# PERCEPTION OF BUSINESS EDUCATION LECTURERS IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION ON THE INFLUENCE OF RETAIL STORE VARIABLES ON IMPULSE BUYING BEHAVIOUR OF CONSUMERS IN NORTH-WEST NIGERIA

by

ASUQUO, EFFIONG EDET REG. NO. PG/Ph.D/05/39936

BEING THESIS SUBMITTED TO DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA, NSUKKA IN FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (Ph.D) IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

SUPERVISOR: PROF. E. C. OSUALA

#### **APPROVAL PAGE**

Perception of Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education on the Influence of Retail Store Variables on Impulse Buying Behaviour of Consumers in North-west Nigeria.

by

# ASUQUO, EFFIONG EDET PG/Ph.D/05/39936

Being Thesis Submitted to Department of Vocational Teacher Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka in Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Award of Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) in Business Education

Approved:				
Prof. E. C. Osuala (Supervisor)	Prof. E. E. Agomuo (Head of Department)			
External Examiner	Internal Examiner			
Prof. S. A (Dean of				

iii

**CERTIFICATION** 

Asuquo, Effiong Edet, a Postgraduate student in the Department of Vocational Teacher

Education, with Registration Number PG/Ph.D/05/39936, has satisfactorily completed the

requirements for the course and research work for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in

Business Education. The work embodied in this thesis is original and has not been submitted in

parts or in full for any other diploma or degree of this or any other university.

.....

**Prof. E. C. Osuala** (Thesis Supervisor)

Prof. E. E. Agomuo (Head of Department)

# **DEDICATION**

This research work is dedicated to my lovely wife and children

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The researcher expresses his unquantifiable gratitude to his supervisor, Professor E. C. Osuala for his academic contributions towards the successful completion of this research work. His fatherly advice and guidance, constructive criticism, and untiring efforts in reading through and improving this work to meet acceptable standard are most appreciated.

The researcher cannot forget to appreciate the contributions of the following staff of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka: Professors S.C.O.A. Ezeji, C.A. Obi, E.E. Agomuo, S.O. Olaitan, F.O.Okwo; Drs. E.C. Osinem, E.A.C. Etonyeaku and others. Their inputs in form of constructive criticisms, guidance and advice have helped immensely in adding value and quality to this research work.

The researcher's gratitude also goes to the management of Federal College of Education, Kano for granting him the opportunity to undergo this programme. The researcher's colleagues in the college are also appreciated for their contribution. The contribution of Dr. Shadare of Modular Clinics and Maternity, Kano is also appreciated.

Furthermore, the researcher is grateful to the following brethren for their prayers and encouragement: Elder A.A. Ita, Evang. Ubong Udoko, Very Revd.C.O. Aniche, Revd. J.U. Mba, Dr. Grace Inyang Masha and their families.

The researcher is indeed grateful to his family members for their patience, prayers and cooperation throughout the duration of this programme. Equally acknowledged are the supports of brethren in the household of faith, parent, and siblings.

Above all, the researcher submits his humble gratitude to Almighty God for the good health, grace, wisdom, traveling mercies, and protection granted him throughout the course of this study. May His name be eternally exalted and glorified. Amen.

Asuquo, Effiong Edet

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page		-	-	-	-	-	-	i
Approval Page		-	-	-	-	-	-	ii
Certification		-	-	-	-	-	-	iii
Dedication		-	-	-	-	-	-	iv
Acknowledgement		-	-	-	-	-	-	V
Table of Content		-	-	-	-	-	-	vi
List of Tables		-	-	-	-	-	-	X
Abstract		-	-	-	-	-	-	xiii
CHAPTER I: INT	RODUCTI	ON -	-	-	-	-	-	1
Background	of the Study	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Statement of	the Problem	ı -	-	-	-	-	-	8
Purpose of the	he Study	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
Significance	of the Study	7 -	-	-	-	-	-	10
Research Qu	iestions	-	-	-	-	-	-	12
Hypotheses		-	-	-	-	-	-	13
Scope of the	Study -	-	-	-	-	-	-	13
CHAPTER II: RI	EVIEW OF	RELATI	ED LIT	ERAT	URE		-	14
Conceptual 1	Framework	-	-	-	-	-	-	14
Retailing		-	-	-	-	-	-	14
Impulse Buy	ring -	-	-	-	-	-	-	19
Consumer B	ehaviour -	-	-	-	-	-	-	25
Retail Store Consumer In				-	-	-	-	27
Retail Store Consumer Ir	-			-	-	-	-	33
Retail Store on Consume				Influen -	ce -	-	-	37
Retail Store Influence on					ur -	_	_	42

	Price of Merchandise and its Consumer Impulse Buying B			-	-	-	-	50
	Customer Service and its Infl Impulse Buying Behaviour	uence o	on Cons	umer -	-	-	-	60
	Promotion and its Influence of Buying Behaviour -	on Cons	umer Ir -	npulse -	-	-	_	68
	Theoretical Framework	_	_	_	_	_	-	77
	Related Empirical Studies	_	_	_	_	_	-	81
	Summary of Review of Relat	ed Liter	rature	_	_	_	-	87
СНАН	PTER III: METHODOLOG	Y	-	-	-	-	-	91
	Design of the Study -	_	-	-	_	_	-	91
	Area of the Study -	_	-	-	_	_	-	91
	Population of the Study	-	-	-	-	-	-	92
	Sample and Sampling Technic	ique	-	-	-	_	-	93
	Instrument for Data Collection	n	-	-	-	_	-	93
	Validation of the Instrument	-	-	-	-	-	-	94
	Reliability of the Instrument	-	-	-	-	-	-	94
	Method of Data Collection	-	-	-	-	-	-	95
	Method of Data Analysis	-	-	-	-	-	-	95
СНАН	PTER IV: PRESENTATION	N AND	ANAL	YSIS O	F DAT	Α	-	97
	Research Question 1 -	-	-	-	-	_	-	97
	Research Question 2 -	-	-	-	-	_	-	98
	Research Question 3 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	99
	Research Question 4 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	100
	Research Question 5 -	-	-	-	-	_	-	101
	Research Question 6 -	_	_	_	_	_	-	102

	Research Que	estion 7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	103
	Hypotheses 1	-3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	104
	Findings of th	ne Study	· -	-	-	-	-	-	-	125
	Discussion of	f Finding	gs	-	-	-	-	-	-	132
СНАР	TER V: SUM	<b>IMARY</b>	, CON	CLUSI	ON AN	D REC	COMM	ENDAT	ΓIONS	138
	Restatement of	of the Pr	oblem	-	-	-	-	-	-	138
	Summary of	the Proc	edures	Used	-	-	-	-	-	139
	Summary of	Finding	S-	-	-	-	-	-	-	140
	Implications	for Marl	keting E	Educatio	n	-	-	-	-	141
	Conclusions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	142
	Recommenda	ntions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	144
	Suggestions f	or Furth	er Stud	ly	-	-	-	-	-	144
REFE	RENCES	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	145
APPE	NDICES	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	152
	APPENDIX .	A: Requ	est for	Validati	on of In	ıstrumeı	nt	-	-	152
	APPENDIX I	B: Requ	est to R	Respond	to Ques	stionnai	re	-	-	153
	APPENDIX (	C: Quest	tionnair	re on Pe	rceptior	n of Bus	iness			
	Education Le	ecturers	on the	Influenc	e of Re	tail Stor	e			
	Variables on	Impulse	e Buyin	ıg Behav	iour of	Consur	ners	-	-	154
	APPENDIX I	D: Cron	bachøs .	Alpha R	eliabilit	ty Coeff	ficient			
		of Ins	trumen	t	-	-	-	-	-	161
	APPENDIX	E: Copie	es of Va	alidated	Instrum	ent	-	_	-	162

# LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:	Population Distribution of Respondents	-	92
Table 2:	Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Retail Store Location on Impulse Buying Behaviour of Consumers.	-	97
Table 3:	Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Retail Store Design on Impulse Buying Behaviour of Consumers.	-	98
Table 4:	Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Merchandise Display on Impulse Buying Behaviour of Consumers.	_	99
Table 5:	Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Merchandise Assortment on Impulse Buying Behaviour of Consumers.	-	100
Table 6:	Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Price of Merchandise on Impulse Buying Behaviour of Consumers.	-	101
Table 7:	Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Customer Service on Impulse Buying Behaviour of Consumers.	_	102
Table 8:	Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Promotion on Impulse Buying Behaviour of Consumers.	-	103
Table 9:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers, and Chief Lecturers in Business Education on the Influence of Retail Store Location on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.	-	104
Table 10:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers, and Chief Lecturers in Business Education on the Influence of Retail Store Design on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.	_	105
Table 11:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers, and Chief Lecturers in Business Education on the Influence of Merchandise		
	Display on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	106

Table 12:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers Principal Lecturers, and Chief Lecturers in Business Education on the Influence of Merchandise Assortment on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.	-	107
Table 13:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers Principal Lecturers, and Chief Lecturers in Business Education on the Influence of Price of merchandise on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.	·, -	108
Table 14:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers Principal Lecturers, and Chief Lecturers in Business Education on the Influence of Customer Service on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.	-	109
Table 15:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers Principal Lecturers, and Chief Lecturers in Business Education on the Influence of Promotion on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.	-	110
Table 16:	The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Retail Store Location on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	111
Table 17:	The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Retail Store Design on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.	-	112
Table 18:	The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Merchandise Display on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.	-	113
Table 19:	The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Retail Merchandise Assortment on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.	-	114
Table 20:	The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Retail Price of Merchandise on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.	-	115
Table 21:	The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the		

	Influence of Customer Service on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	13	16
Table 22:	The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Promotion on Consumer			
	Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	13	17
Table 23:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on th Influence of Retail Store Location on	ie		
	Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	1.	18
Table 24:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on th Influence of Retail Store Design on	ie		
	Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	13	19
Table 25:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Merchandise Display on			
	Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	12	20
Table 26:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Merchandise Assortment on			
	Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	12	21
Table 27:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Price of Merchandise on			
	Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	12	22
Table 28:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Customer Service on			
	Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	12	23
Table 29:	Analysis of Variance for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Promotion on			
	Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour	-	12	24

#### **Abstract**

This study was carried out to determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education on the influence of impulse buying behaviour of consumers. A survey research design was used for the study. The study was carried out in the North-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria. The population of the study was 219 Business Education Lecturers in 10 Colleges of Education. The entire population was studied since it was small and manageable. Seven research questions were answered and three null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance and 202 degrees of freedom. A structured questionnaire was developed to collect data for the study. The questionnaire items were structured on a 5-point Likert scale. The questionnaire was face-validated by three experts in Business Education. The Cronbachos Alpha reliability test was used to determine the internal consistency of the questionnaire. A reliability coefficient of 0.75% was obtained. The researcher and three research assistants administered the questionnaire to the respondents in their various locations. A total of 204 copies of the questionnaire were retrieved from the respondents for analysis. The data collected were analyzed using Mean statistic to answer the research questions, while t-test and analysis of variance were used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. The findings of the study revealed that all the items of retail store location, design, merchandise display, merchandise assortment, price of merchandise, customer service, and promotion were accepted by the respondents as having influence on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers. The findings also revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers with regards to their ranks, gender and age on the influence of most of the retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour. One of the implications of the findings of this study for Marketing Education is in the area of providing retail information for improving teaching and learning in Business Education which would help students to establish retail enterprises or work effectively in retail outlets after graduation. Based on the findings of this study, it was recommended, among others, that Business Education Lecturers should effectively teach the retail variables so as to encourage retail entrepreneurship among their students after graduation. Retailers should adopt the retail store variables identified in this study in order to boost their trade and provide a satisfying shopping experience for their customers.

#### **CHAPTER I**

#### INTRODUCTION

#### Background of the Study

Retailing plays a major role in the distribution of goods and services to the final consumers. Most buying activities for household products are done in retail stores. This is because retail stores hold items which are commonly characterized by low price, low marginal need, short life span, small size and ease of storage which are the daily needs of consumers. The retail store provides an assortment of goods which a consumer can easily walk in, choose and buy without any unnecessary stress. The retail store also ensures the availability of desired consumer products which the consumer can, within a few minutes, conveniently shop with satisfaction. The retail store ensures local supply of goods and services personally to the consumers.

According to Osuala (1998), retailing includes all the activities in selling of goods and services directly to final consumers for their personal or non business use. McGoldrick (2001) defined retailing as the sale of goods and services in smaller quantities to consumers for their own use. According to McGoldrick, retailing activity takes place both in a store and in non-store outlets.

A retail store is defined by McGoldrick (2001) as a source of supply to end-users, rather than to industrial buyers. Stanton (1981) viewed a retail store as an institution which carries on such activities in the business premises which are directly related to goods and services required by the ultimate consumers for their personal or non-business use. Similarly, James, Walker, and Etzel (1981) described a retail store as a physical site of a retail business where consumer goods are sold. It is different from non-store retail outlets in which retailing occurs through the mail, telephone, vending machines, door-to-door selling, and internet, otherwise called online retailing. Store based retail outlets have characteristics referred to in this study as store

variables. The store variables are expected to make the store attractive and present conducive buying environment for the consumer. The retail store variables include store location, store design, merchandise display, merchandise assortment, price of the merchandise, customer service, as well as promotion.

The store location is a major element of the retail mix which plays a significant role in meeting consumerøs shopping convenience. James, Walker and Etzel (1981) defined a store location as the physical site of a retail business. It is the place where the consumer can easily locate the retailer whenever he needs to buy. The consumer is sure of where to go for his shopping after having identified where a particular retail store is located. The store location also provides the retailer the convenience of displaying and selling his merchandise without having to wander about with them to look for consumers. Consumers are more often disposed to stores that are strategically located with easy accessibility and close proximity to their residence. Consumers look out for location features such as traffic flow and parking lot that provide soothing shopping environment to them. This is why Samson, Little, and Wingate (1984) opined that to facilitate merchandising process and arouse the consumerøs curiosity to visit the store, it must be conveniently located near the consumer.

Another feature of a retail store is the store design. The store design gives the store a desirable image and is capable of influencing the consumer to make impulse purchase. McGoldrick (2001) described store design as representing the general atmosphere of the store, including the visual aspects, the sounds, the scents, and the textures. It also includes adequate fixtures and fittings, good lighting, wall shelves, adequate space, air conditioning, soft music, television set, and sweet fragrance. Good store counters and furniture are considered to be extremely important because they contribute a lot in the visual effect of the store. Consumers generally have the tendency to shop in good looking stores as compared to unattractive ones. Good looking store environment seems to increase consumersø adrenaline and their curiosity to

buy more. They derive pleasure buying from stores where they obtain maximum satisfaction. Lewison and Delozier (1988) thus describe these features as attractors and interceptors in the store which can be used to induce buying decision.

A feeling of an overwhelming force from the way products are displayed is an element of store design. Howe (1992) described merchandise display as the art of positioning items in the store according to their classes. Modern retailing is very competitive. Even if a retailer product is completely unique, his product is still exposed to competition because there is always another store down the area that is equally aiming at the consumer money. The way a retailer presents his merchandise largely determines how attractive the consumer would be and how much of his interest would be won to the product. Thus, Rook (1987) opined that product display has an important influence on the consumer behaviour and can be responsible for impulse buying.

Furthermore, the assortment of items held by a store is a major element of the retail mix which can easily be used to influence consumer buying decision. Kotler and Armstrong (2001) defined merchandise as the products and services or lines that a retailer offers to the target market. The type of merchandise offered by a retailer is probably the major determinant of his business and the variety of his products will have major impact in the buying decision of the consumer. Thus, Bovee and Thill (1992) defined merchandise assortment as the array of products a retailer chooses to carry in the store including the depth and breadth in which these lines are stocked. The breadth of merchandise is described by Levy and Weitz (1998) as the number of merchandise lines carried by a store, while the depth of merchandise is described as the quality of goods carried in the various colours, sizes, styles, and prices in the store. Many retailers nowadays offer a wide variety of merchandise in order to afford the consumer the opportunity to make choice and subsequently buy on impulse.

The price of a product is another element of the retail mix. Price is defined by Hasty and Reardon (1997) as the value assigned to something bought, sold or offered for sale. Simon

(1989) also defined price as the number of monetary units a customer has to pay to receive one unit of a product or service. Pricing policy is a crucial aspect of merchandise management in a retail outlet. This is because of the important role price plays in the process of buying and selling. While the retailer must protect his business from unwanted losses by fixing appropriate price that covers both cost and profit, he also considers maintaining a reasonable price that consumers can pay and maintain their loyalty. For a price-conscious customer, a slight cut in price is a strong force to drive such customer to make unplanned buying and vice versa. For instance, Grushkin (2001) observed that people who are interested in value more often go to discount stores.

Apart from considering the price factor, every customer desires quality service from a retailer. The nature of customer service rendered in a store has a significant influence on the buying disposition of the customer. McGoldrick (2001) identified customer services to include order-taking and modification, customer problem solution, prompt attention, order inquiry, prompt delivery, and technical information. The customer wants to experience an innovative and welcoming world of shopping. He wants to be treated well and as a king even if it may mean spending more money for that. According to McGoldrick, these services are capable of inducing the customer to make unplanned purchase.

In addition to the above features is promotion which is an essential activity in retailing. It is one of the elements of the marketing mix. Osuala (1998) described promotion as one of the ingredients used to inform and persuade the market regarding a companyos products. Promotion is a marketing tool used by retailers to create awareness and stimulate interest, persuade people and finally sell a product or its brand. Promotion mix is made up of advertising, sales promotion, events and experiences, public relations and publicity, direct marketing, and personal selling. On one hand, Kotler and Keller (2005) defined advertising as any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor. On the other

hand, Cox and Brittain (1993) defined sales promotion as short-term incentives to encourage a stronger market response and stimulate purchase or sale of a product or service. Kotler (2004) observed that advertising can lead to impulse buying because it creates consumerøs knowledge about the product or brand, thus increasing the chance of the product being recognized and chosen on impulse. Kotler further noted that sales promotion activity is capable of making the customer buy what he never intended to buy.

The consumer is the focus or main target of the retailer. Every marketing effort is directed towards the consumer. The retailer sees the consumer as the reason for his business. According to Osuala (1993) a consumer is a person who actually uses the products or services available in the community. Similarly, Chukwurah (2004) defined a consumer as an individual who buys and makes use of goods and services produced by other persons to satisfy his personal needs. While the retailer focuses on satisfying the consumer by meeting his needs, he is also mindful of his business profitability and sustainability. The retailergs aim is to make profit through improved sales. This, he can achieve if he understands the buying behaviour of the consumer and presents his product to win that behaviour.

Sullivan (2008) discovered that many retailers are conscious of the consumer impulse buying behaviour. Sometimes, consumers are carried away by certain distinguishing and attractive features of the store and they buy things they never planned to buy. Sullivan described this as unplanned or impulse buying and viewed it as an important consumer buying disposition that retailers can exploit to increase sales.

Hodge (2004) described unplanned purchase as synonymous with impulse buying. Therefore, the two terms mean the same thing and shall be used interchangeably in this study. 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. This description agrees with the opinion of Sullivan (2008) which focused on the retail environment as being an important feature that can encourage impulse buying by consumers.

Thus, Sullivan (2008) maintained that retailers need to create attractive retail environments to encourage impulse buying behaviour. Similarly, Hodge (2004) observed that impulse buying represents a significant portion of sales in a retail environment. The above assertions were further upheld by Dotson and Dave (2008) who observed that consumersø retail experiences are affected by their emotional states, retail store attributes and parking facilities. Retailers can, therefore, take optimum advantage of the consumersø in-store buying decisions to improve or enhance their turnover rate.

It is, however, discovered that the bane of many retail businesses in Nigeria in recent times has been the inability of the retailers to organize their stores with attractive features. Most retail stores in Nigeria appear to lack attractive image and are built with poor fixtures and fittings, poor lighting, poor shelves arrangement, and inadequate parking and floor space. For instance, Ikeazor (2002) and Nwokoye (2004) also observed that the roads are rough and stores are poorly located and organized.

With the exception of a few supermarkets, most retail stores do not consider air-conditioning, soft music, television set, and sweet fragrance as important attractors to consumers. Regrettably too, other important variables such as price reduction, customer service, and promotion activities are seemingly ignored in most of Nigerian retail stores and retailers fail to take advantage of the influence of these variables to better their sales. Since impulse buying is a spontaneous buying decision often made in-store, most retailers in Nigeria appear to have lost

the advantage of increasing their sales and keeping their businesses alive through impulse purchasing largely because of poor organisation and management of their stores.

This study is, therefore, focused on examining the perception of Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education on the influence of retail store variables on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers. Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education are part of the market for consumer goods and services. They are teachers of business courses in the Colleges of Education who are trained in both subject matter and pedagogy. They possess Bachelor Degree in Business Education or related discipline as their initial or minimum entry qualification and subsequently Masters Degree and Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) in the same discipline. The choice of Business Education Lecturers is necessitated by the fact that they teach business and entrepreneurial skills with which the students can utilize in establishing retail businesses while others might be employed in retail outfits after their graduation.

Business Education Lecturers are also chosen for this study because, like other consumers, they patronize the retailers by buying from the stores. Business Education Lecturers are sensitive to store variables that provide a satisfactory shopping experience and are also prone to buying on impulse. The study also considers the Business Education Lecturers gender because research evidence shows that both male and female consumers patronize retail stores. Shopping of household products is no longer the exclusive activity of women. Men equally buy and both male and female buyers are vulnerable to impulse buying. Business Education Lecturers are made up of the young, the middle age, and the old ones ranging from age brackets of 25 to 40 years, 41 to 50 years, and 51 years and above respectively. They all have buying experience irrespective of their age. Whether a lecturer is young, middle age or old, each of them is involved in imparting business and entrepreneurial skills to his or her students.

The Federal Ministry of Education (1989) in its scheme of service for Federal Colleges of Education and Polytechnics provided for different ranks of Lecturers graduating upward from

Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers to Chief Lecturers in that order from point of entry. Bachelor® Degree in Business Education or related discipline is the minimum entry qualification to teach at the College of Education system. The income of the lecturers depends on their ranks. According to the National Salaries, Incomes and Wages Commission (2007), circular on consolidated tertiary institutions salary structure for lecturers, salaries range from a minimum of N579,391 for Assistant Lecturers per annum to a minimum of N2,232199 for Chief Lecturers. This study makes use of the 2007 salary structure. As specialists in Business Education and related business disciplines, Business Education Lecturers have the capacity to respond objectively to the issues raised in this study.

#### Statement of the Problem

There is an encouraging emergence of retail businesses in the North-west region of Nigeria partly because of its historical antecedent of being the hub of the tran-saharan trade and partly because the people are generally business-inclined. It is also observed that in recent times, these enterprises do not last long largely because of ignorance of their owners with regard to store organisation and management. Nwokoye (2004) observed that most retail stores in Nigeria appear to lack attractive image and are built with poor fixtures and fittings, poor lighting, poor shelves arrangement, and inadequate parking and floor space. The inability of the retail store owners to provide attractive buying environment irritates their customers who, in reaction, gradually withdraw their patronage. Consequent upon their inability to provide soothing shopping environment, retail stores in North-west zone of the country have not really taken advantage of consumersø impulse buying behaviour to enhance their sales.

It is, thus, observed that there is an increasing rate of retail business failure in the region.

Retail businesses are seen to crumble almost at the very rate with which they spring up, thus failing to sustain the momentum of providing satisfactory retail services to consumers.

Consequent upon their inability to provide soothing shopping environment, retail stores in the

North-west zone of the country have not fully taken advantage of consumersø impulse buying behaviour to enhance their sales.

It is expected that some of the graduates of Business Education from the Colleges of Education are supposed to make positive impacts in improving retail merchandising as workers in retail outfits or owners of retail businesses having been trained in the skills and knowledge of the trade. It is also expected that much impact would have been made to improve retail business in the zone because of the Business Education studentsø involvement in industrial work experience during which they offer advice to owners of retail businesses on how to improve on their enterprises. The extent to which these graduates have been able to utilize the retailing skills learned in school in the real work situation, and how effective their advice to retail business owners have been, give the Business Education Lecturers much concern especially considering the rate at which these retail businesses fail in the zone.

It is on this premise, therefore, that this study is carried out to determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education on how retail store variables can influence impulse buying among consumers in the North-west zone of Nigeria. Scanty empirical evidence is found in this area, hence the present investigation.

#### Purpose of the study

The major purpose of this study was to determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education on the influence of retail store variables on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west geo-political zone of Nigeria. The specific purposes of this study were:

 To determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store location on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.

- To determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store design on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.
- To determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store merchandise display on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.
- To determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store merchandise assortment on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in Northwest zone of Nigeria.
- To determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of price of merchandise on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.
- To determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of customer service on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.
- 7. To determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of promotion on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.

#### Significance of the study

The findings of this study would be beneficial to retailers, prospective entrepreneurs, researchers, students of Business Education, as well as consumers of goods and services.

The findings of this study would be beneficial to retailers. It would provide strategic information to the retailers to improve on their store location and design decisions, merchandise assortment and display, proper pricing of products, customer-oriented service delivery, and a well planned promotion programme. The retailers would use the findings of this study to plan their retail activities towards inducing impulse buying decisions among their customers.

The findings of this study would also be of significance to prospective entrepreneurs in retailing. As prospective entrepreneurs plan their new businesses, the findings of this study would provide the basis upon which they give more attention to relevant features of retailing such as store location, store and merchandise organisation, service delivery and sales promotion that would facilitate more sales through impulse buying.

The findings of this study would also be of significance to researchers in retail marketing. The various store variables including store location and deign, merchandise assortment and display, price of product, customer services, as well as promotion would be of interest to retail marketing researchers in further areas of research. Marketing researchers would pay much attention to investigating more retailing strategies within the identified variables to improve retail marketing.

Students of Business Education in Colleges of Education would benefit from the findings of this study. Information provided in the findings of this study would motivate Business Education students to go into retail entrepreneurship after graduation. Students who consequently venture into retailing would apply the various retail variables in store location and design, merchandise assortment, display and pricing, customer service and promotion as bases to induce impulse purchasing by their customers.

Business Education Lecturers would also benefit from the findings of this study. The findings of this study would provide the basis for improved teaching of entrepreneurial skills to students in the areas of store location, design, merchandise assortment and display, pricing, customer service, and promotion.

The findings of this study would also be of significance to consumers. It would enable retailers to improve on their store organisation and management to provide a soothing shopping environment for consumers who would take retail store shopping as a satisfying experience. Consumers would benefit from the improved store location, store design, merchandise display,

merchandise assortment, price of merchandise, customer service, and promotion for a more satisfying shopping experience.

#### Research Questions

The following research questions were answered in this study:

- 1. What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store location on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria?
- 2. What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store design on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria?
- 3. What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store merchandise display on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria?
- 4. What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store merchandise assortment on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria?
- 5. What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of price of merchandise on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria?
- 6. What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of customer service on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria?
- 7. What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of promotion on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria?

#### Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

HO<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference in the Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers with respect to their rank on the influence of retail store variables on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers.

HO<sub>2</sub>: There is no significant difference between the Mean responses of male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store variables on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers.

HO<sub>3</sub>: There is no significant difference in the Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers with respect to their age on the influence of retail store variables on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers.

#### Scope of the study

This study was restricted to the perception of Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education on the influence of retail store variables on impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria. The study population was delimited to Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education in the North-west zone of Nigeria. The population was considered in this study because of their strategic role in the training of students with the knowledge and skills needed for retail entrepreneurship after their graduation. This area was studied because of its relevance in entrepreneurship and development of retailing in Nigeria. It was also studied because there is very scanty empirical evidence in the area in Nigeria. The study did not cover other aspects of impulse buying like types of merchandise prone to impulse buying, psychological aspect of impulse buying (who buys most on impulse between men and women), and impulse buying in on-line stores.

#### **CHAPTER II**

#### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature related to this study was reviewed and organized under the following headings:

Conceptual Framework.

- (a) Retailing
- (b) Impulse Buying
- (c) Consumer Behaviour

Retail Store location and its influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

Retail store design and its influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

Retail store merchandise display and its influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

Retail store merchandise assortment and its influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

Price of merchandise and its influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

Customer services and their influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

Promotion and its influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

Theoretical Framework.

Related empirical studies.

Summary of review of related literature.

#### Conceptual Framework

#### Retailing

Osuala (1998) defined retailing as the activities involved in selling goods or services directly to final consumers for their personal, non-business use. Similarly, Kotler and Keller (2005) described retailing as including all the activities involved in selling goods and services to

final consumers for their personal and family uses. Also, Lusch, Dunne, and Gable (1990) described retailing as the final stage in the progression of merchandise from the producer to the consumer. Retailing being one of the oldest forms of business activity completes the process of production by making the goods available to the ultimate consumers. Furthermore, Lusch, Dunne and Gable posited that any firm that sells merchandise to the final consumer is performing the retailing function. McGoldrick (2001) also described retailing as a source of supply to end-users, rather than to industrial buyers. The above definition distinguishes retailing from the supply of goods in quantities, large or small, to industrial buyers. Thus, retailing is the final activity in the distribution channel before the product gets to point of consumption.

From a managerial point of view, Pride (1998) defined retailing as an attempt to manage exchange at the point of ultimate consumption for the benefit of the organization and society. Pride maintained that the retailer must try to satisfy the consumer without necessarily compromising his profit motive. The word oretailingo is described by Levy and Weitz (1998) as one of the largest sectors in the global economy that has gone through a period of exciting and dramatic changes. Brown (1992) noted that retailing was once considered to be basically small scale but due to dramatic changes in entrepreneurship, retailing now ranks among the largest, most sophisticated, fast growing and dominant business operations in the world. Retailing is one of the most important functions of product distribution network and an effective channel through which consumers, both rich and poor, get access to the manufacturer or products.

Samson, Little and Wingate (1982) observed that it is often difficult for consumers to buy from manufacturers or wholesalers, especially when they cannot afford or are not willing to buy in large quantity. The convenience of buying in small and affordable quantity is usually provided by the retailer. It is, therefore, the duty of the retailer to study and understand consumer needs. The retailer presents the items in the most convenient way which enables the consumer to buy. The authors further maintained that for retailing to meet consumer needs, it

must have the right merchandise, at the right place, at the right time, in the right quantity, and at the right price. This means that the retailer is required to know what the consumer wants, at the time he wants it so that he (the consumer) can see, examine, choose and buy the product. It also suggests that the retailer needs to offer his merchandise at a convenient point where the consumer can reach it, and the product should be broken into small quantities, sold at a price which all categories of consumers can afford. In other words, merchandise is to be presented in good assortment of styles, colours, and sizes for the buying convenience of consumers. This is why Blankson (2008) observed that the whole essence of retail marketing is to develop merchandise and services that satisfy specific needs of customers and to supply them at prices that yield profit. Blankson recommended that retailers must take the customersø needs into consideration in their retail operation.

Retailing spans from small-scale to large-scale businesses that take place both inside a store and in non-store outlets. These outlets are classified along a number of dimensions such as legal form, operational structure, range of merchandise, degree of service, pricing policy, location, size of outlet and method of customer contact (Cox and Brittain, 1993). Other dimensions identified by Cox and Brittain are shopping effort required by consumers, method of operation, type of ownership, as well as the width and mix of product lines. According to Osuala (1998), small-scale retail outlets are those operated by hawkers, roadside retailers, kiosk retailers, petty traders, and market stall owners. Other small-scale outlets include provision stores, and mobile shops. On the other hand, Kotler and Armstrong (2001), Schewe (1987) and Pride (1998) listed large-scale retail outlets as department stores, multiple shops, supermarkets, superstores, mail order houses, discount houses, chain stores, hypermarkets, and warehouse showrooms.

Retailing is further classified by Levy and Weitz (1998) under store-based and non-store-based retailing. Stanton (1981) viewed a retail store as an institution which carries on such activities in the business premises which are directly related to goods and services required by

the ultimate consumers for their personal or non-business use. Similarly, James, Walker and Etzel (1981) described a retail store as a physical site of a retail business where selling of goods to final consumers takes place. Kotler and Keller (2005) described a retail store as any business enterprise whose sales volume comes primarily from retailing. Examples of store-based retail outlets according to Levy and Weitz include department stores, supermarkets, hypermarkets, superstores, multiple shops, discount houses, chain stores, warehouse showrooms. In addition, Osuala (1998) identified provision stores, roadside retail shops, kiosks, and market stalls as other examples of retail stores with physical sites. On the other hand, non-store retail outlets include those in which retailing occurs through the mail, telephone, vending machine, door-to-door selling, and internet otherwise known as online retailing (James, et al, 1981). Unlike store-based outlets, James and his colleagues described the non-store outlets as not having any physical site or location but can be operated from any point.

In the opinion of McCarthy (1990), retail stores could be classified under the following categories: convenience stores, shopping stores, and specialty stores. Convenience stores are described by Hiam and Schewe (1992) as stores that are located near residential or work environment of target customers and which carry a wide assortment of products. McGoldrick (2001) said that the definitions of convenience stores vary somewhat but agreed with the criteria which Nielsen (1998) used in describing convenience stores. These include self-service, 1000 to 3000sq ft selling area, parking facilities, long hours and day opening, and having wide range but limited brand choice including groceries, toiletries, some medicines, and stationery. Shopping stores, on the other hand, are described by Samson, et al (1982) as those stores that offer a complete assortment in the line of goods handled considering the individual tastes of customers. Here, the retailer strives to know his customers well and selects goods that would appeal to their tastes.

Levy and Weitz (1998) also described specialty stores as those whose focus is on a narrow market segment, carrying a narrow product variety but having deep product assortment. Their products have unique characteristics or brand identification for which a sufficient number of buyers are willing to make a special purchasing effort. Kotler and Keller (2005) gave examples of products held by specialty stores as cars, stereo components, photographic equipment, and menøs suits. According to Kotler and Keller, buyers in this kind of store invest time to reach dealers carrying the products and that these stores are not necessarily sited at convenient locations.

Retailing has continued to grow in importance as a means of selling goods and services to the consumer. Samson et al (1982) observed that without retailing a consumer would have to search for desired merchandise from manufacturers who may be hundreds or thousands of miles away. The authors went further to observe that without retailing, prices of merchandise would be higher, choice of goods less extensive and opportunities to enjoy some items would be limited.

Bovee and Thill (1992) described retailing in terms of its importance to both the consumer and the manufacturers. The authors said that retailing is important to the consumer because it enhances economic utility. To the manufacturer, Bovie and Thill said that retailing is the major connection in the marketing channel between the manufacturer and the end-users. Generally, Bovee and Thill observed that retailing remains a very important marketing activity that has contributed significantly to the economy.

Considering its importance, retailing has maintained a very fast growing profile, offering a range of remarkable attractive career opportunities for young people (Whitaker, 1973; Winstanley, 1983; and Benson, 1986). The authors consider retailing as no longer second class occupation, but a fashionable career choice. As it continues to grow in importance and scope, its operation is becoming more complex and difficult. The challenge before the modern day

Nigerian retailer is enormous, principal among which are his inability to understand the customer's needs as well as organize his store and merchandise to meet these needs. For instance, Kotler and Keller (2005) noted that retailers in advanced economies are rapidly improving their skills in demand forecasting, merchandise selection, stock control, space allocation, and display, and that in most American retail stores, retailers are making use of computers to track inventory, compute economic order quantities, order goods, and analyse money spent on vendors and products.

Consumers today, according to Levy and Weitz (1998) are more knowledgeable, sophisticated in their judgment, and demanding better value for their money. They see modern retailing as grappling to meet these challenges. According to Levy and Weitz, retailing performs the functions that add value to consumers in terms of providing assortment of products and services, breaking bulk, holding inventory and rendering customer service. Similarly, Osuala (1998) considered retail trade as qualitatively significant to the economy because it affords the consumers the opportunity to obtain practically all the goods they use from the marketing system.

#### Impulse Buying

Baumeister (2002) indicated that impulse purchasing is synonymous with unplanned buying and defined it as any purchase which a shopper makes but has not planned in advance. In other words, impulse purchasing is a purchase behaviour that is assumed to be made without prior planning or thought. Rook (1987) defined the concept of impulse purchasing as a situation where a consumer experiences a sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately. He described the action as an intense and exciting urge to buy without regard to the consequences of the purchase decision. In the same way, Beatty and Ferrell (1998) defined impulse buying as õa sudden and immediate purchase with no pre-shopping intentions either to buy the specific product category or to fulfil a specific buying task. The behaviour occurs after

experiencing an urge to buy and it tends to be spontaneous and without a lot of reflectionö. Engel and Blackwell (1982) also defined impulse purchasing as a buying action undertaken without a problem previously having been recognized, or buying intention being formed right inside the store. Buendicho (2003) observed that this seems to be the most widely accepted definition of impulse purchasing.

Thus, two main elements are noticed in the above definitions that differentiate impulse buying from non-impulse buying. Housman (2000) noticed that in the first instance, impulse purchases are typically made unplanned and without a recognized buying intention before entering the store. Secondly, he noticed that impulse buying almost always involves an emotional response. This second element is a psychological aspect of impulse shopping which describes impulsiveness as a trait in the individual.

Characteristically, Piron (1991) described impulse buying as comprising of four components which include õbeing unplanned; occurring as a result of an exposure to stimulus; decided on the spot; and involving an emotional reactionö. Similarly, Rook (1987) described impulse buying as exhibiting a number of characteristics including a feeling of an overwhelming force from the product; and an intense feeling of having to buy the product immediately among others. Rook further described impulse buying as a buying decision that is propelled by emotional tendency capable of exhibiting the following characteristics:

- (a) The feeling of an overwhelming force from the product;
- (b) An intense feeling of having to buy the product immediately;
- (c) Ignoring any negative consequences from the purchase;
- (d) Feelings of excitement, even euphoria; and
- (e) The conflict between control and indulgence.

His perception of impulsive behaviour here centres on the influence of the product and the emotional state of the consumer. He failed to look at the influence of the store environment, but

Malter (1996) included the consumerøs emotional state, product characteristics and the external environment as factors that can induce impulsive buying tendency among consumers.

Furthermore, Rook and Fisher (1995) described the buying impulsiveness trait as a consumeros tendency to buy spontaneously, unreflectively, immediately and kinetically. From the above definitions and descriptions, it is clear that impulse buying implies a contrast to a perceived normal shopping state of mind that is controlled and considered less aroused and urgent. The foregoing definitions therefore indicate that impulse buying occurs when the buyer is exposed to both internal and external socio-economic variables that take place in the store. Internal factors that stimulate impulse buying are described by Rook & Hoch (1985) and Vohs & Faber (2007) as consisting of the consumeros mood and willpower. The internal factors could also be seen in what Bayley & Nancarrow (1998) described as immediate gratification. Others, according to Bayley & Nancarrow are self image compensation; a mood change; cognitive requirements; and irrational dysfunctional decision-making. Sullivan (2008) also identified stress and emotion as internal stimuli of impulse buying. Many research efforts have been targeted at determining the relationship of the above mentioned internal factors with impulse buying and have discovered that they are related. This is supported by the findings of Rook & Hoch (1985), Bayley & Nancarrow (1998), Vohs & Faber (2007), and Sullivan (2008).

Many researchers have made several attempts to determine the causes of impulsiveness in buying. While Rook and Fisher (1995) attribute its cause to emotional factor, others like Dittmar, Beattie and Friese (1996) say it is irrational act. Malter (1996) argued that while impulse buying appears to be a highly irrational behaviour, that is, spontaneous and seemingly choice-less, it can also be seen as rational by the consumer and a cognitive psychologist. Thus, whether impulse buying experience is rational or irrational, normal or emotional is not the focus of this study, but the influence of external factors on the consumer impulsive behaviour

Miller (2002) identified four classifications of impulse buying. According to Miller, these include pure impulse purchasing, reminder impulse buying, suggestion impulse buying and planned impulse buying. Miller gave the following descriptions. For pure impulse buying, Miller said is a purchase done outside a normal purchase behaviour and is initiated by emotional appeal. An example is a consumer who rarely buys magazine but sees a People Magazine at the checkout while waiting in line at the grocery store and desires it based on the cover story and the pictures. In this case, he observed, the purchase of the magazine is considered pure impulse because it is done outside the normal purchase behaviour and it satisfies an immediate desire initiated by an emotional appeal.

For reminder impulse buying, Miller (2002) explained that it happens when a purchase is made upon when something is cueing or reminding the consumer to make the purchase. Here, the buyer knows the product as a result of prior experience through past purchase or exposure to advertising. Miller also defined suggestion impulse buying as that which occurs when the consumer sees the product, visualizes an application for it, and decides that he needs it. In this case, the consumer has no prior product knowledge about the item but learns about it based on the display packaging, or product itself. In suggestion impulse, the author explained that the item fulfils the desire for the product immediately even though consumption of the product might be delayed. An example of this is a consumer who sees a plastic cassava peeler for the first time in a grocery store. The peeler is displayed with operational instructions attached to it. If this item is purchased because it appears to be much easier and faster than using a peeling knife, the purchase is a suggestion impulse buying. The use of the peeler may be delayed until the consumer has need for it.

Furthermore, Miller (2002) defined planned impulse buying as occurring when the consumer buys products based on price or product specials. For instance, a consumer is in the store to buy some items already listed in his shopping list, and notices a product he has earlier

planned to buy being offered at a reasonably low price or at a discount. He might buy the product because of the price even though it was not listed in his current shopping list. He is induced by the price reduction to spontaneously buy the product.

From the above descriptions, Hodge (2004) observed that a customer who goes into a shop to buy a particular planned item could be enticed to buy additional items on pure impulse, or as a reminder, suggestion or planned impulse. She added that the impulse purchase category is dependent of the consumerøs prior knowledge about the product, intentions when starting the shopping trip, exposure to stimuli and emotional appeal.

Bayley and Nancarrow (1998) discussed other styles of impulse shopping as an outcome of their study on qualitative exploration of impulse purchasing. They used a friendship pair in the self-script approach in which respondents were recruited as very close friends. Their familiarity with each other gave them the confidence to openly explore and challenge both their own and each other behaviours, motivations, satisfactions and anxieties. Four styles of impulse shopping came out of their study: accelerator impulse, compensatory impulse, breakthrough impulse, and blind impulse.

Accelerator impulse is described by Bayley and Nancarrow (1998) as an impulsive purchase that is motivated by a sudden desire to stock-up for a future need. Narasinhan, Neslin, and Sen (1996) used the term accelerator to mean õstockpilingö or making advance purchase to fulfil perceived future needs. Bayley and Nancarrow illustrated this with an example of a young man who saw a pair of football boots in a sale and decided to buy spontaneously. It was summer and not a football season but the consumer considered that he would need to buy some new boots during the forthcoming football season. His buying decision was accelerated by his desire to fulfil a perceived future need.

The compensatory impulse is described as a way of rewarding oneself for completing other tasks that have been irksome or arduous. Bayley and Nancarrow (1998) explained that

impulsive buying as a compensation and reward features strongly in their self-scripts-approach especially from female respondents. One common behaviour observed was that of buying shoes, clothes, or personal cosmetics that is not objectively needed but may address a self-esteem deficit. If a consumer fails to find the right style of what she wants, she might resort to create a partial plan ó that of buying other items as a mark of compensation. This is because to return home empty-handed not only looks like a wasted shopping trip but also undermines the very self-esteem and connectedness that shopping as behaviour is meant to deliver.

The self-script approach of Bayley and Nancarrow (1998) also discovered breakthrough impulse purchase and explained that it involves high expenditure items such as jewellery, cars, furniture, houses. This type of purchase tends to have a higher than usual level of social status, symbolic markers. Their findings suggested that respondents felt taken by surprise in their decision to buy, that the purchase outcome was not consciously anticipated as a possibility and they did not set out with a predisposition to be open to such an occurrence, or even, subconsciously, to seek it out. Such purchases are symbols of a change in status and the need for self definition. This style was illustrated in the buying action of a consumer who went out to buy a set of car keys and eventually bought a new car during the shopping trip. Bayley and Nancarrow observed that this type of impulse purchase can often be seen as resolving an underlying conflict and moving the individuals forward, symbolizing a significant step or change in life.

Furthermore, findings of Bayley and Nancarrowøs self-script approach suggested that some impulse purchases could be done blindly. They observed that the categories of accelerator, compensatory and breakthrough impulse all suggest that impulsive behaviour does have an underlying purpose and that it fulfils needs of either a functional, social or psychological nature. But there are other purchases that appear to lack explanation. Items bought under blind impulse share the characteristics of being irresistible, urgent, and exciting but in retrospect their purchase

is likely to be more dysfunctional than functional. In one of the friendship pair approaches, Bayley and Nancarrow discovered that two female friends walked into a shop and bought some plastic kitchen wares that caught their eyes. On getting home, they realized that they did not have any use for such items. They explained that blind impulse purchases are less frequent, and are best explained in terms of a dysfunctional captivation. On the other hand, accelerator and compensatory impulse purchases seem to be of a higher frequency of occurrence and are often of established and repeated behaviour. Although an intention to buy only comes into focus at the moment of seeing the product, there is an underlying predisposition to put them into the situation where this impulse can be triggered.

# Consumer Behaviour

Consumer behaviour is defined by Berman and Evans (1986) as the process whereby individuals decide whether, what, when, where, how, and from whom to purchase goods and services. It is a basic concept that underlies marketing decision making. Since the aim of the retailer is to satisfy the consumer, understanding his behaviour becomes a paramount concern of the retailer. According to Kotler (2003), the retailer must get to know how consumers select, buy, use and dispose of goods, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy their needs or desires. Neo-classical economic theory is based on normative models of consumer choice and anticipates that consumers behave rationally and consistently with economic principles. But Thaler (1980) argued that in reality consumers regularly violate economic principles in their decisionómaking and research confirms that normative models fail to predict consumer behaviour. It is important for the retailer to understand consumer behaviour through the study of their buying motives and needs.

Lancaster and Massingham (1993) described consumers as having very complex behaviour. Similarly, Kotler (2003) said that understanding consumer behaviour and õknowing himö is never simple. In the same vein, Stanton (1981) observed that very little is known about

what goes on in a buyer¢s mind, before, during, and after a purchase. Obi (2002) also noted that little is known about why consumers buy the products and services they do. Furthermore, Kotler and Armstrong (2001) asserted that it is not so easy to learn about the whys of consumer buying behaviour because often times, the answers are locked up within his head. The greatest concern of the retailer is how the consumer responds to the various marketing efforts he might use. Alderton (2008) observed that understanding the emotions of the consumer allows the marketer to design marketing strategies which trigger the desired emotions in their customers. He added that even though there are entire industries built on researching consumer tastes, trends, and buying habits, yet customers remain a complete mystery to many business owners.

Stanton (1981) reported that marketers have been able to develop some generalizations about the individual and group factors that influence consumer buying behaviour. These factors include psychological, cultural, social, and personal factors. Psychologically, a consumeros buying choices are influenced by four major factors namely: motivation, perception, learning, and beliefs and attitudes. A motive is defined by Stanton as a stimulated need that an individual seeks to satisfy. Kotler (2003) described motive as a need that is sufficiently pressing to drive the person to act. It is an aroused need. Motive in turn acts as a force that activates behaviour intended to satisfy that aroused need. What shapes the consumers behaviour and determines the direction of his behaviour is his perception. According to Stanton (1981), perception is the meaning we attribute on the basis of past experience or to stimuli as received through our five senses. The consumeros behaviour, according to this theory could be influenced by physical perceptions such as shape, colour, sound, smell, and taste of stimuli. Retailers must therefore recognize that consumers are exposed to a tremendously large number of stimuli and must do something special and unique to attract their attention especially to induce impulse buying action.

Learning on the other hand, involves changes in an individualøs behaviour arising from experience. Most human behaviours are learned. Learning theorists believe that learning is produced through the interplay of drives, stimuli, cues, responses, and reinforcement. Through doing and learning, Kotler and Armstrong (2001) observed that people acquire beliefs and attitudes. These also influence buying behaviour. Retailers must be interested in the beliefs people have about their products.

Culture is another major influence on consumer behaviour. How consumers perceive things 6 how they think, believe, and act 6 could be determined to a great extent by their cultural surroundings and then various groups of people with whom they interrelate. Culture is defined by Stanton (1981) as the complex of symbol and artefacts created by man and handed down from generation to generation as determinants and regulators of human behaviour in a given society. Actually, much of consumer behaviour is determined by their socio-cultural institutions such as family, schools, churches, and languages. Social class to which a consumer belongs might also influence his perception and buying behaviour. Such groups include reference groups, family, and social rules and statutes. Kotler and Armstrong (2001) described the reference groups as consisting of all the groups that have direct influence on a personøs attitudes and behaviour. They could be family, friends, neighbours, co-workers (primary groups) and religious, professional and trade associations (secondary groups). Kotler and Armstrong added that personal factors such as age and stage in the life-cycle, occupation, and economic circumstances, life-style as well as personality and self-concept have great impact on consumer buying behaviour.

### Retail Store Location and its Influence on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour

Store location is a major element in the retail mix which plays a significant role in meeting consumer needs and shopping convenience. It forms a major decision that the retailer has to make when setting up his outfit. It is often considered that in designing an effective store

environment, the store location or site should be a paramount area of decision. Hawkins, Best, and Coney (1989) agreed that it is because store location is an important attribute for consumerøs decision as to where to shop. Kotler and Keller (2005) observed that retailers are accustomed to saying that the three keys to success are õlocation, location, locationö, and that they exercise great care in selecting locations.

The notion that one of the most significant features of the total product is the place where it is bought or consumed was explored by Kotler (1973). Kotler explained that the atmosphere of the place is more influential than the product itself in the purchase decision. According to Kotler, the store atmosphere is the effort to design buying environments to produce specific emotional effects in the buyer that enhances his or her purchase probability. Other experts also agree that the location of a store can make or mar the success of the business. For instance, a store can offer high quality products, excellent customer service and considerably low prices but fails because it is not sited where its target customers can conveniently visit. Osuala (1998) corroborated this by saying that in some cases, being in the right place is as important as good services, appropriate merchandise, and effective merchandising techniques.

Store location is described by James, et al (1981) as the physical site of a retail business which may be a leased space, or an existing building purchased by the retailer, or a new structure built by the retailer to specification. It represents the store site within a specific geographical area. Apart from non-store retail outlets, all other retail outlets such as departmental stores, chain stores, supermarkets, discounters, kiosks, multiple shops, market stalls, and shopping centres offer a location where customers go to shop.

McGoldrick (2001) argued that store location decisions are probably the single most crucial element of retailing strategy and that they represent long term investment decisions which, if incorrect, are very difficult to change. He added that while good locations cannot alone compensate for a weak overall strategy, a poor location is a very difficult deficit to overcome.

Furthermore, McGoldrick observed that bad location decisions undermine the asset value of the retail organization, making such stores have difficulty in selling. For instance, Osuala (1998) observed that part of the problems of small independent retailers in Nigeria is their inability to find a good location and a good site that is readily accessible to customers. According to him, too often, business locations are selected without proper study, investigation, and planning. Osuala concluded that for a small business owner, the location issue is much too critical to the success of his business to leave to chance. Therefore a retailer must identify the most attractive geographical area or community within which to locate his store.

McCarthy and Perreaut (1991) stressed that a convenient location depends on the target market, the competitors and the cost. On the other hand, Gullespie and Hecht (1977) identified type of store operation, merchandise and customer as essentials of store location needs of a retailer. Similarly, Brown (1992) postulated that the retail location decisions must address both macro and micro issues often depicted in three stages. These include search which implies identifying geographical areas that may have market potential; viability which involves evaluating the turnover potential of the best available sites; and micro which involves examining the detailed features of the short listed sites. Brown observed however that not all location decisions pass through this sequence. McCarthy and Perreaut believe that the retailer needs to segment the market in order to be able to define his target customers. They stressed that in so doing, the retailer can make a more laudable decision regarding where he locates his store.

Assael (1990) also observed that retail store location should be selected in affluent areas of the city. He stated that market characteristics such as population size, population density, income level, and household composition should also be considered in making store location decision. Even though the above factors are important, Osuala (1998) argued that the value of a location may change over time. For that reason, retailers must re-evaluate their store positions periodically. According to Osuala, factors beyond the retailers control such as population shifts,

new highways, changes in the type of residents in the neighbourhood, changes in the type of commercial establishments in the immediate area may affect the continued appropriateness of a location.

Leach (1989) asserted that stores today are commonly located within the town centres and shopping precinct which are usually handy and accessible to customers. However, this is only applicable to stores which fall under the store location category that Osuala (1998) described as planned shopping centres. In planned shopping centres, the site, the number, type and architectural design and many other aspects of the centre are planned. On the other hand, Osuala defined the unplanned shopping areas as concentrations of stores that grow as a result of independent decisions by individual store owners. They reflect no coordinated effort to allocate space, optimize the number of stores handling various types of merchandise, provide parking facilities, or unify the architectural design. Osuala observed that most of the shopping areas, street or roadside stores in Nigeria fall in this category.

Furthermore, Levy and Weitz (1998) identified three basic sites that are open to retailers of the central business district, a shopping centre, and a free-standing location. The retailers can also choose carts, kiosks, retail merchandising units to locate their stores. James, Durand and Dreves (1976) described the central business district as a traditional location for retail establishments in the downtown area of a city. They mentioned department stores, specialty shops and a limited number of convenience stores as examples that could be found in central business districts. More middle and upper income consumers love to live in the downtown area to avoid congestion, pollution, crime and high traffic. So retailers also take advantage of this movement and site their stores there. Mason, Meyer and Ezell (1991) observed that some people prefer to shop in the downtown stores because of better delivery service, more convenient transportation and the availability of non-shopping facilities such as financial institutions.

Customers in the lower income group and those without transportation or those who live near the area shop in the outlets closest to their homes.

Levy and Weitz (1998) argued that the central business district has its own disadvantages. The authors said that retailers are less attracted to the central business district because they have to engage very high security service. Other problems they identified include the fact that shoplifting is very common, parking is a problem, there is a high rate of crime, as well as lack of planning. These problems are capable of influencing the customers buying behaviour. If customers cannot patronize the stores due to these problems, planned and unplanned buying cannot take place.

Shopping centres are described by Levy and Weitz (1998) as a group of retail and other commercial establishments that are planned, developed, owned and managed as a single property. Bovee and Thill (1992) added that the centre houses both small and large-scale retailers in one geographical location with parking facility. James et al (1976) also defined shopping centre as consisting of a planned facility under single ownership that provides a coordinated variety of outlets. For McCarthy and Perreaut (1991), a shopping centre is a unit that satisfies some market needs. Shopping centres provide an assortment of merchandise that often exceeds the central business district. According to Mason et al (1991) shopping centres provide customers the following shopping convenience:

- (a) Children can be taken to such places easily;
- (b) Friends easily meet at such centres;
- (c) There is a controlled climate which provides a social atmosphere for shoppers;
- (d) Little walking is required and is relatively safe;
- (e) Provides convenient store hours and wider selection of merchandise;
- (f) Provides easy access to customers.

The above features therefore provide the retailer the opportunity to benefit from both planned purchases and impulse buying, especially from customers who visit the shop in company of children and friends.

Levy and Weitz (1998) classified shopping centres into neighbourhood shopping centre, community shopping centre, and regional shopping centre. According to Levy and Weitz, neighbourhood shopping centre is designed to provide convenience shopping for day-to-day needs of consumers in the immediate neighbourhood. James et al (1976) also described community shopping centre as having 25 ó 30 tenants usually including both a departmental store and a supermarket often constructed around a pedestrian mall. It provides a considerable parking space and draws customers from a much larger area than a neighbourhood centre. Regional centre on the other hand, is described by Levy and Weitz as the shopping centre which provides general merchandise services in full depth and variety to customers.

The free-standing location is also open to the retailer to site his store. Bovee and Thill (1992) described the free-standing store as a store that is neither part of a planned shopping centre nor in the main downtown shopping district but has its own separate building. It may be located along a main road line with other freestanding retail shops, or may stand alone without neighbouring stores. The advantage of the central business district and the shopping centre over the free-standing stores according to Bovee and Thill is that customers can shop in a number of stores within a location than they do in a free-standing store location. Thus, it requires the retailer in a free-standing store to offer the customers something special in merchandise, price, promotion, or service to get them into the store. The retailer therefore is at liberty to choose from any of these types of location to site his store. His decision must be based on pedestrian and vehicle traffic (easy accessibility), distance of prospective shoppers and number of competitive retailers in the area (Asael, 1990). For instance, Bruner and Mason (1968) found that a consumer selection of the shop he goes to is often influenced by the distance of that shop

from the consumerøs residence. They observed that the farther away a shopping centre or store is, the less likely a customer will buy from it. Thus, in making shopping decision as to where to shop, the consumer is likely to prefer stores that are close by, convenient, save time, and have parking ease. According to Mowen (1995), even if a store is a distance away but has parking ease, holds high quality merchandise and there is ease of driving to the store, the distance might seem shorter to the customer than it actually is.

# Retail Store Design and its influence on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour

The store design is another variable that can easily influence the consumer decision to buy from a store either as planned or unplanned. Store design is defined by McGoldrick (2001) as the general atmosphere of the store including visual aspects that have to do with the layout and organization of the store and its display features. According to McGoldrick, fixtures and fittings, lighting, wall shelves, space, air conditioning, sounds and visual sets, fragrance, are all attributes of the store design. Lewison and Delozier (1988) described these features as attractors and interceptors which can easily encourage consumers spontaneous decision to buy. As an important element of store design, Rook (1987) observed that the display feature has great influence on the consumer behaviour and can be responsible for impulse buying decision.

The store layout is essentially an element to consider in creating the right shopping atmosphere for the target market. Okeke (2004) observed that customers tend to stay longer, buy more, and return frequently to a store they find warm, attractive, and comfortable. Samson, et al (1982) defined a store layout as the physical arrangement of a store for selling, displaying, storing, receiving, and delivery of goods. Mowen (1995) also defined store layout as the physical organization of store that creates specific traffic pattern, assist in the presentation of merchandise and helps to create a particular atmosphere. Similarly, Peter and Olson (2002) defined store layout as the basic floor plan and display of merchandise within a store.

The store layout not only affects customer movement in the store, but also influences the way merchandise are displayed. Stores must be designed to fit an image. Okeke (2004) maintained that store layout should be able to entice customers to move around the store to purchase more merchandise than they may have originally planned. She added that customers should be exposed to a layout that facilitates a specific traffic pattern. Thus, Levy and Weitz (1992) suggested that customers should be enticed to follow what amounts to a yellow brick road. What they mean here is a layout that can almost force customers to move through sections of inexpensive impulse purchase products to larger, more expensive goods. They advised that retailers should provide variety of merchandise that can aid customers to move through the store.

Layout determines how long the customer stays in the store, how many products he comes into visual contact with and what routes he travels within the store. Thus, Gagnon and Osterhaus (1985) observed that the location of items within a store has an important influence on the purchase of both product categories and brands. The more visible products are in the store, the greater chance they will be purchased. Store layout can easily influence consumer reaction and his buying behaviour. For instance, Mowen (1995) observed that the placement of store aisles can influence traffic flow and the location of items and departments relative to traffic flow can dramatically influence sales. If the retailer must attain his overall goal of maximizing profit through increased sales, he must plan a store design that is inviting and attractive as well as provide the customers the freedom to move around and the convenience to select the items they need. It is on this premise that Lewison and Delozier (1988) recommended that the retailer should consider the following features among other things when designing his sales floor. These include:

- (a) The type of display shelves, tables, counters, fixtures, etc.
- (b) The size and shape of fixtures
- (c) The arrangement of displays and fixtures

- (d) The width and length of traffic aisles, and
- (e) The positioning of merchandise groups.

Similarly, Mason et al (1991) recommended that the retailer should consider among other things the following features as part of layout plan for his shop: the overall arrangement of the store, space for selling departments and sales-support services, and evaluate space productivity.

Lewison and Delozier (1988) also suggested that the retailer should consider both vertical and horizontal dimensions of the store when designing a store layout. The vertical dimension is made up of the floor location and the shelve position. They suggested the eye level as the best shelve level for displaying merchandise. This, according to them is to enable the retailer attract new and additional sales. On the other hand, Lewison and Delozier said that the horizontal dimension of the store should include in-store location and display location. They further stated that the right place within a store for a product, service or a display is either the front of the store, the back, along the sides, or in the centre of the store. They maintained that the retailer could also use attractors and interceptors strategy to draw customers into the entire length of the store. For instance, merchandise such as menøs suits, womenøs wear, furniture, appliances, etc could be placed in the back of the store to act as attractors to draw customers through the entire length of the store. In the process, customers are intercepted by sections carrying complementary products such as shirts, scarves, jewellery and other impulse products.

Several types of layout are commonly used by retailers such as racetrack design, grid design, and free-form design (Levy and Weitz, 1998). According to them, racetrack layout is a type of store layout that provides a major aisle to facilitate customer traffic. The racetrack design, they noted encourages impulse purchase because when customers go round the racetrack, their eyes are forced to take different viewing angles rather than looking down on the aisle. The grid design according to Levy and Weitz is a rectangular arrangement of display that run parallel to one another. All counters and fixtures are at right angles to each other. Peter and Olson (2002)

noticed that grid design is designed to increase the number of products a consumer comes into visual contact with, thus increasing the probability of purchase. The free-form design, according to Mason et al (1991), presents merchandise and allows an unobstructed flow of customer traffic. The free-form pattern is designed for customer convenience and exposure to merchandise. The design allows customers to move in any direction and wander freely thus encouraging browsing and impulse purchase. Lusch et al (1990) listed some advantages of free form layout to include allowance for browsing and wandering freely, increased impulse purchases, visual appeal, and flexibility. He also noted that there could be some disadvantages such as loitering, possible confusion, waste of floor space, cost and difficult to clean.

The storeøs layout of fixtures and fittings must also be considered. Cox and Britain (1993) described four main forms of fixtures and fittings that may be used as part of the store design. These are:

- (a) Wall fixtures consisting usually of shelves but sometimes made up of hooks (for bagged stationery items), browsers (for records and greeting cards) and other specialist types of fittings, some of which can be used for freestanding.
- (b) Freestanding gondola (walk around) or browser units, with shelve (often adjustable), binning, racking, etc. Many shelves have slotted edges so as to carry price tickets for the merchandise displayed.
- (c) Special containers and stands such as wire dump bins and spinners (circular freestanding racks that may be rotate-able) for lines displayed as a special promotion.
- (d) Refrigerated cabinets of various designs for the sale of frozen foods, meat, fish, provision, and fruit drink, etc. These can be placed against the wall or freestanding.

Lewison and Delozier (1988) stated that for the physical exterior of a retail store to accomplish its goals of attracting and inviting customers to shop, a customer must be able to see the store. They suggested that a store should be set back far enough to give passers- by a broad

perception to the entire store, but close enough to let them read major signs and see any window display. Lewison and Delozier also maintained that in positioning the store, a retailer should place the building at an angle to the traffic artery that maximizes exposure. The stores front should be designed to stop and attract potential customers. It should face the major traffic artery. What this implies is that the retailer should position his store where consumers can clearly see and are able to enter. This suggestion agrees with what Richert (1947) postulated about store frontage. Richert said that store front should be designed to encourage a passer-by to have interest in the stores merchandise and to lead him inside. A pleasing external appearance of a store, Richert noted, suggests to the prospective customer that the goods and services offered are of a high quality. He suggested that the store decoration and physical design should be attractive enough to impress upon potential customers.

Similarly, Markin (1977) noted that to create an atmosphere conducive to buying, a retailer should establish in the consumer a frame of mind that promotes a buying spirit. Consumers, regardless of their principal shopping motives are drawn to safe, attractive, and comfortable shopping environments. He suggested that the store atmosphere should be an agreeable environment for both the consumer and the retailer. The environment should provide congenial, yet stimulating surrounding for customers and salespeople through appropriate layout, fixtures, illumination, colour, space utilization, music, and scent. Markin observed that consumers tend to pay attention to stimuli that are visually attractive and those that are relevant to activated needs.

# Retail Store Merchandise Display and its Influence on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour

Merchandise display is another important element of the retail store design. Merchandise in the retail store should be positioned in particular ways to aid customer selection and stimulate sales. 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. Gagnon and Osterhaus (1985) stated that the location of items

within a store has an important influence on the purchase of both product categories and brands. The more visible a product is the greater the chance of being purchased. Thus, Gagnon and Osterhaus suggested that the best place to shelve merchandise is at the eye level in order to attract new and additional sales. In the same way, Cox and Britain (1993) maintained that the manner in which merchandise is displayed and presented to the customer in a retail store is a vital element of the selling process. They observed that a good display catches the customerøs eyes the moment he enters the store and subsequently brings about high stock turnover. Furthermore, Cox and Britain suggested that for a retail store to achieve high stock turnover, merchandise positioning should be done in the following ways:

- (a) Principal merchandise section should be prominently labelled by clear over head signs.
- (b) All merchandise sections should be accessible to the customer.
- (c) All merchandise must be clearly and correctly priced.
- (d) Every-day purchases like canned fruit, vegetables should be placed near the entrance.
- (e) Merchandise should be categorized by customer intention to buy into the three broad lines;
  - (i) Demand lines such as staple merchandise that are often bought spontaneously e.g. bread.
  - (ii) Browser lines meant to remind customers of their presence on open display e.g. greeting cards.
  - (iii) Impulse lines which attract customers to buy on the spot without prior intent e.g. confectionery.
- (f) Careful placing of basic demand lines to help draw customers to all parts of the store
- (g) Control of all promotional displays
- (h) Heavy and bulky goods placed near the end of the in-store.

(i) Display (except for seasonal lines) should not be changed too often as it tends to annoy the customer.

Similarly, Howe (1992) stated that it is important that merchandise be classified and displayed according to the following categories: impulse goods, convenience goods, necessities and staple goods, utility goods and luxury or major expensive goods. This arrangement, he maintained, implies that the method of display varies with the nature of goods themselves and should be neatly and orderly done so that it does not create confusion in a customers mind. Richert (1947) observed that the retailer should understand that in order to satisfy their psychological feelings, the customers prefer serene store environment ó its location, design, fixtures and fittings. They want to always shop in such places where they feel their social profile is enhanced. They further noted that the consumers draw satisfaction not only in the merchandise or service but also in store environment.

Cox and Brittain (1993) observed that a good display continues to catch the customerøs eyes the moment he enters the store. Cox and Brittain further maintained 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.

Levy and Weitz (1998) postulated three types of display area in a large retail store including feature areas, bulk of stock, and walls. They described the feature areas as those designed to get the customer¢s attention such as end caps, promotional aisles, freestanding fixtures, windows, and point-of-sale areas. End caps are located at the end of an aisle. End caps have high visibility and can be used to feature special promotional items. A promotional aisle is

used similarly to an end cap while the freestanding fixtures located on aisles are designed to primarily get customersøattention and bring them to impulse items.

Windows are clearly external feature of a store, but they can be an important component of the store layout. If properly used, Levy and Weitz observed, window display can help draw customers into the store. They provide a visual message about the type of merchandise for sale in the store and the type of image the store portrays. The use of point-of-sale areas is another captivating feature of the store display which is capable of captivating the customer due to the way and manner the items are displayed. It is done in such a way that while the customer might be waiting at the check out point, he is induced by the display of impulse items such as candies, magazines, batteries, and biscuits. Even though he did not need these things, the wait at the check out point bores him, so he spends the extra time shopping.

Levy and Weitz (1998) also described the bulk of stock area as a store area that contains the total assortment of merchandise, usually on gondolas in grocery and discount stores, and freestanding fixtures. Levy and Weitz described gondola as an island type of self-service counter with tiers of shelves, bins, or pegs. They also described wall space as a display feature that can be used by retailers to economize the use of store space. Merchandise could be displayed on walls but must be at the reach of the customers.

When items in store are strategically located, they draw the customer into the store and facilitate purchase of impulse and complimentary goods. Thus, Levy and Weitz (1998) listed a number of merchandise presentation techniques which a retailer can adopt. These are:

(a) Idea-oriented presentation in which items are presented based on a specific idea or image of the store. For instance, furniture could be combined and arranged in room settings to give the customer an idea of how it would look like in his home. Individual items are grouped to show customers how they could be used and combined. This approach encourages the customer to make multiple and complimentary purchases.

- (b) Style or item presentation in which discount stores, grocery stores, hardware stores, and drug stores employ for nearly every category of merchandise. When customers look for a particular type of merchandise such as a sweater, they expect to find all items in the same location.
- © Colour presentation in which items of similar colour are displayed together to let customers know that the store is where they can get the colour of materials they need.
- (d) Price lining technique in which merchandise are organised in price categories. It helps customers to easily find merchandise at the price they wish to pay.
- (e) Vertical merchandising technique in which merchandise are presented vertically using walls and high gondolas. Stores can effectively organize merchandise to follow the eyeøs natural movement. Many grocery stores put national brands at eye level and store brands on lower shelves because customers scan from eye level downward.
- (f) Tonnage merchandising technique in which large quantities of merchandise are displayed together. Since customers equate tonnage with low price, this technique is used to enhance and reinforce a store@s price image.
- (g) Frontal presentation being a method of displaying merchandise in which the retailer exposes as much of the product as possible to catch the customer's eyes. For instance, book retailers often face the book cover out like a billboard to catch the customer's attention. A similar frontal presentation is achieved on a rack of apparel by simply turning one item out to show the merchandise.

In deciding which is the best technique, the retailer must first consider certain issues such as displaying merchandise in a manner consistent with the store image; the nature of the product; packaging; and products profit potential. For instance, some stores display menos shirts by size, so that all shirts with sizes 15 ó 34 for instance are displayed together. Others keep all colour and style combinations together. This has to do with the store image. On the

other hand, jeans could easily be displayed in stacks while skirts are hung so that the customer can easily examine their design and style.

Whatever presentation technique the retailer adopts must be well planned. He must decide where to locate departments and merchandise within departments. For instance, Levy and Weitz (1998) suggested that merchandise could be in relative locations: impulse products location such as fragrance, cosmetics and candies located in front of the store; demand/destination areas, so called because demand for them is created before the customers get to their destination; as well as seasonal needs such as winter coats located near sportswear.

# Retail Store Merchandise Assortment and its Influence on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour

The assortment of items held by a store is another major element of the retail mix which can easily be used to influence consumer buying decision. 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) further described merchandise as the most important element of the retail mix because this is what customers require, why they visit a retail store, and what generates profit to the retailer. Cox and Brittain observed that while some retailers make use of product in place of merchandise, many others prefer the use of merchandise and that is why the term omerchandiseo is common in retailing than product. Thus, they defined product the same as merchandise as anything that can be offered to a market that might satisfy a need or a want. This includes both physical objects and services. Similarly, Kotler (1991) described product as the focus of an exchange process wherein customers exchange cash for satisfaction. Kotler and Keller (2005) classified product as comprising of consumer goods, industrial goods. Consumer goods are made up of convenience goods, shopping goods, specialty goods and unsought goods. Industrial goods include materials and parts, capital items (installations, equipment), supplies and business services.

In order to explicate the levels on which this satisfaction may or may not be delivered,

Kotler (1991) used a five-level product concept which include:

- (a) Core benefit ó as the fundamental service or benefit being purchased.
- (b) Generic product ó as the material properties which deliver the core benefit.
- (c) Augmented product ó as the package which includes additional services and benefits that distinguish the companyøs offering from competitorsø
- (d) Potential product ó as the augmentations and transformations that the product might endure in the future.

Osuala (1998) corroborated this by stating that the definition of a product can be expanded to include actual product and all the peripheral factors that contribute to a consumer satisfaction. He further gave example of an individual who buys a colour television set as buying more than the tangible object, that the consumer buys the engineering, reputation of the firm, the guarantee, delivery service, the brand name, and the prestige of owning the product. Osuala classified consumer products as convenience, shopping, and specialty products.

Convenience product is described by Hart (2001) as those consumer goods which the customer purchases frequently, immediately, and with a minimum of effort. She also described shopping goods as those consumer goods which the customer, in the process of selection and purchase, characteristically compares on such bases as suitability, quality, price and style. On the other hand, specialty goods are defined by Osuala (1998) as those products which the consumer will be willing to go to considerable effort to secure such as cars. 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.

Merchandise management, otherwise known as merchandising is defined by Levy and Weitz (1998) as the process by which a retailer attempts to offer the right quantity of the right merchandise in the right place at the right time while meeting the organisation s financial goal. Similarly, Bovie and Thill (1992) defined merchandising as the process of planning merchandise assortment for a retail store, making sure that the right products are available for target customers. The retailer is, however, limited by the amount of money available for merchandise and the space in the store. He must decide whether to carry a large variety of different types of clothing (categories) for instance, dresses, blouses, and jeans, or carry fewer categories but a larger assortment of more styles and colours within each category. He may also decide how many back-up stocks to carry for each item. The more backup stock, the less likely he is to run out of a particular item. On the other hand, if he decides to carry a lot of backup stock, he will have less money available to invest in a deeper assortment or in more categories. The process, according to them, involves making decisions about balanced stocks, merchandise breadth and depth and similar assortment considerations such as price, size, colour, and style. The decisions are often based on information about customer needs, and the availability of certain products to the retailer. To corroborate this view, Cox and Brittain (1993) asserted that the most quoted definition of merchandising, attributed to Gordon Selfridge, is to have the right goods at the right time, in the right place, in the right quality, and at the right price.

Merchandising process in retailing according to Cox and Brittain (1993) covers the selection, purchase, stock management and display of a range of products whose successful sale will achieve the marketing objectives of the business in terms of the six rights of merchandising.

The six rights are the type, quantity, price, and quality of the merchandise, as well as time, and place of sale. Cox and Brittain explained that the type of merchandise offered by a retailer is probably the major determinant of the business of the retailer, and the variety of merchandise will have a major impact on how the customer perceives the store. Furthermore, they asserted that the amount of merchandise they order into the store at any particular time must be related to the demand for it. This view agrees with the opinion of Samson, et al (1982) who suggested that if a retailer must maintain a balanced stock of merchandise, he must keep specific list of items based on consumer needs.

When positioning the retail store, the choice of product, the depth and breadth of product line, and the number and selection of items are important elements of merchandise assortment of the store. The variety of product is defined by Levy and Weitz (1998) as the number of different merchandise categories that a retailer offers. They also defined assortment as the number of different items in a merchandise category. Variety covers the different types of merchandise that the retail store holds. These varieties may come in different assortments such as in models, sizes, brands and colours. Levy and Weitz therefore referred to merchandise variety as of the breadth of merchandiseo and merchandise assortment as the odepth of merchandiseo.

By merchandise breadth, Levy and Weitz (1998) refer to the number of merchandise lines carried by a store. Some retail stores carry many lines of merchandise and have a broad assortment of product within each line; other stores carry one or few lines with limited selection. For instance, a retailer dealing with footwear may choose to sell only womenow shoes while another retailer may combine menow shoes, womenow shoes as well as childrenow shoes in addition to handbags, and accessories. On the other hand, Samson et al (1982) described merchandise depth as the quality of goods carried in the various colours, sizes, styles, and prices. A retailer may offer an assortment of beverages such as Milo, Ovaltine, and Burnvita in different sizes (small, medium, and big). These items are the assortment of the beverages in small, medium,

and big categories. The retailer may adopt this type of policy in order to meet the buying needs of different classes of customers, the rich and the poor, and even those who have brand addiction as well as impulse buyers.

Since the retailer is limited by the amount of money available for merchandise and the space in the store, he must plan his merchandise assortment to be within his available resources. Levy and Weitz (1998) defined assortment plan as making a list of merchandise that indicates in very general terms what should be carried in a particular merchandise category. They suggested that the retailer must decide whether to carry a large variety of different types of product or carry fewer categories but a larger assortment of more styles and colours within each category. For instance, an assortment plan for girlsø dresses would include the average number and percentage of each style, fabric, colour, and size combination that the retailer would have an inventory.

Levy and Weitz (1998) considered that the merchandising process is a very difficult task especially for the large scale retailers and so suggested that they should embrace category management. They stated that many large scale organizations divide responsibility for buying merchandise between a buyer (category manager) and a merchandise planner. Although a category manager is more than a buyer in the traditional sense, the terms, according to Levy and Weitz could be used interchangeably. The category manager oversees every aspect of the merchandising function. For instance, he is responsible for working with vendors, selecting merchandise, pricing merchandise, and coordinating promotions with the advertising department and stores. The merchandise planner, on the other hand, is responsible for buying the correct quantities of each item, allocating those items to stores, monitoring sales, and suggesting markdowns. The two work as merchandising team for the store. Thus, Levy and Weitz stated that by using category management, all activities and responsibilities associated with assortment plan come under the control of the buyer and his staff. It is also important that a small scale

retailer who is owner-operator of his store should organize his buying activities around categories to maintain an orderly buying process.

Retailers cannot be financially successful unless they pre-plan the financial implications of their merchandising activities. Merchandise direction for the business has to be set in order to determine categoriesø past performance, trends in the market, merchandise needs for the current and ensuing seasons. Both large and small scale retailers share similar financial planning process even though small retailers do not have many layers of management. One of the major objectives of the merchandise plan according to Levy and Weitz (1998) is that it tells the buyer and the planner how much money to spend on a particular category of merchandise in each month so that the sales forecast and other financial objectives are met. Once the financial plan is set, the buyers and planners develop their assortment plan.

Apart from the breadth and depth of merchandise assortment, Samson et al (1982) suggested that a retailer must also plan the quality of merchandise to be carried. A quality product, according to them, is the merchandise made of excellent materials and constructed with good workmanship, and which are capable of performing well. According to Oakland (1999), quality is often used to signify excellence of a product or service. He stated that quality is simply meeting the customer requirements. Clearly, part of the acceptability of a product or service will depend on its ability to function satisfactorily over a period of time. This aspect of performance is called reliability. Oakland defined reliability of a product or service as its ability to continue to meet the customer requirements. Reliability ranks with quality in importance since it is a key factor in many purchasing decisions where alternatives are being considered. By consistently meeting customer requirements, the product or service is said to delight the customer, a level which Oakland describes as another plane of satisfaction. Owing to this, Oakland observed that retailers who have so well addressed their customer requirements time and time again have been able to create a reputation of excellence for their businesses.

The requirements for meeting the customer requirements may include availability of the product, delivery, reliability, maintainability and cost effectiveness among many other features. The first thing a retailer has to do is to find out what the requirements are (in terms of the customer needs), as well as assess his ability to meet these needs. In a similar opinion, Cox and Brittain (1993) advised that the type of merchandise ordered at any particular time must be related to the demand for it. These decisions must be planned in a merchandise process which Bovie and Thill (1992) described as a process of making sure that the right products are procured and made available to the target customers.

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. According to her, low marginal products are not necessities. They can be purchased with other items or when it is convenient to buy them. They are not the focus or intended purchase of a shopping trip. The need for them is less and as a result, their purchases are most likely unplanned. Examples, according to Hodge, are chewing gum, chocolate bars, and magazines. They are rarely included in shopping list. Similarly, products with short life-span are said to be disposed to impulse buying. These include perishable items consumed more quickly. The high frequency of purchasing them decreases the consumers of need to plan for them; instead they prefer encountering the products in the store and buy them on impulse. In the same way, Hodge discovered that products that are easily stored can drive impulse buying. She gave an example of a consumer who sees a favourite frozen fish on sale in a store and decides to buy because she has a functional freezing system at home even though she did not have the item in her shopping list.

In contrast, Hodge (2004) stated that large or heavy items discourage impulse buying especially if the retailer does not offer delivery service. For example, while shopping for printing paper in an office supply store, a customer notices an office chair with wheels that is reasonably priced and can conveniently replace his current chair with broken wheels; the shopper may be tempted to buy the new chair as a replacement. However, this sudden decision to buy might be affected by thought of the fact that the chair is too heavy to be transported to the office at that particular time. The impulse purchase decision may be discarded unless the retailer is able to provide delivery service. In view of the above circumstances, Hodge advised that the retailer should plan his merchandise to include diverse variety of products that can be bought both as planned and unplanned.

One important thing a retailer must do to maintain a stock of goods that meet his customersøneeds is to develop a buying plan. The buying plan is firmly based on the timing for the purchase and the source of the purchase. Store procurement could be done periodically or regularly considering seasonal changes, stock-outs, and customersørequests among other factors. Cox and Brittain (1993) therefore suggested that the retailer should know (a) what to buy; (b) how much to buy (quantity); (c) from whom to buy (source); and (d) when to buy (timing).

Before an objective buying decision is made, the retailer must study the past performance of the product categories, look at the market trends and try to project his merchandise needs for the ensuing period. He should be able to identify products that customers are disposed to buying on impulse. He thus requires skills in developing an assortment plan. An assortment plan, according to Levy and Weitz (1998) is a list of merchandise that indicates in very general terms what should be carried in a particular merchandise category. What this means is that the store manager should be able to determine the assortment of product that falls within a particular category. Their view on assortment plan is to support what Cox and Brittain (1993) had earlier postulated about knowing what to buy, its quantity, where to buy, and when to buy.

On knowing what to buy, Cox and Brittain (1993) stated that the retailer can rely on past experience, though not very reliable because of changes in fashion and taste. They further stated that the retailer can rely more on the normal accounting and stock control records of the store, external information such as shopping of competitive stores, suppliers, consumer research, and trade fairs. For instance, the stock control records will reveal how a particular category or assortment has been performing in terms of turnover, and the items commonly bought on impulse. This will help the retailer to avoid stocking items that are no longer needed by the consumers or that do not attract customersøbuying attention.

Equally important in deciding what to buy is the need to consider the different economic background of prospective customers and their buying motives. Kruse (2003) observed that meeting the needs of both low income and affluent customers at the same time requires a balance of products and services. He maintained that since there are different types of consumers that visit the retail store with diverse buying motives, the retailer must then consider these diversities and present merchandise that are diverse in terms of their assortments and categories so as to meet the needs of planned and unplanned buyers.

### Price of Merchandise and its Influence on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour

Osuala (1998) defined price as the amount of money (plus possibly some goods) which is needed to acquire in exchange some combined assortment of a product and its accompanying services. Price is defined by Morden (1991) as a value, or a sum of money, at which a supplier of a product or service, and a buyer agree to carry out an exchange transaction. Hasty and Reardon (1997) also defined price as the value assigned to something bought, sold or offered for sale expressed in terms of monetary units. Furthermore, Kotler and Armstrong (2001) defined price as the amount of money customers have to pay to obtain the product. The above definitions therefore imply that price is a very important element of the retail mix. According to Osuala, price is the regulator of the economic system because it influences the prices paid for all factors.

Kotler and Keller (2005) corroborated this by stating that different forms of price are paid for different factors. For instance, rent for apartment, tuition for education, fee to a physician, fare to transporters, rate for utilities, as well as interest for bank loans. All these charges are prices that the consumers of these products or services must pay in exchange. Thus, Osuala stated that the market demand of an item is dependent on the price of the product, and that the price of a product is a determinant factor to the marketing programme of a company.

To set prices effectively, a retailer must determine the role price will play in the business. Thus, Hasty and Reardon (1997) suggested that retailers must set prices of their products such that:

- (a) they sell at a satisfactory rate;
- (b) inventory costs and expenses are covered;
- (c) a desired profit is made;
- (d) customers are treated fairly;
- (e) they can be competitive with stores attempting to serve the same target market.

Morden (1991) stated that prices at which exchange transactions take place may either be fixed to the buyer or negotiable. If fixed to the buyer, Morden explained, the customer either agrees to the price or does not undertake the purchase. On the other hand, if negotiable, the supplier and customer will bargain together until they arrive at a mutually agreed price at which the transaction can take place. Kotler and Keller (2005) also stated that throughout most of history, prices were set by negotiation between buyers and sellers. They reported that setting one price for all buyers is a relatively modern idea that arose with the development of large-scale retailing at the end of nineteenth century. Thus, modern retailing adopts both fixed and negotiable price setting.

Osuala (1998) opined that if marketing job must be done well, a firm must set pricing objectives which include achieving target return on investment, improve market share, prevent

competition, and maximize profit. According to Kotler and Armstrong (2005), the retailer must be conscious of the present-day consumer who is price-conscious and does not want to buy where he must pay higher price. Competition is growing more intense as retailers engage in a fierce battle for market share and consumer loyalty. With price as a major success factor, Hasty and Reardon (1997) observed that those that cut price without cutting service and that use technology intelligently to support buying are the ones that can succeed. They stated that more consumers are becoming bargain-conscious customers and that even though many people have more money than before, they look for good buys. However, Hasty and Reardon observed that not every one buys by price. They explained that stores that offer exclusive goods or those perceived as being of higher quality are still able to attract customers despite a higher than usual price. The name of the store, location, services offered are other things these categories of customers look out for than just price. Apart from this, some kinds of merchandise are less susceptible to being purchased on the basis of price.

Many economists assume that consumers are -price takersø and accept prices at -face valueøor as given. However, Kotler and Keller (2005) argued that marketers now recognize that consumers often actively process price information, interpret prices in terms of their knowledge from prior purchasing experiences, formal communication (advertising, sales calls, and brochures), informal communications (friends, colleagues, and family members), and point-of-sale purchase or online resources. Purchase decisions are therefore based on how the customers perceive prices and what they consider to be the current actual price ó not the marketerøs stated price. Thus, Kotler and Keller suggested that understanding how consumers arrive at their perceptions of prices is an important marketing priority for the retailer. They also maintained that to effectively design and implement pricing strategies, the retailer requires to thoroughly understand consumerøs pricing psychology and a systematic approach to how prices are set, adapted, and changed.

Retail managers rely a great deal on their knowledge of customers and their previous experience in pricing merchandise. In addition, Hasty and Reardon (1997) postulated that an understanding of the basic economic concepts of demand and supply can provide an important foundation for fundamental pricing strategy. They defined supply as the amount of goods that people will be willing to buy at various prices. In the long run, according to them, the price of a product will be at a point where the amount offered for sale at a given price equals the amount demanded at the same price. Hasty and Reardon call this a point of equilibrium. It is characteristic of demand that the higher the price, the lower the quantity consumers will buy of the product and the lower the price, the more the quantity consumers will buy, unless in exceptional conditions. On the other hand, a higher price attracts more of the product into the market and a lower price reduces supply, all things being equal. Therefore, the sensitivity of demand and supply to price will form a good basis for determining merchandise prices. Hasty and Reardon explained that while some of the reactions might be elastic, responding sharply to price changes, others might be inelastic - not having any serious reaction because of price change. Thus, a retailer whose merchandise assortment has an elastic demand because of factors such as availability of substitutes, relative price of the product, income characteristic of the consumer, must be careful in fixing his price, otherwise he risks loosing customers competitors.

Furthermore, McGoldrick and Greenland (1994) gave a general prerequisite for retail success as ability to supply a product for which customers are willing to pay a price which exceeds the cost of the product and which at least some customers will prefer to those of competitors. Osuala (1998) stated that as a result of marketing development in the country, there are various pricing policies which include skimming and penetration pricing policy, psychological pricing policy and flexibility pricing policy. He explained that each of these policies has its own objective. For instance, a retailer who employs price flexibility policy has

the desire to hold market share by adopting a one price policy or a variable price in the market. According to Osuala, a one-price policy obtains when the retailer charges the same price to all customers, and variable price policy obtains when a retailer sells similar quantities to similar buyers at different prices. On the other hand, Kotler (2003) described psychological pricing as a policy that places special emphasis on pricing from the customer's point of view. He identified price lining, prestige pricing, promotional pricing as well as odd-even pricing as examples of psychological pricing policies.

Osuala (1998) explained that for price lining, many sellers believe that buyers are sensitive to large difference in price and so they establish a limited number of prices for selected lines of merchandise. For instance, menøs suits selling at the price levels of #3500, #5200, and #8100. Thus the customer associates low, average and high quality suits with the three price points. Osuala further described prestige pricing as that in which a seller takes advantage of the buyersø belief that price is a sign of product quality especially for the products they cannot easily evaluate. Kotler and Keller (2005) referred to this as price quality inference where many consumers use price as an indicator of quality. They observed that this type of pricing is effective with ego-sensitive products such as perfumes and expensive cars. On the other hand, when buyers respond to special or low prices that indicate that they are receiving bargains (discount) as a result of promotional activity of the seller, the retailer is said to adopt a promotional pricing policy.

Levy and Weitz (1998) defined odd price as a price that ends in an odd number such as #57 or #63. Osuala (1998) observed that odd pricing may attract customers who are money conscious but may repel others. In effect, Levy and Weitz stated that odd-pricing may be most successful for impulse purchase by buyers who think that there is price reduction. An even price on the other hand is the price that ends in an even number such as #300 instead of #299.99. The

odd-even pricing is similar to what Kotler and Keller (2005) referred to as price cues. Kotler and Keller stated that many sellers believe that prices should end in an odd number. This is owing to the fact that many customers see a product priced at #299 instead of #300 as a price in the #200 range rather than #300 range.

Levy and Weitz (1998) observed that retailers have made the pricing problem interesting by adding various numbers to the cost of merchandise. They also observed that in todayøs retail market, two opposing pricing strategies prevail: Everyday Low Pricing (EDLP) and High/Low Pricing (HLP) strategies. Levy and Weitz stated that everyday low pricing strategy stressed continuity of retail prices at a level somewhere between the regular non-sale price and the deep discount sale price of the retailerøs competitors. In other words, Hasty and Reardon (1997) also described the EDLP as a policy that is based on establishing a price level that is below what the consumer might expect for the merchandise. Low price, according to Levy and Weitz, does not necessarily mean the lowest price. They stated that although retailers using EDLP strive for low prices, they are not always the lowest price in the market.

In contrast, the high/low pricing strategy, according to Levy and Weitz (1998), is a strategy in which retailers offer prices that are sometimes above their competitors. EDLP has a number of relative benefits to the retailer. Levy and Weitz observed that retailers who use EDLP are more susceptible to doom if their prices are higher than those of competitors. They therefore warned that EDLP should not be used for all product categories. They suggested that EDLP could be used for brands that enjoy high consumer loyalty and have a high market share in a category. Other practices identified by Levy and Weitz (1998) include:

(a) Coupon ó described as documents that entitle the holder to a reduced price or certain percentage of the actual purchase price of a product or service.

- (b) Rebate ó described as money returned to the buyer based on a portion of the purchase price.
- (c) Leader pricing ó described as a policy in which certain items are priced lower than normal to increase customersøtraffic flow and to boost sales of complementary products.
- (d) Price Bundling ó described as the practice of offering two or more different products or services for sale at one price.
- (e) Multiple-unit pricing ó similar to price bundling except that the products or services are similar rather than different.

Hasty and Reardon (1997) summed up the pricing policy in what they described as three fundamental pricing strategies that a retail store can adopt. These are pricing under the market; pricing above the market; and pricing at the market. They stated that most retailers use the ounder the market pricing strategy to encourage customers, especially the bargain-conscious shoppers to buy from their stores. This strategy implies that there is a downward shift in price below market price through discounting. Hasty and Reardon however observed that this strategy might not be helpful to the retailer if his target market is made up of the value-conscious and price conscious customers. However, for price-conscious customers, they observed that it is an opportunity to buy more items even those outside their buying plan.

Pricing at õunder-the-marketö strategy has three ways in which the retailer can present to his customers. Hasty and Reardon (1997) stated that one way involves pricing goods for a lower than usual mark up. This is the traditional method of discounting. A second way, according to them, is to run many sales before, during, and after selling seasons. Retailers who operate in this way frequently offer leader merchandises which are simply regarded as products that are appealing enough to attract customers to buy from a store. They take a low mark-up on these

goods to generate business and encourage customers to buy on impulse. A third way, Hasty and Reardon added, is with an every day low price which they described as establishing a price level that is below what the consumer might expect for the merchandise.

On the other hand, Hasty and Reardon (1997) described the õabove the market pricing policyö as that which some retailers consistently price merchandise above mark-up. Mark-up is defined by Berkowitz, Kerin, Hartley and Rudelius (1992) as the amount added to the cost price of the product to reach the selling price. Stores that do this, Hasty and Reardon stated, appeal to people who are willing to pay for exclusivity, quality, convenience, and service. They are mostly customers who are value-conscious. Conversely, Hasty and Reardon observed that merchants who price õat the marketö believe that some customers neither look for the lowest prices nor are willing to pay the highest prices when making purchases. These customers consider the convenience and attractiveness of the store, the expertise and attitude of sales people, and the number and kind of services offered.

Berkowitz, et al (1992) observed that the retailer may use the õunder the marketö policy if he discovers that the product has failed to sell at the original mark-up otherwise called the gross margin. It is a common practice by retailers to mark down during festive periods, clearance sales or when approaching year-end. Berkowitz et al stated that customers always take advantage of such sales to make spontaneous buying. However, they warned that the timing for such mark down is very important and should be carefully done in order to maintain an image of quality to convince customers who often use price as an indicator for product quality.

Apart from the general strategies for setting retail prices, Levy and Weitz (1998) added that retail prices could also be set using cost-oriented and demand-oriented approaches. They explained that under the cost-oriented method, the retail price is determined by adding a fixed percentage to the cost of the merchandise. In the demand-oriented method, Levy and Weitz

stated that prices are based on what customers expect or are willing to pay. The cost-oriented method is quick to determine, mechanical, relatively simple to use and is designed to achieve target levels of profit. On the other hand, Levy and Weitz explained that the demand-oriented method is consistent with the marketing concept and by implication considers customersø wants and needs. Levy and Weitz thus recommended that retailers can use both demand-and cost-oriented methods. While the cost-oriented method will be the basis of the pricing strategy, the demand-oriented method would be used to fine-tune the strategy. They added that retailers can start with a price based on their profit goals and perform tasks to determine if it is the most profitable price. The initial price could then be changed according to their findings through a markdown, markdown cancellation, additional mark-up, or additional mark-up cancellation.

Markdown as earlier explained is a reduction in the initial retail price of a commodity or service. Retailers can set the initial mark-up high enough so that after markdown and other reductions are taken, the planned maintained mark-up is achieved. This strategy is adopted by the retailer with the hope that customers will purchase other products and complementary products while in the store as well as get induced to buying items that are not in their shopping list just for reason of price markdown. The retailer can cancel a promotional markdown by raising the retail price slightly above the markdown if he discovers that the promotion has had impact on the market share and shopping traffic. On the other hand, Levy and Weitz (1998) explained that a retailer can undertake additional mark-up to a product by increasing the retail price after an initial mark-up percentage has been applied. He does this when he discovers that he has got a particularly good buy by his customers, and competitors are selling the same product at a price higher than his initial mark-up point. The retailer can subsequently cancel the additional mark-up by cutting down the retail price below the point at which additional mark-up was made if competitors decide to lower their price below the additional mark-up point.

In deciding price setting using any of these approaches, Kotler and Keller (2005) maintained that the consumerøs unpredictable buying behaviour must be taken into consideration. For instance, they observed that generally, most customers are price sensitive to products that cost a lot or are bought frequently. Furthermore, Kotler and Keller explained that some customers are less-price sensitive to low-cost items or items they buy infrequently.

As a new phenomenon, Kotler and Keller (2005) noted that the use of internet has given consumers the potentiality to increase their price sensitivity. In buying a specific book on line, for example, a customer can compare the prices offered by several other booksellers. In contrast, they stated that although the internet increases the opportunity for price-sensitive customers to find lower-price stores, many buyers may not be that price sensitive. Therefore, they recommended that companies need to understand the price sensitivity of customers and prospects and the trade-offs people are willing to make between price and product characteristics. According to Kotler and Keller, this is because targeting only price-sensitive consumers may result in õleaving money on the tableö. They also suggested that the company must first decide where it wants to position its market offering because the clearer a firmos objectives, the easier it is to set price. A companyos objectives could include surviving intense competition, maximizing its current profit, maximizing its market share, maximizing market skimming and product-quality leadership.

Thus, Kotler and Keller (2005) stated that whatever the specific objectives, businesses that use price as a strategic tool are likely to profit more than those who simply let costs or the market determine their pricing. They also stated that despite the increased role of non price factors in modern marketing, price remains a critical element of the marketing mix. Thus, they maintained that companies must carefully manage customer perceptions in fixing prices.

### Customer Service and its Influence on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour

Service is defined by Kotler and Keller (2005) as any act or performance that one party can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything. According to Cox and Brittain (1993) retail organizations offer goods and services to the customer for personal use. While some organizations concentrate on providing primary services such as banks, insurance companies, estate agents, others concentrate on physical products and offer services as a back-up. These back-up services are referred to as complementary services. They are customer services often used strategically to provide a competitive advantage and enhance the retail offering. Levy and Weitz (1998) defined customer service as a set of activities and programmes undertaken by retailers to make the shopping experience more rewarding for their customers. These activities increase the value customers receive from the merchandise and services they purchase. Thus, Christopher (1986) described customer service as the thread that links the logistics and marketing process and that makes the shopping experience of the customer more interesting and rewarding. Cox and Brittain (1993) observed that in recent times, consumers have moved beyond the search for lowest possible prices and are demanding higher service levels. Levy and Weitz observed therefore that in a broad sense, all elements of the retailing mix provide services that increase the value of merchandise. For instance, store location, in-stock position, and assortments all increase customer convenience.

Specifically, the kind of complimentary services expected by customers, according to Cox and Brittain (1993) include delivery, credit, installation, alteration. Bowersox and Closs (2001) also identified other customer services to include order-taking and modification, customer problem solution, prompt attention, order inquiry, prompt delivery, technical information. They stated that what customers expect the firmøs customer service activity to cover is providing

accurate information regarding product availability, delivery time, product substitution, pricing and product customization options.

Furthermore, Levy and Weitz (1998) listed a number of customer services expected of a retail store to include the store appearance, merchandise display, appearance of sales people, providing individual attention to customers, recognizing regular customers, feeling safe in parking lot, being treated confidentially, trustworthiness of salespeople, guarantees and warranties provided, and return policy. Other services, according to them, include explanation of service and its cost, notes to customers informing them of sales and special offers, friendliness of employees with customers, respect shown to customers and interest shown in customers. They added that retail stores should ensure short waiting time to complete sales transaction, convenient operating hours, convenient location, have knowledgeable and skilful employees, give prompt service, ensure billing accuracy, consistent with designated time of opening among others. Carson (2001) corroborated this by stating that customer service generally must include advice and information for customers regarding the technical specifications of a product or service and after sales back-up arrangements and procedures.

Marketing is considered as having a fundamental philosophy which is based around the customer or consumer. In meeting the requirements of the customer, the management of marketing activity must be organized in such a way that it is customer-oriented as well as organizationally efficient (Carson, 2001). Based on this philosophy, many marketing practitioners seek to satisfy every whim of their customers through customer care and satisfaction programmes. The overall purpose of these essential programmes is to gain long-term commitment from customers. Thus, Peters and Austin (1985) observed that there is also a general recognition that consumers who are striving for satisfaction do not simply look for the

end product or service but also draw satisfaction from the completeness of the service interactions and transactions.

Effective customer service, according to Carson (2001) is anchored on the way the merchant cares for the customer. Clutterbuck (1988) defined customer care as a fundamental approach to standards of service quality covering every aspect of a companyos operations from the design of a product or service to how it is packaged, delivered and serviced. According to Carson, the scope of customer care activity will encompass customer experience from the prepurchase, through the purchase period and end with post-purchase follow-up. He explained that pre-purchase activity will consist of building customer awareness and desire through attractive and efficient information flow and distribution. He observed that pre-purchase activity establishes the first bridge-head in organization and customer relationships and serves to encourage and entice the customer towards purchase.

Carson (2001) further explained that the purchase period of customer care is most obviously linked with the core product or service in an integral way. He stated that at this stage, there is considerable requirement for efficiency in processing orders and in the overall order management cycle, paying attention and meeting customer demands in ways which are entirely compatible with the customersø expectations and requirements both in terms of function and time. According to him the post-purchase customer care activity will focus upon efficient follow-up and full completion of the product or service transaction. The eventual purpose of the follow-up activity is to entice the customer to come back for further purchases.

Carson and Gilmore (1989) noted that many aspects of customer care are difficult to measure and evaluate especially those which are intangible in nature. These include individual responsibility for customer care, accessibility and courtesy, responsiveness, willingness to help, congenial atmosphere, good communication, competence of staff, information and advice,

security and confidentiality, and trustworthiness. On the other hand, Carson and Gilmore agreed that some of the elements of customer care activity in a retail store are relatively easy to measure. According to them, such elements are more tangible and they include physical facilities provided in the store, the nature of products and their packages, speed of delivery, credit facilities, repair services, technical support, staff physical appearance, and store image.

How does the customer evaluate the retail service quality is the concern of Levy and Weitz (1998) who noted that customers generally base their evaluations of store services on their perceptions. They observed that while these perceptions are affected by the actual service provided, service, due to its intangibility, is often hard to evaluate. They stated that customer evaluations of service quality are often based on the manner in which store employees provide the service, not just the outcome. Thus, Levy and Weitz narrated the following two situations to illustrate this position. A customer goes to a store to return a toothbrush that is not working properly. In one case, company policy requires the employee to ask the customer for a receipt, check to see if the receipt shows the toothbrush was bought at the store, examine the toothbrush to see if it really doesnot work properly, ask a manager if a refund can be provided, complete some paper work, and finally make refund to the customer in cash the value paid. In a second case, the store employee simply asks the customer how much he paid and gives him a cash refund. In analyzing the two cases, Levy and Weitz stated that both of them have the same outcome i.e. the customer getting back his money, but that the customer might be dissatisfied with the first case because the employee appeared not to trust the customer and took so much time to process the refund.

Customers often form service expectations from many sources such as past experience and advertising. Generally, they compare their perceived service with expected service and get disappointed if the perceived service falls below the expected service. In order to deliver high

service quality, Kotler and Keller (2005) reported a service-quality model formulated by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985). The model, according to them, identifies five gaps that cause unsuccessful delivery including gaps between consumer expectation and management perception, between management perception and service quality specification, between service quality specifications and service delivery. Others include gaps between service delivery and external communications, and between perceived service and expected service. For example, Kotler and Keller explained that there could be a gap between consumer expectation and management perception when management does not correctly perceive what customers want. Thus they stated that the following factors could be used as determinants of service quality:

- (a) Reliability ó ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately.
- (b) Responsiveness ó the willingness to help customers and to provide prompt service.
- (c) Assurance ó the knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence.
- (d) Empathy ó the provision of caring, individualized attention to customers.
- (e) Tangibles ó the appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication materials.

Customers can become very emotional over their real or imaginary problems with a retailer and bring up their complaints. Complaints allow retailers to interact with their customers and acquire detailed information about their service and merchandise. Handling complaints is an inexpensive means to isolate and correct service problems (Levy and Weitz, 1998). Although customer complaints can provide useful information retailers should not solely rely on this source of market information. This is because some customers though dissatisfied, do not really complain. Levy and Weitz suggested that the retailer should adopt a holistic approach in

improving store service in order to minimize dissatisfaction. They further suggested that emotional reaction can be reduced by simply giving customers a chance to get their complaints off their chests.

Cox and Brittain (1993) observed that even in the best run establishment, there will be occasions when a customer is not completely satisfied and has cause to complain. It is here that the truly successful retailer will stand above the competition by converting a dis-satisfied customer to a satisfied one who will return. Cox and Brittain identified some of these complaints as products not being in stock when advertised, unsatisfactory performance of product or unsatisfactory repair or service. Many complaints are easily resolved but require a procedure to deal with them. Levy and Weitz (1998) suggested that store employees should allow customers to air their complaints without interruption because interruptions, according to them, can further irritate customers who may already be emotionally upset. They observed that customers want a sympathetic response to their complaints and store employees need to make it clear that they are happy that the problem has been brought to their attention.

Furthermore, Levy and Weitz (1998) suggested using customer research to attend satisfactorily to their expectations. Retailers can collect information about customer expectations and perceptions and make use of this information to improve service. This approach, according to them, is more effective since service standards should be based on customer perceptions rather than internal operations. Daily suggestions and comments made by customers should be summarized and distributed immediately to store employees and managers. However, Levy and Weitz opined that feedback from salespeople and other employees who are in regular contact with customers could be of immense benefit to the store. This information is capable of improving service quality if it is promptly communicated to the manager who can act on it.

Furthermore, Levy and Weitz (1998) noted that service excellence can only occur when management provides leadership and demonstrates commitment. They observed that service excellence might involve increased cost and some temporary difficulties. Employees who implement service policies and maintain service standard need be noticed and rewarded. They suggested that rather than basing bonuses only on store sales and profit, part of employeesø bonuses should be determined by the level of service provided which is obtained from results of customer satisfaction studies. Levy and Weitz lamented that some customersø complaints can cause emotional reaction among salespeople and so they need emotional support from their coworkers and supervisors. They observed that dealing with customer problems and maintaining a smile in difficult situations are psychologically demanding. Therefore, service providers need to be in a supportive, understanding atmosphere to deal with these demands effectively.

Levy and Weitz (1998) also recommended the use of technology to simplify and improve customer service. For instance, routine repetition tasks can be handled by a system, thus freeing employees to deal with more demanding customer requests and problems. Employees could also be empowered to make important decisions on how service is provided to customers. When they are authorized to take such initiatives, service quality is likely to improve.

One of the elements of customer-oriented shopping experiences that Hodge (2004) identified was the self-service technique. She stated that self-service can lead customers to impulse purchase and give them the liberty to shop more quickly with more freedom to look at, touch, and read product display. Hodge noted that some customers resent being guided by a salesperson and that if allowed to move about freely, it gives them the confidence that they are being trusted.

Cox and Brittain (1993) stated that retailers can use delivery service to induce their customers to buy products they did not plan to buy. If a store provides delivery service, a

customer can decide to buy a heavy item immediately even though he would not originally buy the item due to carriage difficulty. The convenience of carrying the product home is what encourages the customer to buy the product spontaneously.

Parasuraman, et al (1986) developed what they called ten lessons that could be used to maintain and improve service quality in marketing organizations. These include:

- (a) Listening ó Understanding what customers really want through continuous learning about their expectations and perceptions.
- (b) Reliability ó Considering reliability as the single most important dimension of service quality and giving it a priority.
- (c) Basic Service ó Delivering what they are supposed to deliver. Keep promises, listen to customers, keep customers informed and be determined to deliver value to customers.
- (d) Service Design ó Developing a holistic view of the service while managing its many details.
- (e) Recovery ó Encouraging customers to complain whenever they encounter a service problem, responding quickly and personally, and developing a problem solving system.
- (f) Surprising Customers ó Surprising customers with uncommon swiftness, grace, courtesy, competence, commitment, and understanding.
- (g) Team Work ó Delivering service with care and attentiveness by improving employee motivation and capabilities through teamwork.
- (h) Fair Play ó Making special efforts to be fair and to demonstrate fairness to customers and employees.

- (i) Employee Research ó Conducting research with employees to reveal why service problems occur and what company must do to solve the problems.
- (j) Servant Leadership ó Achieving quality service through inspired leadership throughout the organization.

Customers evaluate retail service by comparing their perceptions of the service delivered with their expectations. Thus, Levy and Weitz (1998) stated that in order to improve service, retailers need to close the gaps between the service delivered and the customersøexpectations. This gap, according to them is reduced by knowing what customers expect, setting standards to provide the expected service, providing support so that store employees can meet the standards, and realistically communicating the service offered to customers. Customers could be easily enticed to patronize a store and shop beyond their budget by the quality of customer care service that meets their expectations.

### Promotion and its Influence on Consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

Promotion is an essential activity within marketing. It is described by Osuala (1998) as an ingredient used to inform and persuade the market regarding a company¢s product. Shimp (2000) observed that promotion being one of the key components of the marketing mix is being preferred by most marketing practitioners as well as many educators as marketing communication. Thus, Kotler and Keller (2005) defined marketing communication as the means by which firms attempt to inform, persuade, and remind consumers ó directly or indirectly ó about the products and brands that they sell. According to them, promotion or marketing communication consists of advertising, sales promotion, events and experiences, public relations and publicity, direct marketing, and personal selling.

McGoldrick (2001) observed that among the various elements of promotion, advertising and sales promotion seem to be more commonly used by retail stores. Advertising is defined by Kotler and Keller (2005), Osuala (1998), Cox and Britain (1993) as

any paid form of non personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor. Hasty and Reardon (1997) also defined advertising as a paid presentation of a message on behalf of a product, service, or idea by an identified sponsor to a mass audience. Similarly, Levy and Weitz (1998) defined the concept of advertising as paid communications delivered to customers through non personal mass media such as newspapers, television, radio, and direct mail. Furthermore, Shimp (2000) defined advertising as a form of either mass communication or direct to consumer communication that is non personal and is paid for by various business firms, non profit organizations and individuals who are in some way identified in the advertising message and who hope to inform or persuade members of a particular audience. According to Kotler and Keller, advertising platforms include print and broadcast advertising, package inserts, motion pictures, brochures and booklets, posters and leaflets, directories, billboards, display signs, point-of-purchase displays, audio-visuals, symbols and logos, as well as video tapes.

Conversely, sales promotion is defined by Cox and Britain (1993) as short term incentives to encourage an earlier or stronger market response and stimulate purchase or sale of a product or service. Peattie and Peattie (1994) defined sales promotion as marketing activities usually specific to a time period, place or customer group, which encourage a direct response from consumers or marketing intermediaries, through the offer of additional benefits. Similarly, Osuala (1998) adapted the American Marketing Association definition of sales promotion as those activities other than personal selling, advertising, and publicity that stimulate consumer purchasing and dealer effectiveness such as displays, shows and exhibitions, demonstrations and various non-recurrent efforts not in the ordinary routine. Kotler and Keller (2005) also listed sales promotion platforms to include contests, games, sweepstakes, lotteries, premium and gifts, sampling, fairs and trade shows, exhibits, demonstrations, coupons, rebates, low-interest financing, entertainment, trade-in allowances, continuity programmes, as well as tie-ins.

Cox and Britain (1993) observed that a retailer could stock the most attractive merchandise, priced very competitively and have a convenient location but still fail to attract customers if he did not communicate with them. Advertising, being one of the retail communication mixes provides enormous benefits to the retailer in both short term and long term basis. Levy and Weitz (1998) noted that while some advertising messages have short life span designed to have immediate impact, others have long term impact. Whether an advertising message is intended to have short or long term impact, Kotler and Keller (2005) maintained that the process of developing an advertising programme must always start by identifying the target audience and buyer motives. Thus, Hasty and Reardon (1997) observed that when a retailer plans an advertising programme, a number of questions must be answered to enable him decide whether he needs to advertise, and if so, in what manner would it be done. They stated that the retailer should determine:

- (a) whom the advertising message will be directed (audience)
- (b) what he intends to achieve (objective)
- (c) what he will advertise (product or service)
- (d) what he will say (massage)
- (e) where to place the advertisement (media)
- (f) The frequency of the advertisement (time and duration)
- (g) The cost of the advertisement.

Obviously stated, the retailer® target audience for any advertising programme is the consumer, both existing and potential customers. He does this to inform them about his products or services and to persuade them to patronize his store (Hasty and Reardon 1997).

Shimp (2000) observed that the massive investments in advertising by many firms in recent times suggest that many firms have faith in the effectiveness of advertisement in helping the company to achieve her organizational objective. Shimp stated that advertising is valued

because it is recognized as performing a variety of critical communication functions for the business firm. He listed the advertising functions to include: (a) informing (b) persuading (c) reminding (d) adding value and (e) assisting other company efforts. Shimp further explained that advertising makes consumers aware of new product or service brands, educates them about brand features and benefits, and facilitates the creation of positive brand images. In the area of persuasion, Shimp stated that effective advertising persuades customers to try advertised products and services. He noted that sometimes the persuasion takes the form of influencing primary demand (i.e. creating demand for an entire product category) or more frequently building a secondary demand (i.e. the demand for a specific companys brand).

Kotler and Keller (2005) described persuasive advertising as aiming at creating liking, preference, conviction and purchase of a product or service. They stated that persuasive advertisement is capable of inducing a spontaneous buying. Kotler and Keller explained that advertising can also be used to remind consumers about the existence of a products or service and thus stimulate repeat purchase of the commodity by consumers. It could also be used as a tool to reinforce patronage by convincing existing customers that they made a right choice in buying the product from the store.

Shimp (2000) noted that advertising keeps a company brand fresh in the consumer memory. He stated that when the need that is related to the advertised product arises, past advertising impact makes it possible for the advertisers brand to come to the consumer mind as a purchase candidate. Shimp further explained that effective advertising is capable of influencing brand switching by reminding consumers who have not recently purchased a brand that the brand is available and that it possesses favourable attributes. Advertising adds value to brands by influencing consumers perceptions.

Effective advertising, according to Shimp (2000), causes brands to be viewed as more elegant, more stylish, more prestigious and perhaps superior to competitive offerings. Other

company efforts like serving as a vehicle to deliver sales promotion, assisting sales representatives through valuable introduction of the product prior to the sales peoplesø personal contact with customers, helping consumers to easily identify product packages in the store and recognize the value of a product more easily, and also augmenting the effectiveness of price deals are the other benefits of advertising objectives identified by Shimp. Advertising objectives are goals that advertising efforts attempt to achieve. According to Kotler and Keller (2005) advertising objective is a specific communication task and achievement level to be accomplished with a specific audience in a specific period of time.

Setting good advertising objectives is possibly the most difficult task of advertising management. This is because advertising objectives provide the foundation for the rest of advertising decisions. Thus, Shimp (2000) suggested that if the advertising objective must be achieved, certain issues must be addressed such as those that bother on questions like: the owhoo, the õwhatö, the õwhereö, the õwhenö and the õhowö? According to him these are variable questions that must be answered in order to guide the setting of the advertising objectives. Shimp explained that the most basic consideration underlying advertising strategy formulation is the target market. Objectives related to the ownoo question specify the target market in terms of its basic needs to which the brand appeals and its defining features - that is, its demographic, psychographic and other characteristics that influence choice behaviour. The õwhatö question, according to Shimp, involves what the advert message emphasizes? Emphasis here relates to the features and benefits to be emphasized and the emotions to be evoked when advertising a brand. It also involves goals issue which deals with the specific communication or sales objectives that need to be accomplished at the present stage of the brandsølife cycle. Which geographic markets need to be emphasized, what season or month is best, and how often should the brand be advertised? These are additional issues that must be considered when setting advertising objectives. Shimp (2000) stated that effective advertising is designed to accomplish several goals:

- (a) To make the target market aware of a new brand.
- (b) To facilitate consumer understanding of a brandos attributes and its benefits compared to competitive brands.
- (c) To enhance attitudes and influence purchase intentions.
- (d) To invite product trial.
- (e) To encourage repeat purchase behaviour.

Many media of advertising are open to the retailer to make known his product and services to his customers in order to achieve the above objectives. Kotler and Keller (2005) and Shimp (2000) noted that there are two major categories of advertising media: the out-of-home, or out-door advertising (place advertising), and indoor advertising. Osuala (1998) defined out-door advertising as those consisting of signs and posters which are placed outside along highways or other areas of heavy traffic. He stated that bill boards posters and signs which are examples of out-door media serve principally to remind customers of products that are already known or to direct them to a specific location where certain products or services are available. Kotler and Keller described out-of-home advertising as the oldest form of advertising and include advertising on billboards and public spaces. They observed that marketers are using creative and unexpected advert placements to grab consumersø attention. They noted that the rational often given for using out-of-home advertising is that marketers are better off reaching people in other environments such as where they work, play, and of course, shop.

Kotler and Keller (2005) described advertising on public spaces as those posted on unconventional places such as movies, airlines, lounges, classrooms, sport arenas, offices, hotels, and other public places. Even though out-door advertising has a number of limitations, Shimp stated its strength as including its broad reach and high frequency levels, geographic flexibility,

low cost per unit and serving as a last reminder to consumers before purchasing. Morden (1991) also started that size, visibility and situational impact may be considerable if the out-door media are correctly or appropriately sited.

Other forms of advertising media are those classified as in-door advertising. Osuala (1998) categorized them into print media, broadcast media and direct mail. He described newspaper as a universal medium covering a wide variety of interests of readers such as the rich and poor, old and young, as well as men and women. Osuala stated that industrial advertisers are particularly attracted to advertising in magazine because it offers access to more specialized markets than any other vehicle except direct mail. Osuala also identified examples of the broadcast media of advertising to include the radio and television. He described them as having several advantages in common one of which is reaching both the literate and the illiterate markets with ease. He added that retailers can also make use of direct mail to reach prospective buyers on an individual basis through sales letters, announcements, enclosures, blotters, booklets, catalogues, price lists, calendars and handbills. He noted that flexibility and timeliness are among the strongest advantages of direct mail advertising.

Shimp (2000) also identified internet advertising as an effective medium of advertising commonly used in recent times by marketers to promote their brands and transact sales. He stated that millions of people throughout the world have access to the internet and to the World Wide Web (window). He described the internet as a huge world wide network of interconnected computers that permit the electronic transfer of information. Shimp noted that the internet has potential to become an incredible huge and invaluable advertising medium. Also identified by Shimp are alternative media which include yellow pages ad, video ad, as well as product placement in movies. He stated that these are also open for use by retailers to advertise their product and services.

In an attempt to compare the strengths and limitations of the various advertising media, Shimp (2000) noted that there is no advertising medium that is always the best, rather that the overall value or worth of an advertising medium depends entirely on the advertiser's objectives, the creative needs, the competitive challenge, and the overall budget available for advertising. He added that the best medium, or a combination of media, is determined not by counting advantages and limitations but by conducting a careful examination of the advertised brand's needs and resources.

Kotler and Keller (2005) described the overall mission of advertising as offering a reason to buy, and also described that of sales promotion as offering an incentive to buy. Sales promotion is defined by Shimp (2000) as any incentive (in form of bonuses and rewards) used by a manufacturer to induce wholesalers and retailers or consumers to buy a brand and to encourage the sales force to aggressively sell the product. He further noted that retailers also use promotional incentives to encourage desired behaviours from consumers such as ocome to my store rather than a competitoros; buy one brand rather than another; purchase larger quantities; and so on. Similarly, Kotler and Keller described sales promotion as a key ingredient in marketing campaigns which consists of a collection of incentive tools, mostly short term, designed to stimulate quicker or greater purchase of particular products or services by consumers or the trade. These incentive, according to them, include samples, coupons, cash refund offers, prices off, premiums, prizes, patronage rewards, free trials, warranties, tie-in promotions, cross-promotions, point-of-purchase displays and demonstrations.

Peattie (2001) stated that most promotions targeted at consumers are designed to provide them with an incentive to purchase, and to provide a reason for buying the promoted brand rather than its competitor. Osuala (1998) also observed that the basic objectives of sales promotion are either identified or very similar to those of advertising and personal selling. He mentioned that sales promotion is aimed at introducing new products, attracting new customers, inducing

present customers to buy more, enabling the company to remain competitive, increasing sales in off-season, and increasing the inventories of business buyers. Cox and Britain (1993) also noted that sales promotion aims at encouraging a stop-and-shop habit among customers passing the store who have no intention of going in, to stop and shop. They also stated that it aims at persuading customers to shop and buy, buy larger quantity or more than originally intended, as well as repeat purchase. Cox and Britain further maintained that sales promotion efforts are usually designed to support other communication activities.

Researches suggest that there are more benefits the retailer derives from sales promotion. Specifically, Peattie and Peattie (1997) stated that the retailer stands to benefit from a well planned promotion in the following ways:

- (a) Awareness of, or interest in, the product.
- (b) Overshadowing a competitor promotional or other activities.
- (c) Deflecting attention away from price competition.
- (d) Reinforcing advertising themes.
- (e) Developing a relationship with customers or intermediaries.
- (f) Gathering marketing information.

Thus, Peattie (2001) suggested that any plan for a sales promotion should be drawn up with reference to the overall marketing strategy, which in turn will reflect the environmental opportunities and threats facing the business. He stated further that to develop a promotion which will meet its objectives, it is important for the retailer to select the appropriate form of promotion, apply it correctly in terms of geographic area and product variants (size or models). Peattie also suggested that since sales promotion requires creative input and because of the increasing sophistication of the consumer, the planning and implementation of a promotion will best be done by a sales promotions agency. Promotion agencies, he added, provide clients with

impartial advice about which form of promotion will best suit their needs, supply or arrange all the artwork, design, prizes, and premiums that are needed to bring a promotion to fruition.

#### Theoretical Framework

Consumer behaviour is illustrated by Kotler and Armstrong (2001) using a theory propounded by Sigmund Freud, an American psychologist who assumed that the psychological forces shaping peopless behaviour are largely unconscious, and that a person cannot fully understand his or her own motivations. The theory explained that when a person examines specific brands, he or she will react not only to their stated capabilities, but also to other less conscious cues. Product shape, size, weight, colour, and brand name are the cues that can trigger certain emotions and influence the consumers decision to buy spontaneously.

Using Abraham Maslows theory, Kotler and Keller (2005) explained motivation in the light of why people are driven by particular needs at particular times. The authors said that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy, from the most pressing to the least pressing. Maslows needs are arranged in order of their importance as physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. The theory explained that people will always try to satisfy their most important needs first before trying to satisfy the next most important needs. Thus, Kotler and Keller explained that in making buying decision, the consumer always tries to satisfy his most important need, but that the unconscious factors as mentioned by Freud can affect the conscious effort of the consumer to satisfy himself. He might consequently make a shift to satisfy an emotional need. The important thing to note here is that the retailer needs to develop his advertising message to appeal to the sensory and emotional buying disposition of the consumer. He is also to ensure that his merchandise are planned to meet the buying needs of the consumer.

Kotler and Armstrong (2001) also presented a model of buyer behaviour which they called the stimulus-response-model (SRM). In this model, marketing and other stimuli enter the

consumerøs õblack boxö and produce certain responses. The black box is referred to the consumerøs mind. Retailers must therefore figure out what is in the box and make use of in planning their merchandise, fixing their price, locating their shop and promoting their merchandise. These elements, according to Kotler and Armstrong become the marketing stimuli that enter the buyerøs black box. The responses are manifested as product choice, brand choice, dealer choice, purchasing timing, and purchase amount. It is the duty of the retailer to find out how the stimuli are changed into responses. He should also note that what goes on in the consumerøs black box is an independent activity. The consumer reserves the exclusive right to respond to these stimuli. He decides what he buys, where he buys, how much he buys, when he buys, and why he buys. Alderton (2008) corroborated this by observing that the psychology of each individual considers the product or service on offer in relation to his own culture, attitude, previous learning, and personal perception. The consumer then decides whether or not to purchase, where to purchase, the brand he prefers, and other choices.

Frederick Herzebergøs two-factor theory is also illustrated by Kotler and Keller (2005) as an important theory that affects consumer behaviour and buying decision. The theory distinguishes dissatisfiers (factors that cause dissatisfaction) from satisfiers (factors that cause satisfaction). The theory has it that the absence of dissatisfiers is not enough in decision making; but that satisfiers must be present to motivate a purchase. For instance, a computer that does not come with a warranty would be a dissatisfier. Yet the presence of a product warranty would not act as a satisfier or motivator of a purchase because it is not a source of intrinsic satisfaction. Thus, Kotler and Keller observed that Herzebergøs theory has two implications. On one hand, sellers should avoid dissatisfiers. On the other hand, they should identify major satisfiers or motivators of purchase and use them to encourage impulse purchase.

Morden (1991) also developed two models of consumer buying behaviour: the decisionó process model and the theoretical model. These models attempt to clarify the relationship

between the variables that influence the buying situation, and may assist the marketer to predict the outcome of change in any one or a number of purchase variables. The decision-process model analyses the buying process as a series of sequential steps. These steps are needs/wants recognition, purchase motivation, information search, evaluation of alternatives, choice, purchase process, post-purchase evaluation, and finally, feedback. This model assumes that the buyer will pass through these series of steps, whether it is consciously or unconsciously, until the purchase is (or is not) made. It also assumes reasonably enough that since the average consumer is not stupid, he or she will learn on an alternative basis from the purchase experience. This learning process, according to Morden, focuses in particular or a comparison of:

- (a) The evaluation of the alternatives made prior to the purchase.
- (b) The claims made by the supplier for the product that was eventually purchased.
- (c) The performance or acceptability of the product actually purchased, relative to the purchase motivation and the needs/wants that gave rise to it.

In other words, consumers will learn from their buying successes and failures, and this experience will inform future buying decisions. The model is also affected by the degree to which brand loyalty has been built up and maintained since brand loyalty speeds the individual through the decision process sequence, and lessens the degree to which alternative products or brands are evaluated. Thus Morden suggested that the retailer should assess the experience of his customers with their particular product in case it possesses some unsatisfactory performance or operating characteristics to which customers will eventually build up resistance. He added that retailers should assess consumer satisfaction while consumer likes and preferences should be fed back into his promotional programmes.

The Howard and Sheth model is a typical example of the theoretical model. Morden (1991) described Howard and Sheth model as one that attempts to show the inter-relationship between the various behavioural and economic factors that are involved. Within this model,

typically, information is processed by the individual; economic, socio-cultural and psychological influences are evaluated and related; and a purchase or no purchase decision is the result. In this model, Morden explained that information inputs about the alternative products or services available to the consumer will include the facts about the products in terms of brands, specification, quality, price, images of the products, and promotional activity. He said that the purchase attitudes and intentions of the consumer will be shaped by basic behavioural determinants which include personality, culture, and social class and these intentions or attitudes are also influenced by the individual. According to Morden, perceptual variables will determine the individuals reaction to the information inputs. Similarly, motivation, available satisfaction and past experience as well as judgemental criteria are the other factors which the consumer uses in processing his purchase decision.

There are other external factors that serve as constraints on actual or potential purchase behaviour. These include price of the product or brand, availability of the product or brand, financial status of the consumer, as well as time constraint which might limit the time available to deal with the purchase. The Howard and Sheth model also describes personal attitude and intention to buy as outputs which are likely to lead the individual to make a purchase decision. This means that if the personal attitude and intention are favourable to the product or brand, a purchase decision is likely to take place.

The Howard and Sheth model has a number of advantages according to Morden (1991). Most important is its indication of the complex nature of many purchase situations. It emphasizes the need for marketers to analyze the satisfactions being sought by individuals through their purchase motivations. The model suggests that the marketer needs to provide products or services that offer satisfaction or solve the consumer purchase problems. The Howard and Sheth model also points to the importance of inhibitors in permitting the consumer to satisfy his purchase motive and so suggested that the marketer needs to find a direct means of

dealing with such inhibitors so as to minimize their effect on the satisfaction of consumer demand.

This study is, therefore, based on the concept of impulse buying as defined by Phillips and Bradshaw (1993) as a buying action that occurs when a consumer is exposed to an attractively presented or conveniently located product in a store. This is because the study is focused on the influence of retail store variables on the consumerøs impulse buying behaviour. The study also adapts Sigmund Freudøs theory of unconscious behaviour. In this theory, the American psychologist explained that when a person examines specific products, he or she will react not only to the capabilities of the product, but also to other less conscious cues such as the product and store features and that these are cues that can trigger certain emotions that influence consumerøs decision to buy on impulse. Furthermore, the Stimulus-Response Model (SRM) propounded by Kotler and Armstrong (2001) is adapted in this study. In this model, the theorists observed that marketing and other stimuli enter the consumerøs black box (the consumerøs mind) and produce certain responses. Kotler and Armstrong maintained that retailers need to figure out what is in the consumerøs mind and make use of them to plan their merchandise, fix price, locate their shops, and promote their merchandise.

### Related Empirical Studies

Some related empirical studies have been identified in the area of this study. Hodge (2004) conducted a study on factors influencing impulse buying during an online purchase transaction. The study explored three factors that encourage the purchase of an additional item during an online purchase transaction. Data was collected on the Huntsville High School (HHS) 100<sup>th</sup> Reunion website from March 13, 2004 to May 19, 2004. During this period, 60,413 pages were viewed, 3,488 unique site visitors attended the site and 771 transactions took place. Consumers were offered additional purchase opportunity during the checkout process in a real live purchase. The author used an experimental design for the study. The major purpose of the

study was to determine whether prominent store display and the presentation mode or location of the impulse offer influences the likelihood of an impulse purchase. The author found that:

- Industry-oriented factors such as mass distribution and mass advertising are capable
  of influencing the likelihood of impulse purchase.
- Store-oriented factors such as prominent store display, store location, and self-service
  can contribute to impulse buying in both brick-and-mortar stores and in on-line
  shopping environment.

The present study is related to Hodge study in that both studies are concerned with the influence of store image attributes that affect consumer buying behaviour whether in brick-and-mortar store or on line shopping environment.

A study carried out by Gutierrez (2004) on the determinants of planned and impulse buying is found to be related to this study. Gutierrezøs study investigated the factors that influence planned and impulse purchases in six personal care product categories. The author used interview technique to gather data for this study. Data consisted of 982 product purchases of 502 shoppers who were interviewed in four major shopping malls in urban Philippines. The findings of the study, among others, included that the category of product, purchase frequency, brand comparison, and age are significant factors influencing planned and impulse purchases. The study also found that merchandise assortment and store display are very strong factors that can trigger impulse buying, and went on to recommend that retailers should improve on their assortment of product and display pattern. The study recommended that in order to promote impulse buying, retailers should create a store environment where the negative perceptions of impulse are reduced.

Furthermore, the study recommended that stores should have highly legible environment and should implement retail strategies that promote shopping efficiency. It also recommended that advertisements may be designed to emphasize the non-economic rewards of impulse buying.

The findings of this study are related to the present study because the study identified factors that have implications on retail management. It also identified factors that have bearing on consumer behaviour and its relationship with impulse buying. Gutierrezøs study is also relevant to the present study because it identified product and store oriented factors (being similar attributes of the present study) as important variables the retailer must consider in positioning his merchandise for impulse buying action.

Similarly, Okeke (2004) studied the influence of shopping variables on retail store patronage by female lecturers in tertiary institutions in Enugu State. A survey research design was used for the study with a population of 344 female lecturers in four tertiary institutions in Enugu State. The major purpose of her study was to determine the influence of shopping variables on retail store variables. It was found that a number of variables on store location, store image, store layout, and merchandise assortment were perceived as having a high influence on store patronage by consumers.

From the above findings, it can be seen that Okekeøs study is relevant to the present study in areas of store location, store image, store layout and merchandise assortment. Even though Okekeøs study was on the influence of these variables on store patronage, its findings are related to the present study whose major purpose is on the influence of these variables on consumer impulsive buying behaviour. The two studies are concerned with how the retailer could use the variables to improve on his store environment and merchandise offering.

Wolf (2002) also conducted a study on retail and urban nature: creating a consumer habitat. The major purpose of the study was to determine the patronage behaviour intentions based on store environmental elements. The population of the study comprised 430 respondents made up of 258 residents (consumers) and 172 business outfits (traders). The author used qualitative and quantitative methods in collecting data. The study was conducted in the urban neighbourhoods of the Pacific northwest region of the United States of America. The study

found that indoor environmental elements such as music, product layout and lighting contribute to store image, and store image by implication influences consumerøs perception and buying behaviour. The present study is related to Wolføs study because both studies are concerned with how store image could be used to enhance consumer buying behaviour.

Abubakar, Mavondo, and Clulow (2001) also studied customer satisfaction with supermarket retail shopping. The authors used survey method to determine key variables that create customer satisfaction. An effective sample size of 800 retail outlets representing the retail landscape of Australia was used. The major purpose of the study was to investigate the customer rating of the importance of several attributes associated with retail shopping. The authors found that:

- 1. Access to retail store is important and retail store should be located at a convenient site considering the target customers and ease of reaching the store.
- Reputation of the store is important whether it is for quality, cleanliness or freshness of products.

The present study is related to the work of Abubakar, et al (2001) because both studies are concerned with what a retailer could do to impress upon and satisfy the needs of his customers. Need satisfaction must be guaranteed whether the consumer plans his purchase or buys on impulse.

Batory (1991) also conducted a study on developing a retail strategy for an upscale target audience including the influence of out-shopping and store image attributes on store visits. Data were collected through mail survey. The sample was made from listing of households and customer mailing list. Questionnaires were mailed to 3000 households and customers. Only 332 respondents filled and mailed back usable questionnaires. One of the findings of the study was that consumersøstore image was based on a combination of store attributes such as merchandise offerings, service, store atmosphere, or location environment. The present study is related to

Batoryøs study in that both studies were on the influence of store attributes on consumer buying decision.

Oguejiofor-Osakwe (2002) studied the impact of advertising on purchase decisions of cosmetic products by female lecturers in Nigerian universities. The major purpose of the study was to ascertain the perception of female lecturers in Nigerian universities on the impact of advertising on the purchase decision of cosmetic products. The population comprised 441 female lecturers in universities in Anambra and Enugu states and a descriptive survey research design was used for the study. The findings of the study among others included:

- 1. That female lecturers in Nigerian universities frequently view, listen to television and radio advertisements, and read posters.
- 2. That the female lecturers are often influenced by the media advertisement on their purchase decisions of cosmetics.
- 3. That the female lecturers agreed that advertisement cause people to buy products they do not need.

Oguejiofor-Osakweøs study is related to the present study because both studies deal on the influence of advertising (a retail store variable) on the buying behaviour of consumers.

Anaedu (1996) also conducted a study on the impact of advertising in motivating brand preference for cosmetics. The study was to find out the impact of advertisement as a conventional marketing promotional tool for motivating brand preference for cosmetics. About 247 respondents were studied based on a descriptive survey design. The findings revealed that:

- 1. Various media of advertisement are quite effective in creating awareness for consumer products.
- 2. Advertising was not the only reason for consumer choice of a product. Other factors such as product quality and availability can equally motivate their choice of a product.

The present study is related to Anaeduøs study in that both studies discovered that advertising as well as other variables such as product characteristics can also influence consumersøbuying decision.

Clottey, Collier and Stodnick (2008) conducted a study on drivers of customer loyalty in a retail store environment. The main objective of the study was to define a universal model of what drives customer loyalty in a diverse set of industries. The authors used a descriptive survey design to study a population of 972 retail customers in United States of America. The study found out that service quality, product quality and brand image are drivers of customer loyalty. The study recommended that service managers can improve these drivers of customer loyalty by better training, recognition and reward programmes, day-to-day store operations, and job, product, process, and store designs. The present study is related to the study of Clottey et al because both studies focused on retail store attributes and their influence on customer patronage and buying behaviour.

Rajaguru and Matanda (2006) also carried out a study on consumer perception of store and product attributes and their effect on customer loyalty within the Indian retail sector. The main purpose of the study was to examine consumersøperception of store and product attributes and customer loyalty in Indian context. The study was conducted with a survey design in the southern part of Indian cities of Chennai and Coimbatore. The authors made use of mall intercept interviews to obtain data mostly from male customers. The findings of the study indicated that store attributes such as store appearance, service quality and store convenience have positive effect on customer loyalty and buying decision. Similarly, the study also found out that product attributes such as product quality, product price, and new product availability also have positive impact on customer loyalty and buying decision. The present study is related to the above study because the two studies are concerned about store and product attributes and their influence on consumer buying decision.

Jalees, (2004) conducted a study on an empirical analysis of impulsive buying behaviour in Pakistan. The main purpose of the study was to identify the variables related to impulsive buying. A sample size of 180 respondents drawn from six affluent areas of Karachi was used. One of the hypotheses of the study was to test whether there was any direct relationship between proximity and impulsive buying behaviour. The hypothesis was tested using simple regression and it was found that proximity has a very strong relationship with impulse buying behaviour. The finding was in line with what Faber and Vohs (2004) postulated that physical proximity, free sample, and sniffing of aromas enhance impulsive purchasing. The present study is related to Jaleesø study because both studies are concerned with variables that drive impulsive buying behaviour among consumers. Having identified proximity as a potent variable for impulsive buying, retailers can improve on their merchandise display technique to induce impulse buying among their customers.

# Summary of Review of Related Literature

There is a consensus among the authors that retailing involves all the activities associated with the sale of goods and services to final consumers for their personal and non-business uses. The retail store is generally regarded as a marketing channel that serves the consumerøs total needs for food, and non-food household products. The authors agree that retailing remains a very important marketing activity that has contributed significantly to the economy.

Generally, the authors agree that impulse purchasing is a buying decision which a consumer makes spontaneously at the point of purchase without any prior plan or thought. Similarly, the concept of consumer behaviour was also defined in the review. Most of the authors perceive consumer behaviour as a very complex and never-simple phenomenon which the retailer must endeavour to study. The consumer buying pattern with respect to his needs, when, where, how and from whom he makes his purchase are the fundamental elements of

consumer buying behaviour which the retailer needs to understand. Since the main aim of the retailer is to satisfy the consumer, understanding his behaviour becomes his (retailer@s) paramount concern according to the review. It was stated that marketers and behavioural scientists have developed some generalizations about individual and group factors that could be used to study the consumer buying behaviour. These include psychological, cultural, social, and personal factors. Considering the influence of these factors on the buying behaviour of the consumer, the review highlighted certain marketing strategies that the retailer must adopt in order to key into the consumer@s buying behaviour.

The experts tend to agree that consumers shop at certain stores for various reasons such as the store location, its ambience, its merchandise assortment and display, price of merchandise, customer service provided, as well as advertising and sales promotion. A general perception of the authors thus indicates that these store features are capable of inviting the customer into the store as well as inducing him to make impulse purchasing. The authors generally believe that locating the store at a convenient site that is near the consumersø residential areas, or on their route to and from work or business places, where they can easily have quick access to what they want can, encourage impulse purchasing decision by consumers. They added that a store with attractive physical exterior and interior features can also affect consumersø conscience towards impulsive buying.

The authors were generally in agreement that the type and quality of merchandise in a store have great influence on the consumerøs buying behaviour. They described merchandise as comprising of the product and services meant for sale and are capable of giving satisfaction to the consumer. The authors agreed that the choice of product, the depth and breadth of product line, and the number and selection of items are important elements of merchandise assortment of the store which can persuade or lead the consumer to impulsive buying decision. Similarly, the authors agreed that merchandise must be positioned in particular ways to aid customer selection

and buying decision. They observed generally that in order to influence consumer impulse buying decision, retail stores should have attractive merchandise display pattern uniquely done to capture the attention of the consumer.

The experts agree that price is a very important element of the retail mix and that correct pricing of product and services can lead to impulse buying decision. They suggested that merchandise should be priced such that they could be sold at satisfactory rate at which inventory cost and expenses are covered, desired profit made, as well as what customers can and are willing to pay.

On customer service and its influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour, the authors generally agreed that quality customer service in a retail store is capable of driving the customer to make unplanned buying decisions in the store. The experts agree that the fundamental philosophy of the retailer should be based on customer-oriented retailing. It is believed by the experts that the retailer should ensure optimal satisfaction of the consumer not only of the product he buys, but also of the quality of customer service he receives.

The authors generally agreed that advertising tells the consumer about the product or service held by a store, while sales promotion provides incentives to the consumer to buy the product or service. Experts in the literature therefore agreed that well packaged advertising messages as well as attractive incentives in sales promotion are capable of influencing the buying behaviour of the consumer towards impulsive buying. Thus, they agreed that the retailer should consider advertising and sales promotion as investment.

The experts generally agreed that retailers need to consider these store features and objectively adopt those strategies in order to persuade the consumer to regularly visit the store and make impulse buying decision. The retailers must bear in mind that their success and profitability depends largely on the volume of their turnover.

Most of the literature reviewed, however, focused on how store features can attract store patronage. Few empirical literature were found on the relationship between retail store variables and the impulsive buying behaviour of consumers in Nigeria. Availability of such empirical literature would have been the basis for stemming the tide of incessant retail business failures in North-west zone of Nigeria. Hence, this present investigation is geared towards filling the gap.

#### **CHAPTER III**

#### METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents a description of the method adopted for the study under the following headings: design of the study; area of the study; population of the study; instrument for data collection; validation of the instrument; reliability of the instrument; method of data collection; and method of data analysis.

## Design of the Study

The design of this study was a survey design. This is because the study intended to elicit the opinions of Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education on the influence of retail store variables on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers. Studies of opinions usually adopt the survey research design. Ezeji (1996) defined survey design as one which involves the assessment of public opinion using questionnaire and sampling methods. Osuala (2001) also observed that survey research focuses on people, the vital facts of people, and their beliefs, opinions, attitudes, motivations, and behaviour. Based on the above opinions, the survey design was considered most suitable for this study.

### Area of the Study

The study was conducted in the North-west geo-political zone of Nigeria with special focus on Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education within the zone. The North-west geo-political zone was chosen because as a former region where tran-saharan trade took place, a reasonable number of retail activities are carried out within the zone. Many retail stores such as supermarkets, superstores, department stores, warehouse showrooms, provision stores, roadside retail shops, kiosks, and market stalls are found in all the states that make up the zone. A good number of Colleges of Education that offer Business Education are also found in the zone and Lecturers in the programme are part of the market for consumer goods. The zone is made up of seven states namely: Jigawa, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Kebbi, Sokoto, and Zamfara.

The area was sufficient for this study since all the states have Colleges of Education that offer Business Education programme.

## Population of the Study

The population of this study was made up of 219 male and female Business Education Lecturers in the ten Colleges of Education offering Business Education within the North-west geo-political zone as at October, 2009. This population was chosen because as consumers of retail products and as teachers of business subjects, they are knowledgeable in the subject matter. The respondents also have the capability to respond objectively and meaningfully to the questionnaire items. The population distribution is shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Population Distribution of Business Education Lecturers according to Colleges of Education

S/N	Colleges	Male	Female	Total	
1	Jigawa State College of Education, Gumel	14	7	21	
2	College of Education, Kafanchan	12	10	22	
3	Federal College of Education, Zaria	15	8	23	
4	Federal College of Education, Kano	13	5	18	
5	Federal College of Education (Technical), Bichi	15	7	22	
6	Saøadatu Rimi College of Education, Kumbotso,	15	8	23	
	Kano				
7	Federal College of Education, Katsina	14	8	22	
8	Shehu Shagari College of Education, Sokoto	12	9	21	
9	Federal College of Education, Gusau	13	12	25	
10	Kebbi State College of Education. Argungu	12	10	22	
	TOTAL	135	84	219	

## Sample and Sampling Technique

No sample was used in this study because the population was small and manageable.

## Instrument for Data Collection

The instrument for data collection was a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire items were generated from the review of related literature. The questionnaire contained a total of 71 items divided into eight sections (A \u00e9 H). Section A dealt with general information on the personal profile of respondents with options and blank spaces to enable the respondents check as appropriate.

Section B dealt with research question one. It covered items 1-10 which dealt with the influence of retail store location on consumer impulse buying behaviour. It was structured on a five-point Likert scale of: Strongly Agree (5 points); Agree (4 points); No Opinion (3 points) Disagree (2 points); and Strongly Disagree (1 point).

Section C dealt with research question two. It contained 11 items (11-21) that were used to determine the influence of retail store design on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The questionnaire items were equally structured on a five-point Likert scale.

Section D dealt with research question three. The section covered items 22-29 which were used to determine the influence of retail store merchandise display on consumer impulse buying behaviour. It was also structured on a five-point Likert scale.

Section E dealt with research question four. It covered items 30-41 which were used to determine the influence of retail store merchandise assortment on consumer impulse buying behaviour. It was also structured on a five-point Likert scale.

Section F dealt with research question five. The section contained items 42-50 that were used to determine the influence of price of merchandise on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The questionnaire items were also structured on a five-point Likert scale.

Section G dealt with research question six. The section contained 13 items (51-63) which were used to determine the influence of customer services on consumer impulse buying behaviour. Similarly, the items were structured on a five-point Likert scale.

Section H dealt with research question seven. It contained 8 items (64-71) that were used to determine the influence of promotion on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The questionnaire items in this section were equally structured on a five-point Likert scale.

## Validation of the Instrument

The instrument was subjected to face validation by three experts in Business Education. Two of them are from the Department of Vocational Teacher Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka; while the other is from the Department of Vocational and Technical Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. The researcher requested them to check the adequacy and correctness of the questionnaire items for the study. They were expected to make comments and corrections where necessary. They made useful suggestions and additions for the structure and contents of the questionnaire. Their suggestions and observations were used to refine the questionnaire both in structure and content.

#### Reliability of the Instrument

Cronbach $\alpha$ s Alpha ( ) reliability test was used to determine the internal consistency of the instrument. Cronbach $\alpha$ s Alpha was appropriate for testing the internal consistency of this instrument because the items on the instrument were not scored right versus wrong and is common with attitude instrument that makes use of the Likert scale. The instrument was administered on 28 Business Education Lecturers as respondents from Federal College of Education (Technical), Gombe, Gombe State. Gombe State is in the North-east geo-political zone. This was to ensure that subjects used in the reliability test were excluded from the study population. Their responses were used to calculate the reliability coefficient. The reliability coefficients obtained were as follows: Section B  $\alpha$  = 0.73; Section C  $\alpha$  = 0.74; Section D -

= 0.68; Section E - = 0.76; Section F - = 0.76; Section G  $\acute{o}$  = 0.81; Section H - = 0.80. The overall Cronbachøs Alpha for the entire items in sections B  $\acute{o}$  H was 0.75. This implies that the internal consistency of the instrument was high.

### Method of Data Collection

Copies of the questionnaire were administered on the respondents by the researcher with the help of three trained research assistants. The research assistants were trained on how to go about the administration and retrieval of the questionnaire. The contents of the questionnaire as well as the purpose of the study were explained to them to enable them guide the respondents as the need arose. The research assistants were also trained to approach the respondents with courtesy and respect so as to secure their attention and cooperation in the administration and collection of the questionnaire. They were allocated specific states to cover. One research assistant covered Colleges of Education located in Kaduna state; the other covered the College of Education in Katsina state; while another covered Colleges of Education located in Zamfara, Sokoto, and Kebbi states. The researcher personally covered Colleges of Education located in Kano and Jigawa states. The respondents were given two weeks within which to study and respond to the questionnaire. The copies of the questionnaire were retrieved thereafter. A total of 219 copies of the instrument were administered on the respondents, out of which 204 copies were retrieved, thus making 98.2% return rate for data analysis. The remaining 15 copies of the instrument were not retrieved because the respondents could not be found after several visits. However, all the items on the returned instruments were checked correctly and completely by the respondents.

#### Method of Data Analysis

The following methods were used in analysing data for the research questions and the null hypotheses:

The data collected from the respondents were analyzed using the Mean statistic to provide answers for the research questions. Research questions 1-7 were structured using a five-point Likert scale. The Mean  $\overline{X}$  of the questionnaire items were computed and interpreted based on the statistical real limit of the numbers as follows:

Response Category	Point	<b>Boundary Limit</b>	
Strongly Agree	5	4.50 ó 5.00	
Agree	4	3.50 ó 4.49	
No Opinion	3	2.50 ó 3.49	
Disagree	2	1.50 ó 2.49	
Strongly Disagree	1	1.00 ó 1.49	

Each item was interpreted based on the real limits of the codes assigned to the response categories. Thus, any Mean response below 3.00 was regarded as not accepted. Only items that obtained Mean score of 3.00 and above were accepted as having influence on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers.

Hypotheses 1 and 3 were tested using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistic at 0.05 level of significance. The null hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld at 0.05 level of significance when p-value was greater than 0.05 level of significance. The null hypothesis of no significant difference was, however, rejected at 0.05 level of significance when p-value was less than 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis 2 was tested using t-test statistic at 0.05 (alpha) level of significance. According to Cozby (2001), the t-test is a straightforward, easily computed test of significance of the difference between two groups. The null hypothesis was rejected where the calculated t-value at 0.05 level of significance was equal to or greater than the table t-value for a given degree of freedom. However, the null hypothesis was upheld where the calculated t-value was less than the table t-value at 0.05 level of significance.

## **CHAPTER IV**

# PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter presented and analyzed the data generated for this study.

**Research Question 1**: What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store location on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria? The data relevant to this research question were presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Influence of retail store location on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.

T A		21	1/4
IN	=	- / 1	14

	Item Statements	Mean	S.D.	Remarks
		X	-	
1.	The location of a retail store determines the frequency of customer traffic and impulse purchase in the store.	4.34	0.66	Accepted
2.	Customers are often influenced by the convenient location of the store to stop by and make impulse purchase.	4.34	0.55	Accepted
3.	Retail stores with special features such as parking space, ease of entry and exit can attract customers to easily stop by and make impulse buying.	4.34	0.69	Accepted
4.	Retail stores located at attractive and conducive environment can influence the consumersøimpulse buying decision.	4.37	0.58	Accepted
5.	Stores located at shopping centres are more likely to influence consumersødesire to stop by and make impulse purchase.	4.11	0.75	Accepted
6.	Retail stores located along consumersøregular route to and from office can influence them to stop by and make impulse purchase.	4.34	0.69	Accepted
7.	Consumers are often influenced by stores located near their residence to visit and make impulse purchases.	4.30	0.77	Accepted
8.	Stores whose locations are well planned are likely to influence consumersødesire to visit and make impulse buying.	4.25	0.74	Accepted
9.	Strategically located stores are likely to influence consumers to make unplanned visits and impulse purchases.	4.20	0.76	Accepted
10.	Retail stores located in affluent areas of a city are likely to influence more affluent customers to buy on impulse.	4.22	0.66	Accepted

Grand Mean 4.28

Table 2 above has 10 item statements with their Means ranging from 4.11 to 4.37. The Mean of each item statement is greater than 3.00, indicating that all the ten items on retail store location were accepted by Business Education Lecturers as influencing consumer impulse buying behaviour. A Grand Mean of 4.28 was obtained in the cluster indicating that all the items in the cluster were accepted as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The Standard Deviation (S.D.) of the ten items ranged from 0.55 to 0.77, indicating that the respondents were not too far apart in their opinion.

# Research Question 2

What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store design on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria? The data relevant to this research question were presented in Table 3 below.

S/N	Item Statements	Mean V	S.D.	Remarks
1.	Store designs that enhance the presentation of merchandise can influence impulse buying by customers.	4.32	0.52	Accepted
2.	Traffic aisle which allows for free flow of traffic across the display stands and shelves can influence consumersø impulse buying decision.	4.09	0.69	Accepted
3.	Good lighting and ventilation in the retail store cause customers to shop with relaxation and thus influence their impulse buying decision	4.46	0.56	Accepted
4.	Retail store environment that is warmth and comfortable makes customers to stay longer and induces them to buy on impulse.	4.38	0.60	Accepted
5.	A store design such as free-form design that allows customers to browse and wander freely in the store can encourage impulse buying.	4.24	0.75	Accepted
6.	Air-conditioning, visual set, and soft background music in a retail store can encourage customers to stay longer and thus stimulate them to make impulse purchases.	4.40	0.71	Accepted
7.	A store layout with yellow brick road (a leading section through small inexpensive goods to larger expensive goods) can induce impulse purchase by customers.	4.16	0.70	Accepted
8.	A salesósupport-services section that provides customer services such as delivery can encourage customers to make impulse purchases.	4.34	0.61	Accepted
9.	The race-track design that allows customers to view all angles of the store encourages impulse buying	4.19	0.71	Accepted
10.	Merchandise sections prominently labeled with clear overhead signs can encourage impulse buying	4.23	0.58	Accepted
11.	Stores with serene shopping environment induce impulse buying by consumers.	4.22	0.66	Accepted

Grand Mean 4..27

The data presented in Table 4 above revealed that the Mean of all the eleven items ranged from 4.09 to 4.46. The Mean of each of the items was above 3.00 indicating that the respondents perceived the ten items as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. A Grand Mean of 4.27 was obtained in the cluster indicating that all the variables in retail store design were accepted as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The Standard Deviation of the items ranged from 0.52 to 0.75. This indicated that the respondents were not too far apart in their opinion.

## Research Question 3

What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of merchandise display on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria? Data relevant to this research question were presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4

Influence of merchandise display on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.

		N = 204		
S/N	Item Statement	$\frac{\text{Mean}}{X}$	S.D.	Remarks
1.	A good merchandise display in a retail store induces customers to buy on impulse	4.32	0.64	Accepted
2.	A display pattern that has merchandise in categories encourages impulse purchase.	4.32	0.55	Accepted
3.	Items positional at eye-catching level in the store are capable of influencing customers to make impulse purchases.	4.53	0.52	Accepted
4.	Items such as menœ suits, womenæ wears, and jewelry can draw customers into the entire length of the store thereby induce impulse purchase.	4.32	0.72	Accepted
5.	Daily demand lines such as staple food when placed near the store entrance can influence impulse purchase.	4.40	0.59	Accepted
6.	Window display that provides a visual image about the type of merchandise in the store can influence customers to make impulse purchases.	4.23	0.61	Accepted
7.	Impulse items displayed at the check-out point can influence impulse buying by customers while waiting to be attended to.	4.34	0.57	Accepted
8.	Self-service counter encourages customers to examine merchandise and thus influence them to make impulse purchase.		0.62	Accepted

The data presented in Table 3 above showed that the Mean of all the eight items ranged from 4.23 to 4.53. The Mean of each item was above 3.00. This indicated that the respondents accepted all the items as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. A Grand Mean of 4.33 was obtained in the cluster indicating that all the items in the cluster were accepted as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The Standard Deviation of the items ranged from 0.52 to 0.72. This indicated that the respondents were not too far apart in their opinion.

# Research Question 4

What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of merchandise assortment on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria? The data relevant to this research question were presented in Table 5 below.

**Table 5**Influence of merchandise assortment on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in Northwest zone of Nigeria.

	N	N = 204			
S/N	Item Statements	$\frac{\text{Mean}}{\overline{X}}$	S.D.	Remarks	
1.	Merchandise stocked according to consumer needs can influence consumers to make impulse buying in a retail store	4.29	0.54	Accepted	
2.	Merchandise stocked according to the needs of specific group of consumers can influence impulse purchase by consumers	4.26	0.69	Accepted	
3.	The quality of merchandise a store carries influences consumersø decision to buy on impulse.	4.22	0.73	Accepted	
4.	A unique mix of products especially with complimentary goods in a store influences consumers to buy on impulse.	4.23	0.78	Accepted	
5.	Consumer goods made available in different varieties of color, model, size, brand, and style in a store can influence impulse buying decision of consumers.	4.27	0.68	Accepted	
6.	A retail store with broad assortment of product of many lines is likely to influence consumersø decision to buy more goods on impulse.	4.31	0.67	Accepted	
7.	Low marginal products like chewing gum, chocolate, magazines, and biscuit, though not always in shopping list attract consumers impulse buying tendency.	4.35	0.62	Accepted	
8	Retail stores that maintain stock availability are likely to influence consumersø decision to stop-over and make impulse purchase.	4.29	0.63	Accepted	
9.	Reliable products that function satisfactorily over time attract customersøimpulse buying tendency.	4.21	0.84	Accepted	
10.	Short life-span products like perishable items are likely to influence consumersø decision to buy on impulse.	4.24	0.63	Accepted	
11.	Lighter and easily conveyed merchandise are likely to influence impulse buying decision by the consumers.	4.27	0.67	Accepted	
12.	Products that are easily stored and not vulnerable to quick decay can induce impulse purchase by consumers.	4.27	0.71	Accepted	

4.26

The data presented in Table 5 above showed that the Mean of all the twelve items on merchandise assortment ranged from 4.21 to 4.35. The Mean of each item was above 3.00. This indicated that the respondents accepted all the items as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. A Grand Mean of 4.26 was obtained in the cluster indicating that all the items in the cluster were accepted as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The Standard Deviation of the items ranged from 0.54 to 0.84. This indicated that the respondents were not too far apart in their opinion.

# Research Question 5

1. What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of price of merchandise on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria? The data relevant to this research question were presented in Table 6 below.

**Table 6**Influence of price of merchandise on the impulse buying behavior of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.

		N = 204		
S/N	Item Statements	$\frac{\text{Mean}}{\overline{X}}$	S.D.	Remarks
1.	Merchandise that are correctly priced are likely to influence consumersøimpulse buying decision.	4.33	0.64	Accepted
2.	Price cut through mark-down (discount) to offer considerably low price can influence impulse buying decision.	4.44	0.68	Accepted
3.	Price cut on goods meant for clearance sales encourages consumers to buy on impulse.	4.46	0.63	Accepted
4.	Price fixed within the consumersøbargaining power can stimulate impulse buying decision	4.28	0.75	Accepted
5.	Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying		0.76	Accepted
6.	Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.	4.28	0.64	Accepted
7.	Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.	4.20	0.77	Accepted
8.	Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.	4.29	0.57	Accepted
9.	Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.	4.30	0.63	Accepted

4.31

The data presented in Table 6 above showed that the Mean of all the nine items on price of merchandise ranged from 4.20 to 4.46. The Mean of each item was above 3.00. This indicated that the respondents accepted all the items as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. A Grand Mean of 4.28 was obtained in the cluster indicating that all the items in the cluster were accepted as having influence on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers. The Standard Deviation of the items ranged from 0.63 to 0.77. This indicated that the respondents were not too far apart in their opinion.

### Research Question 6

What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of customer service on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria? The data relevant to this research question were presented in Table 7 below.

**Table 7**Influence of customer service on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.

		N = 204		
S/N	Item Statements	$\frac{\text{Mean}}{\overline{X}}$	S.D.	Remarks
1.	High quality customer service provided in a retail store influences customer impulse buying behaviour	4.39	0.55	Accepted
2.	Friendly employees and shop operators stimulate and influence impulse buying.	1 4.44	0.61	Accepted
3.	Information and advice provided to customers on technical specification of products can influence them to buy on impulse.		0.60	Accepted
4.	After-sales-service provided in the store encourages customers to buy on impulse	4.43	0.60	Accepted
5.	Store employees responsiveness and willingness to help can influence consumersøimpulse buying behaviour	4.45	0.50	Accepted
6.	Credit facilities in form of deferred payment can influence consumersøimpulse buying behaviour.	4.38	0.57	Accepted
7.	Speedy delivery services in the store can induce impulse buying among consumers.	e 4.37	0.65	Accepted
8.	Repair and technical support services to customers can encourage them to make impulse purchase.	4.33	0.60	Accepted
9.	Reward to customers for frequent patronage can influence them to buy some items on impulse.	4.43	0.65	Accepted
10.	Consumers are likely to buy on impulse from store whose service delivery quality matches with the consumersøservice quality expectation.		0.54	Accepted
11.	Self-service that allows customers freedom of choice in the store can induce impulse purchase	4.27	0.58	Accepted
12.	Free samples, discounts, bonus packs, etc can induce impulse buying among consumers.	4.48	0.55	Accepted
13.	Quick response to customer complaints can encourage impulse buying among consumers.	e 4.37	0.62	Accepted

Grand Mean 4.39

Table 7 above has 13 item statements with their Means ranging from 4.27 to 4.48. The Mean of each item statement is greater than 3.00, indicating that all the thirteen items on attractive customer service were accepted by Business Education Lecturers as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. A Grand Mean of 4.39 was obtained in the cluster indicating that all the items under customer service were accepted as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The Standard Deviation (S.D.) of the thirteen items ranged from 0.50 to 0.65, indicating that the respondents were not too far apart from their opinion.

## Research Question 7

What is the perception of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of promotion on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria? The data relevant to this research question were presented in Table 8 below.

Table 8

Influence of Promotion on the Impulse Buying behaviour of consumers in North-west zone of Nigeria.

	N = 204			
S/N	Item Statements	$\frac{\text{Mean}}{\overline{X}}$	S.D.	Remarks
1.	Advertising messages are capable of influencing consumers to buy certain goods on impulse from a retail store.	4.44	0.49	Accepted
2.	Radio and television advertisement can stimulate impulse buying among consumers.	4.38	0.63	Accepted
3.	Advertising message on new product influences consumersø reaction and enhances their impulse buying decision.		0.62	Accepted
4.	Out-door advertising is capable of inducing impulse buying.	4.26	0.68	Accepted
5.	Effective advertising can influence the customersø attitude towards impulse buying.	4.46	0.62	Accepted
6.	Sales promotion incentives such as free samples, coupons, cash refunds, prizes, free trials, and warranties can induce impulse buying among consumers.		0.63	Accepted
7.	Sales promotion attracts customers to the store and encourages impulse buying among them.	4.39	0.59	Accepted
8.	Prestigious sales promotion strategy can influence consumersøimpulse buying behaviour.	4.30	0.59	Accepted

4.38

The data presented in Table 8 above showed that the Mean of all the eight items on promotion ranged from 4.26 to 4.46. The Mean of each item was above 3.00. This indicated that the respondents accepted all the items as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. A Grand Mean of 4.38 was obtained in the cluster indicating that all the items in the cluster were accepted as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The Standard Deviation of the items ranged from 0.49 to 0.68. This indicated that the respondents were not too far apart in their opinion.

# Hypotheses

Table 9

**HO**<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference in the Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers with respect to their rank on the influence of retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The data relevant to this hypothesis were presented in Tables 9 - 15

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers and Chief Lecturers of Business Education on the Influence of Retail Store Location on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squ	Sum of Squares		p-value (Sig)	Rmk	
1.	The location of a retail store determines the	Between=	1.096	6	0.875	N.S.	
	frequency of customer traffic and impulse	Within=	88.884	197			
	purchase in the store.	Total =	89.980	203			
2.	Customers are often influenced by the	Between=	0.980	6	0.785	N.S.	
	convenient location of the store to stop by	Within=	60.682	197			
	and make impulse purchase.	Total =	61.662	203			
3.	Retail stores with special features such as	Between=	4.763	6	0.127	N.S.	
	parking space, ease of entry and exit can	Within=	92.899	197			
	attract customers to easily stop by and	Total =	97.662	203			
	make impulse buying.		1.050	_	0.400	N. G	
4	Retail stores located at attractive and	Between=	1.350	6	0.689	N.S.	
	conducive environment can influence the	Within=	68.076	197			
_	consumersøimpulse buying decision.	Total =	69.426	203	0.100	N. C	
5.	Stores located at shopping centres are more	Between=	5.086	6	0.180	N.S.	
	likely to influence consumersødesire to	Within=	111.321	197			
	stop by and make impulse purchase.	Total =	116.407	203			
6.	Retail stores located along consumersø	Between=	3.815	6	0.245	N.S.	
	regular route to and from office can	Within=	94.165	197			
	influence them to stop by and make impulse purchase.	Total =	97.980	203			
7.	Consumers are often influenced by stores	Between=	4.284	6	0.304	N.S.	
	located near their residence to visit and	Within=	116.476	197			
	make impulse purchases.	Total =	120.760	203			
8.	Stores whose locations are well planned are	Between=	3.704	6	0.352	N.S.	
	likely to influence consumersø desire to	Within=	108.546	197			
	visit and make impulse buying.	Total =	112.250	203			
9.	Strategically located stores are likely to	Between=	1.598	6	0.850	N.S.	
	influence consumers to make unplanned	Within=	118.559	197			
	visits and impulse purchases.	Total =	120.157	203			
10.	Retail stores located in affluent areas of a	Between=	2.556	6	0.447	N.S.	
	city are likely to influence more affluent	Within=	86.518	197			
	customers to buy on impulse.	Total =	89.074	203			
	Cluster p-value				0.480		

**Cluster p-value** Significant at p < 0.05

p-value

As shown in Table 9, all the observed items on retail store location had p-values (sig.) that ranged from 0.127 to 0.875, and 0.48 in the cluster, greater than 0.05 level of significance. The data revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents on all items of the influence of retail store location on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for all the items.

**Table 10**Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers and Chief Lecturers of Business Education on the Influence of Retail Store Design on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	se Buying Behaviour.	Sum of Squares		df	p-value	Rmk	
5/11	Item Statement	Sum or Squ	Sum of Squares		p-value (Sig)	KIIIK	
1.	Store designs that enhance the presentation	Between=	1.133	6	0.671	N.S.	
	of	Within=	55.157	197			
	merchandise can influence impulse buying	Total =	56.290	203			
	by customers.						
2.	Traffic aisle which allows for free flow of	Between=	8.139	6	0.008	S	
	traffic	Within=	89.092	197			
	across the display stands and shelves can	Total =	97.231	203			
	influence						
	consumersøimpulse buying decision.						
3.	Good lighting and ventilation in the retail	Between=	3.427	6	0.094	N.S.	
	store cause customers to shop with	Within=	61.259	197			
	relaxation and thus influence their impulse	Total =	64.686	203			
	buying decision						
4.	Retail store environment that is warmth and	Between=	0.708	6	0.927	N.S.	
	comfortable makes customers to stay	Within=	73.228	197			
_	longer and induces them to buy on impulse.	Total =	73.936	203			
5.	A store design such as free-form design	Between=	3.397	6	0.437	N.S.	
	that allows customers	Within=	113.309	197			
	to browse and wander freely in the store	Total =	116.706	203			
	can encourage						
	impulse buying.	ъ.	5.506		0.001	N. C	
6.	Air-conditioning, visual set, and soft	Between=	5.596	6	0.091	N.S.	
	background music in	Within=	99.242	197			
	a retail store can encourage customers to	Total =	104.838	203			
	stay longer and thus						
7.	stimulate them to make impulse purchases.	Between=	4.946	6	0.119	N.S.	
7.	A store layout with yellow brick road (a leading section	Within=	94.716	0 197	0.119	11.5.	
	through small inexpensive goods to larger	Total =	94.710	203			
	expensive goods)	Total –	99.002	203			
	can induce impulse purchase by customers.						
8.	A salesósupport-services section that	Between=	2.871	6	0.264	N.S.	
0.	provides customer	Within=	73.110	197	0.204	14.5.	
	services such as delivery can encourage	Total =	75.980	203			
	customers to make	Total –	75.700	203			
	impulse purchases.						
9.	The race-track design that allows customers	Between=	1.156	6	0.897	N.S.	
7.	to view all	Within=	102.388	197	0.077	11.5.	
	angles of the store encourages impulse	Total =	103.544	203			
	buying	10111	100.0	200			
10.	Merchandise sections prominently labeled	Between=	1.864	6	0.479	N.S.	
	with clear overhead	Within=	66.307	197			
	signs can encourage impulse buying	Total =	68.172	203			
11.	Stores with serene shopping environment	Between=	4.609	6	0.109	N.S.	
	induce impulse	Within=	85.901	197			
	buying by consumers.	Total =	90.510	203			
	Cluster p-value				0.372		
	_						

Significant at p < 0.05

Not Significant at p > 0.05

Data in Table 10 revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents on 10 out of the 11 items on retail store design whose p-values (sig.) were greater than 0.05 level of significance. The entire cluster had p-value of 0.37 greater than the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for 10 of the items. On the contrary, the data revealed that there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents on one of the eleven items whose p-value was less than 0.05 significance level. The hypothesis of no significant difference for that item was rejected. The Mean scores of all the groups (7) were compared using the Scheffeß test to locate the source(s) of the difference. The significant difference was located in the Mean scores of Lecturers II and Principal Lecturers (see Appendix F).

Table 11

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers and Chief Lecturers of Business Education on the Influence of Merchandise Display on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squ	uares	df	p-value	Rmk
		•			(Sig)	
1.	A good merchandise display in a retail	Between=	3.171	6	0.266	N.S.
	store induces customers to buy on impulse	Within=	81.118	197		
		Total =	84.289	203		
2.	A display pattern that has merchandise in	Between=	0.962	6	0.796	N.S.
	categories encourages impulse purchase.	Within=	61.327	197		
		Total =	62.289	203		
3.	Items positional at eye-catching level in the	Between=	2.002	6	0.308	N.S.
	store are capable of influencing customers	Within=	54.821	197		
	to make impulse purchases.	Total =	56.823	203		
4.	Items such as menøs suits, womenøs wears,	Between=	3.963	6	0.265	N.S.
	and jewelry can draw customers into the	Within=	100.122	197		
	entire length of the store thereby induce	Total =	104.084	203		
	impulse purchase.					
5.	Daily demand lines such as staple food	Between=	1.851	6	0.528	N.S.
	when placed near the store entrance can	Within=	70.988	197		
	influence impulse purchase.	Total =	72.838	203		
6.	Window display that provides a visual	Between=	3.803	6	0.125	N.S.
	image about the type of merchandise in the	Within=	73.824	197		
	store can influence customers to make	Total =	77.627	203		
	impulse purchases.					
7.	Impulse items displayed at the check-out	Between=	3.664	6	0.088	N.S.
	point can influence impulse buying by	Within=	64.317	197		
	customers while waiting to be attended to.	Total =	67.981	203		
8.	Self-service counter encourages customers	Between=	4.280	6	0.087	N.S.
	to examine merchandise and thus influence	Within=	74.877	197		
	them to make impulse purchase.	Total =	79.157	203		

Cluster p-value 0.307

Significant at p < 0.05

Data in Table 11 revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents on all the items on retail store merchandise display whose p-values in the cluster was 0.30 greater than 0.05 level of significance. The result showed that the hypothesis of no significant difference in respect of all the items was upheld because the seven groups of respondents did not differ significantly in their Mean responses on the influence of retail store merchandise display on impulse buying behaviour of consumers.

Table 12

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers and Chief Lecturers of Business Education on the Influence of Merchandise Assortment on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squ	ares	df	p-value (Sig)	Rmk
1.	Merchandise stocked according to	Between=	2.148	6	0.297	N.S.
	consumer needs can influence consumers to	Within=	57.788	197		
	make impulse buying in a retail store	Total =	59.936	203		
2.	Merchandise stocked according to the	Between=	4.568	6	0.144	N.S.
	needs of specific group of consumers can	Within=	92.662	197		
	influence impulse purchase by consumers	Total =	97.230	203		
3.	The quality of merchandise a store carries	Between=	4.789	6	0.175	N.S.
	influences consumersø decision to buy on	Within=	103.721	197		
	impulse.	Total =	108.510	203		
4.	A unique mix of products especially with	Between=	4.039	6	0.372	N.S.
	complimentary goods in a store influences	Within=	122.133	197		
	consumers to buy on impulse.	Total =	126.172	203		
5.	Consumer goods made available in	Between=	3.051	6	0.367	N.S.
	different varieties of color, model, size,	Within=	91.577	197		
	brand, and style in a store can influence	Total =	94.628	203		
	impulse buying decision of consumers.					
6.	A retail store with broad assortment of	Between=	3.284	6	0.297	N.S.
	product of many lines is likely to influence	Within=	88.260	197		
	consumersø decision to buy more goods on	Total =	91.544	203		
	impulse.					
7.	Low marginal products like chewing gum,	Between=	2.123	6	0.502	N.S.
	chocolate, magazines, and biscuit, though	Within=	78.167	197		
	not always in shopping list attract	Total =	80.290	203		
	consumers impulse buying tendency.					
8.	Retail stores that maintain stock availability	Between=	8.212	6	0.002	S
	are likely to influence consumersø decision	Within=	73.724	197		
	to stop-over and make impulse purchase.	Total =	81.936	203		
9.	Reliable products that function	Between=	6.523	6	0.168	N.S.
	satisfactorily over time attract customersø	Within=	139.413	197		
	impulse buying tendency.	Total =	145.936	203		
10.	Short life-span products like perishable	Between=	2.926	6	0.306	N.S.
	items are likely to influence consumersø	Within=	79.780	197		
	decision to buy on impulse.	Total =	82.706	203		
11.	Lighter and easily conveyed merchandise	Between=	5.826	6	0.043	S
	are likely to influence impulse buying	Within=	86.346	197		
	decision by the consumers.	Total =	92.172	203		
12.	Products that are easily stored and not	Between=	4.233	6	0.212	N.S.
-	vulnerable to quick decay can induce	Within=	98.395	197		
	impulse purchase by consumers.	Total =	102.628	203		
	Cluster n-value	·			0.240	

Cluster p-value 0.240

Significant at p < 0.05

As shown in Table 12 above, the observed p-values for 10 out of the 12 items on retail store merchandise assortment were greater than 0.05 significance level with a cluster p-value of 0.24. The result showed that the hypothesis of no significant difference in respect of 10 out of the 12 items was upheld because the seven groups of respondents did not differ significantly in their Mean responses on the influence of retail store merchandise assortment on impulse buying behaviour of consumers.

However, the data revealed that 2 out of the 12 items had their p-values less than 0.05 level of significance. This indicated that there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents on the 2 items. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference in respect of the 2 items on the influence of merchandise assortment on impulse buying behaviour was rejected. The Mean scores of all the groups (7) were compared using the Scheffes test to locate the source(s) of the difference. The significant difference was located in the Mean scores of Lecturers II and Principal Lecturers (see Appendix F).

Table 13

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers and Chief Lecturers of Business Education on the Influence of Price of Merchandise on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

1. Merchandise that are correctly priced are likely to influence consumersø impulse buying decision.  2. Price cut through mark-down (discount) to offer considerably low price can influence impulse buying decision.  3. Price cut on goods meant for clearance sales encourages consumers to buy on impulse.  4. Price fixed within the consumersø bargaining power can stimulate impulse buying decision  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  7. Two or simulate impulse buying and price consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  8. Within= 12.661 197  Total = 118.510 203  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  8. Vithin= 12.661 197  Total = 118.510 203  8. Detween= 1.082 6 0.0448 N.S.  Within= 121.678 197  Total = 122.760 203  8. Evene = 1.946 6 0.448 N.S.  Within= 65.990 197  Total = 67.936 203  8. Evene = 2.624 6 0.379 N.S.	S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squ	ares	df	p-value (Sig)	Rmk
buying decision.  2. Price cut through mark-down (discount) to offer considerably low price can influence impulse buying decision.  3. Price cut on goods meant for clearance sales encourages consumers to buy on impulse.  4. Price fixed within the consumersø buying decision  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  7. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  8. Price at through mark-down (discount) to Between= 2.061 6 0.622 N.S. Within= 92.111 197 Total = 82.686 203  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  8. Use of through mark-down (discount) to Between= 2.061 6 0.108 N.S. Within= 80.136 197  Total = 82.071 197 0.108 N.S. Within= 112.661 197 0.203  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. Suthin= 65.990 197 0.379 N.S. Suthin= 12.646 6 0.379 N.S. Suthin= 12.646	1.	Merchandise that are correctly priced are	Between=	2.962	6	0.318	N.S.
2. Price cut through mark-down (discount) to offer considerably low price can influence impulse buying decision.  3. Price cut on goods meant for clearance sales encourages consumers to buy on impulse.  4. Price fixed within the consumersor bargaining power can stimulate impulse buying decision  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by vibin at one price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying of products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  8. Price cut through mark-down (discount) to within = 192.111 197  Total = 94.172 203  8. Between= 4.215 6 0.108 N.S.  8. Evencen= 4.215 6 0.108 N.S.  Within= 112.661 197  Total = 117.073 203  8. Between= 5.100 6 0.188 N.S.  Within= 113.410 197  Total = 118.510 203  8. Between= 7.718 6 0.004 S  Within= 75.356 197  Total = 83.074 203  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  Within= 80.136 197		likely to influence consumersø impulse	Within=	82.371	197		
offer considerably low price can influence impulse buying decision.  3. Price cut on goods meant for clearance sales encourages consumers to buy on impulse.  4. Price fixed within the consumersø buying decision  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying buying among price-conscious consumers.  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by within=  10. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  Within=  10. Pitch   Pitch		buying decision.	Total =	85.333	203		
offer considerably low price can influence impulse buying decision.  3. Price cut on goods meant for clearance sales encourages consumers to buy on impulse.  4. Price fixed within the consumersø buying decision  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying buying among price-conscious consumers.  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by within=  10. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  Within=  10. Pitch   Pitch	2.	Price cut through mark-down (discount) to	Between=	2.061	6	0.622	N.S.
3. Price cut on goods meant for clearance sales encourages consumers to buy on impulse.  4. Price fixed within the consumersø between= to buying decision  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying decision  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying buying buying by consumers.  8. Vithin= 121.678 197 and 122.760 203  8. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  8. Under the vithin and			Within=	92.111	197		
sales encourages consumers to buy on impulse.  Total = 82.686 203  4. Price fixed within the consumersø Between= 4.412 6 0.265 N.S. bargaining power can stimulate impulse Within= 112.661 197 buying decision Total = 117.073 203  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying Total = 118.510 203  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious Consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  Within= 75.356 197 Total = 83.074 203  Between= 1.082 6 0.940 N.S.  Within= 121.678 197  Total = 122.760 203  Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S.  Between= 2.624 6 0.379 N.S.		impulse buying decision.	Total =	94.172	203		
sales encourages consumers to buy on impulse.  Total = 82.686 203  4. Price fixed within the consumersø Between= 4.412 6 0.265 N.S. bargaining power can stimulate impulse Within= 112.661 197 buying decision Total = 117.073 203  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying Total = 118.510 203  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious Consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  Within= 75.356 197 Total = 83.074 203  Between= 1.082 6 0.940 N.S.  Within= 121.678 197  Total = 122.760 203  Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S.  Between= 2.624 6 0.379 N.S.	3.	Price cut on goods meant for clearance	Between=	4.215	6	0.108	N.S.
impulse.  Price fixed within the consumersø Between= 4.412 6 0.265 N.S. bargaining power can stimulate impulse buying decision Total = 117.073 203  Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying Total = 118.510 203  Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  Total = 118.510 203  Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious within= 75.356 197  Total = 83.074 203  Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  Each of the consumers			Within=	78.471	197		
4. Price fixed within the consumersø bargaining power can stimulate impulse buying decision  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce buying among price-conscious consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying buy			Total =	82.686	203		
buying decision  Total = 117.073 203  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned between= 5.100 6 0.188 N.S. by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying Total = 118.510 203  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  Within= 121.678 197 122.760 203 122.760 203 123.76 197 124.76 197 197 197 197 197 197 197 197 197 197	4.		Between=	4.412	6	0.265	N.S.
buying decision  Total = 117.073 203  5. Scarcity of an essential product occasioned between= 5.100 6 0.188 N.S. by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying Total = 118.510 203  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious Within= 75.356 197 consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  Within= 117.073 203  Between= 5.100 6 0.188 N.S.  N.S. Total = 118.510 203  Nounce Total = 75.356 197  Total = 83.074 203  Nounce Total = 83.074 203  Nounce Total = 122.760 203  Setween= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S.  Within= 65.990 197  Total = 67.936 203  Price labeling on products in the store can setween= 2.624 6 0.379 N.S.  Within= 80.136 197		bargaining power can stimulate impulse	Within=	112.661	197		
by anticipated price increase can induce within= 113.410 197 impulse buying Total = 118.510 203  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious within= 75.356 197 consumers. Total = 83.074 203  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers. Within= 121.678 197 among consumers. Total = 122.760 203  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by within= 65.990 197 consumers. Total = 67.936 203  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197			Total =	117.073	203		
by anticipated price increase can induce within= 113.410 197 impulse buying Total = 118.510 203  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious within= 75.356 197 consumers. Total = 83.074 203  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers. Within= 121.678 197 among consumers. Total = 122.760 203  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by within= 65.990 197 consumers. Total = 67.936 203  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197	5.	Scarcity of an essential product occasioned	Between=	5.100	6	0.188	N.S.
impulse buying Total = 118.510 203  6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious Within= 7.718 6 0.004 S impulse buying among price-conscious Within= 75.356 197 Total = 83.074 203  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by Within= 121.678 197 Total = 122.760 203 S impulse buying of complimentary products by Within= 65.990 197 Consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197			Within=	113.410	197		
6. Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious Within= 75.356 197 consumers.  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by Within= 121.678 197 consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by Within= 65.990 197 consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197			Total =	118.510	203		
impulse buying among price-conscious Within= 75.356 197 consumers. Total = 83.074 203  7. Two or more different products given at Between= 1.082 6 0.940 N.S. one price can encourage impulse buying Within= 121.678 197 among consumers. Total = 122.760 203  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by Within= 65.990 197 consumers. Total = 67.936 203  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197	6.		Between=	7.718	6	0.004	S
consumers.  Total = 83.074 203  7. Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by Within= 65.990 197 consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  Total = 83.074 203  1.082 6 0.940 N.S.  Within= 122.760 203  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S.  Total = 67.936 203  9. Price labeling on products in the store can setween= 2.624 6 0.379 N.S.  Within= 80.136 197			Within=	75.356	197		
one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by Within= 65.990 197 consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  Within= 80.136 197			Total =	83.074	203		
one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by Within= 65.990 197 consumers.  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.  Within= 2.624 6 0.379 N.S. within= 80.136 197	7.	Two or more different products given at	Between=	1.082	6	0.940	N.S.
among consumers.  Total = 122.760 203  8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by Within= 65.990 197 consumers.  Total = 67.936 203  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197			Within=	121.678	197		
8. Leader pricing can influence impulse Between= 1.946 6 0.448 N.S. buying of complimentary products by Within= 65.990 197 consumers. Total = 67.936 203  9. Price labeling on products in the store can Between= 2.624 6 0.379 N.S. stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197			Total =	122.760	203		
buying of complimentary products by Within= 65.990 197 consumers. Total = 67.936 203  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197  N.S. Within= 80.136 197	8.		Between=	1.946	6	0.448	N.S.
consumers. Total = 67.936 203  9. Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197  Total = 67.936 203  2.624 6 0.379 N.S.			Within=	65.990	197		
stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197			Total =	67.936	203		
stimulate impulse buying by consumers. Within= 80.136 197	9.	Price labeling on products in the store can	Between=	2.624	6	0.379	N.S.
			Within=	80.136	197		
Total = 82.760 - 203		1 , 2 ,	Total =	82.760	203		

Cluster p-value

0.363

Significant at p < 0.05

Not Significant at p > 0.05

Data in Table 13 revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents on 8 out of the 9 items on price of merchandise whose p-values were greater

than 0.05 significance level. Therefore, with a cluster p-value of 0.36, the hypothesis of no significant difference for the entire cluster was upheld. The Mean scores of all the groups (7) were compared using the Scheffe® test to locate the source(s) of the difference in Item 6. The significant difference was located in the Mean scores of Lecturers II and Principal Lecturers (see Appendix F).

**Table 14**Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers and Chief Lecturers of Business Education on the Influence of Customer Service on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squa	res	df	p-value	Rmk
1.	High quality customer service provided in a	Between=	1.262	6	(Sig) 0.668	N.S.
1.	retail store influences customer impulse	Within=	61.145	197	0.008	113.
	buying behaviour	Total =	62.407	203		
2.	Friendly employees and shop operators	Between=	3.283	6	0.188	N.S.
۷.	stimulate and influence impulse buying.	Within=	73.011	197	0.100	14.5.
	stillurate and influence impulse buying.	Total =	76.294	203		
3.	Information and advice provided to	Between=	2.518	6	0.340	N.S.
3.	customers on technical specification of	Within=	72.463	197	0.540	14.5.
	products can influence them to buy on	Total =	74.981	203		
	impulse.	10111 –	74.501	203		
4.	After-sales-service provided in the store	Between=	0.884	6	0.880	N.S.
	encourages customers to buy on impulse	Within=	73.155	197	0.000	14.5.
	encourages customers to buy on impulse	Total =	74.039	203		
5.	Store employees responsiveness and	Between=	2.724	6	0.102	N.S.
5.	willingness to help can influence	Within=	49.786	197	0.102	14.5.
	consumersø impulse buying behaviour	Total =	52.510	203		
6.	Credit facilities in form of deferred	Between=	2.950	6	0.183	N.S.
0.	payment can influence consumersø impulse	Within=	64.987	197	0.105	11.0.
	buying behaviour.	Total =	67.937	203		
7.	Speedy delivery services in the store can	Between=	8.090	6	0.004	S
,.	induce impulse buying among consumers.	Within=	79.597	197	0.001	b
	made impaise outing among consumers.	Total =	87.686	203		
8.	Repair and technical support services to	Between=	5.112	6	0.026	S
-	customers can encourage them to make	Within=	68.221	197	****	~
	impulse purchase.	Total =	73.333	203		
9.	Reward to customers for frequent	Between=	4.101	6	0.136	N.S.
	patronage can influence them to buy some	Within=	81.796	197		
	items on impulse.	Total =	85.897	203		
10.	Consumers are likely to buy on impulse	Between=	3.115	6	0.109	N.S.
	from store whose service delivery quality	Within=	58.042	197		
	matches with the consumersø service	Total =	61.157	203		
	quality expectation.					
11.	Self-service that allows customers freedom	Between=	4.430	6	0.038	S
	of choice in the store can induce impulse	Within=	63.742	197		
	purchase	Total =	68.172	203		
12	Free samples, discounts, bonus packs, etc	Between=	5.561	6	0.005	S
	can induce impulse buying among	Within=	57.361	197		
	consumers.	Total =	62.922	203		
13	Quick response to customer complaints can	Between=	2.121	6	0.495	N.S.
	encourage impulse buying among	Within=	77.305	197		
	consumers.	Total =	79.426	203		
	Cluster n-value				0.244	

Cluster p-value 0.244

Significant at  $p < 0.05\,$ 

As shown in Table 14 above, the observed p-values for 9 out of the 13 items on customer service were greater than 0.05 significance level. Therefore, with a cluster p-value of 0.24, the result showed that the hypothesis of no significant difference for the cluster was upheld because the seven groups of respondents did not differ significantly in their Mean responses on the influence of customer service on impulse buying behaviour of consumers. The Mean scores of all the groups (7) were compared using the Scheffeøs test to locate the source(s) of the difference. The significant differences as seen in Items 7, 8, 11, and 12 were located in the Mean scores of Lecturers II and Principal Lecturers (see Appendix F).

Table 15

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers III, II, I, Senior Lecturers, Principal Lecturers and Chief Lecturers of Business Education on the Influence of Promotion on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squa	ares	df	p-value (Sig)	Rmk
1.	Advertising messages are capable of	Between=	2.678	6	0.091	N.S.
	influencing consumers to buy certain goods	Within=	47.494	197		
	on impulse from a retail store.	Total =	50.172	203		
2.	Radio and television advertisement can	Between=	2.867	6	0.313	N.S.
	stimulate impulse buying among	Within=	79.069	197		
	consumers.	Total =	81.936	203		
3.	Advertising message on new product	Between=	5.155	6	0.040	S
	influences consumersø reaction and	Within=	75.139	197		
	enhances their impulse buying decision.	Total =	80.294	203		
4.	Out-door advertising is capable of inducing	Between=	1.247	6	0.855	N.S.
	impulse buying.	Within=	93.984	197		
		Total =	95.230	203		
5.	Effective advertising can influence the	Between=	4.500	6	0.068	N.S.
	customersø attitude towards impulse	Within=	74.103	197		
	buying.	Total =	78.603	203		
6.	Sales promotion incentives such as free	Between=	1.858	6	0.604	N.S.
	samples, coupons, cash refunds, prizes, free	Within=	80.549	197		
	trials, and warranties can induce impulse	Total =	82.407	203		
	buying among consumers.					
7.	Sales promotion attracts customers to the	Between=	1.471	6	0.665	N.S.
	store and encourages impulse buying	Within=	70.936	197		
	among them.	Total =	72.407	203		
8.	Prestigious sales promotion strategy can	Between=	3.339	6	0.142	N.S.
	influence consumersø impulse buying	Within=	67.421	197		
	behaviour.	Total =	70.760	203		
	Cl. 4				0.245	

Cluster p-value 0.347

Significant at p < 0.05

Not Significant at p > 0.05

As shown above, data on Table 15 revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of 7 out of the 8 items on promotion whose p-values (sig.) were greater than 0.05 level of significance. On the contrary, the data revealed

that there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents on one of the seven items whose p-value was less than 0.05 significance level. However, since the p-value for the entire cluster (0.34) was greater than 0.05 level of significance, the hypothesis of no significant difference for the entire cluster was upheld.

 $HO_2$ : There is no significant difference between the Mean responses of male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The data relevant to this hypothesis were presented in Tables 16-22.

Table 16

The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Retail Store Location on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	N <sub>1</sub> =125 Male X1	$\mathbf{S}^{2}$	N <sub>2</sub> =79 Female X <sub>2</sub>	$\mathbf{S}^2$	t-cal	t-tab	Rmk
1.	The location of a retail store determines the frequency of customer traffic and impulse purchase in the store.	4.38	0.35	4.28	0.58	1.10	1.96	N.S.
2.	Customers are often influenced by the convenient location of the store to stop by and make impulse purchase.	4.37	0.28	4.29	0.33	0.97	õ	N.S.
3.	Retail stores with special features such as parking space, ease of entry and exit can attract customers to easily stop by and make impulse buying.	4.39	0.43	4.25	0.55	1.39	õ	N.S.
4.	Retail stores located at attractive and conducive environment can influence the consumersøimpulse buying decision.	4.38	0.23	4.34	0.50	0.50	õ	N.S.
5.	Stores located at shopping centres are more likely to influence consumersø desire to stop by and make impulse purchase.	4.14	0.53	4.08	0.63	0.55	õ	N.S.
6.	Retail stores located along consumersø regular route to and from office can influence them to stop by and make impulse purchase.	4.42	0.34	4.23	0.69	1.89	õ	N.S.
7.	Consumers are often influenced by stores located near their residence to visit and make impulse purchases.	4.29	0.49	4.32	0.75	-0.25	õ	N.S.
8.	Stores whose locations are well planned are likely to influence consumersødesire to visit and make	4.28	0.39	4.20	0.80	0.72	õ	N.S.
9.	impulse buying.  Strategically located stores are likely to influence consumers to make unplanned visits and impulse	4.25	0.52	4.11	0.69	1.21	õ	N.S.
10.	purchases. Retail stores located in affluent areas of a city are likely to influence more affluent customers to buy on impulse.	4.21	0.31	4.24	0.64	-0.34	õ	N.S.

Cluster t-cal 1.44

Table 16 above revealed that all the 10 items in the cluster had t-cal of 1.44 lower than the t-tab of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance (two-tailed test) and 202 level of freedom. This indicated that with respect to the 10 items, there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store location on consumer impulse buying behaviour. With the above result, the hypothesis of no significant difference between the two groups of respondents was upheld.

Table 17

The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Retail Store Design on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	N <sub>1</sub> =125 <u>Mal</u> e	2	N <sub>2</sub> =79 Female	-2	t-cal	t-tab	Remark
		$\overline{X}_1$	S <sup>2</sup>	$X_2$	S <sup>2</sup>			
1.	Store designs that enhance the presentation of merchandise can influence impulse buying	4.26	0.29	4.41	0.24	-0.87	1.96	N.S.
2.	by customers.  Traffic aisle which allows for free flow of traffic across the display stands and shelves can influence	4.03	0.46	4.19	0.48	-0.59	õ	N.S.
3.	consumersøimpulse buying decision. Good lighting and ventilation in the retail store cause customers to shop with relaxation and thus influence their impulse buying decision	4.46	0.26	4.47	0.40	-0.15	õ	N.S.
4.	Retail store environment that is warmth and comfortable makes customers to stay longer and induces them to buy on impulse.	4.36	0.31	4.41	0.44	-0.51	õ	N.S.
5.	A store design such as free-form design that allows customers to browse and wander freely in the store can encourage impulse buying.	4.23	0.47	4.24	0.74	-0.07	õ	N.S.
6.	Air-conditioning, visual set, and soft background music in a retail store can encourage customers to stay longer and thus stimulate them to make impulse purchases.	4.45	0.28	4.32	0.88	1.27	õ	N.S.
7.	A store layout with yellow brick road (a leading section through small inexpensive goods to larger expensive goods) can induce impulse purchase by customers.	4.18	0.39	4.13	0.64	0.56	õ	N.S.
8.	A salesósupport-services section that provides customer services such as delivery can encourage customers to make impulse purchases.	4.33	0.27	4.37	0.54	-0.44	õ	N.S.
9.	The race-track design that allows customers to view all angles of the store encourages impulse buying	4.06	0.56	4.39	0.36	-3.27	õ	N.S.
0.	Merchandise sections prominently labeled with clear overhead signs can encourage impulse buying	4.23	0.34	4.23	0.33	0.05	õ	N.S.
1.	Stores with serene shopping environment induce impulse buying by consumers.	4.23	0.28	4.19	0.71	0.43	õ	N.S.
	Cluster t-cal					-1.15		

Key: Variance 125 79 202

The data presented in Table 17 above revealed that the entire cluster on retail store design had t-cal of -1.15, lower than the t-tab. of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance (two-tailed test) and 202 degrees of freedom. This indicated that for all the items, there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the two groups of respondents on the influence of retail store design on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

With the above result, the hypothesis of no significant difference between the Mean responses of male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store design on consumer impulse buying behaviour was upheld.

Table 18

The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of

	Item Statement	$N_1 = 125$		$N_2 = 79$		t-cal	t-tab	Remark
S/N	Tem Statement	Male		Female		t-cai	เ-เลม	Killai K
		$\overline{X}_1$	$S^2$	$\overline{X}_2$	$S^2$			
1.	A good merchandise display in a retail store induces customers to buy on impulse	4.29	0.36	4.37	0.49	-0.85	1.96	N.S.
2.	A display pattern that has merchandise in categories encourages impulse purchase.	4.30	0.27	4.34	0.34	-0.47	õ	N.S.
3.	Items positional at eye-catching level in the store are capable of influencing customers to make impulse purchases.	4.46	0.29	4.65	0.23	-2.52	õ	N.S.
4.	Items such as menøs suits, womenøs wears, and jewelry can draw customers into the entire length of the store thereby induce impulse purchase.	4.35	0.32	4.28	0.81	0.68	õ	N.S.
5.	Daily demand lines such as staple food when placed near the store entrance can influence impulse purchase.	4.42	0.33	4.37	0.38	0.56	õ	N.S.
6.	Window display that provides a visual image about the type of merchandise in the store can influence customers to make impulse purchases.	4.20	0.30	4.27	0.50	-0.74	õ	N.S.
7.	Impulse items displayed at the check-out point can influence impulse buying by customers while waiting to be attended to.	4.30	0.29	4.41	0.39	-0.21	õ	N.S.
8	Self-service counter encourages customers to examine merchandise and thus influence them to make impulse purchase.	4.32	0.36	4.28	0.42	0.46	õ	N.S.

Key: Variance  $N_1$ = 125  $N_2$ 79 df 202

The t-test analysis of data in Table 18 above revealed that the entire cluster on merchandise display had t-cal of -1.19, lower than the t-tab. of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance (two-tailed test) and 202 degrees of freedom. This indicated that for all the items, there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the two groups of respondents on the influence of merchandise display on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

With the above result, the hypothesis of no significant difference between male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of merchandise display on consumer impulse buying behaviour was upheld.

Table 19

The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Merchandise Assortment on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	N <sub>1</sub> =125 Male X <sub>1</sub>	$S^2$	N <sub>2</sub> =79 Female X <sub>2</sub>	$S^2$	t-cal	t-tab	Rmk
1.	Merchandise stocked according to consumer needs can influence consumers to make impulse buying in a retail store	4.29	0.25	4.29	0.36	-0.04	1.96	N.S.
2.	Merchandise stocked according to the needs of specific group of consumers can influence impulse purchase by consumers	4.26	0.40	4.27	0.60	-0.09	õ	N.S.
3.	The quality of merchandise a store carries influences consumersø decision to buy on impulse.	4.22	0.39	4.22	0.76	0.01	õ	N.S.
4.	A unique mix of products especially with complimentary goods in a store influences consumers to buy on impulse.	4.17	0.72	4.33	0.45	-0.42	õ	N.S.
5.	Consumer goods made available in different varieties of color, model, size, brand, and style in a store can influence impulse buying decision of consumers.	4.23	0.47	4.34	0.46	-1.11	õ	N.S.
6.	A retail store with broad assortment of product of many lines is likely to influence consumersø decision to buy more goods on impulse.	4.28	0.36	4.35	0.59	-0.77	õ	N.S.
7.	Low marginal products like chewing gum, chocolate, magazines, and biscuit, though not always in shopping list attract consumers impulse buying tendency.	4.29	0.41	4.44	0.35	-1.72	õ	N.S.
8.	Retail stores that maintain stock availability are likely to influence consumersø decision to stop-over and make impulse purchase.	4.30	0.32	4.28	0.53	0.19	õ	N.S.
9.	Reliable products that function satisfactorily over time attract customersø impulse buying tendency.	4.10	0.81	4.39	0.52	-2.46	õ	N.S.
10.	Short life-span products like perishable items are likely to influence consumersø decision to buy on impulse.	4.14	0.47	4.38	0.26	-2.60	õ	N.S.
11.	Lighter and easily conveyed merchandise are likely to influence impulse buying decision by the consumers.	4.26	0.30	4.29	0.69	-0.36	õ	N.S.
12.	Products that are easily stored and not vulnerable to quick decay can induce impulse purchase by consumers.	4.19	0.55	4.41	0.39	-2.10	õ	N.S.
	Cluster t-cal					-2.51		

 $\begin{array}{cccc} \textbf{Cluster t-cal} \\ \text{Key:} & S^2 & = & \text{Variance} \\ & N_1 & = & 125 \\ & N_2 & = & 79 \\ & df & = & 202 \end{array}$ 

The data on Table 19 above revealed that the entire cluster on retail merchandise assortment had t-cal of -2.51, lower than the t-tab of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance (two-tailed test) and 202 level of freedom. This indicated that with respect to the 12 items, there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of merchandise assortment on consumer impulse buying behaviour. With the above result, the hypothesis of no significant difference between the two groups of respondents was upheld.

Table 20

The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Price of Merchandise on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	N <sub>1</sub> =125		N <sub>2</sub> =79		t-cal	t-tab	Remark
		Male		Female				
		X <sub>1</sub>	$S^2$	X <sub>2</sub>	$S^2$			
1.	Merchandise that are correctly priced are likely to influence consumersø impulse buying decision.	4.30	0.39	4.38	0.46	-0.81	1.96	N.S.
2.	Price cut through mark-down (discount) to offer considerably low price can influence impulse buying decision.	4.47	0.25	4.38	0.80	0.94	õ	N.S.
3.	Price cut on goods meant for clearance sales encourages consumers to buy on impulse.	4.45	0.31	4.48	0.56	-0.35	õ	N.S.
4.	Price fixed within the consumersø bargaining power can stimulate impulse buying decision	4.29	0.57	4.27	0.58	0.20	õ	N.S.
5.	Scarcity of an essential product occasioned by anticipated price increase can induce impulse buying	4.17	0.52	4.29	0.67	-1.12	õ	N.S.
6.	Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing impulse buying among price-conscious consumers.	4.21	0.45	4.39	0.31	-2.02	õ	N.S.
7.	Two or more different products given at one price can encourage impulse buying among consumers.	4.12	0.73	4.33	0.37	-1.88	õ	N.S.
8.	Leader pricing can influence impulse buying of complimentary products by consumers.	4.20	0.37	4.43	0.24	-2.81	õ	N.S.
9.	Price labeling on products in the store can stimulate impulse buying by consumers.	4.31	0.24	4.28	0.66	0.36	õ	N.S.

Key:  $S^2 = Variance$   $N_1 = 125$  $N_2 = 79$ 

202

Cluster t-cal

df

The data presented in Table 20 above revealed that the entire cluster on the price of merchandise had t-cal of -1.79 lower than the t-tab. of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance (two-tailed test) and 202 degrees of freedom. This indicated that for all the items, there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the two groups of respondents on the influence of price of merchandise on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

-1.79

With the above result, the hypothesis of no significant difference between the Mean responses of male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of price of merchandise on consumer impulse buying behaviour was upheld.

Table 21

The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Customer Service on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	N <sub>1</sub> =125 Male		N <sub>2</sub> =79 Female		t-cal	t-tab	Remark
		$\mathbf{X}_{1}$	$S^2$	$\mathbf{X}_{2}$	$S^2$			
1.	High quality customer service provided in a retail store influences customer impulse buying behaviour	4.35	0.29	4.44	0.33	-1.14	1.96	N.S.
2.	Friendly employees and shop operators stimulate and influence impulse buying.	4.44	0.34	4.44	0.43	-0.03	õ	N.S.
3.	Information and advice provided to customers on technical specification of products can influence them to buy on impulse.	4.42	0.34	4.61	0.39	-2.21	õ	N.S.
4.	After-sales-service provided in the store encourages customers to buy on impulse	4.46	0.25	4.38	0.54	0.97	õ	N.S.
5.	Store employees responsiveness and willingness to help can influence consumersøimpulse buying behaviour	4.43	0.24	4.48	0.27	-0.67	õ	N.S.
6.	Credit facilities in form of deferred payment can influence consumersø impulse buying behaviour.	4.38	0.23	4.37	0.49	0.20	õ	N.S.
7.	Speedy delivery services in the store can induce impulse buying among consumers.	4.38	0.28	4.37	0.67	0.09	õ	N.S.
8.	Repair and technical support services to customers can encourage them to make impulse purchase.	4.33	0.38	4.34	0.33	-0.15	õ	N.S.
9.	Reward to customers for frequent patronage can influence them to buy some items on impulse.	4.44	0.37	4.41	0.50	0.37	õ	N.S.
10.	Consumers are likely to buy on impulse from store whose service delivery quality matches with the consumersø service quality expectation.	4.35	0.32	4.38	0.26	-0.35	õ	N.S.
11.	Self-service that allows customers freedom of choice in the store can induce impulse purchase	4.17	0.35	4.43	0.27	-3.22	õ	N.S.
12.	Free samples, discounts, bonus packs, etc can induce impulse buying among consumers.	4.46	0.35	4.52	0.25	-0.78	õ	N.S.
13.	Quick response to customer complaints can encourage impulse buying among consumers.	4.35	0.34	4.39	0.47	-0.44	õ	N.S.

-1.28

Cluster t-cal

Key: 
$$S^2 = Variance$$
  
 $N_1 = 125$   
 $N_2 = 79$   
 $df = 202$ 

The t-test analysis of data in Table 21 above revealed that all the 13 items on customer service had their t-cal lower than the t-tab. of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance (two-tailed test) and 202 degrees of freedom. This indicated that for all the items, there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the two groups of respondents on the influence of customer service on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

With the above result, the hypothesis of no significant difference between male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of customer service on consumer impulse buying behaviour was upheld.

Table 22

The t-test analysis of Mean Responses of Male and Female Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Promotion on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

Advertising messages are capable of influencing consumers to buy certain goods on impulse from a retail store. Radio and television advertisement can stimulate impulse buying among consumers.  Advertising message on new product influences consumersø reaction and enhances their impulse buying decision.  Out-door advertising is capable of	Male X <sub>1</sub> 4.43 4.44	S <sup>2</sup> 0.25 0.29 0.30	Female X <sub>2</sub> 4.44 4.32 4.44	S <sup>2</sup> 0.25 0.58 0.56	-0.15 1.09 -0.03	1.96 õ	N.S.
influencing consumers to buy certain goods on impulse from a retail store. Radio and television advertisement can stimulate impulse buying among consumers. Advertising message on new product influences consumersø reaction and enhances their impulse buying decision.	4.43 4.42	0.25	4.44	0.25	1.09	õ	N.S.
influencing consumers to buy certain goods on impulse from a retail store. Radio and television advertisement can stimulate impulse buying among consumers. Advertising message on new product influences consumersø reaction and enhances their impulse buying decision.	4.42	0.29	4.32	0.58	1.09	õ	N.S.
can stimulate impulse buying among consumers. Advertising message on new product influences consumersø reaction and enhances their impulse buying decision.							
influences consumersø reaction and enhances their impulse buying decision.	4.44	0.30	4.44	0.56	-0.03	õ	37.0
Out door advertising is capable of							N.S.
inducing impulse buying.	4.25	0.43	4.28	0.54	-0.30	õ	N.S.
Effective advertising can influence the customersø attitude towards impulse buying.	4.46	0.31	4.46	0.51	0.003	õ	N.S.
Sales promotion incentives such as free samples, coupons, cash refunds, prizes, free trials, and warranties can induce impulse buying among consumers.	4.44	0.30	4.46	0.59	-0.17	õ	N.S.
Sales promotion attracts customers to the store and encourages impulse buying among them.	4.45	0.34	4.29	0.36	1.83	õ	N.S.
	4.27	0.42	4.34	0.23	-0.82	õ	N.S.
t	consumers. Sales promotion attracts customers to the store and encourages impulse buying among them. Prestigious sales promotion strategy can influence consumersø impulse	Sales promotion attracts customers to 4.45 the store and encourages impulse buying among them.  Prestigious sales promotion strategy 4.27 transinfluence consumersø impulse	Sales promotion attracts customers to 4.45 0.34 the store and encourages impulse buying among them.  Prestigious sales promotion strategy 4.27 0.42	consumers. Sales promotion attracts customers to 4.45 0.34 4.29 the store and encourages impulse buying among them. Prestigious sales promotion strategy 4.27 0.42 4.34 tean influence consumersø impulse	consumers. Sales promotion attracts customers to 4.45 0.34 4.29 0.36 the store and encourages impulse buying among them. Prestigious sales promotion strategy 4.27 0.42 4.34 0.23 can influence consumersø impulse	consumers. Sales promotion attracts customers to 4.45 0.34 4.29 0.36 1.83 The store and encourages impulse buying among them.  Prestigious sales promotion strategy 4.27 0.42 4.34 0.23 -0.82 The influence consumers impulse	consumers. Sales promotion attracts customers to 4.45 0.34 4.29 0.36 1.83 õ he store and encourages impulse buying among them. Prestigious sales promotion strategy 4.27 0.42 4.34 0.23 -0.82 õ ean influence consumersø impulse

Key:  $S^2 = Variance$   $N_1 = 125$   $N_2 = 79$ df = 202

The data presented in Table 22 above revealed that the entire cluster on retail promotion had t-cal of 0.36 lower than the t-tab. of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance (two-tailed test) and 202 degrees of freedom. This

indicated that for all the items, there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the two groups of respondents on the influence of promotion on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

With the above result, the hypothesis of no significant difference between the Mean responses of male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of promotion on consumer impulse buying behaviour was upheld.

**HO**<sub>3</sub>: There is no significant difference in the Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers with respect to their age on the influence of retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

Data related to this hypothesis were presented in Tables 23 - 29.

Table 23

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle-Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Retail Store Location on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squares	df	p-value	Rmk
				(Sig)	
1.	The location of a retail store determines	Between $= 1.376$	2	0.213	N.S.
	the frequency of customer traffic and	Within $=$ 88.605	201		
	impulse purchase in the store.	Total = 89.981	203		
2.	Customers are often influenced by the	Between $= 0.279$	2	0.634	N.S.
	convenient location of the store to stop	Within $= 61.383$	201		
	by and make impulse purchase.	Total = $61.662$	203		
3.	Retail stores with special features such as	Between $= 1.776$	2	0.158	N.S.
	parking space, ease of entry and exit can	Within = 95.886	201		
	attract customers to easily stop by and	Total = $97.662$	203		
	make impulse buying.				
4.	Retail stores located at attractive and	Between $= 1.350$	2	0.139	N.S.
	conducive environment can influence the	Within = 68.076	201		
	consumersøimpulse buying decision.	Total = 69.426	203		
5.	Stores located at shopping centres are	Between $= 3.443$	2	0.049	S
	more likely to influence consumersø	Within = $112.964$	201		
	desire to stop by and make impulse	Total = 116.407	203		
	purchase.				
6.	Retail stores located along consumersø	Between $= 0.509$	2	0.592	N.S.
	regular route to and from office can	Within = $97.471$	201		
	influence them to stop by and make	Total = 97.980	203		
	impulse purchase.				
7.	Consumers are often influenced by stores	Between $= 2.697$	2	0.103	N.S.
	located near their residence to visit and	Within = 118.063	201		
	make impulse purchases.	Total = 120.760	203		
8.	Stores whose locations are well planned	Between $= 0.973$	2	0.417	N.S.
	are likely to influence consumersødesire	Within = 111.277	201		
	to visit and make impulse buying.	Total = 112.250	203		
9.	Strategically located stores are likely to	Between = 1.127	2	0.388	N.S.
	influence consumers to make unplanned	Within = 119.030	201		
	visits and impulse purchases.	Total = 120.157	203		
10.	Retail stores located in affluent areas of a	Between $= 0.511$	2	0.561	N.S.
	city are likely to influence more affluent	Within = 88.563	201	3.001	1,
	customers to buy on impulse.	Total = 89.074	203		
	customers to out on impulse.	10001 07.074	55	0.225	

Cluster p-value

0.325

Significant at p < 0.05

Not Significant at p > 0.05

As shown in Table 23 above, the observed p-values for 9 out of the 10 items on retail store location were greater than 0.05 significance level. The result showed that the hypothesis of no significant difference in respect of

9 out of the 10 items was upheld because the three groups of respondents did not differ significantly in their Mean responses on the influence of retail store location on impulse buying behaviour of consumers.

The data also revealed that one out of the ten items had p-value less than 0.05 level of significance. This indicated that there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on the item. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference in respect of item 3 on the table relating to the influence of merchandise assortment on impulse buying behaviour was rejected. The Mean scores of all the groups (3) were compared using the Scheffeøs test to locate the source(s) of the difference. Only the respondents within the age range of 25 ó 40 and 50 years and above indicated significant difference between them (see Appendix F). However, the entire cluster had p-value(0.325) greater than 0.05 level of significance indicating that the null hypothesis for the cluster was upheld.

**Table 24**Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle-Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Retail Store Design on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squares	df	p-value (sig)	Rmk
1.	Store designs that enhance the presentation of	Between $= 0.416$	2	0.474	N.S.
	merchandise can influence impulse buying	Within $= 55.873$	201		
	by customers.	Total = 56.289	203		
2.	Traffic aisle which allows for free flow of	Between $= 4.075$	2	0.014	S
	traffic	Within $= 93.156$	201		
	across the display stands and shelves can	Total = $97.230$	203		
	influence				
	consumersøimpulse buying decision.				
3.	Good lighting and ventilation in the retail	Between $= 0.579$	2	0.405	N.S.
	store cause customers to shop with relaxation	Within $= 64.108$	201		
	and thus influence their impulse buying	Total = 64.686	203		
	decision				
4.	Retail store environment that is warmth and	Between $= 0.839$	2	0.317	N.S.
	comfortable makes customers to stay longer	Within $= 73.097$	201		
	and induces them to buy on impulse.	Total = 73.936	203		
5.	A store design such as free-form design that	Between $= 3.193$	2	0.062	N.S.
	allows customers	Within = $113.512$	201		
	to browse and wander freely in the store can	Total = 116.706	203		
	encourage				
	impulse buying.				
6.	Air-conditioning, visual set, and soft	Between $= 3.284$	2	0.041	S
	background music in	Within $= 101.554$	201		
	a retail store can encourage customers to stay	Total = 104.838	203		
	longer and thus				
	stimulate them to make impulse purchases.				
7.	A store layout with yellow brick road (a	Between $= 2.807$	2	0.057	N.S.
	leading section	Within $= 96.855$	201		
	through small inexpensive goods to larger	Total = 99.662	203		
	expensive goods)				
	can induce impulse purchase by customers.				
8.	A salesósupport-services section that provides	Between $= 1.695$	2	0.104	N.S.
	customer	Within $= 74.286$	201		
	services such as delivery can encourage	Total = 75.980	203		
	customers to make				
	impulse purchases.				
9.	The race-track design that allows customers to	Between $= 0.410$	2	0.671	N.S.
	view all	Within = 103.134	201		
	angles of the store encourages impulse buying	Total = 103.544	203		
10.	Merchandise sections prominently labeled	Between $= 0.095$	2	0.869	N.S.
	with clear overhead	Within = 68.076	201		
	signs can encourage impulse buying	Total = $68.172$	203		
11.	Stores with serene shopping environment	Between $= 5.017$	2	0.003	S
	induce impulse	Within = 85.493	201		
	buying by consumers.	Total = 90.510	203		

Significant at p < 0.05Not Significant at p > 0.05

Data in Table 24 revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the three age groups of respondents on 8 out of the 11 items on retail store design whose p-values (sig.) were greater than 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for 8 of the items.

On the contrary, the data revealed that there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the three age groups of respondents on 3 of the 11 items whose p-values were less than 0.05 significance level. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference for the 3 items was rejected. The Mean scores of all the groups (3) were compared using the Scheffeøs test to locate the source(s) of the difference. Only the respondents within the age range of 25 ó 40 and 50 years and above indicated significant difference between them (see Appendix F). However, since the p-value for the entire cluster was 0.274 greater than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis for the cluster was upheld.

Table 25

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle-Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Merchandise Display on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squares	df	p-value (Sig)	Rmk
1.	A good merchandise display in a retail	Between $= 0.416$	2	0.608	N.S.
	store induces customers to buy on impulse	Within $= 83.873$	201		
		Total = 84.289	203		
2.	A display pattern that has merchandise in	Between $= 0.509$	2	0.438	N.S.
	categories encourages impulse purchase.	Within $= 61.780$	201		
		Total = 62.289	203		
3.	Items positional at eye-catching level in	Between $= 0.561$	2	0.369	N.S.
	the store are capable of influencing	Within $= 56.263$	201		
	customers to make impulse purchases.	Total = 56.824	203		
4.	Items such as menøs suits, womenøs wears,	Between $= 1.460$	2	0.245	N.S.
	and jewelry can draw customers into the	Within = $102.624$	201		
	entire length of the store thereby induce	Total = 104.084	203		
	impulse purchase.				
5.	Daily demand lines such as staple food	Between $= 0.903$	2	0.285	N.S.
	when placed near the store entrance can	Within $= 71.935$	201		
	influence impulse purchase.	Total = 72.838	203		
6.	Window display that provides a visual	Between $= 1.663$	2	0.114	N.S.
	image about the type of merchandise in the	Within $= 75.965$	201		
	store can influence customers to make	Total = 77.627	203		
	impulse purchases.				
7.	Impulse items displayed at the check-out	Between $= 1.432$	2	0.118	N.S.
	point can influence impulse buying by	Within = $66.549$	201		
	customers while waiting to be attended to.	Total = 67.981	203		
8.	Self-service counter encourages customers	Between $= 1.441$	2	0.158	N.S.
	to examine merchandise and thus influence	Within = $77.716$	201		
	them to make impulse purchase.	Total = 79.157	203		

Cluster p-value 0.291

Significant at p < 0.05

Not Significant at p > 0.05

Data in Table 25 revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on the entire cluster of items on retail store merchandise display whose p-value of 0.291 were greater than 0.05 level of significance. The result showed that the hypothesis of no significant difference in respect of all the items was upheld because the three groups of respondents did not differ significantly in their Mean responses on the influence of retail store merchandise display on impulse buying behaviour of consumers.

Table 26

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle-Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Merchandise Assortment on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squares	df	p-value	Rmk
1.	Merchandise stocked according to	Between = $0.432$	2	(Sig) 0.484	N.S.
1.	consumer needs can influence	Within = 59.505	201	0.404	14.5.
	consumers to make impulse buying in	Total = $59.937$	203		
	a retail store	10ta1 = 39.937	203		
2.	Merchandise stocked according to the	Between = $1.400$	2	0.233	N.S.
	needs of specific group of consumers	Within $= 95.831$	201		
	can influence impulse purchase by	Total = 97.230	203		
	consumers				
3.	The quality of merchandise a store	Between = $0.721$	2	0.512	N.S.
	carries influences consumersø decision	Within = $107.789$	201		
	to buy on impulse.	Total = 108.510	203		
4.	A unique mix of products especially	Between = $4.158$	2	0.034	S
	with complimentary goods in a store	Within = $122.014$	201		
	influences consumers to buy on	Total = 126.172	203		
	impulse.				
5.	Consumer goods made available in	Between = $1.029$	2	0.333	N.S.
	different varieties of color, model,	Within $= 93.598$	201		
	size, brand, and style in a store can	Total = 94.627	203		
	influence impulse buying decision of consumers.				
6.	A retail store with broad assortment of	Between = $0.230$	2	0.777	N.S.
	product of many lines is likely to	Within = $91.314$	201		
	influence consumersø decision to buy	Total = 91.544	203		
	more goods on impulse.				
7.	Low marginal products like chewing	Between = $2.250$	2	0.057	N.S.
	gum, chocolate, magazines, and	Within = $78.039$	201		
	biscuit, though not always in shopping	Total = 80.289	203		
	list attract consumers impulse buying tendency.				
8.	Retail stores that maintain stock	Between = $0.447$	2	0.577	N.S.
	availability are likely to influence	Within = 81.489	201		
	consumersø decision to stop-over and	Total = 81.936	203		
	make impulse purchase.				
9	Reliable products that function	Between = $5.107$	2	0.028	S
	satisfactorily over time attract	Within = $140.830$	201		
	customersøimpulse buying tendency.	Total = 145.936	203		
10.	Short life-span products like	Between = $1.890$	2	0.098	N.S.
	perishable items are likely to influence	Within = 80.816	201		
	consumersø decision to buy on	Total = 82.706	203		
	impulse.				
11.	Lighter and easily conveyed	Between = $0.388$	2	0.654	N.S.
	merchandise are likely to influence	Within = 91.783	201		
	impulse buying decision by the	Total = 92.172	203		
	consumers.				
12.	Products that are easily stored and not	Between = $0.975$	2	0.383	N.S.
	vulnerable to quick decay can induce	Within = 101.652	201		
	impulse purchase by consumers.	Total = 102.627	203		
	Cluster p-value			0.347	

Significant at p < 0.05

As shown in Table 26 above, the observed p-values for 10 out of the 12 items on retail store merchandise assortment were greater than 0.05 significance level. The result showed that the hypothesis of no significant difference in respect of 10 out of the 12 items was upheld because the three groups of respondents did not differ significantly in their Mean responses on the influence of retail store merchandise assortment on impulse buying behaviour of consumers.

The data also revealed that 2 out of the 12 items had their p-values less than 0.05 level of significance. This indicated that there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on the 2 items. The Mean scores of all the groups (3) were compared using the Scheffeøs test to locate the source(s) of the difference. Only the respondents within the age range of 25 ó 40 and 50 years and above indicated significant difference between them (see Appendix F). However, the hypothesis of no significant difference for the entire cluster was upheld because the p-value for the cluster was 0.347 greater than 0.05 level of significance.

**Table 27**Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle-Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Price of Merchandise on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squares	df	p-value (Sig)	Rmk
1.	Merchandise that are correctly priced are	Between = 1.449	2	0.179	N.S.
	likely to influence consumersø impulse	Within $= 83.884$	201		
	buying decision.	Total = 85.333	203		
2.	Price cut through mark-down (discount)	Between $= 2.503$	2	0.067	N.S.
	to offer considerably low price can	Within $= 91.668$	201		
	influence impulse buying decision.	Total = 94.172	203		
3.	Price cut on goods meant for clearance	Between $= 0.920$	2	0.325	N.S.
	sales encourages consumers to buy on	Within $= 81.766$	201		
	impulse.	Total = 82.686	203		
4.	Price fixed within the consumersø	Between $= 0.790$	2	0.506	N.S.
	bargaining power can stimulate impulse	Within = $116.283$	201		
	buying decision	Total = 117.073	203		
5.	Scarcity of an essential product	Between $= 1.539$	2	0.269	N.S.
	occasioned by anticipated price increase	Within = $116.971$	201		
	can induce impulse buying	Total = 118.510	203		
6.	Odd-pricing policy is capable of inducing	Between $= 1.005$	2	0.294	N.S.
	impulse buying among price-conscious	Within $= 82.069$	201		
	consumers.	Total = 83.074	203		
7.	Two or more different products given at	Between $= 1.541$	2	0.281	N.S.
	one price can encourage impulse buying	Within = $121.219$	201		
	among consumers.	Total = 122.760	203		
8.	Leader pricing can influence impulse	Between $= 1.898$	2	0.058	N.S.
	buying of complimentary products by	Within $= 66.038$	201		
	consumers.	Total = 67.936	203		
9.	Price labeling on products in the store	Between $= 1.205$	2	0.229	N.S.
	can stimulate impulse buying by	Within $= 81.554$	201		
	consumers.	Total = 82.759	203		

Cluster p-value 0.245

Significant at p < 0.05

As shown in Table 27, all the observed items in the cluster of price of merchandise had p-value of 0.245, greater than 0.05 level of significance. The data revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on the influence of all items in the cluster on impulse buying behaviour of consumers. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for all the items.

Table 28

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle-Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Customer Service on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squares	df	p-value (Sig)	Rmk
1.	High quality customer service provided	Between = $0.987$	2	0.201	N.S.
	in a retail store influences customer	Within $= 61.420$	201		
	impulse buying behaviour	Total = 62.407	203		
2.	Friendly employees and shop operators	Between $= 1.329$	2	0.171	N.S.
	stimulate and influence impulse buying.	Within = $74.965$	201		
		Total = 76.294	203		
3.	Information and advice provided to	Between $= 0.214$	2	0.750	N.S.
	customers on technical specification of	Within $= 74.766$	201		
	products can influence them to buy on impulse.	Total = 74.980	203		
4.	After-sales-service provided in the store	Between $= 0.068$	2	0.912	N.S.
	encourages customers to buy on impulse	Within = $73.971$	201		
		Total = 74.039	203		
5.	Store employees responsiveness and	Between $= 0.825$	2	0.204	N.S.
	willingness to help can influence	Within $= 51.685$	201		
	consumersø impulse buying behaviour	Total = 52.510	203		
6.	Credit facilities in form of deferred	Between $= 1.078$	2	0.201	N.S.
	payment can influence consumersø	Within = $66.859$	201		
	impulse buying behaviour.	Total = 67.937	203		
7.	Speedy delivery services in the store can	Between $= 6.659$	2	0.000	S
	induce impulse buying among	Within $= 81.027$	201		
	consumers.	Within $= 87.686$	203		
8.	Repair and technical support services to	Between $= 0.226$	2	0.734	N.S.
	customers can encourage them to make	Within = $73.108$	201		
	impulse purchase.	Total = 73.334	203		
9.	Reward to customers for frequent	Between $= 1.397$	2	0.193	N.S.
	patronage can influence them to buy	Within $= 84.501$	201		
	some items on impulse.	Total = 85.898	203		
10.	Consumers are likely to buy on impulse	Between $= 1.124$	2	0.155	N.S.
	from store whose service delivery quality	Within $= 60.033$	201		
	matches with the consumersø service quality expectation.	Total = $61.157$	203		
11.	Self-service that allows customers	Between $= 4.770$	2	0.001	S
11.	freedom of choice in the store can induce	Within = 63.401	201	0.001	S
12.	impulse purchase	Total = 68.171 Between = 3.249	203 2	0.005	S
12.	Free samples, discounts, bonus packs, etc		201	0.003	S
	can induce impulse buying among	Within = 59.673			
12	consumers.	Total = 62.922	203	0.267	NC
13.	Quick response to customer complaints	Between = 0.789	201	0.367	N.S.
	can encourage impulse buying among	Within = 78.637	201		
	consumers.	Total= 79.426	203		

Cluster p-value

Significant at p< 0.05Not Significant at p > 0.05 0.299

As shown in Table 28 above, the observed p-values for 10 out of the 13 items on customer service were greater than 0.05 significance level. The result showed that the hypothesis of no significant difference in respect of 10 out of the 13 items was upheld because the three groups of respondents did not differ significantly in their Mean responses on the influence of customer service on impulse buying behaviour of consumers.

The data also revealed that 3 out of the 13 items had their p-values less than 0.05 level of significance. This indicated that there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on the 3 items. The Mean scores of all the groups (3) were compared using the Scheffeøs test to locate the source(s) of the difference. Only the respondents within the age range of 25 ó 40 and 50 years and above indicated significant difference between them (see Appendix F). However, the hypothesis of no significant difference in respect of the entire cluster was upheld because the p-value for the cluster was 0.299, greater than 0.05 level of significance.

**Table 29**Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Mean Responses of Young, Middle-Aged, and Old Business Education Lecturers on the Influence of Promotion on consumer Impulse Buying Behaviour.

S/N	Item Statement	Sum of Squares	df	p-value (Sig)	Rmk
1.	Advertising messages are capable of	Between $= 0.951$	2	0.146	N.S.
	influencing consumers to buy certain	Within $= 49.221$	201		
	goods on impulse from a retail store.	Total = 50.172	203		
2.	Radio and television advertisement can	Between = $1.517$	2	0.153	N.S.
	stimulate impulse buying among	Within $= 80.420$	201		
	consumers.	Total = 81.937	203		
3.	Advertising message on new product	Between $= 1.810$	2	0.101	N.S.
	influences consumersø reaction and	Within $= 78.484$	201		
	enhances their impulse buying decision.	Total = 80.294	203		
4.	Out-door advertising is capable of	Between $= 0.217$	2	0.795	N.S.
	inducing impulse buying.	Within $= 95.013$	201		
		Total = 95.230	203		
5.	Effective advertising can influence the	Between $= 2.503$	2	0.039	S
	customersø attitude towards impulse	Within = $76.100$	201		
	buying.	Total = 78.603	203		
6.	Sales promotion incentives such as free	Between $= 0.511$	2	0.535	N.S.
	samples, coupons, cash refunds, prizes,	Within $= 81.896$	201		
	free trials, and warranties can induce	Total = 82.407	203		
	impulse buying among consumers.				
7.	Sales promotion attracts customers to the	Between $= 1.573$	2	0.110	N.S.
	store and encourages impulse buying	Within $= 70.834$	201		
	among them.	Total = 72.407	203		
8.	Prestigious sales promotion strategy can	Between = $2.377$	2	0.032	S
	influence consumersø impulse buying	Within = $68.383$	201		
	behaviour.	Total = 70.760	203		
	Cluster p-value			0.238	

Significant at p < 0.05

As shown above, data on Table 29 revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of 6 of the 8 items on promotion whose p-values (sig.) were greater than 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for 6 of the items. On the contrary, the data revealed that there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on 2 of the 8 items whose p-values were less than 0.05 significance level. The Mean scores of all the groups (3) were compared using the Scheffeøs test to locate the source(s) of the difference. Only the respondents within the age range of 25 ó 40 and 50 years and above indicated significant difference between them (see Appendix F). However, the hypothesis of no significant difference for the entire cluster was upheld because p-value for the cluster (0.238) was greater than 0.05 level of significance.

### Findings of the Study

### **Research Questions**

The following findings emerged from the study based on the research questions answered and hypotheses tested:

- 1. The respondents accepted all the cluster of items on retail store location as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. These include:
  - (a) Stores sited at convenient, attractive, and conducive location.
  - (b) Stores with special features such as parking space, ease of entry and exit.
  - (c) Stores located at shopping centres.
  - (d) Stores located along consumersø regular route to and from office.
  - (e) Stores located near consumersø residence.
  - (f) Stores that are well planned and strategically located.
  - (g) Stores located at affluent areas of a city to attract affluent customers.
- 2. The respondents also accepted the following cluster of items on retail store design as influencing consumer impulse buying behaviour.

- (a) Stores whose designs enhance the presentation of merchandise.
- (b) Stores that have traffic aisle which allows free flow of traffic across the display stands and shelves.
- (c) Stores with good lighting and ventilation.
- (d) Stores with warmth and comfortable environment.
- (e) Stores with free form design that allows customers to browse and wander freely.
- (f) Stores with air-conditioning, visual set, and soft background music.
- (g) Stores with yellow brick road through inexpensive to expensive items.
- (h) Stores with sales support section.
- (i) Stores with race-track design where customers can view all angles of the store.
- (j) Store designs that provide merchandise sections clearly labelled with overhead signs.
- 3. The respondents accepted all the cluster of items on merchandise display as capable of influencing consumer impulse buying behaviour. These include:
  - (a) Stores that have good merchandise display.
  - (b) Display pattern with merchandise clearly categorized.
  - (c) Items displayed at eye-catching level.
  - (d) Daily demand lines displayed near store entrance and check out point.
  - (e) Window display that provides a visual image about the type of merchandise.
  - (f) Self-service counter designs that allow customers to examine merchandise freely.
- 4. The respondents also accepted the following items on merchandise assortment as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.
  - (a) Merchandise stocked according to general and specific customer interest and needs.
  - (b) The quality of merchandise a store carries.
  - (c) A unique mix of products with complimentary goods.
  - (d) Merchandise presented in varieties of colour, model, size, brand, and style.

- (e) Merchandise with broad assortment.
- (f) Low marginal products like chewing gum, chocolate, and magazines.
- (g) Stores that maintain stock availability.
- (h) Reliable products that function satisfactorily over time.
- (i) Perishable products that have short life span.
- (j) Lighter and easily conveyed, as well as easily stored (perishable) products.
- 5. All the clusters of items on price of merchandise were also accepted as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. These include:
  - (a) Correctly priced items.
  - (b) Price-cut through mark-down.
  - (c) Price cut meant for clearance sales.
  - (d) Price fixed with the consumersøbargaining power.
  - (e) Anticipated scarcity of a product.
  - (f) Odd-pricing policy for price conscious customers.
  - (g) Two or more different products given at a single price.
  - (h) Leader pricing policy.
  - (i) Price labelling on products.
- 6. The respondents generally agreed that the following items on customer service are capable of influencing consumer impulse buying behaviour.
  - (a) High quality customer service.
  - (b) Friendly employees and shop operators who are responsive and willing to help.
  - (c) Providing information and advice on technical specification of products.
  - (d) After-sales service.
  - (e) Credit facilities in form of deferred payment.
  - (f) Speedy delivery service to customers.

- (g) Repair and technical support service.
- (h) Reward to customers for frequent patronage.
- (i) Self-service system.
- (j) Free sample, discounts, bonus packs, free trials, etc.
- (k) Quick response to customer complaints.
- 7. The respondents generally agreed that the following items on promotion are capable of influencing consumer impulse buying behaviour.
  - (a) Merchandise that are advertised.
  - (b) Radio and television advertisement.
  - (c) Advertising message on new products.
  - (d) Out-door advertising of a product.
  - (e) Sales promotion incentives such as free samples, coupons, cash refunds, prizes, free trials, and warranties.
  - (f) Prestigious sales promotion strategy.

### **Hypotheses**

- **HO**<sub>1</sub>: (a) It was found that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers with respect to their ranks on the influence of most of the retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour. Specifically, the study revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the lecturers on all the items on store location and merchandise display.
- (b) It was found that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of lecturers on 10 items of retail store design. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for the 10 items because their p-values were greater than 0.05 significance level. However, significant difference existed on item 2 relating to traffic aisle which allows for free flow of customers across the display stand. The p-value for this item was

less than 0.05 significance level, thus the hypothesis of no significant difference for the item was rejected.

- (c) It was found that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven ranks of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of merchandise assortment for 10 of the 12 items. However, significant difference existed in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents on items 8 and 10 dealing with (i) stock availability maintenance, and (ii) lighter and easily conveyed merchandise. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for 10 items because their p-values were greater than 0.05 level of significance, but rejected for 2 items whose p-values were less than 0.05 significance level.
- (d) It was found that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of price of merchandise for 8 of the 9 items. However, there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents on item 6 which dealt with odd-pricing policy. The hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for 8 items whose p-values were greater than 0.05, but rejected for item 6 whose p-value was less than 0.05 level of significance.
- (e) It was found that no significant difference existed in the Mean responses of the seven ranks of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of customer service for 8 of the 13 items. However, significant difference existed in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents on 4 items (7, 8, 11, and 12). Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for the 8 items whose p-values were greater than 0.05 level of significance, but rejected for the 4 items whose p-values were less than 0.05.
- (f) It was also found that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of respondents for 7 of the 8 items on the influence of promotion on consumer impulse buying behaviour. However, there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of the Business Education Lecturers on item 3 which dealt with advertising

message on new products. Thus, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for 7 items whose p-values were greater than 0.05, but rejected for the one item whose p-value was less than 0.05 level of significance.

**HO<sub>2</sub>:** It was found that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of retail store location, retail store design, merchandise display, merchandise assortment, price of merchandise, customer service, and promotion on consumer impulse buying behaviour. All the items in each of the store variables had their t-cal. less than the t-tab. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference on the influence of store location, store design, merchandise display, merchandise assortment, price of merchandise, customer service, and promotion was upheld.

HO<sub>3</sub>: (a) It was found that no significant difference existed in the Mean responses of the three groups of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of 9 out of the 10 items of retail store location on consumer impulse buying behaviour. Significant difference existed in only one item (item 5). Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference in the Mean responses of Business Education Lecturers with respect to their age on the influence of retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour was upheld for 9 items whose p-values were greater than 0.05, but rejected for one item because its p-value was less than 0.05 significance level.

(b) It was found that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of young, middle-aged, and old Business Education Lecturers on the influence of 8 items of retail store design on consumer impulse buying behaviour. However, significant difference existed in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on 3 items of the store variable on consumer impulse buying behaviour. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for 8 of the 11 items whose p-values were greater than 0.05, but rejected for 3 items (2, 6, and 11) which had less than 0.05 significance level.

- (c) It was found that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the three groups of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of merchandise display for all the 8 items on consumer impulse buying behaviour. This is because the p-values for all the items were greater than 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference for this variable was upheld.
- (d) It was also found that no significant difference existed in the Mean responses of the young, middle-aged, and old Business Education Lecturers on the influence of 10 items of merchandise assortment on consumer impulse buying behaviour. However, there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on 2 items of the merchandise assortment on consumer impulse buying behaviour. While 10 items had their p-values greater than 0.05, the 2 items (4 and 9) dealing with (i) unique mix of products and (ii) reliable products that function satisfactorily over time, had their p-values less than 0.05. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for 10 items, but rejected for 2 items of the merchandise assortment.
- (e) It was found that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the three groups of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of all the 8 items of price of merchandise on consumer impulse buying behaviour. This is because the p-values for all the items were greater than 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference for all the items of this variable was upheld.
- (f) It was also found that young, middle-aged, and old Business Education Lecturers did not differ significantly in their Mean responses on the influence of 10 out of 13 items of customer service on consumer impulse buying behaviour. However, significant difference existed in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on the influence of 3 items (7, 11, and 12) of the store variable on consumer impulse buying behaviour. Therefore, the

hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for 10 out of the 13 items whose p-values were greater than 0.05, but rejected for the 3 items which had less than 0.05 significance level.

(g) Furthermore, it was found that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on the influence of 6 out of the 8 items of promotion on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The p-values of these items were greater than 0.05. Significant difference, however, existed in the Mean responses of the lecturers in 2 items (5 and 8) dealing with effective advertising, and prestigious sales promotion strategy. The two items had their p-values less than 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis of no significant difference was upheld for 6 items, but rejected for items 5 and 8. A total of three null hypotheses were tested.

### Discussion of the Findings

### **Research Questions**

1. Findings related to research question one showed that all the respondents accepted the following identified items on retail store location as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour: attractive and convenient location of retail store; parking space, ease of entry and exit; stores located in shopping centres, stores located along their regular route to and from office, stores located near their residence; well planned and strategically located stores; as well as those located in affluent areas of a city to attract affluent customers. This finding was consistent with the opinions of Hawkins, Best, and Coney (1989), Levy and Weitz (2001) on retail store location. The authors agreed that retail store location is an important attribute for consumers buying decision. Equally consistent with this finding is the view of Peter and Oslon (2002) who found that parking space, ease of entry and exit are capable of influencing consumers buying behaviour. Also in agreement with the findings of this study on convenient store location is the view of McCarthy and Perreaut (1991) who stressed the need to consider the

convenience of the target market in locating a store. The authors maintained that retailers need to segment the market in order to be able to define their target customers.

- 2. Findings related to research question two indicated that respondents agreed that all the items on retail store design can influence consumer impulse buying behaviour. These included designs that enhance the presentation of merchandise, stores with traffic aisle which allows customers free movement across the shelves, good lighting and ventilation, warmth and comfortable shopping environment, freedom to browse and wander freely, air conditioning, visual set, and soft background music, yellow brick road, sales support section, race-track design that allows customers to view all angles of the store, as well as sections that provide overhead signs. This finding was in line with the opinion of McGoldrick (2001) who observed that stores with visual features such as fixtures and fittings, lighting, wall shelves, air conditioning, sounds and visual sets, fragrance, are capable of influencing consumer buying decision when he visits the store. Also in agreement with the finding is the view of Rook (1987) and Lewison and Delozier (1988) who described these features as capable of encouraging consumersø impulse buying decision. The finding also agreed with Mason, Mayer and Ezell (1991) and Mowen (1995) who found that retail store layout with attractive design is capable of influencing consumer buying behaviour.
- 3. The findings in research question three on merchandise display were in consonance with the opinion of Gagnon and Osterhaus (1985) who stated that the display of items in a store has an important influence on the purchase of the items. The study found that consumers are easily disposed to impulse buying when they enter stores that have good display pattern which clearly categorizes merchandise; stores that display demand lines near store entrance and check-out point; window display that provides a visual image about the type of product; as well as stores that have self-service counter display which allows customers to examine merchandise freely. Equally consistent with this finding is the opinion of Cox and Brittain (1993) who maintained that the way in which merchandise are displayed and presented in a retail store is a vital element

in the selling process that is capable of inducing on-the-spot buying decision by consumers. Similarly, the finding was consistent with the opinion of Howe (1992) who stressed the importance of displaying merchandise according to categories. It was also consistent with the opinions of Levy and Weitz (1998) that the more visible a product is, the greater the chance of being purchased.

- 4. The items on merchandise assortment on research question four were all accepted by the respondents as having influence on consumer impulse buying decision. These include merchandise stocked to satisfy both general and specific group of customers, the quality of merchandise, mixture of products with complimentary goods, merchandise presented in varieties of colour, model, size, brand, and style, merchandise with broad assortment. Others include low marginal products, maintenance of stock availability, presenting reliable products, as well as lighter and easily conveyed merchandise. The findings were in agreement with the views of Hodge (2004) who discovered that merchandise assortment that includes low marginal items, short lifespan products, easily conveyed items, and easily stored products are commonly purchased on impulse. The findings also agreed with the opinion of Okeke (2004) who found in her study that offering a unique mix of products, maintaining a high quality of merchandise and adequate balance of items in the store have a high influence on store patronage and unplanned buying.
- 5. The findings on influence of price of merchandise on consumer impulse buying behaviour as contained in research question five were consistent with the opinion of Kotler and Armstrong (2005) who suggested that because of the price-conscious nature of present-day consumer, the retailer must take into consideration price factors that will encourage consumers to buy beyond their buying plan. All the nine items on price of merchandise were accepted by the respondents as having influence on their impulse buying behaviour. These include correct pricing of products, using price-cut during clearance and seasonal sales, fixing prices within the consumerøs

bargaining power, using odd-pricing policy, offering a single price for two or more products, using leader pricing policy, and adopting price labelling of products. The findings are in consonance with the views of Kotler and Keller (2005) who stated that despite the increased role of non-price factors in modern marketing, price remains a critical element of the marketing mix, thus retailers must carefully manage their merchandise pricing policy in order to encourage their customers to make more purchases.

- 6. It was found that all the thirteen items in research question six on customer service in a retail store have influence on the impulse buying behaviour of consumers. These items include high quality customer service, friendly employees and shop operators, providing information and advice on technical specification of products, providing after sales service, offering credit facilities, ensuring speedy delivery service to customers. Others include repair and technical support service, reward to frequently patronizing customers, providing a self-service system, giving free samples, discounts, bonus packs, and free trials to customers, as well as ensuring quick response to customer complaints. These findings were in agreement with the type of customer services identified by Cox and Brittain (1993), Levy and Weitz (1998), Bowersox and Closs (2001), and Carson (2001) as having influence on consumer buying decision. The findings also agreed with Hodge (2004) who stated that self-service in a store can easily lead the customer to make impulse buying because it gives him the liberty to move freely in the store and have access to the displayed products.
- 7. The eight findings in research question seven on promotion were agreed upon by respondents as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour. These findings were in agreement with what Kotler and Keller (2005) described as the tonic that offers the consumer the reason and incentive to buy. The authors noted that sales promotion is capable of encouraging a stop-and shop habit among customers passing through a store who had no intention to enter the shop. Respondents accepted that all the items listed under promotion can influence consumer buying

decision. These include regular advertisement of merchandise, advertising new products, using the radio and television more effectively to advertise products, using out-door advertising media, offering sales promotion incentives, as well as adopting a prestigious sales promotion strategy. The findings were in consonance with the opinion of Shimp (2000) that advertising persuades customers to try the advertised products and services, enhance attitudes, influence purchase intentions, and encourage repeat purchase behaviour. Furthermore, the findings were in line with the opinion of Kotler and Keller (2005) who described sales promotion as a key ingredient in retailing campaigns that can influence consumer buying decision.

#### **Hypotheses**

- 1. Findings related to null hypothesis one (HO<sub>1</sub>) revealed that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven groups of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of most items of the retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The study revealed that significant difference in the opinion of the respondents did not exist in all the 10 listed items of store location; 10 items of store design; all the items of merchandise display; 10 items of merchandise assortment; 8 items of price of merchandise; 9 items of customer service; and 7 items of promotion as can be seen in Tables 9 to 15 respectively. The findings, however, indicated that significant difference existed in 2 items of store design; 2 items of merchandise assortment; one item of price of merchandise; 4 items of customer service; and one item of promotion as shown in Tables 10, 12, 13, 14 and 15 respectively. The implication of the above findings on HO<sub>1</sub> is that the ranks of the respondents did not have influence on their opinions on 61 items of the seven retail store variables. The opinions of the respondents were, however, influenced by their ranks in 10 items of the store variables.
- 2. Findings related to null hypothesis two (HO<sub>2</sub>) revealed that significant difference did not exist in the Mean responses of male and female Business Education Lecturers in all the 71 items of the 7 retail store variables. Thus, the null hypothesis was upheld for all the items. The implication

of these findings is that gender was not a significant factor that can influence the opinions of the respondents on all the retail store variables.

3. The findings of the study on null hypothesis three (HO<sub>3</sub>) indicated that there was no significant difference in the Mean responses of young, middle-aged, and old Business Education Lecturers on the influence of most items of the retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour. The study revealed that significant difference did not exist in the Mean responses of the three groups of respondents on the following: 9 items of retail store location; 8 items of retail store design; all the items of merchandise display; 10 items of merchandise assortment; all the items of price of merchandise; 10 items of customer service; and 6 items of promotion respectively. The hypothesis of no significant difference for all these items were upheld. This could be seen in Tables 23 to 29 respectively. However, the findings indicated that significant difference existed in the Mean responses of the respondents for one (1) item of store location; 3 items of store design; 2 items of merchandise assortment; 3 items of customer service; and 2 items of promotion as shown in Tables 23, 24, 26, 28, and 29 respectively.

#### **CHAPTER V**

#### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations.

#### Restatement of the Problem

The two cardinal objectives of a retailer, according to Kotler (2003) are to satisfy his customers as well as make profit from his business. Store variables that provide a satisfying and conducive buying experience to the consumer when he enters the store are relevant in achieving these objectives. It is, however, discovered that the bane of many retail businesses in Nigeria in recent times has been the inability of the retailers to organize their stores with attractive features. Most retail stores in Nigeria appear to lack attractive image and are built with poor fixtures and fittings, poor lighting, poor shelves arrangement, and inadequate parking and floor space. For instance, Ikeazor (2002) and Nwokoye (2004) also observed that the roads are rough and stores are poorly located and organized.

With the exception of a few supermarkets, most retail stores do not consider air-conditioning, soft music, television set, and sweet fragrance as important attractors to consumers. Regrettably too, other important variables such as price reduction, customer service, and promotion activities are seemingly ignored in most of Nigerian retail stores and retailers fail to take advantage of the influence of these variables to better their sales. Similarly, most retail stores in the country are very poorly positioned in terms of their interior and exterior features which would have enhanced their retail activities.

Investigations show that many retail businesses spring up in the north-west region of Nigeria very frequently partly because of its historical antecedent of being the hub of the transaharan trade and partly because the people are generally business-inclined. It is also observed that in recent times, these enterprises do not last long largely because of ignorance of their owners with regard to store organisation and management. Their inability to provide attractive

buying environment irritates their customers who, in reaction, gradually withdraw their patronage. Consequent upon this, it is observed that there is an alarming rate of retail business failure in the region. Retail businesses are seen to crumble almost at the very rate with which they spring up, thus failing to sustain the momentum of providing satisfactory retail services to consumers.

Since impulse buying is a spontaneous buying decision often made in-store, retailers in the north-west geo-political zone of Nigeria appear to have lost the advantage of increasing their sales and keeping their businesses alive through impulse purchasing largely because of poor organisation and management of their stores. Evidence from research conducted by Blankson (2008) indicated that consumers are increasingly sensitive to convenient store environments and are ready to spend their money where they obtain value and satisfaction. Unfortunately, however, retail stores in the North-west zone of the country have not fully taken advantage of consumersø impulse buying behaviour due to their inability to position their stores according to the taste of consumers. This study was, therefore, intended to determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education on how retail store variables can influence impulse buying among consumers in the North-west geo-political zone of Nigeria. Scanty empirical evidence is being found in this area, hence the present investigation.

#### Summary of the Procedures Used

The major purpose of this study was to determine the perception of Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education on the influence of retail store variables on impulse buying behaviour of consumers. The study adopted a survey research design. Seven research questions were answered and three null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance and 202 degrees of freedom. A structured questionnaire was used to collect data for the study. The population for the study comprised 219 male and female Business Education Lecturers in 10 Colleges of Education in the North-west geo-political zone of Nigeria and the entire population

was studied. The research instrument was subjected to face validation by three Business Education experts. The reliability coefficient of the instrument was 0.75, which was obtained through Cronbachos Alpha Reliability test. The questionnaire was administered by the researcher with the help of three trained research assistants. Two hundred and four copies of the questionnaire were duly filled and returned reflecting about 98.2% return rate. The research questions were answered using Mean statistic while the null hypotheses were tested using t-test statistic and analysis of variance (ANOVA).

#### Summary of Findings

Based on the data analyzed, the following major findings were made:

- 1. All the ten items of retail store location were accepted by Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education in North-west geo-political zone as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.
- 2. All the eleven items on retail store design were accepted by the respondents as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.
- 3. The respondents also agreed that the eight items listed on merchandise display were capable of influencing consumer impulse buying behaviour.
- 4. All the twelve items listed on merchandise assortment were accepted by the respondents as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.
- 5. All the nine items listed on price of merchandise were accepted by Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education in North-west geo-political zone as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.
- 6. The respondents also accepted that all the thirteen items listed on customer service can influence consumer impulse buying behaviour.
- 7. It was also found that all the eight items listed on promotion were accepted by the Business Education Lecturers as capable of having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

The study also revealed that:

- 1. There was no significant difference in the Mean responses of the seven ranks of Business Education Lecturers on the influence of 61 items of the seven retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour. However, significant difference existed in the Mean responses of the respondents on the influence of 10 items of the seven retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour.
- 2. There was no significant difference in the Mean responses of male and female Business Education Lecturers on the influence of all the 71 items of the seven retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour.
- 3. Significant difference did not exist in the Mean responses of young, middle-aged, and old Business Education Lecturers on the influence of 60 items of the seven retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour. However, there was significant difference in the Mean responses of the respondents in 11 items of the store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour.

#### Implications for Marketing Education

The findings of this study have far reaching implications for Marketing Education. The findings of the study have provided valuable literature for teachers and students, as well as marketing researchers for further investigations in retailing and consumer impulse buying behaviour. Valuable retailing information has also been provided in the study that would boost entrepreneurship. The findings of this study would form the basis upon which lecturers in the Colleges of Education would teach their students the basic retail entrepreneurship skills with which they would establish retail businesses or work in retail outlets, and improve on retailing after graduation.

Retail store variables revealed in this study as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour have positive implications for the retailer. The application of these variables in retail store enterprise would enhance customer traffic into the store and induce them to make impulse buying, consequent upon which the retailer records high turnover rate and improved economic activity. Incessant failure or collapse of retail businesses would be minimized in the region.

The findings of this study also have positive implications for consumers. Retail strategies such as those found in store location, store environment, merchandise management and pricing revealed in this study would provide soothing shopping environment for consumers if they are effectively utilized by retailers. Consumers would find retail shopping more rewarding and satisfying.

The findings of this study also have positive implications for prospective entrepreneurs in retail business. The store variables identified in this study would provide valuable retailing information to would-be entrepreneurs to successfully venture into, profit by, and remain in retail marketing.

#### **Conclusions**

The intention of the retailer is to improve in his sales in order to stay in business and continue to offer satisfactory service to his customers. The retailer desires to retain existing customers, win new ones, and compete favourably with competitors within his retailing milieu. All these could be possible if the retailer operates a customer-oriented enterprise that meets all customer needs. Improved shopping environment, quality merchandise offered at conveniently located place at reasonable price, as well as improved customer service quality are basic requirements for drawing customers to the store.

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Since the respondents accepted all the 10 items of retail store location as having influence on consumer impulse buying behaviour, it could be concluded that retail store location is vital to the

success of retail business. A conveniently located retail store is capable of attracting consumers to stop by and make unplanned purchase.

- 2. The findings of the study revealed that all the items of retail store design are capable of influencing impulse buying. Therefore, it could be concluded that retailers need this variable to induce impulse buying among consumers and thus improve their retailing.
- 3. Business Education Lecturers agreed that all the variables on merchandise display can influence impulse buying behaviour. It could be concluded therefore that merchandise display is an important variable that can improve sales through impulse buying.
- 4. Respondents agreed that all the items listed in merchandise assortment are capable of influencing impulse buying. Therefore, it could be concluded that merchandise assortment is an important element of retailing mix that retailers must maintain in order to meet the buying needs of their customers.
- 5. Business Education Lecturers accepted all the variables on price of merchandise as capable of influencing the impulse buying behaviour of consumers. It could, therefore, be concluded that price of merchandise is a vital element of retail merchandising that could be used to encourage impulse buying.
- 6. All the items identified on customer service were accepted as having influence on the impulse buying behaviour of the consumer. It could be concluded that customer service if effectively provided could encourage more impulse buying.
- 7. Respondents accepted that all the eight items on promotion are capable of influencing consumer impulse buying behaviour. It could be concluded, therefore, that promotion could influence the impulse buying behaviour of the consumer and should be considered as an important element of retailing.

#### Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn in the study, the following recommendations were made:

- 1. Retailers should adopt the retail store variables identified in this study in order to boost their business and provide a satisfying shopping experience for their customers. Retail stores should be conveniently located with attractive store designs, stocked with merchandise that are well displayed to meet the consumerøs buying needs, offered at reasonable prices, and backed up with attractive customer service. An effective promotion programme should be used to inform, persuade and encourage consumers to patronize and buy from the store.
- 2. Lecturers of Business Education in Colleges of Education should effectively teach their students the retailing skills embodied in the retail variables in order to adequately equip them for the challenges of establishing and managing retail enterprises after their graduation.
- 3. The curriculum of the recently introduced general course on Entrepreneurship Education in institutions of higher learning in the country should be enhanced to cover retailing extensively to enable all students irrespective of course of study to acquire retailing skills before graduation.

#### Suggestions for Further Study

The following suggestions were made for further study:

- 1. This study should be replicated in other geo-political zones of the country to determine the opinion of consumers in those zones on the influence of retail store variables on impulse buying.
- 2. Further research should be carried out to determine products that are prone to impulse buying.

#### References

- Abubakar, B., Mavondo, F., & Clulow, V. (2001). Customer satisfaction with supermarket retail shopping. Retrieved November 8, 2008 from http://130 195.71:8081/authors/pdfs/abubakarIpdf at Cyber Hut, Kano
- Alderton, Matt. (2008). Consumer behaviour. Retrieved July 11, 2008 from www. business.com. at Cyber Hut, Kano.
- Anaedu, U. U. (1996). *The impact of advertising in motivating brand preference for cosmetics*. Unpublished B.Sc. Project, Department of Marketing, University of Nigeria, Enugu Campus.
- Assael, H. (1990). Marketing principles and strategy. USA: The Dryden Press. (1st ed.).
- Bandyopadhyay, S., Wieregama, M., & Khuller, R. (2000). The missing piece in the puzzle: how retail atmospherics can improve merchandise and store promotions. Retrieved November, 10, 2008 from http://www.admin.leottawa.ca/Researchpapers/2000/00\_58.pdf at Cyber Hut, Kano.
- Bateman, A., & Holmes, J. (1995). Introduction to psychoanalysis. London, Routledge.
- Baumeister, R.F. (2002). Yielding to temptation: self-control failure impulsive purchasing and consumer behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 28, 670-676.
- Bayley, G., & Nancarrow, C. (1998). Impulse purchasing: a qualitative exploration of the phenomenon. *Qualitative Market Research: an International Journal 1, (2) Jan. 1998*. Business Source Premier.
- Beatty, S.E., & Ferrell, M.E. (1998). Impulse buying: modelling its precursors. *Journal of Retailing*, 74, (2) 169-191.
- Benson, S.P. (1986). Counter cultures: saleswomen, managers and customers in American department stores 1890-1940. Urbana: University Of Ilinois Press.
- Berkowitz, E. N., Kerin, R. A., Hartley H., & Rudelius, W. (1992). *Marketing*. USA: Richard D. Irwin Inc. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.).
- Berman, B., & Evans J.R. (1986). *Retail management: a strategic approach*. New York: Macmillan Pub. Company. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.).
- Blankson, C. (2008). *Retail marketing mix and planning*. **Retrieved July 3, 2008 from www.coba.unt.edu/mktg/faculty/blankson at Cyber Hut, Kano**
- Bovee, C. L., & Thill, J. V. (1992). Marketing. USA: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Bowersox, D.J., & Closs, D. J. (2001). Logistics and value creation. In M. J. Baker (Ed.). *Encyclopaedia of Marketing*, London: International Thompson Business Press.

- Broadbent, S. (1999). Advertising. In M. J. Baker (Ed.). *Encyclopaedia of Marketing*. London: International Thompson Business Press.
- Brown, S. (1992). *Retail location: a micro-scale perspective*. England: Avebury Ashgate Pub. Limited.
- Bruner, J., & Mason, J. (1968). The influence of driving time upon shopping center preference. *Journal of Marketing*, 32, 57-61.
- Buendicho, P. (2003). *Impulse purchasing: trend or trait.* **Retrieved December 20, 2009 from www.intelligententerprise.com/010507/decision.jhtn at cyberhut ,Kano**
- Carson, D., & Gilmore, A. (1989). Customer care: the neglected domain. *Irish Marketing Review*.
- Carson, D.J. (2001). Customer care and satisfaction. In M. J. Baker (Ed.). *Encyclopaedia of Marketing*. London: International Thompson Business Press.
- Christopher, M. (1986). Reaching the customer: strategies for marketing and customer service. *Journal of Marketing Management*.
- Chukwurah, C. C. (2004). *Consumer education: principles and practice*. Calabar: Ushe Printing and Publishing Company Limited.
- Clottey, T. A., Collier, D. A., & Stodnick, M. (2008). Drivers of customer loyalty in a retail store environment. USA: *Journal of Service Science*. *Third Quarter*, 2008. 1,(1)
- Clutterbuck, D. (1988). *Developing customer care training programmes*. Industrial and Commercial Training, November-December.
- Cox, R., & Brittain, P. (1993). Retail management. London: Pitman Publishing. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.).
- Cozby, P.C. (2001). *Methods in behavioural research*. New York: Mayfield Publishing Company. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.).
- Desmet, P., & Renaudin, V. (1998). Estimation of product category sales responsiveness to allocated shelf space. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 15.
- Dittmar, H., Beattie, J., & Friese, S. (1996). Objects, decision considerations and self-image in menøs and womenøs impluse purchases. *Acta Psychologica*, 93.
- Dotson, M.J., & Dave, D.S. (2008). Factors adversely influencing retail patronage: an empirical investigation in the USA. *International Journal of Business Performance Management*, 10,(1), 17-29
- Engel, J., & Blackwell, R. (1982). Consumer behaviour. Chicago: Dryden Press.
- Ezeji, S.C.O.A. (1996). *Statistical and research methods*. Unpublished Manuscript, Vocational Teacher Education Department, University Of Nigeria, Nsukka.

- Freeman, J. (1999). Customer attitude to store refurbishment. Retrieved Nov. 8, 2008 from http://info.sm.umist.ac.uk/wp/papers/wp 9915.htm at Cyber Hut, Kano.
- Grushkin, B. (2008). Improving customer dynamics for a better bottomline. Retrieved Nov. 7, 2008 from: www.intelligententerprise.com/010507/decision.jhtn at Cyber Hut, Kano.
- Gullespie, K. R., & Hecht, J.G. (1977). *Retail business management*. New York: Gregg Division, Mcgraw-Hill Book Company. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.).
- Gutierrez, B.P.B. (2004). Determinants of planned and impulse buying: the case of the philippines. *Asia Pacific Management Review*, *9*,(6).
- Hart, S.J. (2001). Product policy. In M. J. Baker, (Ed.) *Encyclopaedia of Marketing*. London: International Thompson Business Press.
- Hasty, R., & Reardon, J. (1997). Retail management. Boston: Irwin/McGraw ó Hill.
- Hawkins, D. L, Best, R. J., & Coney, K. A. (1989). Consumer behaviour: implication for marketing strategy. USA: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.
- Hiam, A., & Schewe, C. D. (1992). *The portable MBA in marketing*. USA: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Hodge, R. (2004). Factors influencing impulse buying during an online purchase transaction. A Higher Degree Thesis, University Of Waterloo, Canada.
- Houseman, A. (2000). A multi-method investigation of consumer motivations in impulse buying behaviour. *Journal of Marketing* 17,(5) 403-419.
- Howe, W. S. (1992). Retailing management. London: Macmillan Educational Ltd.
- Ikeazor, A. (2002). *The distribution effectiveness of soft drink industry*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Department Of Marketing, University Of Nigeria, Enugu Campus.
- Jalees, T. (2004). An empirical analysis of impulsive buying behaviour in pakistan. Retrieved March 3, 2010 from at G Net Internet cafe, Kano.
- James, D. L., Durand, R.M., & Dreves, R.A. (1976). The use of multi-attribute in a store image study. *Journal of Retailing*, 52,(2), 22-32.
- James, D. L., Walker, B. J., & Etzel, M. J. (1981). *Retailing today*. USA: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed).
- Johnson, A. J., McFetridge, M., & Durham, C. A. (2008). Store–level retail fruit demand: lessons from omitted variables. Retrieved Nov. 8, 2008 from http://ageconsearch.umn.edu at Cyber Hut, Kano.
- Kotler, P. (1973). Atmospherics as a marketing tool. *Journal of Retailing*, 49, (4), 48-64.

- Kotler, P. (1991). *Marketing management*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc. (7<sup>th</sup> ed).
- Kotter, P. (2003). Marketing management. New Delhi: Prentice-Hall of India Private Ltd.
- Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G. (2001). *Principles of marketing*. New Delhi: PrenticeóHall of India Private Limited. (9<sup>th</sup> ed).
- Kotter, P., & Keller, K.L. (2005). *Marketing management*. New Delhi: Prentice-Hall of India Private Limited. (12<sup>th</sup> ed).
- Kruse, D. (2003). *Hy-vee. autonomy in action*. **Retrieved April 25, 2009 from www.supermarketbusiness.com at Cyber Hut, Kano.**
- Lancaster, G., & Massingham, L. (1993). *Essentials of marketing*. England: Mcgraw-Hill Book Company. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed).
- Laroche, M., Pons, F., Zgolli, N., Cervellon, M. C., & Kim, C. (2003). A model of consumer responses to two retail sales promotion techniques. *Journal of Business Research*, 56, 513 522.
- Lawson, R.W. (1999). Consumer behaviour. In M. J. Baker (Ed.). *Encyclopaedia of Marketing*, London: International Thompson Business Press.
- Leach, H. (1989). Retailing: a manual for students. England: Basil Blackwell Ltd.
- Levy, M., & Weitz, B.A. (1998). Retailing management. Boston: Irwin Mc Graw-Hill. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.).
- Lewison, D. M., & Delozier, M. W. (1988). *Retailing*. USA: Merill Publishing Company. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.).
- Lusch, R. F., Dunne, P., & Gable, M. (1990). *Retail management*. Ohio: Southwestern Publishing Company.
- Malter, A. J. (1996). An introduction to embodied cognition: implications for consumer research. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 23, 272-276.
- Markin, R. J. (1977). Retailing management. New York: Macmillan.
- Mason, J. B., Mayer, M.L., & Ezell, H.F. (1991). Retailing. USA: Richard D. Irwin Inc. (4<sup>th</sup> ed.).
- McGoldrick, P. J. (2001). *Retailing*. In M. J. Baker (Ed.). *Encyclopaedia of Marketing*. London: International Thompson Business Press.
- McGoldrick, P. J., & Greenland, S.J. (1994). *The retailing of financial services*. London: McGraw-Hill
- McCarthy, E. J. (1990). *Basic marketing: managerial approach*. USA: Jerome Mccarthy and Associates, Inc.

- McCarthy, E. J., & Perreaut, W. D. (1991). *Essentials of marketing*. USA: Jerome Mccarthy and Associates, Inc. (5<sup>th</sup> ed.).
- Miller, R. (2002). Inóstore impact on impulse shoppers. Marketing Research, 27 ó 28.
- Morden, A. R. (1991). *Elements of marketing*. London: DP Publications Ltd. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.).
- Morgenstein, M., & Strongin H. (1992). *Modern retailing management and principles and practice*. New Jersey: Regents/Prentice-Hall. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.).
- Mowen, J.C. (1995). Consumer behaviour. USA: Prentice-Hall. Inc. (4<sup>th</sup> ed.).
- Narashimhan, C., Neslin, S. A., & Sen, S. K. (1996). Promotional elasticity and category characteristics. *Journal of Marketing*, 60, 17-30.
- National Salaries, Incomes and Wages Commission (2007). *Consolidated tertiary institutions salary structure*. Abuja
- Nielsen, J. (1998). Retail pocket book. Oxford: NTC Publications.
- Nwokoye, N. G. (2004). *Modern marketing for nigeria: principles and practice*. Onitsha: AfricanaóFEB Publishers Ltd. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.).
- Oakland, J. S. (2001). Total quality management. In M. J. Baker (Ed.). *Encyclopaedia of Marketing*. London: International Thompson Business Press.
- Obi, C. A. (2002). Elements of business. Onitsha: Cape Publishers International Ltd.
- Oguejiofor-Osakwe, R. N. (2002). The impact of advertising on purchase decisions of cosmetic products by female lecturers in Nigerian universities. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Department of Vocational Teacher Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.
- Okeke, A. U. (2004). The influence of shopping variables on retail store patronage by female lecturers in tertiary institutions in Enugu state. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University Of Nigeria, Nsukka.
- Osuala, E. C. (1993). Principles and practice of small business management in Nigeria: A Didactic Approach. Nsukka: Fulladu Pub. Coy.
- Osuala, E. C. (1993). New commerce for Nigerian schools and colleges. Onitsha: Pacific Publishing Nigeria.
- Osuala, E. C. (1998). *Fundamentals of Nigerian marketing*. Onitsha: Cape Publishers International Ltd.
- Osuala, E. C. (2001). *Introduction to research methodology*. Ibadan: Africana-FEB Publishers Ltd. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.).

- Parasuraman, A. Zerthamal, A., & Berry, L. (1986). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing* 49, 41-50
- Peattie, S., & Peattie, K. (1994). Sales promotion. In M. J. Baker (Ed.). London; Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Peattie, K., & Peattie, S. (1997). Promotional competitions as a strategic marketing weapon. Journal of Marketing Management 13, 777 - 789.
- Peattie, K. (2001). Sales promotion. In M. J. Baker (Ed.). *Encyclopaedia of Marketing*. London: International Thompson Business Press.
- Peter, J. P., & Olson, J. C. (2002). Consumer behaviour and marketing strategy. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin. (6<sup>th</sup> ed.).
- Peters, T. J., & Austin, N. (1985). A passion for excellence: the leadership difference. New York. Random House.
- Phillips, H., & Bradshaw, R. (1993). How customers actually shop: customer interaction with the point of sale. *International Journal of Marketing Research*, 35,(1) 51 52.
- Piron, F. (1991). Defining impulse purchasing. Advances in Consumer Research, 18, 509 514.
- Pride, W. M. (1998). *Marketing basic concepts and decisions*. USA: Houghton Mifflin Company. (4<sup>th</sup> ed.).
- Rajaguru, R., & Matanda, M. J. (2006). Consumer perception of store and product attributes and its effect on customer loyalty within the Indian retail sector. Retrieved April 8, 2010 from <a href="http://conferences.anzmac.org/ANZMAC">http://conferences.anzmac.org/ANZMAC</a> 2006/documents/Rajaguru Rajesh.pdf at G-Net Internet Café, Kano.
- Raji, P. T. (2008). Consumer buying decision process. Retrieved Nov. 7, 2008 from www.consumerbehaviourbook.com at Cyber Hut, Kano.
- Richert, G. H. (1947). *Retailing principles and practices*. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company. (6<sup>th</sup> ed.).
- Rook, D. W. (1987). The buying impulse. Journal of Consumer Research. 14, 189 199.
- Rook, D. W., & Fisher, R. J. (1995). Normative influences on impulse buying behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Research*.
- Rook, D. W., & Hoch, S. J. (1985). Consuming impulses. *Advances in Consumer Research 12*, 23 27.
- Samson, H. E., Little, W. G., & Wingate, W. W. (1982). *Retail merchandising concepts and applications*. USA: South-Western Publishing Company.
- Schewe, C. D. (1987). Marketing principles and strategies. USA: Random House Inc.

- Shimp, T. A. (2000). *Advertising promotion: supplemental aspects of integrated marketing communications*. USA: Harcourt College Publishers. (5<sup>th</sup> ed.).
- Simon, H. (1989). Price management. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Stanton, W. J. (1981). Fundamentals of marketing. New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.
- Sullivan, G. J. (2008). *Stress, emotion regulation, and impulse buying*. A Senior Honors Thesis, University Of Denver.
- Thaler, R. (1980). Toward a positive theory of consumer choice. *Journal of Economic Behaviour* and Organization 1,(1) 39-60.
- Unamka, P. C. (1978). The image of retail stores in Nigeria. *Nigeria Journal of Marketing*. Enugu: Star Printing and Publishing Co. Ltd.
- Vohs, K. D., & Faber, R. J. (2007). Spent resources: self-regulatory resource availability affects impulse buying. *Journal of Consumer Research Vol. 33 March 2007*.
- Winstanley, M. J. (1983). *The shopkeeper's world*, 1830-1914. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Wolf, K. L. (2002). Retail and urban nature: creating a consumer habitat. Retrieved February 22, 2009 from http://www.cfr.washington.edu/research.envmind/consumerhabitat.html at Cyber Hut, Kano.
- Whitaker, W. B. (1973). Victorian and edwardian shop workers: the struggle to obtain better conditions and half-holiday. Newton Abbot: David And Charles.
- Youn, S., & Faber, R. J. (2000). Impulse buying: itos relation to personality traits and cues. *Advances in Consumer Research* 27, 179 185.

#### APPENDIX A

Department of Vocational Teacher Education (Business Education) University of Nigeria, Nsukka. 18<sup>th</sup> Nov. 2009.

Dear Educator,

#### REQUEST FOR VALIDATION OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

I am a postgraduate student in the above Department and University, currently undertaking a research project on determining the extent of influence of retail store variables on consumer impulse buying behaviour as perceived by Business Education lecturers in colleges of education.

The attached in a draft copy of the questionnaire designed for the study as well as a copy of the research questions for guidance. You are please requested to vet the items for clarity, relevance and proper converge for use in collecting data for the study. You are also requested to make comments and suggestions for improvement in the quality of the instrument.

Thanks for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

Prof. E.C. Osuala (Supervisor)

Asuquo, Effiong Edet PG/Ph.D/05/39936

#### APPENDIX B

	Department of Vocational Teacher Education,
	University of Nigeria,
	Nsukka.
	Date:
- <u></u>	
Dear Sir/Madam	

#### REQUEST TO RESPOND TO A QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a postgraduate student in the above department and university, currently undertaking a research project titled: Influence of Retail Store Variables on the Impulse Buying Behaviour of Business Education Lecturers in Colleges of Education in the North-west Geo-political zone of Nigeria.

The attached questionnaire is to elicit the necessary information needed for the study. You are please requested to respond the items as objectively as possible. Every information given will be treated with strict confidence and will be used for this research study.

Thanks for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

Professor E. C. Osuala (Supervisor)

Asuquo, Effiong Edet PG/Ph.D/05/39936 (Researcher)

#### **APPENDIX C**

# UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA, NSUKKA DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION BUSINESS EDUCATION SECTION

# QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE PERCEPTION OF BUSINESS EDUCATION LECTURERS IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION ON THE INFLUENCE OF

RETAIL STORE VARIABLES ON IMPULSE BUYING BEHAVIOUR OF CONSUMERS Please complete the following items by checking (ç) the spaces as appropriate. Data provided shall be used strictly for academic purpose and shall be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Section A. General Info	rmation
Gender:	
Male	
Female	
Age Range:	
25 ó 40	
41 ó 50	
51 or over	
Rank of Respondents an	d their Income per annum:
Assistant Lecture	rs N579,391 ó N857,305
Lecturer III	N671,747 ó N998,031
Lecturer II	N777,984 6 N1,131,610
Lecturer I	N973,305 ó N1,375,535
Senior Lecturer	N1,445,599 6 N1,908,855
Principal Lecture	r N1,820,908 ó N2,381,772
Chief Lecturer	N2,232,199 ó N2,875,791
Sections B- H: These se	ctions contain items on influence of retail store variables on consumer
impulse buying behavio	ur. Please check (ç ) to indicate your response category in all the items
using the following keys	s:
Key: Strongly Agree	(SA)
Agree	(A)
No Opinion	(NO)
Disagree	(D)
Strongly Disagre	e (SD)

#### **Section B**

The following statements relate to the different ways retail store location influences consumer impulse buying behaviour. Please indicate your response category to the item statements with a check (ç) in the columns provided

S/N	Item Statements	SA	A	NO	D	SD
1	The location of a retail store determines the					
	frequency of customer traffic and impulse					
	purchase in the store					
2	Customers are often influenced by the					
	convenient location of the store to stop by					
	and make impulse purchase					
3	Retail stores with special features such as					
	parking space, ease of entry and exit can					
	attract customers to easily stop by and					
	make impulse buying.					
4	Retail stores located at attractive and					
	conducive environment can influence the					
~	consumersøimpulse buying decision.					
5	Stores located at shopping centres are more					
	likely to influence consumersø desire to					
6	stop by and make impulse purchase.					
6	Retail store located along consumersø regular route to and from office can					
	influence them to stop by and make					
	impulse purchase.					
7	Consumers are often influenced by stores					
,	located near their residence to visit and					
	make impulse purchases					
8	Stores whose locations are well planned are					
	likely to influence consumersø desire to					
	visit and make impulsive buying.					
9	Strategically located stores are likely to					
	influence consumers to make unplanned					
	visits and impulse purchases.					
10	Retail stores located in affluent areas of a					
	city are likely to influence more affluent					
	customers to buy on impulse					

#### **Section C**

The following statements relate to the different ways retail store design influences consumer impulse buying behaviour. Please indicate your response category to the item statements with a check (c) in the columns provided.

S/N	Item sta	atement				SA	A	NO	D	SD
11	Store	designs	that	enhance	the					
	present	ation of me	erchand	ise can influ	ience					
	impuls	e buying by	custon	ners.						
12	Traffic	aisle which	n allows	for free flo	w of					
	traffic across the display stands and									
	shelves	shelves can influence consumersø impulse								
	buying	decision.								

- 13 Good lighting and ventilation in the retail store cause customers to shop with relaxation and thus influence their impulse buying decision
- Retail store environment that is warmth and comfortable makes customers to stay longer and induces them to buy on impulse.
- 15 A store design such as free-form design that allows customers to browse and wander freely in the store can encourage impulse buying.
- Air-conditioning, visual set, and soft background music in a retail store can encourage customers to stay longer and thus stimulate them to make impulse purchases.
- 17 A store layout with yellow brick road (a leading section through small inexpensive goods to larger expensive goods) can induce impulse purchase by customers.
- 18 A salesósupport-services section that provides customer services such as delivery can encourage customers to make impulse purchases.
- 19 The race-track design that allows customers to view all angles of the store encourages impulse buying
- 20 Merchandise sections prominently labeled with clear overhead signs can encourage impulse buying
- 21 Stores with serene shopping environment induce impulse buying by consumers.

#### **Section D**

The following statements relate to the different ways retail store merchandise display influences consumer impulse buying behaviour. Please indicate your response category to the item statements with a check (c) in the columns provided.

S/N	Item statement	SA	A	NO	D	SD
22	A good merchandise display in a retail store induces customers to buy on					
	impulse					
23	A display pattern that has merchandise in categories encourages impulse purchase.					
24.	Items positional at eye-catching level in the store are capable of influencing customers to make impulse purchases.					
25	Items such as menøs suits, womenøs					

	wears, and jewelry can draw customers into the entire length of the store thereby	
26	induce impulse purchase.  Daily demand lines such as staple food	
20	when placed near the store entrance can	
	influence impulse purchase.	
27	Window display that provides a visual	
	image about the type of merchandise in	
	the store can influence customers to	
	make impulse purchases.	
28	Impulse items displayed at the check-	
	out point can influence impulse buying	
	by customers while waiting to be	
	attended to.	
29	Self-service counter encourages	
	customers to examine merchandise and	
	thus influence them to make impulse	
	purchase.	

#### **Section E**

The following statements relate to the different ways store merchandise assortment influences consumer impulse buying behaviour. Please indicate your response category to the item statements with a check (c) in the columns provided.

S/N	Item statement	SA	A	NO	D	SD
30	Merchandise stocked according to					
	consumer needs can influence consumers					
	to make impulse buying in a retail store					
31	Merchandise stocked according to the					
	needs of specific group of consumers can					
	influence impulse purchase by consumers					
32	The quality of merchandise a store					
	carries influences consumersø decision to					
	buy on impulse.					
33	A unique mix of products especially with					
	complimentary goods in a store					
	influences consumers to buy on impulse.					
34	Consumer goods made available in					
	different varieties of color, model, size,					
	brand, and style in a store can influence					
	impulse buying decision of consumers.					
35	A retail store with broad assortment of					
	product of many lines is likely to					
	influence consumersø decision to buy					
	more goods on impulse.					
36	Low marginal products like chewing					
	gum, chocolate, magazines, and biscuits,					
	though not always in shopping list attract					
	consumersøimpulse buying tendency.					
37	Retail stores that maintain stock					

	availability are likely to influence
	consumersø decision to stop-over and
	make impulse purchase.
38	Reliable products that function
	satisfactorily over time attract customersø
	impulse buying tendency.
39	Short life-span products like perishable
	items are likely to influence consumersø
	decision to buy on impulse.
40	Lighter and easily conveyed merchandise
	are likely to influence impulse buying
	decision by the consumers.
41	Products that are easily stored and not
	vulnerable to quick decay can induce
	impulse purchase by consumers.

#### **Section F**

The following statements relate to the different ways price of merchandise influences consumer impulse buying behaviour. Please indicate your response category to the item statements with a check (c) in the columns provided.

S/D	Item statements	SA	A	NO	D	SD
42	Merchandise that are correctly priced					
	are likely to influence consumersø					
	impulse buying decision.					
43	Price cut through mark-down (discount)					
	to offer considerably low price can					
	influence impulse buying decision.					
44	Price cut on goods meant for clearance					
	and seasonal sales encourages					
15	consumers to buy on impulse.					
45	Price fixed within the consumersø					
	bargaining power can stimulate impulse buying decision					
46	Scarcity of an essential product					
40	occasioned by anticipated price increase					
	can induce impulse buying					
47	Odd-pricing policy is capable of					
• •	inducing impulse buying among price-					
	conscious consumers.					
48	Two or more different products given at					
	one price can encourage impulse buying					
	among consumers.					
49	Leader pricing can influence impulse					
	buying of complimentary products by					
	consumers.					
50	Price labeling on products in the store					
	can stimulate impulse buying by					
	consumers.					

# **Section G**

The following statements relate to the different ways customer services influence consumer impulse buying behaviour. Please indicate your response category to the item statements with a check (ç) in the columns provided.

S/N	Item statement	SA	A	NO	D	SD
51	High quality customer service provided in a	D11	11	110		55
0.1	retail store influences customer impulse					
	buying behaviour					
52	Friendly employees and shop operators					
	stimulate and influence impulse buying.					
53	Information and advice provided to customers					
	on technical specification of products can					
	influence them to buy on impulse.					
54	After-sales-service provided in the store					
	encourages customers to buy on impulse					
55	Store employees responsiveness and					
	willingness to help can influence consumersø					
<b>5</b> /	impulse buying behaviour					
56	Credit facilities in form of deferred payment					
	can influence consumersø impulse buying behaviour.					
57	Speedy delivery services in the store can					
37	induce impulse buying among consumers.					
58	Repair and technical support services to					
36	customers can encourage them to make					
	impulse purchase.					
59	Reward to customers for frequent patronage					
	can influence them to buy some items on					
	impulse.					
60	Consumers are likely to buy on impulse from					
	store whose service delivery quality matches					
	with the consumersø service quality					
	expectation.					
61	Self-service that allows customers freedom of					
	choice in the store can induce impulse					
	purchase					
62	Free samples, discounts, bonus packs, etc can					
(2	induce impulse buying among consumers.					
63	Quick response to customer complaints can					
	encourage impulse buying among consumers.					

# **Section H**

The following statements relate to the different ways advertising and sales promotion influence consumer impulse buying behaviour. Please indicate your response category to the item statements with a check (ç) in the columns provided.

S/N	Item statements	SA	A	NO	D	SD
64	Advertising messages are capable of					
	influencing consumers to buy certain goods					
	on impulse from a retail store.					
65	Radio and television advertisement can					
	stimulate impulse buying among consumers.					
66	Advertising message on new product					
	influences consumersø reaction and enhances					
	their impulse buying decision.					
67	Out-door advertising is capable of inducing					
	impulse buying.					
68	Effective advertising can influence the					
	customersøattitude towards impulse buying.					
69	Sales promotion incentives such as free					
	samples, coupons, cash refunds, prizes, free					
	trials, and warranties can induce impulse					
	buying among consumers.					
70	Sales promotion attracts customers to the					
	store and encourages impulse buying among					
	them.					
71	Prestigious sales promotion strategy can					
	influence consumersø impulse buying					
	behaviour.					

Thanks for your cooperation.

# Appendix D

Chronbachøs Alpha Reliability Coefficient for the Questionnaire

**Scale: ALL VARIABLES** 

# **Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	28	100.0
	Excluded	0	0
	Total	28	100.0

Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure

**Reliability Statistics** 

Chronbachøs	Chronbachøs	No of
Alpha	Alpha Based on	Items
_	Standardized	
	Items	
.752	.753	71

# **Summary Item Statistics**

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum/	Variance	No of
					Minimum		Items
Item Means	3.376	3.000	3.679	.679	1.226	.049	71
Item	.594	.226	1.333	1.107	5.895	.133	71
Variances							
Inter-item	.157	278	1.333	1.611	-4.800	.065	71
Covariances							

# **Scale Statistics**

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
2.3971E2	824.952	28.72198	71