Impulse Buying Behavior In India- An Overview

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Abstract

Deliberate non- planning is an integral part of contemporary shopping and impulse buying is an important hedonic behavior exhibited by consumers. Impulse buying was looked at from various antecedents, underlying process, characteristics and outcomes. But, those studies were predominantly done in the western countries. Impulse buying is not studied elaborately in eastern economies especially in Indian context and this paper intends giving an account of the prevalence, nature and characteristics of it in India.

Keywords: Impulse buying, shopping type, time, shopping list

Introduction

Impulse buying behavior in emerging economies (Kacen and Lee, 2002), like that of Vietnam (Tuyet Mai et al., 2007), China (Zhou and Wong, 2004) and also in India (Geetha, Sivakumaran and Sharma, 2010) is a topic of great interest. The rapid increase in impulse buying could also be a part of the cultural transformation associated with changes in consumer buying habits, like that of decrease in futureoriented, planned buying, and an increase in present-oriented and impulse buying (Wood,1998). Impulse buying has crossed various eras from being associated with planning oriented (level of planning) to product oriented (low priced, low involvement items are prone to be bought on impulse) to consumer oriented (trait impulse buying tendency). Initially impulse buying was synonymous with unplanned buying (Clover, 1950; West, 1951) that influenced retail sales and profits. Stern (1962) categorized impulse buying as instore decision making; Kollat and Willet (1967) as intention-outcome matrix and D'Antoni and Shenson (1973) with rapidity of decision making. Bellenger et al. (1978) initiated the necessary shift in the conceptualization of impulse purchasing and gave a preliminary idea that impulse buying (process) was different from impulse items (products). Rook (1987) in his study defined impulse buying "as a sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buying something immediately". Rook and Fisher (1995) had demonstrated that it was as normative as other buyer behavior under certain situations.

The definition of Rook (1987) was slightly redefined by Beatty and Ferrell (1998) in retail context as "a sudden and immediate purchase with no pre-shopping intentions either to buy the specific product category or to fulfill a specific buying task". The behavior occurs after experiencing an urge to buy and it tends to be spontaneous and without a lot of reflection. It does not include the purchase of a simple reminder item, which is an item that is simply out-of-stock at home (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). This ensured that the shopper did not intend to buy the item before entering the store and that fulfilling a planned task, such as buying a gift for someone, is not an impulse purchase. This study defines impulse buying in line with Beatty and Ferrell (1998).

Various underlying reasons associated with impulse buying are recreational shopping (Bellenger and Kargaonkar, 1980); intense emotional state (Weinberg and Gottwald, 1982); less information processing and planning along with associated vulnerability to instore manipulations (Cobb and Hoyer, 1986). Impulse buying is related to product specific characteristics such as involvement (Jones, *et al.* 2003); in-store characteristics such as in-store advertisements (Zhou and Wang, 2003); in-store signage's (Peck and Childers, 2006); and store hours (Clover, 1950). Extant research has examined a large number of trait variables such as self regulation (Youn and Faber, 2000; Baumeister, 2002; Vohs and Faber, 2007); fashion innovativeness, self image (Phau and Lou, 2004); fashion involvement (Park *et al.* 2006); hedonic consumption tendency (Hausmann, 2000) shopping enjoyment (Bellenger and Kargaonkar, 1980; Beatty and Ferrell, 1998) and need for touch (Peck and Childers, 2006) as either directly or indirectly influencing impulse buying.

Impulse buying is always incidental in the store and is mediated by pleasure, arousal and dominance (Donovan *et al.* 1994) or affect (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998); and is facilitated to a great extent by situational variables like money available and time available (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). Positive affect induces impulse buying and the impact of negative affect is ambiguous as it increases (Youn and Faber, 2000) or decreases (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998) impulse buying in different studies. Impulse buying is found to exist even on the web (Zhang *et al.* 2006) and in airports (Crawford and Melewar, 2003).

Although most research examining impulse buying behavior is from the United States, a few studies in other countries, such as the United Kingdom (Bayley and Nancarrow 1998; Dittmar, Beattie, and Eriese 1995; McConatha, Lightner, and Deaner 1994), South Africa (Abratt and Goodey 1990), and Singapore (Shamdasani and Rook 1989); Vietnam (Tuyet Mai et al., 2007), China (Zhou and Wong, 2003). So far, to the best of my knowledge no study in is done in India on the nature of impulse buying since the advent of liberalization of the economy. Deliberate non- planning is an integral part of contemporary shopping. Consumers go to the store with the general intention to buy but the actual buying decision occurs at the point of purchase (Stern, 1962). Impulse buying is considered as typical in contemporary consumer and retailing environments (Phillips and Bradshaw, 1993). Impulse Buying is growing especially in emerging economies because consumers have quickly accepted the methods of buying certain merchandising innovation by the retailers. Consumers are shopping not just to buy products but also to satisfy needs such as having fun & seeking novelty. The impulse buying was looked at from the various antecedents, underlying process, characteristics and outcomes. Certain traits of shoppers, age, income and situational factors like that of money and time available have a greater effect on making impulse purchases than does the store or environment. Impulse buying is not studied elaborately in eastern economies especially in Indian context and this paper intends giving an account of the prevalence, nature and characteristics of Impulse buying in India.

Conceptual development and hypothesis

Time available

Impulse buying largely depends on time (Stern, 1962; Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). More time available in the store will lead to more impulse buying (Inman, Winer, and Ferraro 2009; Park, Iyer, and Smith 1989). Amount of purchases a consumer makes is directly proportional to the time spent in the store (Underhill, 1999). Consumers making a store visit without time constraints for shopping are likely to make impulse purchases. Impulse purchases will be more as shoppers spend more time in the store. Hence it is hypothesized that,

H₁: Time available is positively related to impulse buying

Time planned

By limiting the amount of time in the store, the shopper is more likely to move quickly through the store and focus on the products he or she had planned to purchase. This limits exposure to in-store stimuli and also limits the extent to which in-store stimuli can generate an affective response. Time planned for shopping is negatively related to impulse buying; hence consumers who make a store visit on time constraints and specific time allotted for shopping are not likely to make impulse purchases. They want complete their planned purchase alone. Limiting time forces the consumer to focus on the task at hand (Inman, Winer and Ferraro, 2009). Those who plan their time in the store could be consumers with low entertainment values for shopping (e.g., Ailawadi, Neslin, and Gedenk 2001) and see a lower net benefit of engaging browsing the store and this may curb impulse purchasing. Hence it is hypothesized that,

H₂: Time planned is negatively related to impulse buying

Eeducation

There is a very strong relationship between college education and purchasing power (Peter & Olson, 1999), and is an important determinant of impulse buying. Wood (1998) observed that people of higher educational status make less of impulse purchases. More educated people tend to make planned purchases. People with low educational qualification have an immediate need gratification state and a lesser planning horizon and hence may indulge in more impulse buying. Hence it is hypothesized that,

H_{3:} Level of education is negatively related to impulse buying

Occupation

An individual in higher class position tend to have saving aspiration and a person of lower class position is likely to have spending aspiration (Martineau, 1977). People in high occupational status, are more rational, have a future orientation and a longer time horizon in decision making. By contrast, the consumers in relatively lesser occupational levels are present-oriented and with a limited time horizon (Wood, 1998) in decision making. Coleman (1977) stated that consumers in low levels of occupation are towards enjoying life and living well for the day than saving for the future or caring. Hendon et al 1988, found that people in higher occupation prepare shopping lists and are careful planners. Consumers who are of a low occupational status tend to exhibit impulse buying (Richins and Dawson, 1992; Dittmar et al., 1995; Rindfleisch, Burroughs et al., 1997; Wood, 1998). Hence it is hypothesized that,

H_{4:} Level of occupation is negatively to impulse buying

Shopping list

Block and Morwitz (1999) found that lists are useful tools for helping consumers make planned purchases Thomas and Garland (1993) find that shoppers with lists bought fewer items and spent less money than shoppers without lists. Consumers without list they could have a more "open" shopping list that allows them to receive sudden and unexpected buying ideas. Thus, they may be able to buy on impulse more frequently than others. Thus we expect that consumers with shopping lists will be less likely to make in-store decisions than consumers without a shopping list. Consumers with list commit them to a set of purchases (Inman, Winer and Ferraro, 2009). Those who typically gather information in-store are more likely to buy impulsively (Bucklin and Lattin 1991) than with list. Hence it is hypothesized that,

H_{5:} Presence of shopping list is negatively related to impulse buying

Shopping companion

Solo shoppers are also less likely to engage in impulse buying. Presence of other persons in a shopping situation influences purchase decision and the money spent (Nicholls et al., 1994). Presence of peer group is relatively more receptive to the urge to purchase (Childers & Rao, 1992). Peer group members may encourage spontaneity and the pursuit of hedonic goals independently of their long-range consequences. Parents and other family members are likely to have economic concerns may activate this normative value and therefore will not have impulsive buying to the extent to which it happens when they in company of peers but relatively less (Abrams, Marques, Bown, & Henson, 2000; Baumeister, 2002; Heckler, Childers, & Arunachalam, 1989). Therefore, presence of others increased and their absence discouraged impulse buying (Luo, 2005). Hence it is hypothesized that,

H₆: Presence of a shopping companion is positively related to impulse buying

Shopping Type

Shopping types could be major, fill in and occasion based. Major trips are defined as regular trips, performed on a preferred day rather than when there is an urgent need, with the aim of purchasing a household's more commonly used items. They generally require quite a lot of time, effort, and money due to the large number of items to be bought. Fill-in trips, on the other hand, are made to solve an urgent need, such as when the household is out of milk, or to make purchases for a less common situation, such as for a special dinner (MacKay, 1973; Kahn and Schmittlein, 1989; Walters and Jamil, 2003). "Fill in trips" are more focused and will generate fewer unplanned category purchases and "major trips" involve more category purchases, hence more impulse buying would be there. Occasion based shopping type are shopping carried based on an occasion/festivals.

On major trips, consumers typically make a greater share of unplanned purchases than on fill-in trips (Kollat and Willett, 1967; Bayley and Nancarrow, 1998). This assumption is based on the logic that on larger trips, consumers have to visit more aisles and scan more shelves, and as a consequence of this exposure, they learn to recognize more products. Further, consumers have a greater economic incentive to look for good deals and prices on larger trips than on smaller trips, increasing the share of unplanned purchases (Kollat and Willett, 1967; Granbois, 1968; Kahn and Schmittlein, 1992). Fill-in trips, on the other hand, have typically been defined as shopping trips with a clearly defined goal that have not stimulated unplanned purchases. Research finds that 68% of unplanned purchases are during major shopping trip and 54% of them are in small shopping trips. Hence, it is hypothesized that.

H₇: Shopping type is related to impulse buying

Gender

Gender differences exist in the decision making process in consumer behaviour (Mitchell and Walsh, 2004). Bellenger, Robertson, and Hirschman (1978); Kwon and Armstrong (2002) found that gender does not influence impulse buying. Lin and Lin (2005) indicated that gender is associated with impulsive buying tendency. Women consumers tend to exhibit impulse buying (Richins and Dawson, 1992; Dittmar et al., 1995; Rindfleisch, Burroughs et al., 1997; Wood, 1998). Women do the household shopping more frequently (Starrels, 1994) and hence they have greater tendency to buy impulsively. Men are likely to plan their purchases hence less purchase less impulsively. But literature is inconsistent with respect to the role of gender on impulse buying. Kollat and Willett (1967) find that women tend to buy on impulse more than men and Cobb and Hoyer (1986) find the opposite. Women spend more time shopping, enjoy it more, and are more likely to compare advertised prices for an item, to use a coupon, or to engage in other ``bargain hunting" strategies (American Enterprise, 1994). Going by the majority view, it is hypothesized that,

H₈: Women engage in more impulse buying than men.

Age

Young consumers are more experimental and malleable and their chances of impulse buying are higher (Gutierrez, 2004; Rawlings, Boldero, and Wiseman 1995). Wood (1998) found an inverse relationship between age and impulse buying. This is consistent with Bellenger et al. (1978) who found that shoppers under 35 were more prone to impulse buying compared to those over 35 years old. Impulsive urges are inversely related to age (Mischel et al., 1989; Green et al., 1994). Lin and Lin (2005) indicated that age is associated with an impulsive buying tendency. Younger individuals score higher on measures of impulsivity compared to older people (Eysenck et al., 1985) and demonstrate less self-control (Logue& Chavarro, 1992). These findings suggest that, as consumer's age, they learn to control their impulsive buying tendencies. Hence, it is hypothesized that,

H₉: Age is negatively related to impulse buying

Marital status

Marital status has an important role on the resources available. A person who is single, without any dependent is more likely spend without inhibition than a married person. Those married with dependent children are more likely to have restraints on the available resources. Married consumers do shopping without purchase (browsing behavior) (Bloch and Richins, 1993) than unmarried, but less of impulse buying. Married individuals have commitment to take care of dependents and hence the level of impulse buying will be less for them and consumers who are single tend to exhibit higher level of impulse buying (Richins and Dawson, 1992; Dittmar et al., 1995; Rindfleisch, Burroughs et al., 1997; Wood, 1998). Hence, it is hypothesized that,

 H_{10} : Marital status is related to impulse buying

Shopping enjoyment

Shopping enjoyment is defined as the pleasure one obtains in the shopping process (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). The joy and emotional benefits of shopping are pervasive and are valued in terms of their pleasure (Babin *et al.* 1994). Impulse buying involves a hedonic component (Rook, 1987) and it is likely that the typical store visit includes both required shopping tasks and recreational elements of enjoying the activity of shopping. People shop for both hedonic and utilitarian reasons (Jones, 1999) and positive affect can result from consumers pursuing either type of shopping. Shopping is a major leisure and lifestyle activity (Cobb and Hoyer, 1986) and hence positive affect could be embedded in it.

The main reason for malls and stores to flourish is because people simply like shopping in a brick and mortar store. Shopping enjoyment involves enjoying various facets like sensory stimulation (atmospherics) and pampering (sales person) (Cox *et al.* 2005). For the consumers who enjoy shopping, it is their favorite activity with/without product purchases. Consumers who enjoy shopping are referred to as recreational shoppers and they engage more in unplanned purchases (Bellenger and Korgaonkar, 1980) and derive pleasure from it (Cox *et al.* 2005). Retailers are greatly

inclined towards these shoppers because of their profitability (Kim and Kim, 2007). Thus, we posit,

H₁₁: Shopping enjoyment is positively related to impulse buying.

Methodology

Data Collection: Survey Technique

Mall intercept method was used to collect data. Data collection process followed the procedure used previously (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998; Sharma et al., 2006). As the focus of this study is on impulse buying, which is highly prevalent in supermarket shopping (Sharma et al., 2006), actual supermarkets were selected for the purpose of data collection. Potential respondents were intercepted upon their exit from the store and solicited for their participation in the survey. The locations of the interviews, the time of the day and the days of the week were rotated in accordance with the recommendations of Bush and Hair (1985) to make the final sample as representative as that of the population. Population for this study consists of the all consumers who have made purchases in their current shopping trip in a store. Sampling technique used for the present study is a convenience sampling procedure. We were given approval to access 44 outlets of a leading supermarket chain. These 44 outlets in different shopping locations within the chain were selected to provide a fair representation of different segments of shoppers. A total of 1478 shoppers were approached out of which 733 agreed to participate in the study. The study covered a wide demographic profile of grocery shoppers. Customers were sampled from morning, afternoon and evening hours on weekdays and weekends. The response rate was 47%. This is relatively a high response vis—a-vis earlier study (37% in Beatty and Ferrell, 1998).

Measurement of Impulse Purchases (Impulse buying)

Potential respondents were intercepted upon their exit from the store and solicited for their participation in our survey. Upon agreeing to participate the interviewer recorded all the purchases made by each shopper. Next, the shoppers were asked whether each of these purchases was planned or unplanned. Out of all the unplanned purchases, the reminder type items were eliminated by the following question: "When you saw this item, were you reminded that you were out of this item and needed it?" Only purchases that were clearly unplanned and could not be classified as reminder items were recorded as impulse purchases. The number of such impulse purchases was counted for each shopper to arrive at the exact number of impulse purchase and the proportion of the same was also computed. This is not just in line with our definition of impulse buying but also consistent with extant research (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998).

Selection of product category

The category chosen for the study is grocery. The rationale for this decision is based on the following: Food and clothing still account for the largest proportion of consumer spending. Together they account for about 60% of the estimated US\$ 275 billion household expenditure. With the Indian per capita income on the rise and the

distribution of consumption expenditure expected to remain fairly stable, the current segments of food and apparel is likely to remain attractive. 70% of the grocery items are purchased on impulse (Underhill, 1999). Category was chosen for study in line with previous studies on impulse buying (Sharma *et al.* 2006).

Results

Time available and time planned

Table 1: Time available and time planned

	Unstandardized		Standardized		
	Coefficients		Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Std.			
	В	Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.246	.020		12.175	.000
Timeplanned	002	.001	267	-2.375	.018
Time Available	.002	.001	.220	1.955	.051

Time taken and time planned are the variables that have an effect on impulse buying but are influencing it in opposite direction. Time planned for shopping is negatively related to impulse buying ((b = -.002., t = 2.37, p = .01),hence consumers who make a store visit on time constraints and specific time allotted for shopping are not likely to make impulse purchases. Time pressure may be one of the reasons for less impulse buying.

Time available (b=.002, t=1.95, p=.05) for a shopping trip is positively related to impulse buying; hence consumers who make a store visit without time constraints for shopping are likely explore the store image dimensions and are likely to be influenced by those to make impulse purchases.

Education

Table 2: Education

			Std.		95% Confidence	
Education	Education	Difference	Error	Sig.	Interval	
High School	Graduate	.07751	.03733	.229	0212	.1763
	Post Graduate	.12392*	.03957	.011	.0192	.2286
	Others	.02980	.06520	1.000	1427	.2023

Education has an effect on impulse buying (Brown-Forsythe F = 3.15, p < 0.05; Welch F = 3.23, p < 0.05). From the post hoc test is evident that high School educated consumers (consumers whose education level are lower) make more impulse purchases than post graduate consumers (consumers whose education level are higher).

Occupation

Table 3: Occupation

Occupation	Occupation	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide Interval	nce
Student	Housewife	.14281*	.03825	.002	.0351	.2505
	Self Employed	.10682	.04227	.117	0122	.2258
	Employed	.08700	.03188	.065	0028	.1768
	Retired	.09859	.06842	1.000	0941	.2912

Occupation has an effect on impulse buying (Brown-Forsythe $F=4.085,\ p<0.10;$ Welch $F=3.73,\ p<0.05$). From the post hoc test is evident that students make more impulse purchases than housewives.

Shopping list

Table 4: Shopping list

			Std.
	N	Mean	Deviation
No	396	.2886	.37994
Yes	332	.1523	.26782
Total	728	.2264	.34016

Shopping list has an effect on impulse buying (Brown-Forsythe F=32.02, p=0.00; Welch F=32.02, p=0.00). Consumers without shopping list make more impulse purchases than those with shopping list.

Shopping companion

Table 5: Shopping companion

P	Sum of		Mean		
	Squares	df	Square	F	Sig.
Between	.954	5	.191	1.656	.143
Groups	.934	3	.191	1.030	.143
Within Groups	83.165	722	.115		
Total	84.118	727			

Person accompanying (companion) does not have an effect on impulse buying (F =1.65, p = .14).

Shopping type

Table 6: Shopping type

Shopping	Shopping	Mean Std.			95% Confidence	
Type	Type	Difference	Error	Sig.	Interval	
Occasion	Monthly	.05798	.04907	1.000	0865	.2025
	Weekly	.04808	.03610	1.000	0582	.1544
	Daily	.11681*	.03953	.048	.0004	.2332
	Sale	05093	.09502	1.000	3308	.2289
	Others	.00607	.04467	1.000	1255	.1376

Shopping type has an effect on impulse buying (Brown-Forsythe F = 2.23, p < 0.05; Welch F = 2.34, p < 0.05). From the post hoc test is evident that on occasion's people make more impulse purchases than during other types of shopping types.

Gender

Table 7: Gender

	_				
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.118	1	.118	1.010	.315
Within Groups	80.402	689	.117		
Total	80.520	690			

Gender does not have an effect on impulse buying (F = 1.01, p = .31).

Age

Table 8: Age

				Standardized Coefficients		
Model		В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.290	.034		8.566	.000
	Age	002	.001	079	-2.074	.038

Age is negatively related to impulse buying (b = -.002, t = -2.07, p = .03).

Marital status

Marital status does not have an effect on impulse buying (F =2.08, p =.12). To summarize, person accompanying (companion), marital status and gender does not have a significant influence on impulse buying. Shopping type, shopping list, occupation and education has a significant influence on impulse buying. Time taken and time planned are the variables that affect impulse buying but are influencing it in opposite direction. Time planned for shopping is negatively related to impulse buying and time taken for a shopping trip is positively related to impulse buying. The results are summarized in Table 9.

Table 9: Marital status

	Sum of		Mean		
	Squares	df	Square	F	Sig.
Between	.475	2	.238	2.082	.125
Groups	.473	2	.236	2.082	.123
Within Groups	81.578	715	.114		
Total	82.053	717			

Shopping enjoyment

Shopping enjoyment (b= .036, t=2.46, p=.01) for a shopping trip is positively related to impulse buying; hence consumers who enjoy shopping are likely explore the store and are probable to make impulse purchases.

Table 10: Shoppoing enjoyment

Model				Standardized Coefficients		
	(Constant)	B .096	Std. Error .055	Beta	t 1.754	Sig. .080
	Shopping Enjoyment	.036	.015	.091	2.464	.014

Table 11: Results of hypothesis

Hypothesis	Hypothesis	Result
Nos		
H_1	Time available is positively related to impulse buying	Supported
H_2	Time planned is negatively related to impulse buying	Supported
H ₃	Level of education is negatively related to impulse buying	Supported
H_4	Level of occupation is related to impulse buying	Supported
H ₅	Presence of shopping list is negatively related to impulse buying	Supported
H ₆	Presence of a shopping companion is positively related to impulse buying	Not Supported
H_7	Shopping type is related to impulse buying	Supported
H_8	Women engage in more impulse buying than men.	Not Supported
H ₉	Age is negatively related to impulse buying	Supported
H ₁₀	Marital status is related to impulse buying.	Not Supported
H ₁₁	Shopping enjoyment is related to impulse buying.	Supported

Discussion

It also well-known that impulse buying is hugely profitable for retailers as, a significant part of total store sales or an estimated \$4.2 billion is due to impulse buying (Mogelonsky, 1998). A Canadian grocery chain exploring the avenues for increasing profitability had observed that if each customer purchased one additional item, profitability would increase by more than forty percent (Babin and Attaway, 2000) and this additional purchase could be an item purchased on impulse generated in the store. In our study 15.85% of the purchases made were on impulse generated. Shopping companion, marital status and gender do not have a significant influence on impulse buying. Shopping type has a significant influence on impulse buying and was evident that on occasion's shoppers buy impulsively than during other types of shopping types. Shopping list is increasingly becoming an almost extinct feature in modern shopping and that helps greatly to induce impulse buying. The significance of occupation, education on impulse buying indicates the role of socio economic factors in hedonic purchases. Role of time stresses the need of the retailers to make shopping an enjoyable experience through the store environmental variables.

Managerial implications

Deliberate non- planning is an integral part of contemporary shopping hence, impulse buying has become a part of buying process. Impulse buying is growing because consumers have quickly accepted the methods of buying to certain merchandising innovation by the retailers. Consumers are shopping not just to buy products but also to satisfy needs such as having fun and seeking novelty. Therefore, retail managers would do well to invest in the antecedents of environment, like training store personnel, improving the layout, making the lighting attractive and by having appropriate music. In developing countries, at least, anecdotal evidence suggests that there is a tendency on the part of even big retailers to skimp on these antecedents; for instance, the layout is often cramped and the air-conditioning is switched off from time to time. Our research shows that it would be unwise to cut costs on these heads, as impulse buying would be curtailed. A store with good environmental factors (light, music, layout, etc) will increase the time that an individual spends in the store and also an individual who is coming to store high on pleasant environmental factors will plan to be in the stay for longer time and this could lead to his impulse buying. Shopping type has a significant influence on impulse buying and was evident that on occasion's shoppers buy impulsively than during other types of shopping types. Hence the retail managers have to design campaign and in-store promotions oriented towards those occasions and festivals to increase impulse buying. Stores should be designed in such a way that the layout, aisles and assortment guides the consumer purchases than their list, as they generate more impulse purchases.

Conclusion

This study shows that Indian shoppers also indulge in impulse buying albeit not to the same extent as reported in prior studies with shoppers in other (especially Western) countries. However, this figure may well be a conservative estimate as impulse buying is generally considered to be normatively wrong in collectivistic societies (Kacen and Lee, 2002; Tuyet Mai *et al.*, 2003) and since our study was conducted in

more collectivistic country, shoppers may have understated their level of impulse buying due to social desirability. Any additional sale is hailed by the retailers as it increases the retailer's profitability and we found that in India 15.85% of the purchases made were on impulse generated. Hence retailers should aid impulse buying inside the store by making it attractive. This in turn would increase the time spent and also consumers plan for longer time when they decide to shop in that store and also design strategies that prevents them using the list and aid them on embarking on an open list for shopping. Store should also be designing campaign and in-store promotions during special occasions as they generate more impulse buying.

Limitations and future research

The use of questionnaire-based measurement approach followed in this study has some inherent shortcomings. Responses to questionnaire items, as with any self-report measure, are based on individual perception, as a result of which the responses obtained are subjective evaluations of the variables being measured. Type of stores (high-street store vs. mall store) may also be considered. The role of credit cards and could be studied as it is widely believed that the store that accepts plastic money increases impulse buying as people do not get to know the immediate effect of money spent.

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