visit a store, browse or purchase.

Within the retail mix, the assortment operationalises the retailer’s strategy becoming a strategic positioning tool to attract and retain core customers (Grewal et al., 1999). Furthermore it is used as a classifier of store formats, creating a “dynamic dimension of retailing” (Brown, 1990), as shifting patterns of assortment shape retail evolutionary theory (Hollander, 1966).

As shelf space in traditional retail stores is limited, the major assortment issues faced by a retailer include what products, and how many of each, should be on the shelves in the stores. In a classical economic sense, the assortment decision is easy, as the rational retailer should choose the combination of products that yield the biggest profit in the long run. More products mean more flexibility and it gives the decision maker a sense of empowerment (Boatwright and Nunes 2001; Kahn and Lehmann 1991; Koopmans, 1964; Kreps 1979). Store image and satisfaction with the store is affected by the perceived store assortment (ibid). The customer’s perception towards the product quality and assortment are positively related to the patronage of a store (Darley and Jeen-Su, 1993; Craig et al. 1984; Koelemeijer and Oppewal, 1999). In Greece a study performed on store choice suggested that product assortment and quality are the key drivers of customer's choice (Baltas and Papastathopoulou, 2003).

Product assortment has affected shopping behaviour and patronage patterns (Brown, 1990). It is said that assortment has the greatest effect at grocery stores, with positive and high impact on patronage and spending. Assortment can be described as the ability of the retailer to offer an assortment of products by providing the consumer with variety, uniqueness, and quality (Verhoef et. al., 2009). Consumers desire flexibility in their choices and demand an array of products to choose from in order to meet their ever changing goals, needs, and social situations. Retailers are hesitant to adopt efficient assortment because of concerns that reducing the number of units they carry will lower consumer assortment, perceptions and, consequently, will reduce the consumer’s will to shop at their store. The results of the study suggest that retailers can make moderate reductions to the number of items offered without negatively affecting assortment perceptions. In regard to consumer preference for assortment, it is seen that consumers generally prefer larger assortments to smaller assortments because of the greater choice benefits available from larger assortments.
Hence retailers often create assortments offering numerous options (Broniarczyk, Hoyer and McAlister, 1998). Conflict exists regarding the effect of larger assortments and how it influences consumer preferences. It is said that a large assortment requires consumers to evaluate many options which can cause consumers to experience frustration and conflict that may actually detract from the attractiveness of the assortment (Chernev, 2003).

Retailers frequently attempt to attract shoppers by offering large product assortments. Although large assortments benefit consumers by providing many choices, it also challenges consumers to think more while making purchase decisions. Therefore, when retailers offer extensive product assortments it may diminish the assortment’s attractiveness (Boyd and Bahn, 2009).

2.14: BEHAVIOUR OF SALES STAFF:

In addition, consumers also enjoy talking to salespeople, and seek a social experience outside their home, thus this may drive some shoppers to stores in which they find friendly salespeople (Tauber, 1972). In fact, one study found that there is a positive correlation between consumer’s perceived warmth of the service clerk and perceived quality and loyalty to the store (Lemmink and Mattsson, 1998). Service is a crucial element of a brand; this includes staff-customer interaction (sales) (Newman & Patel, 2004). As shown above, sales personnel are responsible for the social interaction with customers through this interplay between service and sales personnel. Service builds customer relationships and leads to positive-word-of-mouth and customer loyalty (Newman & Patel, 2004). Customers’ perception of social cues, which includes service, improves their perception of merchandise (Hu & Jasper, 2006; Newman & Patel, 2004). Teller, Kotzab and Grant (2006) found that sales personnel service greatly affect store choice, even more than modern services, such as home delivery. Service by sales personnel through knowledge and courteousness is emphasized by Berman and Evans (1995). Good service, therefore, contributes toward forming a positive store image.

Thang and Tan (2003) concluded that stores that provide good service leave shoppers with a more favourable perception which promotes repeat visits and has a positive impact on consumer purchase behaviour. Miranda et al. (2004) underscored this by concluding that intention to remain loyal to a store is influenced by several factors, including service. Hellier et al., (2003) also showed that customers’ repurchase intention is influenced by service. While the repurchase intention is thus influenced by service quality, Wirtz et al. (2007) stated that the effect of service on consumer behaviour is moderated by emotional arousal.
Huddleston et al. (1990) found that mature female consumers’ lifestyle characteristics influence their preferences for services. In contrast, Oates et al. (1996) showed that the perception of the importance of the service dimension is not notably different among elderly consumer segments on the basis of lifestyle. Research results, however, highlight the fact that management should take note of the impact that service can have on consumer behaviour and that the preference for service is influenced by independent consumer variables. Building interpersonal relationships with customers can provide the edge in creating store loyalty when competing in a fairly homogeneous market. Sales personnel play an important role in creating the social cues in a store that are found to improve evaluations of store image (Hu & Jasper, 2006). The interaction with customers through sales personnel is central to consumer-focused communication (Knee, 2002).

Koo (2003) noted that Korean consumers first need to form a favourable store image on non-physical characteristics to promote a positive attitude towards the store. This emphasizes the need to improve sales personnel service. Lee et al. (2005), however, did not find a significant relationship between sales personnel and store loyalty or store satisfaction. Oates et al. (1996) argued that consumer segments based on lifestyle differ with regard to the importance that they attach to sales personnel. This could be attributed to differences related to value. Baker et al. (2002) investigated the influence of store environmental cues on customers’ perceived merchandise value and patronage intention. They concluded that sales personnel influenced the perceptions of interpersonal service quality, which, in turn, influenced patronage intention, thus underscoring the importance of sales personnel in building store image. The sales personnel’s product knowledge is a key store image attribute in male shopping behaviour, according to Lee et al. (2005). The personal appearance of sales personnel influences the customers’ perception of a store. If, for example, the personnel is described as obese, regardless of sex or age, the store is perceived as having a poorer image and being less successful (Klassen, Clayson & Jasper, 1996).

Not only do sales personnel have an effect on how the store is viewed, but the perceptions of the retail environment can influence customers’ beliefs about the people who work in such an environment. Arun and Stafford (2000) for instance found that sales personnel are regarded as having more credibility in the prestige store ambience and less in the discount store ambience. Retail personnel’s number, appearance and behaviour impacts consumer’s perception of a firm and therefore influences behaviour (Bitner 1992, Turley & Milliman 2000).
For example, when service failures occur, employees dressed in unprofessional attire have been shown to negatively influence a customer’s attribution and satisfaction (Bitner 1990). The number and friendliness of employees have a positive impact on levels of pleasure and arousal, which in turn impacts willingness to buy (Baker, Levy & Grewal 1992). Stores with more sales personnel on the shop floor greeting customers were perceived as providing a higher service quality than stores with less staff not offering a greeting (Baker, Grewal & Parasuraman 1994, Huntton & Richardson 1995).

The effect of other customers’ presence has been widely discussed (Machleit, Eroglu & Mantel 2000, Machleit & Mantel 2001). An individual’s assessment of the presence of others in a limited space will be referred to as the perception of crowding. It is important to differentiate this from density, i.e. the actual number of other shoppers presents (Harrell & Hutt, 1976).

The perception of crowding can be either human crowding (a closed confined feeling experience from high human density) or spatial crowding that is feelings of restricted physical body movements due to high spatial density (Harrell, Hutt & Anderson 1980, Machleit, Kellaris & Eroglu, 1994). The feelings associated by the proximity of others can be related to both presence of people but is also to questions of store layout. Another positive effect of density on pleasure can be derived from manning theory, which states that every setting requires an optimal number of occupants to function effectively (Wicker, 1979). If the density is lower than ideal, increasing the level of crowding will cause the retail functions to work more effectively, leading to increased pleasure levels with the consumer. For example an Apple Store may create a sense of an excitement when customers have to wait in line to get in (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1994). It has been suggested that the relationship between crowding and emotions could in fact be inverse v-shaped, with emotional reactions to the presence of others turning to negative when the social size exceeds an individual’s level of comfort (Argo, Dahl & Manchanda, 2005).

A study conducted in an extended service setting showed that while crowding reduces levels of satisfaction when the objective is of a utilitarian nature, it may increase satisfaction in extended hedonic service settings (Noone & Mattila, 2009).

Further, purchase decision-making has become complex due to the inseparability of product and services offered in retail outlets. As such, understanding the role played by these store attributes is an important subject matter as based on these studies the retailers’ will be able to create an optimum configuration of various store attributes which are integrated with shoppers’ perceptions.
It should be noted that shoppers’ do have their own pre-defined orientations which shape their overall behaviour while they choose retail stores for shopping. The contribution of other authors in this area of influence of Store Attributes on Store Patronage is duly given in a Summarized Tabular form at the end of this chapter in Annexure- I.

2.15: SHOPPERS’ SATISFACTION:

In this section, an attempt has been made to highlight the brief review of literature on shoppers’ satisfaction from the retail store. One of the aims of establishing a particular store image is to meet customers’ needs and to create a positive customer experience. Creating customer satisfaction may lead to the long-term goal of future profits and sustained business viability. Customer satisfaction increases repeat purchase behaviour and the purchase of other products at the same store (Chang & Tu, 2005).

According to Chen-Yu and Hong (2002), consumers spent their funds in such a way as to maximize satisfaction, which is also the desired outcome of a marketing strategy. Satisfaction not only reinforces the resolution or intent to repurchase, but also store loyalty (Patterson & Spreng, 1997; Bloemer, Kasper, & Lemmink, 1990; Kincade, Redwine & Hancock, 1992). The definition of customer satisfaction is based on the disconfirmation paradigm; satisfaction is derived through the matching of expectations. The chosen alternative meets or exceeds expectations (ibid). Customer satisfaction is a response to expectation, product performance after purchase, product experience, or the shopping experience. The response is a reaction from the evaluation of standards; between pre-purchase expectations, wants or ideals and the actually shopping- and/or product experience (Bloemer & De Ruyter, 1998; Grace, 2005; Howard & Sheth, 1969). According to Kim and Jin (2001), customers’ satisfaction and the intention to repurchase resulted from the customers’ emotional experience during the purchase stage and, hence, from the appraisal of the store’s image.

Atmospheric variables influence customers’ satisfaction regardless of shopping orientation; some variables do, however, contribute to satisfaction for specific consumer segments (McKinney, 2004). Customers’ satisfaction or dissatisfaction and intention to repurchase are therefore indicators of the customers’ perception of the store, which, in turn, is created by store image. Customers’ satisfaction or dissatisfaction is prevalent not only in the consumption stage but also while purchasing, thus emphasizing the importance of store image. The greater the satisfaction of the customer during purchasing, the greater the intention to repeat purchase (Chen-Yu & Hong, 2002).
Baker et al. (2002) affirmed that consumers evaluate store image dimensions as reliable information cues about product attributes, price, quality, value and overall shopping experience.

Dick and Basu (1994) combined both behavioural and attitudinal approaches and then defined store loyalty as favorable attitude and repetitive purchase of consumers so that the concept can be comprehensively understood and they argue that their concept was desirable since both components could be measured. Either favorable attitude or repetitive purchase alone cannot be necessary and sufficient conditions of index of store loyalty and the both must be considered together in the light of consumers. Czepiel and Kingstrom (1983) had argued strongly for loyalty to be treated as a psychological construct. Further, in an interesting development, Oliver (1999) extends the notion of incorporating repeat purchase with loyalty by suggesting that psychological strategies are needed to achieve ultimate loyalty. In the following sections, the literature is reviewed to synthesize the attitudinal components of previous loyalty conceptualizations.

Excluding repeat purchase, four dimensions of loyalty can be distinguished in the services literature. These dimensions are viz., positive word-of-mouth; a resistance to switch; identifying with the service; and a preference for a particular service provider. Positive word-of-mouth is a common approach to loyalty conceptualization. Loyal customers become an advocate for the service (ibid). Four variations of the advocacy concept can be identified viz., providing positive word-of-mouth (Zeithaml et al., 1996; Andreassen and Lindestad, 1998); recommended the service to others (Stum and Thiry, 1991); encouraging others to use the service (Kingstrom, 1983; Bettencourt and Brown, 1997); defending the service provider's virtues has been proposed by Kingstrom (1983). In summary, loyalty is regarded as a construct that is distinct from repurchase behaviour. Loyalty is defined here as the enduring psychological attachment of a customer to a particular service provider. Attachment is reflected through viz., advocacy of the service to others; tendency to resist switching to alternate service providers; identification with the service provider; and having a relative preference for the service ahead of other competitors. Store loyalty refers to repeat purchase behaviour. Repeat purchase behaviour is evidenced by purchases made at the same retailer for similar products (Osman, 1993). Bloemer and De Ruyter (1998) developed a more specific definition namely, ‘The biased behavioural response, expressed over time, by some decision-making unit with respect to one store out of a set of stores, which is a function of psychological processes resulting in commitment’.
A person becomes committed to a store and therefore becomes loyal; store commitment is thus a necessary condition for store loyalty (Bloemer & De Ruyter, 1998). Managers face the challenge to build store loyalty and commitment, it is critical in a marketplace where there is a choice between numerous stores with similar products (Bloemer & De Ruyter, 1998; Miranda et al., 2005; Osman, 1993).

The ideal situation is to have a long-term loyal customer who is reluctant to change stores due to an emotional bond with the store. A short-term loyal customer feels less of a bond and will change stores when a seemingly better option is available (Chang & Tu, 2005). Therefore, if store loyalty is more an indication of repeat visiting possibility than the wanting of a specific product from a specific retailer, as pointed out by Bowen and Shoemaker (1998), it is still a crucial customer characteristic in the competitive environment of apparel retail. It is important for retailers to seek information on the shopping experience when planning to build store loyalty with augmented services (Miranda et al., 2005). If retailers manage the perception of store image, they can isolate consumers from their competitors by building store loyalty (Osman, 1993).

In Kunkel and Berry’s (1968) broad definition of store image as ‘the total conceptualized or expected reinforcement that a person associates with shopping at a particular store’, the word reinforcement is especially significant. The learning process occurs through reinforcement and motivates repeat behaviour, primarily through positive feedback. It is significant because it is the key to a loyal customer and ensures repeat purchase behaviour. Bloemer and De Ruyter (1968) investigated the relationship between store image, customer satisfaction and store loyalty. They found that store image perception is directly related to store loyalty, but rather an indirect positive effect on store loyalty through consumer satisfaction. Singson (1975) focused on the store image attributes and finds that price and quality are the most important store image attributes affecting store loyalty and assortment follows them. The study revealed that the store image measured by store atmosphere, product, price, and promotion is correlated with store loyalty.

Prof. Brijesh et. al. (2015) studied seven factors specially focused on satisfaction level of customers by overall shopping experience. The study results imply that there is need of improvement of entertainment facilities; change the pattern of mall and other internal retail stores. Shoppers are satisfied with their shopping trip in the mall but there is need to improvement a lot so customer can enjoy the shopping with their friends (Prof. Brijesh et. al., 2015).
Akansha Khanna (2015) conducted study aimed at increasing understanding of Indian customers’ brand choice for global and domestic brands. Sample of 2000 respondents of Delhi/NCR, Bangalore and Chandigarh was considered for the study. This study developed apparel buying behaviour model on the basis of 5 dimensions namely Store attributes, Product attributes, Reference Groups, Promotional factors and Consumer characteristics. The study suggested causal linkages among these dimensions existed and influenced the buyers purchase behavior. This study contributed to academia by providing a conceptual framework to understand apparel buying behaviour of young Indian customers which can be used by practioners to improve their retail strategies and increase their retail sales (Akansha Khanna, 2015).

Sun, T. R., & Yazdanifard, R. (2015) studied the influence of physical store factors on the customer’s buying intention. Study identified Store environment, impulsive buying, store layout and attitude of sales personnel as the important factors that determine the buying intension (Sun, T. R., & Yazdanifard, R., 2015).

2.16: SHOPPERS’ PATRONAGE:
The researcher has made an attempt to discuss in brief the relevant literature on Consumer Patronage.

Lumpkin (1985) studied that shoppers’ do use store attributes as indicators to decide that from which stores to buy from (Lumpkin, 1985).

In general, only some researchers have focused on which of those environmental dimensions are important in choosing a retail store and how the physical environment affects patronage behavior in an Indian scenario.

Thus in this research study an attempt has been made to study the linkages between the selected store attributes and patronage behaviour of selected shoppers’ in the state of Gujarat. According to Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (1990) environmental dimensions such as air quality, lighting layout, carpeting, and aisle width and placement are physical store attributes used to project store image and influence store choice (Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard, 1990).

Robinson (1986) studied that the retailers must provide a social setting that will allow consumers to shop for their needs and wants in a comfortable way. This can lead to a win-win relationship as shoppers’ will choose the retail store for shopping that gives them the best quality products, ambience, supportive and caring sales staff. According to Bitner (1992), the physical environment creates an image in the minds of the shoppers and influences individual behavior.
The physicality of the retail store will be of prime importance to the shoppers’ as they associate the physical environment of the store with fun and recreation. The positivity in the retail store is based on the store attributes which act as a cue for the shopper regarding the quality of the products being sold in the retail store. The shopping environment must reflect the needs and preferences of customers and service employees (Bitner, 1992).

Hollman (1982) stated that consumers shop those stores that provide the proper environment. The physical environment creates an image of a retail store and its services. The environment may have an impact on customer satisfaction, which may eventually affect store patronage. Various research studies are indicative of the fact that if consumers do not enjoy shopping with a particular retailer, they shift to another store for all their future purchases (Hollman, 1982). The reasons for having a favorable attitude for only selected retail destinations relates with prices, purchasing convenience, services offered, merchandise quality and behaviour of the sales staff. The nearness to the retail store from the office or residence and the convenience to visit are also motivational factors for shoppers’ to choose only a particular retail store (ibid).

According to Lumpkin (1985), consumers shop for enjoyment, socialization, as well as for economic reasons. Pessemier (1980) identified four factors that influence patronage behavior. These factors include customer characteristics; store characteristics; competitive environment; and socio-economic environment.

Lumpkin and Greenberg (1982) researched the apparel shopping patterns of 2,854 elderly consumers. The results of this study indicated that department stores and specialty stores were patronized by the elderly more often than discount stores (Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982). Shim and Mahoney (1992) used groupings to develop a profile of elderly mail-order catalog users of fashion products. The sample included 872 respondents age 55 years or older (Shim and Mahoney, 1992). Bellenger et al (1980) studied lifestyle segmentation and retail patronage. This study involved three types of retail stores: department stores, discount stores, and chain grocery stores, all of which had multiple locations. Findings indicated that lifestyle measurements did not relate to patronage behavior for all locations and types of stores. Bellenger et al. (1980) suggested that lifestyle might relate to patronage behavior for a single store in a given location. In addition to lifestyle measurements, consumers may also be classified according to their shopping orientations (ibid).

Monroe and Guttilinan (1975) stated that patronage preference is characterized and determined by retailer attributes, store image, store loyalty, shopping orientation, consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction.
Among these determinants of patronage preference, shopping orientation is an important variable predicting patronage behavior. Furthermore, previously research has shown that consumers with different shopping orientations place emphasis on different store and brand preferences (Swinyard & Rinne, 1995). Customer patronage intention is combination of attitude, normative beliefs and motivations that will influence purchasing behaviour (Burnkrant & Page, 1982; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Kotler (1973-1974) stated that store atmosphere will affect store image and patronage intention. According to Baker et al. (2002); Macintosh and Lockshin (1997), willingness of customers to shop longer in store, deliver good word-of-mouth of the store, buy more in the future and repurchase made up patronage intention in retailing industry. According to Donovan and Rossiter (1982), retailers have to fully understand the patronage intention of their target customers in order to forecast behaviour of their customers in the future. Grewal, Rajdeep, Thomas, and Anthony (2003b) mentioned that retailers might influence consumer patronage decisions through several factors such as by having a desirable assortment of products, place and time that customer required and preferable price level. Store image is considered an important factor influencing store choice and patronage behaviour and has received increased attention from practitioners and academics (Berry, 1969). Store image influences the way in which consumers evaluate and choose a store (Kleinhans, 2003). Patronage behaviour is associated with acts a consumer performs for the purpose of making a purchase from a store. The identity of a store, presented in the store image, communicates useful information to consumers that they utilize during pre-purchase decision-making (ibid). Store image cues therefore influence consumers’ decision-making processes, which result in store choice (Baker et al., 2002). Store image and store positioning also greatly predict store choice and, ultimately, retail success (Baker et al., 2002). Knowledge about the influence of store image perception on patronage behaviour may empower retailers to design their stores according to the desired store image that could lead to consequent store choice (Kleinhans, 2003). The relationship between store image and patronage behaviour has been examined by numerous researchers. Results indicate that a customer’s perception of a store influences store patronage. Moye and Giddings (2002), as well as Moye and Kincade (2002), investigated the effect of shopping orientation on consumers’ perception of store image and the resulting patronage behaviour. Both studies confirmed that shopping orientation indirectly influenced store choice through store image. Several researchers also found that the importance that consumers place on store image attributes influenced patronage behaviour (Shim & Bickle, 1994; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Baker et al., 2002).
Donovan and Rossiter (1982) suggested that consumer behaviour is mostly due to emotional response brought about by the store environment. In this scenario, it is then astute to not only assume, but to know that the consumer's affective state (mood) affects judgment or information processing (Bakamitsos & Siomkos, 2005). A person's mood can act as an object or as a tool. When affective state is an object, it acts as a heuristic cue and therefore bases judgment on heuristic cues and not on information. A consumer’s mood therefore affects how the consumer evaluates, and a positive mood is more likely to lead to a positive evaluation and thus store choice (ibid). The probability that a consumer will shop at a given store increases as the individual's perceptions of the store become more positive. In general, consumers patronize stores whose image is congruent with their self-perceptions and unconscious needs. Thus, store specific attitudes (e.g. store image) and general attitudes toward the type of store influence shopping behaviour (e.g. shopping frequency) (Darley & Lim, 1999). Birtwistle and Shearer (2001) proposed five reasons why consumers choose a particular store, namely stock held, price ranges, quality of products, fashionability of goods and style of clothing. Four of these fall directly under the dimension of merchandise, which contributed to the forming of a store image (Lindquist, 1974-1975) Therefore it indicates that store image attributes influence patronage behaviour.

Grishma Padhye and B V Sangvikar (2016) studied 18 attributes and derived three cluster solution of enthralled, casual, and apathetic supermarket customers using hierarchical and non hierarchical cluster analysis. A chi-square test of independence revealed that the three clusters differ significantly with respect to age, working status, education, income, and distance traveled to the store. The enthralled customers comprise younger, working consumers with higher educational qualifications and higher incomes and traveling shorter distances to the supermarket. One-way ANOVA test showed that the three clusters vary significantly with respect to repatronage intentions. Enthralled customers showed higher repatronage intentions than the casual customers, who in turn show higher repatronage intentions than apathetic customers (Grishma Padhye and B V Sangvikar (2016).

Mlambo Sephat and Marufu Barbra (2015) made an attempt to gain some insight the levels of awareness of environmental issues among an elite segment of Zimbabwean consumers. It also sought to find out how demographic characteristics viz., age, gender, income, marital status, and education and household size that influenced patronage and shopping behaviour. The results showed that the targeted group has exhibited a greater concern and awareness of health and the environment.
The research also found out that shoppers were attracted by low competitive prices, staff attitude towards customers, ambiance, quality of products, variety and parking space (Mlambo Sephath and Marufu Barbra, 2015).

Anoop Kumar Gupta and A.V. Shukla (2015) explored whether demographic variables, such as gender, occupation and age, affect store choice behaviour for consumer durable goods. Data were collected using structured questionnaire from 177 respondents in the National Capital Territory of Delhi. Discriminant analysis of the collected data was done to understand if customers could be grouped on the basis of their characteristics of gender, occupation and age for store choice behaviour. Results indicated that gender and occupation do not make significant differences, whereas age had a significant effect on store choice behaviour for consumer durable goods. Possible implication for retailer’s strategy is that the market can be segmented on the basis of age groups. It is also revealed that shoppers of distinct age groups have different preferences for online stores and that they rely on the Internet to gather information about retail stores (Anoop Kumar Gupta and A.V. Shukla, 2015).

Grishma Padhye and B V Sangvikar (2016) attempted to develop customer segments based on how they rate the supermarket attributes and then seeks to understand the demographic characteristics, namely, age, gender, marital status, working status, and household size, and shopping outcome of patronage behavior of the resulting customer segments. This study significantly contributed to the literature by developing three customer segments, namely, enthralled, casual, and apathetic, for existing supermarket customers on the basis of their ratings of supermarket attributes. Further, it determined that these three segments have different repatronage intentions with respect to supermarkets. Enthralled have a high repatronage intention as compared to casual and apathetic customers (Grishma Padhye and B V Sangvikar, 2016).

Ramulu Bhukya and Sapna Singh (2016) conducted a research study aimed at analyzing the factors affecting shoppers’ brand preference towards choosing retail stores. The factors considered for this includes store ambience, store location, store layout, parking facility and salespersons’ service quality. The findings of this study revealed that consumers preferred retail stores which have good store ambience, well-designed store layout, ample parking space, salespersons’ service quality and is located nearby. Among these five factors, store location and parking facility play a pivotal role in preference for a particular retail store. Hence, store managers should focus on these five factors to increase the preference for their stores among consumers (Ramulu Bhukya and Sapna Singh, 2016).
The researcher has also made an attempt to provide a summarized review of major contributors’ literature relevant to the area of influence of store attributes on store patronage; customer expectations of store attributes; operational constructs of store attribute dimensions; and summary of classification of shopping orientations has been presented in the tabular form in the annexure number I to IV at the end of the chapter.
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<td>Sharma A and Stafford T.F. (2000)</td>
<td>The Effect of Retail Atmospherics on Customers’ Perceptions of Salespeople and Customer Persuasion: An Empirical Investigation</td>
<td>This study suggests the positive impact of atmospherics on the customer’s perceptions of salespeople, as well as the salesperson’s role as an atmospheric cue.</td>
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<td>Ganesh J. &amp; Reynolds K. E. &amp; Luckett M.(2007)</td>
<td>Retail patronage behavior and shopper typologies: a replication and extension using a multi-format, multi-method approach.</td>
<td>Their findings on both the motivation-based and attribute based cluster analysis revealed five common shopper types across all retail formats. Shoppers are termed as Apathetic shoppers, Enthusiastic shopper, Destination shoppers, Basic shoppers and the Bargain seekers.</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Sinha R. (2009)</td>
<td>Consumers' Perceptions, Preferences and Patronage Behavior for Retail Formats.</td>
<td>This study indicates that consumers' perception of outlets and preference do not result in patronizing of retail outlets. The study says situational factors may play a decisive role for the shoppers while shopping.</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Johnson J. and Raveendran P.T. (2009)</td>
<td>Retail Patronage behaviour and Shopper segmentation: A study among shoppers of organized retailers.</td>
<td>Have studied the major influencers for a shopper to shop and has segmented the shoppers based on their orientation towards their purchase act.</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Yadav R. (2009)</td>
<td>Customers’ attitude and perception towards shopping malls: A study in Ghaziabad and Noida.</td>
<td>The study revealed that customer attitude towards shopping malls is strongly influenced by the absence or presence of certain elements, like location, infrastructure, and amenities, ambience, merchandising and pricing, entertainment value and personal value. Perception towards the malls.</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Kamath, G.B (2009)</td>
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<td>The study reveals six major factors namely shopping experience and ease, entertainment and gaming facilities, promotion, discounts and low prices, add-on facilities and services, variety of products and other factors for shopping convenience influence consumers to prefer a retail store.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Mittal K.C., Arora M.&amp; Prashar A. (2010)</td>
<td>An empirical study on factors affecting consumer preferences of shopping at Organized retail stores in Punjab.</td>
<td>The research revealed that the ‘shopping availability’ and ‘variety’ of products are the most significant factors that determine the retail outlet preference.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Sainy R. (2010)</td>
<td>A study of the effect of Service quality on Customer loyalty in retail outlets</td>
<td>The study revealed a positive impact of service quality on customer loyalty and also showed that demographic variables as age, gender and income have a positive effect on customer loyalty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Dalwadi R.K., Rathod H. &amp; Patel A. (2010)</td>
<td>Key Retail Store Attributes determining Consumers’ perceptions: an Empirical study of Consumers of Retail stores Located in Ahmedabad.</td>
<td>The research inferred that usual shopping place and demographic variables have no significant or considerable association with customer perception.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Karthikeyan K.(2010)</td>
<td>An empirical study on Indian Retail Shopping Behaviour.</td>
<td>The study found that Retail consumer Shopping behaviour and customer service can predict store satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sr. No.</td>
<td>Author(s), (Year)</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Findings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Mittal K.C. and Prashar A. (2011)</td>
<td>Retail purchase behavior in food and grocery in Punjab: A study of retail strategy.</td>
<td>The research revealed that purchase patterns of grocery remains same across geographies to large extent and proximity and price are more important than other factors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Chen, Ching-Liang (2011)</td>
<td>Developing an optimal operation model with two competing models for retailers to explore customers shopping preferences.</td>
<td>The study revealed that customers’ loyalty and retailers’ service quality will have positive effect on the customer shopping preference and satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Thenmozhi R. Dhanpal D. and Sathyapriya P. (2011)</td>
<td>Retail service quality: A customer perception study.</td>
<td>The research revealed that perception of retail service quality varies across different cities. Various factors influence the perception of retail service quality and it varies significantly according to the evolution of organized retail firms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Bhardwaj S., Sharma R. and Agarwal J. (2011)</td>
<td>Perception of Consumers towards Shopping Mall- A Case Study with reference to Aligarh and Mathura City</td>
<td>Shopping malls are perceived to be a choice because of the eating joints and recreation centers in the malls. Perception towards the mall is influenced significantly by the referrals and the customer service factor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Ramanathan V. and Hari K. (2011)</td>
<td>A study on consumer perception about Organized Vs Unorganized Retailers at Kanchipuram, Tamil Nadu.</td>
<td>The buyers perceive a difference among services offered by organized and unorganized retailers. The study shows that there is no significant relationship in the customer demographics and the choice of the type of retailer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sr. No.</td>
<td>Author(s), (Year)</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Findings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Swaroop K. and Jain S. (2011)</td>
<td>Perception about shopping malls in India: Evidences from factor analysis.</td>
<td>Findings from the study suggest that consumer today has high focus on getting value for money along with comfort and recreational activities as a part and parcel of Indian consumers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Gurusamy, M. and Prabha, N (2011)</td>
<td>A Study On Changing Consumer Preferences towards Organized Retailing From Unorganized Retailing</td>
<td>The study shows that customers are very much anxious towards organized retailing and they expect variety and quality as the primary factors to shop in the organized formats.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Verma H. and Madan P. (2011)</td>
<td>Factor analyzing the store attributes to identify key components of store image.</td>
<td>Store’s Product and Operational Quality is the most important factor determining overall Image of the store.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Jain S. (2011)</td>
<td>A critical study of consumer preferences towards organized retail in Jaipur.</td>
<td>The study revealed that demographic variables like age, education, occupation; family size and income levels have significant influence on the preference of types of food and grocery retail outlets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Tripathi A.P.</td>
<td>Emerging Trends in Modern Retail Formats &amp; Customer Shopping Behavior in Indian Scenario: A Meta Analysis &amp; Review</td>
<td>The study reveals that the consumer buying behavior is influenced by the consumer class he or she belongs to. Also, the study founded that customers looked into Price-Value equation before deciding on a shopping visit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Thiruvenkad am T. and Panchanatha m, N. (2011)</td>
<td>Impact of Personality on Retail Patronage Behaviour of Shoppers.</td>
<td>Personality types A and B affect the retail patronage behavior of shoppers. Type “A” shoppers’ patronage was higher than Type “B” shoppers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## ANNEXURE – II

### Summary Table of Review of Literature on Customer Expectations of Store Attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Author(s) and Year</th>
<th>Major Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mc Goldrick, 2002</td>
<td>Public transportation in terms of accessibility and free parking are factors that come under location.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Hawkins et al, 2004</td>
<td>If all other things are approximately equal, a consumer will generally select the closest store.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bell and Lattin, 1998</td>
<td>Willingness to travel varies with the size of the shopping list for that trip.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Bawa and Ghosh, 1999</td>
<td>Consumers are found to shop for multiple items, rather than a single item, on a single trip. The longer the list, the further are shoppers prepared to travel, than for a smaller list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Desai and Talukdar, 2003</td>
<td>The contents of a typical consumption basket would affect the shopper’s perspective of the store and affect choice of store.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mendes and Themido, 2004</td>
<td>Location plays an important role in the success or failure of an outlet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Simonson, 1999</td>
<td>Unless the customer is particularly interested in fast service or convenience, he / she would prefer large outlets over small ones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ehrenberg et al, 1994</td>
<td>A sharp increase in sales was observed when price was first reduced, followed by a return to near normal sales over time or offer the end of price reduction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Grewal et al, 1998</td>
<td>Consumers judge quality of a store and its image on the basis of the number and nature of reduced price items in the store.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Bell and Lattin, 1998</td>
<td>Shoppers who purchase a large number of items at one time prefer stores with Every Day Low Prices (EDLP).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Schiffman and Kanuk, 2008</td>
<td>Consumers have a perception of low overall prices of those stores that offer a small discount over a large number of items. Thus frequency of price advantage is stronger over the magnitude of price advantage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Berman and Evans, 2007</td>
<td>A retailer’s image depends largely on its ‘atmosphere’, which is the psychological feeling a customer gets when visiting that retailer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Kotler, 1973</td>
<td>Atmospherics is the process managers use to manipulate the physical retail or service environment in order to create specific c mood responses in shoppers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Donovan et al, 1994</td>
<td>Store atmosphere may influence people’s shopping enjoyment and likelihood of patronage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Berman and Evans, 2007</td>
<td>People shop longer and spend more if they are not pushed while walking or looking at merchandise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Herrington and Capella, 1994</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Hui et al, 1997</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Berman and Evans, 2007</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Mattila and Wirtz, 2001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Berman and Evans, 2007</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Berman and Evans, 2007</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Hawkins et al, 2004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Reynolds and Arnold, 2000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>McGoldrick, 2002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Berman and Evans, 2007</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Berman and Evans, 2007</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Engel et al, 1995</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Levy and Weitz, 1998</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### ANNEXURE – III

**Operational Constructs of Store Attribute Dimensions Identified From the Review of Related Literature:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIMENSIONS</th>
<th>DIMENSION NAMES INCLUDED FROM LITERATURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Atmosphere</td>
<td>Activity dimension; Clean and spacious atmosphere; Music/ aesthetics dimension; Store atmosphere; Store atmosphere – aural; Store atmosphere – olfactory; Store atmosphere – tactile; Store atmosphere – visual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenience</td>
<td>Accessibility; Congestion; Convenience; Convenience (economic); Convenience – store location and mobility; Convenient facilities; Errand shopping; Facility convenience; In-store convenience and physical environment; Leisure activities; Location; Location and convenience; Price; Promotions/convenience; Proximity and familiarity; Service convenience; Variety under one roof.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>Appearance; Congestion; Convenient facilities; Facilities; Facility convenience; Family shopping; Outside attractiveness; Physical facilities; Sensory/layout dimension; Servicescape; Service – store facilities; Store layout</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional</td>
<td>Clientele; Institutional; Institutional factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merchandise</td>
<td>Brand name; Fabric; Fashion ability; Fashion goods; Focused shopping; Merchandise; Merchandise value; Merchandise variety; Merchandising; Popularity; Price; Price and quality aspects; Price competitiveness; Price/quality dimensions; Products; Quality/reputation; Rich mix of commodities and services; Status; Technical quality; Time/availability; Value; Value-added service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Advertising; Interest shopping; Promotion; Promotions; Promotions/convenience; Sales and incentives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales personnel</td>
<td>Employee service; Functional quality; Personal interaction; Personnel; Preference for salespeople; Relational quality; Salesmanship; Salespeople service; Salesperson/service; Service – sales associates attributes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>After-sales service; Complaint handling; Core service; Credit; Credit facilities; Employee service; In-store service; Merchandise; Merchandise requests; Post-transaction service; Presence of related services; Rich mix of commodities and services; Salespeople service; Salesperson service; Service; Service convenience; Services; Service – sales associates attributes; Service – store amenities; Service – store facilities; Value-added service; Various store services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## ANNEXURE – IV

Summary table of Classification of Shopping Orientations Based on the Review of Literature:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proposed category</th>
<th>Original labels</th>
<th>Researchers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activities and interest orientation</strong></td>
<td>Personalizing shopper</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985); Lumpkin &amp; Greenberg (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction with salespeople</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Chen (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Socially active</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shopping interest</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Chen (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sports enthusiast</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Art enthusiast</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clothing interest</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appearance manager</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1992 a&amp;b); Kotsiopoulos (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shopping sex role</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Chen (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand-conscious orientation</strong></td>
<td>Brand-conscious</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1992 a&amp;b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand-conscious/loyal</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Apathetic toward “Made-in-USA”</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1992 a&amp;b); Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Confidence vs confusion orientation</strong></td>
<td>Confident shopper</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1992 a&amp;b); Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shopping self-confidence</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985); Lumpkin &amp; Greenberg (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Confident/efficient</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Bickle (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shopping alone</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Chen (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shopping confusion</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Chen (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enjoyment orientation</strong></td>
<td>Shopping enjoyment</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985); Lumpkin &amp; Greenberg (1982); Gut- man &amp; Mills (1982); Shim &amp; Bickle (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shopping propensity</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985); Lumpkin &amp; Greenberg (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fashion orientation</strong></td>
<td>Fashion-oriented shopper</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Bickle (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fashion-consciousness</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1992 a&amp;b); Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Traditionalism</td>
<td>Gutman &amp; Mills (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Following</td>
<td>Gutman &amp; Mills (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Finance and credit orientation</strong></td>
<td>Credit user</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985); Lumpkin &amp; Greenberg (1982); Shim &amp; Bickle (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Credit-oriented</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cash-oriented</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Chen (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economic shopper</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1992 a&amp;b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economic/price-conscious</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopoulos (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advertising special shopper</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985); Lumpkin &amp; Greenberg (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Financial optimism</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inflation-conscious</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion leadership orientation</td>
<td>Opinion leader</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping opinion leader</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985); Lumpkin &amp; Greenberg (1982)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovator</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patronage orientation</td>
<td>Mall shopper</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopulos (1992 a&amp;b); Shim &amp; Kotsiopulos (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catalogue shopper</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopulos (1992 a&amp;b); Shim &amp; Kotsiopulos (1993)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local store shopper</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopulos (1992 a&amp;b); Shim &amp; Kotsiopulos (1993)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfaction with local shopping</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Bickle (1994)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping and time convenience orientation</td>
<td>Energy-conscious</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1885); Lumpkin &amp; Greenberg (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practicality</td>
<td>Gutman &amp; Mills (1982)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Gutman &amp; Mills (1982)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping planning</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Chen (1996)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My time-oriented</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985); Lumpkin &amp; Greenberg (1982)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time manager</td>
<td>Lumpkin (1985)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenience/time-conscious</td>
<td>Shim &amp; Kotsiopulos (1992 a&amp;b); Shim &amp; Kotsiopulos (1993)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>