

Factors Influence on Consumers' Leisure Shopping Behaviour in Shopping Malls and Its Future Research Direction-Literature Review

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Abstract-Shopping is widely regarded as a major leisure time activity and entertainment aspect of retail industry is increasingly being recognized as a key competitive instrument in the present situation. Therefore retailers and shopping Centre developers are seeking ways to make shopping more of a leisure pursuit. While considering the literature in hedonic shopping there is a limited researches and no proper theorization. While retailers are focusing more on entertainment, academic research is lagging in investigating the hedonic reasons people go shopping. Absence of knowledge in this background makes marketers unclear and difficult to satisfy expectations of the customers who are reactive to leisure shopping. Hence through the structured literature review, this paper intent to identify the factors which influence on consumers' leisure shopping behaviour in shopping malls through that identify the theoretical gaps and giving suggestions for future research.

Index Terms- Entertainment, Hedonic Shopping, Leisure shopping, Shopping Malls.

I. INTRODUCTION

Shopping has become a remarkably pervasive activity undertaken daily by millions of people worldwide (Hine, 2002). Further, Tauber (1972) defines shopping is, at its most basic level, a search for value. "Shopping is a spectacle in which on is both performer and spectator...it is seeing and being seen, meeting and being met, a way of interacting with others" (Lunt & Livingstone, 1992, p. 189). Moreover, there are numerous reasons to go shopping in a market-based economy (Tauber, 1972). As per

Tauber (1972) enables shopping trips are not always connected to the purchase of goods and that a number of further social and personal motives

accounts for shopping behavior. According to Tauber's (1972) statement, researcher considers two motives for

Going shopping and these motives have been labelled as: utilitarian shopping or purposeful shopping and shopping as a pleasure or leisure shopping (Dholakia, 1999)

Meanwhile, the business literature proposes two fundamental categories or types of shopping. The first is purposeful shopping (Backstrom, 2006), whereby the activity is undertaken to acquire the goods required for daily use (Pooler, 2003). Further, this type of shopping is characterized as taskrelated and rational. Hence, its goal is typically one of product acquisition (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). Subsequently, when engaged in purposeful shopping, participants are habitually neutral to the activity and approach the experience from a time or money-saving perspective (Bäckstrom, 2006; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980). Moving on, the second category of shopping is leisure shopping and it is classically defined as an activity, which consumers enjoy as a leisure-time pursuit (Bäckstrom, 2006; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980). Furthermore, Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) speculate that, for leisure shopping, the emphasis is on the "enjoyable use of time without respect to the purchase of goods or services" (p. 79). In addition, leisure shopping is considered by hedonic value (Babin, Darden & Griffin, 1994).

Moreover, Babin et al. (1994) suggest that "hedonic value is more subjective and personal than its utilitarian counterpart and results more from fun and playfulness than from task completion" (p. 646).

Shopping malls are becoming places where customers patronize more frequently when compared with other point of sales for a variety of product categories. (Sebnem Burnaz, Y. Ilker Topcu, 2011). The shopping mall is a shopping center type in retail management, which can be simply defined as a building that contains many units of retail shops but is managed as a single property. (Pitt M, Musa ZN, 2009). Shopping malls are becoming new places that consumers visit where the shopping itself has transformed meaning and focus. Retailers are now alarmed to find ways of presenting themselves inside these modern buildings and adapt to quickly changing consumer expectations. (Sebnem Burnaz, Y. Ilker Topcu, 2011).

Shopping as an Entertainment Experience, Moss (2007) argues that going to the shopping centres achieves more drives than pure consumption and “many people simply go to the mall rather than go anywhere else” (p.45-46). Juliana (2010) describes the role of shopping malls as a leisure space and as facilitators of enjoyable shopping activities. Reliable with the notion that “all shopping centers are to some degree leisure centers” (Howard, 2007, p. 668). Elizabeth Howard argues that leisure centers are not a separate category of Centre, but the classification of shopping centres should be modified to include reflexion of leisure catering may be the most important provision.

Over the years, retailers have been buffeted by a number of macro-environmental forces that have changed the landscape of the industry. These contain the spread of mass discounters, the proliferation of suburban power centers and lifestyle retailing formats, and the recent arrival of the Internet as an alternative retail platform offering consumer’s unparalleled convenience. For example, the July 1998 cover of Time magazine predicted the demise of the shopping mall: “Kiss Your Mall Good-Bye: Online Shopping is Cheaper, Quicker and better. “In this environment it is no longer sufficient for a retailer to function in a straight manner by enticing customers with broad assortments, low pricing, and extended store hours. (Mark J. Arnolda, Kristy E. Reynolds, 2003). Many retailers are replying to the threat of Internet-based shopping by leveraging the “brick-and-mortar” advantages that virtual retailers cannot match: higher levels of service, highly qualified staff, and an entertaining and fun retail environment (Burke, 1997; Cope, 1996; Wakefield & Baker, 1998) Creating and bringing customer value is a precondition for retailers to continue in today’s

competitive marketplace. (Timo Rintamäki Antti Kanto Hannu Kuusela Mark T. Spence, 2006).

Retailers who appreciate the multiplicity of motives for shopping have the best potentials to generate value for their customers. Instead of defining motivation to shop only as a function of buying, the role of hedonic and social shopping motives should also be recognized by retailers (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Sheth, 1983; Tauber, 1972; Westbrook and Black, 1985). The entertainment aspect of retailing, or “entertaining,” is increasingly being recognized as a key competitive tool. Retailers should always be mindful that regardless of the excitement and fun delivered in the shopping experience, consumers appear to expect utility with the right merchandise, in the right place, at the right time, and at the right price. (Carpenter Jason M, Moore Marguerite, Fairhurst Ann E., 2005).

Additionally, The Sri Lankan modern retail sector becomes one of the fastest growing sectors in the market with the post war economic development and increased household income. And also the modern Sri Lankan shopper searches for a more comfortable shopping experience increasing the growth potential for modern retail formats in the country. Due to these high competition and fastest growth of the retail sector, Sri Lankan retailers also try to provide more value to their customers (Perera, 2015). Retailers are looking for opportunities to create shopping as leisure activity, because consumers are engaging with more on leisure. (Carpenter Jason M, Moore Marguerite, Fairhurst Ann E., 2005).

Meanwhile, Shopping has become a leisure activity and people began to think of a shopping as an activity to pass the time and not just as shops as a place that they needed to go. Many leisure researchers have confirmed that shopping characterised a form of leisure (Jackson, 1991; Jansen Verbeke, 1987). Ron et al. (2013) argue shopping could be a great deal of fun and shopping often involved browsing with no intention to purchase.

Pooler (2003) suggests that some people can be described as “shopping enthusiasts.” Stebbins (2006) goes further in this argument, suggesting that some forms of shopping, particularly window shopping, can be seen as a form of “casual leisure,” while shopping for a specific product could be seen as “project-based leisure.” Shopping as an Entertainment Experience, Moss (2007) argues that going to the shopping centers achieves more purposes than pure consumption and “many

people simply go to the mall rather than go anywhere else” (p.45-46). Juliana (2010) describes the role of shopping malls as a leisure space and as facilitators of enjoyable shopping activities. Consistent with the notion that “all shopping centers are to some degree leisure centers” (Howard, 2007, p. 668). Elizabeth Howard argues that leisure centers are not a separate category of Centre, but the classification of shopping centers should be adapted to incorporate consideration of leisure catering may be the most important provision. Shopping has become one of the most common leisure activities in the today’s world and leisure shopping is mostly related with high street shops and shopping malls (shopping for leisure, 2008)

Other researchers have been less willing to view shopping as a genuine leisure activity. Rhona Reid (1996) argues that shopping is widely regarded as a major leisure-time activity, but many people do not enjoy the shopping experience. Elizabeth Howard (2007) confirms leisure shopping is not best conceptualized as part of a continuum from purposive to leisure oriented. Stebbins (2006) also suggests that leisure shopping may be becoming more common even though many people claim to dislike or even “hate” shopping. It has been argued that high levels of hedonic shopping value might be more pronounced in developed market economies, and less noticeable in less developed economies (Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R., Griffin, M., 1994).

As far as the researcher concerns, from the literature survey only few purposes found people are going for leisure shopping such as fun, thrill, excitement and etc. (Meghan, 2012). But it’s also not sufficiently study. As the same no research has been conducted so far in Sri Lanka, to examine the role of leisure shopping in shopping malls in Colombo District.

Absence of knowledge in this background makes marketers unclear and difficult to satisfy expectations of the customers who are responsive to leisure Shopping issues in shopping malls. Unless satisfy this expectations of the customers, it is difficult to retain such customers with the organizations. While retailers are focusing more on entertainment, academic research is lagging in investigating the hedonic reasons people go shopping. For example, the last comprehensive effort at examining shopping motivations occurred some time ago (Westbrook, R.A. and Black, W.C., 1985), and the retail landscape has changed

dramatically since then. (Mark J. Arnolda, Kristy E. Reynolds, 2003).

II. METHODOLOGY

Papers selected for inclusion in this review 70 published articles in leading academic journals specialising in entertaining shopping behaviour and leisure shopping. Each article analyse by the means of theoretical and empirical and subsequently according to the contents including Utilitarian shopping or Purposeful Shopping behaviours and Shopping as a pleasure or leisure shopping behaviour. Although articles were classified as either theoretical or empirical, categories occurring within each of these perspectives were not considered mutually exclusive; it was therefore possible for one article to be assigned to multiple categories.

III. THEORETICAL FOUNDATION OF CONSUMERS’ LEISURE SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR IN SHOPPING MALLS

A. *Shopping*

Much of the research regarding consumption experience during the 1970s was grounded in the information-processing approach (Bettman, 1979) that observed the consumer to be a logical thinker, who aimed to purchase the best product from available product choices. Based on this approach, the consumer is envisioned to be a goal-directed problem solver, who searches for product-related information, weighs evidence, and arrives at a carefully considered evaluation leading to a purchase decision (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Instead of focusing on purchase behavior, Holbrook (1982) focuses on value derived by the consumer during the consumption experience. Value taps what the consumer perceives he or she gains from the consumption experience and includes fun (mental play) and aesthetic pleasure from imagery and sensory elements of the shopping experience. Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) saw these forms of pleasure as the experiential (non-instrumental) value of the consumption experience. Oakley (1974) had noted that shopping was one of the activities with the most positive attribute of being able to talk to others while doing work and going shopping is a major source of relaxation as well as a household chore.

Current shopping experiences involve more than consumer acquisition of goods. They also involve seemingly tangential experiences to acquisition of

goods resulting from the broadly defined shopping environment, such as an elaborate store design, educational events, recreation, and entertainment. (Ann Marie Fiore, Jihyun Kim, 2007). The shopping experience entails consumer processes (product evaluation, attitude formation) and responses (satisfaction, or purchase behavior) affected by aspects of the shopping environment (brick-and-mortar retail store, shopping center, catalog, and online store), situation, and consumer characteristics. (Ann Marie Fiore, Jihyun Kim, 2007). Shopping adds value to the people's overall quality of life, the shopping wellbeing include functional, convenience, atmospheric, safety and leisure related (Masood U.L., Hassan and Javeria Abbas, 2013). Hedhil et al. (2011) shopping wellbeing is defined as a shoppers perceived impact of a shopping mall in contributing to satisfaction in important life domains such as consumer life, social life, leisure life and community life (Hedhli, K.E., J.C. Chebat and M.J. Sirgy, 2011). In line with changes in consumer shopping experience, models used in empirical study of the experience have expanded. (Ann Marie Fiore, Jihyun Kim, 2007)

B. Purposes of Shopping

There are many reasons to go shopping in a market-based economy (Tauber, 1972). Social reasons are particularly important: "shopping is a spectacle in which one is both performer and spectator...it is seeing and being seen, meeting and being met, a way of interacting with others" (Lunt, P., & Livingstone, S., 1992). As per Tauber's (1972) statement, this study considers two motives for going shopping. These motives have been labeled as: Utilitarian shopping or Purposeful Shopping, Shopping as a pleasure or leisure shopping

In order to understand shopping motives, one has to consider the satisfaction provided by both shopping activities and the utility derived from the merchandise.

C. Purposeful Shopping Versus Leisure Shopping

The business literature suggests two fundamental categories or types of shopping. The first is purposeful shopping (Backstrom, 2006), whereby the activity is undertaken to acquire the goods required for daily use (Pooler, 2003). This type of shopping is characterized as task-related and rational. Its goal is typically one of product acquisition (Arnold, M.J., Reynolds, K.E., 2003). When engaged in purposeful shopping, participants

are often neutral to the activity and approach the experience from a time or money-saving perspective (Bäckstrom, 2006; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980). In addition, Prus and Dawson (1991) suggest that purposeful this sense of meaning is placed on a level with hard work (Backstrom, 2006). Consumption is understood as a means to accomplish some predefined end. Conversely, the category of leisure shopping is typically defined as an activity, which consumers enjoy as a leisure-time pursuit (Bäckstrom, 2006; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980). Research in this type of shopping typically emphasizes the experiential value of shopping and the satisfaction realized from the activity (Backstrom, 2006). Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) speculate that, for leisure shopping, the focus is on the "enjoyable use of time without respect to the purchase of goods or services" (p. 79). In addition, leisure shopping is characterized by hedonic value (Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R. and Griffin, M., 1994). Babin et al. (1994), suggest that "hedonic value is more subjective and personal than its utilitarian counterpart and results more from fun and playfulness than from task completion" (p. 646). Thus, shopping is valued for its potential entertainment and emotional worth and "the purchase of goods may be incidental to the experience of shopping" (p. 646).

Hedonic and utilitarian consumption have been defined in terms of shopping values (Jones et al., 2006), motivations (Arnold, M.J., Reynolds, K.E., 2003), or emotions (Addis and Holbrook, 2001). Hedonic behaviors include consumption, exploration and social activities, while utilitarian behaviors include the performance of a mission without distractions. Some of these behaviors were identified in previous research (Blochet et al., 1994; Gilboa, 2009). Hedonic consumption has been defined as those facets of behavior that relate to the multisensory, fantasy, and emotive is driven by the fun a consumer has in using the product, and the criteria for "success" are essentially aesthetic in nature (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Hedonic shopping motives are similar to the task orientation of utilitarian shopping motives, only the "task" is concerned with hedonic fulfillment, such as experiencing fun, amusement, fantasy, and sensory stimulation (Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R., Griffin, M., 1994). Also, in an empirical study it was found that hedonic shoppers who get pleasure from shopping usually go for more spontaneous and unintentional purchase (liu, S.S., R. Melara and R. Arangarasan, 2007)

Hedonic and social dimensions of customer value are seen as meaningful and important aspects that complement the traditional utilitarian perspective. Increasing our understanding of these softer aspects of shopping is important because they represent possible differentiating factors in the highly competitive and often commoditized retail markets. In the words of Tauber (1972, p. 49): “Many retailers would benefit by defining their business as being part of the social-recreational industry.”

Shopping in the recreational sense tends to preserve conceptions of the activity as primarily directed towards the enjoyment of shopping activity. Therefore, purchasing may be considered as secondary to other elements found within the experience (Backstrom, 2006). While it appears that the two categories of shopping sit on opposite ends of a continuum, Bäckstrom (2006) argues that such is not the case. Both types of shopping contribute to the overall satisfaction of a consumer's retail experience and need not be mutually exclusive (Batra & Ahtola, 1990). There is thus some empirical evidence that culture and the state of a country's economy may moderate the level of hedonic and utilitarian shopping motives and experiences. Bloch et al. (1991) found that consumers who scored high on their browsing index were younger and with lower income. It has been argued that high levels of hedonic shopping value might be more pronounced in developed market economies, and less noticeable in less developed economies (Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R. and Griffin, M, 1994)

The utilitarian perspective is based on the assumption that consumers are rational problem-solvers (Bettman, 1979). Shoppers experience utilitarian value when their task-related needs are fulfilled. Therefore, utilitarian value is characterized as instrumental and extrinsic (Babin et al., 1994; Holbrook, 1999; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Monetary savings and convenience contribute to utilitarian value. Monetary savings reduce the pain of paying (Chandon et al., 2000); therefore, utilitarian value can be increased when a customer is able to find discounted products or when prices are perceived to be less than those at competing stores. Consumption experience as an end valued for its own sake became a topic of interest among consumer researchers in the early-1980s. The experiential view highlighted three F's – fantasies, feelings and fun – that represented the hedonic aspects of consumption (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982).

Babin and Babin (2001) found that utilitarian shopping value associated with store patronage had a significant influence on hedonic value. In effect, a customer's repeated (patronage) behavior toward a store could lead to more efficient acquisitions of goods because desired items are easy to locate, which may allow time for more leisurely browsing, thus potentially enhancing utilitarian and hedonic shopping value. Westbrook and Black (1985) and others have recognized that shoppers often have utilitarian motives as well, in many cases going shopping to acquire some product or service, and to have fun as well. Leisure shopping can involve both “task-related, or product-acquisition, and hedonic value through responses evoked during the experience” (Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R., Griffin, M., 1994, p. 645). It seems worthwhile to explore variations in the consumer actions performed while engaged in leisure shopping and the meanings ascribed to the activity by various consumers (Backstrom, 2006).

Shoppers realize hedonic value when the act of shopping is appreciated in its own right, irrespective of getting planned purchases done. Hedonic value is characterized as self-purposeful and self-oriented (Babin et al., 1994; Holbrook, 1999). Compared with utilitarian value, hedonic value is abstract and subjective. Entertainment and exploration are considered to contribute to hedonic value. Many researchers have compared today's shopping experience to that provided by a theme park or a theater (Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Schmitt, 1999; Wolf, 1999). Themed environments, shows or other events, contests, in-store restaurants, benches and overall store atmospherics make the shopping experience more entertaining and thus provide hedonic customer value (Babin and Attaway, 2000; Chandon et al., 2000; Holbrook, 1999; Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Schmitt, 1999; Turley and Milliman, 2000). Hedonic value realized through entertainment is a reaction to aesthetic features. Buying is not an essential function of exploration: “shopping with a goal [i.e. buying] can be distinguished from shopping as a goal” (Babin et al., 1994, p. 647). Shoppers enjoy touching, trying and browsing products, and visiting different departments (Sandikci and Holt, 1998).

Utilitarian consumer behavior can be described as a rational approach involving a purchase that is efficiently made, even if the shopping itself may not provide any fun (Babin et al., 1994). In this context, a shopping experience can be evaluated by consumers as an achievement of an intended goal. On the other hand, following the line of initial

studies (Gardner and Levy, 1955; Levy, 1959; Tauber, 1972), Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) introduced the concept of Hedonic consumption that involves multi-sensory and emotive aspects of the consumer's experiences with products. Hedonic shopping is related with the satisfaction of a person's desires and it is an expression of experiential consumption. Nevertheless, shopping process can be both economic and hedonic (Bardhi and Arnould, 2005). Hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations have been also related with attitudes towards products and brands (Crowley et al., 1992; Spangenberg et al., 1997; Voss et al., 2003). From this perspective, consumer attitudes are essentially dimensional, lying in two main reasons for consumption behavior: (1) utilitarian reasons, based on product functional attributes; and (2) hedonic reasons based on affective gratifications (Batra and Ahtola, 1990). However, traditional product acquisition explanations may not fully reflect the totality of the shopping experience (Bloch & Richins, 1983). Because of this, the last several years have seen resurgent interest in shopping's hedonic aspects, particularly as researchers have recognized the importance of its potential entertainment and emotional worth (Babin et al., 1994; Langrehr, 1991; Roy, 1994; Wakefield & Baker, 1998).

D. Leisure

Leisure is often considered as activity chosen in relative freedom for its qualities of satisfaction and desired outcomes (Kelly, 1996). Kelly suggests that leisure is also a quality of experience chosen more for its own sake than for ends related to survival or necessity. The author observes that people seek leisure experiences, which provide opportunities for presentation of the self and self-development. Kelly (1996) further elaborates that leisure is pursued for intrinsic satisfactions as well as the meanings it holds for the present and the future. Leisure is often defined and operationalized as an objective or subjective phenomenon (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). Definitions of 'leisure' often focus on its contrast to work/and or its relation to recreation (Torkildsen, 2005)

As an objective phenomenon, leisure is understood as quantifiable and observable behavior. Such behaviors typically occur during non-work time and may involve expenditures of money and/or time, as well as participation in particular types of activities (Unger & Kernan, 1983). Furthermore, Unger and Kernan believe that "leisure has existential elements which extend beyond time constraints or structured activities" (p. 381). As a

subjective phenomenon, leisure is understood to be the "...mental experience [of an individual] while engaged in leisure activities and the satisfaction or meanings derived from these involvements" (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997, p.55). Kelly (1996) argues, "Leisure is the perception of free choice for the sake of doing or experiencing" (p. 21). In Neulinger's (1981) early description of subjective leisure, he developed a paradigm that includes three dimensions: perceived freedom, intrinsic motivation, and non-instrumentality. According to Neulinger, the leisure actor understands that what she or he is doing has been freely chosen for reasons intrinsic to the activity rather than as a means to another end.

Thus, subjective definitions of leisure are located within the consciousness of the leisure actor, positioning her or him as the primary mediator of the leisure experience (Seller and Boshoff, 2006; Kelly, 2000; McDowell, 1984). Leisure is thought to be influenced by the meanings assigned by the actors to the various elements of the leisure episode (Ragheb, 1996). Ellis (1973) suggested that leisure and recreation provide numerous meanings for the participants including self-expression, mental stimulation, relaxation, cognitive development, and competency. Seller and Boshoff (2006), suggest that individuals are capable of authoring, or creating leisure experiences when engaging in activities, which possess and engender certain idiosyncratic meanings. Additionally, leisure is an action, which takes place at a given time, develops an identifiable activity, and is perceived as a pleasant experience by the actor (Ateca-Amestoy, Serrano-del-Rosal, and Vera-Toscano, 2008). As regards the connection between the concepts 'shopping' and 'leisure', as referred to here, the term leisure primarily serves to denote the free choice of activity associated to this form of shopping (Howard, 2007)

E. leisure shopping

Consumers are spending more on leisure, and retailers and shopping Centre developers are seeking ways to make shopping more of a leisure pursuit. The phenomenon of receiving pleasure or enjoyment from shopping has since long been acknowledged, both within and outside of the academic arena (Stone, 1954; Ballenger et al., 1977; Williams et al., 1985). This phenomenon has been studied within a wide range of academic disciplines and referred to using diverse terms such as leisure shopping (Martin and Mason, 1987; Howard, 2007), hedonic shopping (Babin et al., 1994; Arnold and Reynolds, 2003), and pleasurable

shopping (Lehtonen, 1997; Cox et al., 2005). Within the field of retailing, shopping as a form of leisure-time enjoyment has been dominated by the use of economic and psychological approaches (Backstrom, 2011)

Leisure shopping is a recent strategy of retailers and innovative concern; it is a course of action making individuals experience the joy of shopping. It is argued that leisure shopping needs to be acknowledged as a multifaceted activity that may be performed in various ways and embody different types of consumer meanings. It is also argued that there is a need to focus more on the influence of retail environments on individuals engaged in leisure shopping (Backstrom, 2006). Consumers may also experience and pursue leisure shopping in different ways on different occasions. Also leisure shopping may embrace multiple consumer meanings at one and the same occasion (Backstrom, 2011)

Retailers are looking for opportunities to create shopping as leisure activity, because consumers are engaging with more on leisure. Retailers face fierce competition to capture their customers and their spending too. Defining leisure is a broad concept. Simply differentiating leisure and work, or considering it same as to recreation that can be termed as any experience satisfying virtually (Torkildsen, 1992). Lewis and Bridger (2000) indicate an increasing trend of time pressure on customers, or more precisely a growing group of those who feel time pressured and who tend to be more affluent others. Schiller (1999) argue that "mainstream retailing" that consisting of routinely and regularly purchased goods, is increasingly being put under a time squeeze, partly because of longer working hours and higher female participation rates in the labor market, and partly because holidays and other leisure activities are taking an increasing share of consumers' time and money. He describes, "Leisure shopping" as the mirror image of mainstream retailing where the outing is not so much a means to an end as the whole point, and shopping is only part of the experience.

According to Elizabeth Howard (2007), customer visited the shopping centers for both utilitarian and experiential reasons. They viewed shopping as a leisure activity, enjoyed looking around while accomplishing their shopping tasks, spent the highest amount of time (more than two hours on average) and second-highest amount of money at the shopping Centre, were accompanied by somebody during the shopping trip, and made

predominantly planned purchases. And also she argues it is nothing new to say that that shopping itself is a leisure activity, but the urgency with which retailers and shopping center developers are seeking ways to make shopping more of a leisure pursuit, seems to be increasing. Specifically, discussing leisure or "hedonistic" shopping, Miller et al. (1998) argue that the idea of shopping as recreation is currently over-drawn. Their detailed studies of shoppers around some London shopping centers acknowledge that respondents associate window shopping and so on with enjoyment.

According to Moss (2007), there is an evidence of increasing proportion of people saying that they spend time looking around the shops as a leisure activity, and the trend is most marked among younger adults. Two consequences of the trends may be suggested: a reduction in the time people are willing to spend on chores and on routine shopping, and a demand that time which is spent on shopping should be more pleasant and rewarding. In addition, it may be that time pressures mean that family time becomes shopping time and vice versa, so that there is a desire for a different, more family oriented, more varied and entertaining, shopping experience. Many studies examine the idea that consumers may find shopping a pleasurable experience (Jones, 1999; Moss, 2007; Rajagopal, 2006). There is of course a considerable body of work, which attempts to identify and measure motivations for shopping. Tauber's (1972) seminal paper discussed 11 motives for shopping (apart from acquisition of goods). Most can be described as pleasure and leisure related. Of the studies, which have followed, Buttle and Coates (1983) is particularly interesting in attempting to validate these motives, and produce some evidence of how these sociological or psychological concepts are played out in reality by shoppers. In addition, Michael and Richard (2000) emphasize that recreational shopping also considered as a form of leisure shopping. In contrast to purposeful shopping, leisure shopping is specifically viewed by the shopper as a fun activity (Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R., Griffin, M., 1994), a form of escape and, thus, affording an enjoyment feeling, calling more for leisure than work (Falk and Campbell, 1997). Mannell and Kleiber (1997) observe that possible benefits of leisure experiences of shopping include pleasure, relaxation, and fun. The authors suggest that people seek out such benefits to avoid discomfort and pain as well as to enhance their quality of life. Likewise, consumer behavior researchers advocate that consumers in bad moods may choose to go shopping to cheer themselves up

(Woodruffe-Burton, Eccles, and Elliott, 2002; Gardner, 1985; Rook, 1987). Woodruffe-Burton et al. (2002), found that shoppers describe the kinds of feelings, which accompany the shopping process as “making them feel good, happy, satisfied” and in some cases, a feeling of “high” (p. 262). For many consumers, shopping can be a valued leisure activity, which offers considerable satisfaction, most of which have little to do with self-indulgence (Babin, Darden, and Griffin, 1994; Bloch, Ridgway, and Sherrell, 1989; Cox, Cox, and Anderson, 2005; Hine, 2002).

F. Leisure Shoppers

At the simplest level, ad hoc surveys of various kinds have asked consumers whether they regard shopping as a leisure activity and so on. Long time series data and large-scale studies are lacking however, except in Henley Centre’s work on leisure trends (Henley Centre for Forecasting, 2000). Work on consumer lifestyles might be expected to tell us more about interest in various leisure activities and about values and interests which may relate to use of commercial leisure facilities or the likelihood of interest in leisure shopping centers. In fact, it seems that little published material is directly focused on such issues. Sometimes, of course, a shopper segmentation study discerns some dimension related to the pleasure people take in shopping. Recently, Sit et al. (2003) specifically focused on identifying the entertainment seeking segments – described by them as “the missing segments” – in their work on shopping Centre image. A different approach to the question about who the leisure shoppers are comes from Mooradian and Olver (1996). They tested Tauber’s constructs, in an attempt to put consumer segmentation within the framework of the five-factor model of personality (which now seems to have a broad acceptance in the psychology literature). Mooradian and Olver have made a brave attempt to find an underpinning psychology for different shopping behaviors. They found clear relationships between personality traits and shopping motives.

Bellenger and Korgoankar (1980) defined leisure shoppers as “... those who enjoy shopping as a leisure-time activity” (p. 78), contrasting them with “economic shoppers” who experienced no pleasure from the shopping process. Subsequent research has tended to adhere to this general construal, focusing on shopping enjoyment. Westbrook and Black (1985) performed a cluster analysis based on shopping motivations and identified a “shopping process involved” cluster

that they concluded corresponded to Bellenger and Korgoankar's (1980), leisure shoppers. Babin, Darden, and Griffin (1994) developed a scale measuring hedonic and utilitarian shopping value, where the dimensions’ captures pleasure, enjoyment, and excitement. Solomon (2004) defines a leisure shopper as a person who views shopping as a fun, social activity and a preferred way to spend leisure time. Consumers engaged in shopping as a form of enjoyment have typically been referred to as one certain type of shoppers who visit stores and malls to behave in fairly predictable ways (Backstrom, 2011)

G. Shopping malls

The shopping mall which firstly emerged in the US has become an important part of today’s contemporary life style. It has been evolving since the early 1920s by introducing changing patterns of shopping as well as social and recreational activities and Shopping malls are becoming places where retailers can touch their customers in an exciting and colorful atmosphere (Levy M, Weitz BA, 2009). The International Council of Shopping Centers (2011) defines a shopping center as a group of retail and other commercial establishments that is planned, developed, owned, and managed as a single property with on-site parking provided. There are three different physical configurations of shopping centers such as malls, open-air centers, and hybrid centers (Levy M, Weitz BA, 2009). Among these types, shopping mall is accepted as the most common design mode for shopping center. The shopping mall is a shopping center type in retail management, which can be simply defined as a building that contains many units of retail shops but is managed as a single property. (Pitt M, Musa ZN, 2009).

The underlying success factors of planned, centrally managed and large shopping malls in the retailing sector rotates around customer satisfaction in reference to selection, atmosphere, convenience, salespeople, refreshments, location, promotional activities and merchandising policy (Anselmsson, 2006). Motivations for shopping include inside and outside ambience of the mall, layout and extent of involvement in the shopping process. The ambience of the shopping mall, architecture, ergonomics, variety and excitement motivate the shopper to stay longer and make repeated visits to the mall (Craig and Turley, 2004) Solomon (2002, p. 299) noted: Shopping malls have tried to gain the loyalty of shoppers by appealing to their social motives as well as providing access to desired goods. The mall is often a focal point in community

and it becoming giant entertainment centers, almost to the point that their traditional retail occupants seem like an afterthought.

It is a dynamic business centers that attract a large section of urban customers to experience the pleasure of modern shopping. (Rajagopal, 2009). Narrowing of shopping streets and the rise of shopping malls have been major trends in retailing in emerging markets. It has been observed that large recreational shopping malls encourage regular shoppers and tourists to shop frequently (Rajagopal, 2009). From the perspective of shoppers, the major attributes of shopping mall attractiveness are comfort, entertainment, diversity, mall essence, convenience and luxury. (Rajagopal, 2009)

A variety of constructs have been linked to the term "experience" in the context of shopping malls, including utilitarian and hedonic shopping values and motivations (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003). Mall activities can generally be divided into four categories: consumption activities such as making planned and unplanned purchases and browsing display windows; social activities such as unplanned meetings with acquaintances and watching others and experiences of customers in shopping malls are derived from their emotional, cognitive and behavioral reactions towards the mall (Gilboa Iris Vilnai-Yavetz, 2013)

Shopping malls are becoming places where customers patronize more frequently when compared with other point of sales for a variety of product categories and also it becoming new places that consumers visit where the shopping itself has changed meaning and focus. (Sebnem Burnaz, Y. Ilker Topcu, 2011). Consumers tend to prefer large scale retail formats such as malls offering them both convenience and an exciting atmosphere under the same roof. In fact, malls have become places offering more than shopping for the consumers in recent years; events like exhibitions, concerts, fashion shows, as well as additional services offered to visitors serve very well to create more excitement, traffic, and recognition (Levy M, Weitz BA, 2009). Retailers, on the other hand, benefit from locating themselves in these shopping malls where they find the possibility to serve their customers in a secure and protected environment (Levy M, Weitz BA, 2009). Retailers are now concerned to find ways of presenting themselves inside these modern buildings and adapt to rapidly changing consumer expectations. (Sebnem Burnaz, Y. Ilker Topcu, 2011). Empirical evidence suggests that the success of shopping malls today lies in

their ability to offer customers both consumer and social experiences under one roof (Dennis et al., 2002; Haytko and Baker, 2004).

H. Shopping malls as a Leisure Centers

Shopping takes place in a wide variety of retail environments, ranging from outdoor markets and fairs (Parsons, 2002). While traditional markets and fairs offer the unique pleasures of personally getting to know both merchants and fellow buyers, Hine (2002) notes that many markets today only operate one day a week, or for a few days each year. Yet the majorities of consumers still want a "shopping experience," and are not to simply make a purchase.

Shoppers who experience the mall by gain pleasure from the aesthetics of the architecture and displays. Their trip to the mall is motivated by objectives such as fun, enjoyment, alleviation of stress and relaxation. For this reason, their main activities do not involve shopping, but rather focus on exploring the mall environment. Some authors (Haytko and Baker, 2004) define this activity as utilitarian since it is aimed at gaining new knowledge. However, Shaked Gilboa Iris Vilnai-Yavetz, (2013) suggests that this experience is the most hedonic among all experiences, since it is motivated by the pleasures of the trip, a fundamental emotion of hedonic shopping (Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R., Griffin, M., 1994).

In his book, *Shopping as an Entertainment Experience*, Moss (2007) argues that going to the shopping centers fulfills more purposes than pure consumption and "many people simply go to the mall rather than go anywhere else" (p.45-46). Juliana (2010) describes the role of shopping malls as a leisure space and as facilitators of enjoyable shopping activities. Leisure shopping and entertainment provisions are found to help improve the performance of a shopping mall. (Chung Yim Yiu Sherry Y.S. Xu, 2012). For example, Nisco and Napolitano (2006) found empirically a positive link between entertainment orientation and performance outcomes of a shopping mall. Nicholls et al. (2002) also found a significant rise in leisure shopping today in comparison with that in the 1990s. Ooi and Sim (2007) found empirically that physical size of a mall could enhance the attractiveness of the mall, probably because a bigger mall can accommodate higher variety of tenants and entertainment, such as a Cineplex.

Jackson (1991) observes, "People may now come to the shopping centers without intending to buy a single thing." Whether it is to "hang out" or to

socialize, a dominant motivation to visit the mall is the simple desire “to have fun” (Moss, 2007, p. 48). Consistent with the notion that “all shopping centers are to some degree leisure centers” (Howard, 2007, p. 668). The most salient dimension associated with the consumption experience is emotion. However, in general, emotions – and therefore, the notion of consumption as an experience – have been linked almost solely with hedonic consumption (Addis and Holbrook, 2001). Emotions and motivations associated with fun, fantasy, flow, freedom, and escapism (Pritchard et al., 2009) have been identified as defining the hedonic consumption experience (Addis and Holbrook, 2001). However, a different perspective holds that in utilitarian consumption, the emotion of pleasure stems from the customer’s success at making a purchase in a deliberate and efficient way (Babin et al., 1994). It is unclear whether, according to this approach, only hedonic consumption is experiential (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) or whether utilitarian consumption can also be termed a type of experience. In the context of the mall experience, a vast field of studies has examined emotions in the context of retail environments, namely, stores and shopping malls (Sherman et al., 1997). To offer one example, Machleit and Eroglu (2000) found that customers at shopping malls experience higher levels of hedonic emotions such as pleasure, joy, arousal, expectancy and surprise compared to customers in other retail types. These findings support Bloch et al.’s (1994) claim about the pleasurable experiences offered by malls. Gilboa Iris Vilnai-Yavetz (2013) found shopping malls – which currently remain focused on the marketing of products and services – can benefit by transforming themselves into places that market social experiences, by incorporating (for example) social clubs, leisure venues (swimming pools, sports parks), or meeting halls.

A study of Chilean and American mall shoppers (Nicholls et al., 2000) found that Chilean consumers visited the mall primarily for product-related reasons and most of their purchases were planned. In contrast, the shopping motives of American consumers, though more diverse, revolved more around entertainment. Li et al. (2004) report that Chinese mall visitors are predominantly driven by purchase reasons, while Americans visit the mall for diverse reasons. Another study found that mainland Chinese shoppers visited malls with greater utilitarian motives and lower nonutilitarian reasons, spent less time in the mall, and made more planned purchases

than their Hong Kong counterparts the experiences sought at the mall may also be influenced by a country’s economic circumstances. (Tsang et al., 2003). Exploration of the mall helps shoppers achieve two goals: acquiring new knowledge and enjoying the aesthetics of the displays and behaviors allow shoppers to enjoy interaction with the products without the need to make a purchase (Gilboa Iris Vilnai-Yavetz, 2013)

Howard (2007) found that most of the purchases made in the shopping Centre were pre-planned, indicating the determination of a majority of shoppers to avoid any unplanned spending of what can be tight household budgets. It is worth noting the difference in use of shopping malls in different parts of the world. In Thailand, for instance, people may regard shopping malls as places to spend time with friends, or to spend time in pleasant (climate controlled) surroundings, much more than is general in Europe. And leisurely shopping requires sufficient free time (Howard, 2007). Chebat et al. (2005) Spending leisurely time at a shopping center may be the last thing on the agenda of many typical mall visit may involve both shopping tasks and recreational elements. Bloch et al. (1991) report a similar segment of American consumers, who visited the mall specifically to browse. Consumers with strong shopping motives are found to experience more pleasure and arousal, and find the mall ambience to encourage impulse buying behavior (McGoldrick and Pieros, 1998; Mattila and Wirtz, 2004). A larger shopping center can facilitate a greater variety of shops, and can create a more pleasant environment for shoppers, thus enticing them to visit more often and stay longer. (Rajagopal, 2009)

Rajagopal (2009) found that urban shoppers visit shopping malls as leisure centers to relax, spending long hours and tending to shop in response to various sales promotions used by different stores and also he argues the impact of inside-mall ambience can be measured by the degree of stimulation and pleasure experienced by consumers. Elizabeth Howard (2007) argues that leisurecenters are not a separate category of Centre, but the classification of shopping centers should be modified to incorporate consideration of leisure catering may be the most important provision.

The social well-being is achieved through shopping mall in the form of a site where you can meet, interact and enjoy with your friends and relatives. The significant contribution towards leisure wellbeing is by providing implicit and explicit entertainment programs whereby implicit means

roaming around difference stores for window shopping purpose and explicit means cafes, gaming zones, and fun lands for kids etc. (Masood U.L., Hassan and Javeria Abbas, 2013)

Shopping malls are also taken into account as congenial pastime from monotonous and tedious agenda of our life with daily and routine errands, in addition to offering preferred and chosen product and services and also shopping malls as hangouts for teenagers (Anthony, 1985). Therefore this entertainment does not require heavy and expensive spending on facilities by the mall administration, rather it can also be provide by offering sitting places, stay open late at night, having food courts with multiple food options which are not at all expensive to provide (Kim, I.T., Christiansen, R., Feinberg and H. Choi, 2005) When one perceive positively about mall atmosphere the same is reflected in their perception about product quality and ultimately leads to hedonic shopping experience. (Michon, R., J.C. Chebat and L.W. Turley, 2005) Various research suggest that mall environment or image can be increased by using leisure in shopping mall (Masood U.L., Hassan and Javeria Abbas, 2013).

IV. EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE OF DETERMINANTS OF CONSUMERS' LEISURE SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR IN SHOPPING MALLS

A. *Shopping motivations*

Motives are "forces instigating behavior to satisfy internal need states" (Westbrook, R.A. and Black, W.C., 1985). In general, motivation theory asserts that the direction taken in behavior is in large part determined by the particular purposes we are trying to achieve with that behavior (Wilkie, 1994). This indicates that motivational forces have a key influencing role in the modeling of shopping behavior, which is assumed to be goal-directed behavior. Shopping motives, then, could be defined as the drivers of behavior that bring consumers to the marketplace to satisfy their internal needs (Jin, B. and Kim, J.O., 2003).

Meanwhile, Creating and delivering customer value is a precondition for retailers to survive in today's competitive marketplace. Retailers who understand the multiplicity of motives for shopping have the best possibilities to create value for their customers. Instead of defining motivation to shop only as a function of buying, the role of hedonic and social

shopping motives should also be recognized (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Sheth, 1983; Tauber, 1972; Westbrook and Black, 1985).

Since the 1950s, academics have been trying to understand as deeply as possible the motivations behind shopping, and aggregating consumers according to those motivations. One of the first works in this field was developed by Stone (1954) who analyzed the urban consumers' shopping orientation and their social relationships. He carried out in-depth interviews with a sample of department store female shoppers and identified four shopper categories. The "Economic consumer" tended to pay attention to price, quality and variety of merchandise; the "Personalizing consumer" searched for personal relationships in the context of shopping; the "Ethical consumer" followed some moral principles and patronized specific kinds of stores; and the "Apathetic consumer" showed a weak involvement in the shopping activity. Two decades later, Tauber (1972) developed some research on consumer motivation for shopping behavior.

Other studies have developed taxonomies based on orientations to product usage (Dardin & Reynolds, 1971), actual patronage and shopping behavior (Stephenson & Willett, 1969), shopping related AIO items (Moschis, 1976), shopping enjoyment (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980), and retail attribute preferences (Bellenger, Robertson, & Greenberg, 1977; Dardin & Ashton, 1974). Shopping thus occurs when a consumer's need for a particular good is sufficient for allocating time and money to travel to a store to go shopping, or when a consumer "needs attention, wants to be with peers, desires to meet people with similar interests, feels a need to exercise, or simply has leisure time" (Tauber, 1972, p. 48). Sheth (1983) has suggested that there are two classes of motives underlying shopping patronage: functional and non-functional, of which Tauber's (1972) motivations are the non-functional. If the shopping motive is solely a function of the buying motive, the decision to shop will occur when a person's need for particular goods becomes sufficiently strong to allocate time, money, and effort to visit a store. However, the multiplicity of hypothesized shopping motives suggest that a person may also go shopping when he/she needs attention, wants to be with peers, desires to meet people with similar interests, feels a need to exercise, or has leisure time. Therefore, peoples' motives for shopping are functions of many variables, some of which are unrelated to the actual buying of products. Non-functional motives of shopping are important to

consumer marketers because of two reasons; first, they are means by which to attract a person into a store and second, they can be viewed as ways to enhance the value of the object of the functional motives and thus operate as sources of sustainable competitive advantage (Parsons, 2002). As it mentioned before, Tauber (1972), in his exploratory study found that securing a purchase was not the only motive for shopping. Subsequently he identified 11 nonfunctional shopping motives and divided them into personal and social motivation. Personal motives are related to the person's state and moods; and social motives are associated with others and community.

Tauber (1972) identified personal motives as role playing, diversion, self-gratification, learning about new trends, physical activity, sensory stimulation and social motives as social experiences outside the home, communication with others having a similar interest, peer group attraction, status and authority and pleasure of bargaining.

Parsons (2002) has studied the nonfunctional motives and added mental activities motivation to the Tauber's taxonomy as a personal non-functional motive. Westbrook and Black (1985) linked Tauber's (1972) framework to McGuire's (1974) typology of 16 fundamental human motivations, suggesting that shopping behavior arises for three fundamental reasons: (1) principally to acquire the desired product for which needs are experienced; (2) both to acquire the desired product and to provide satisfaction for various additional non product related needs; or (3) principally in service of needs unrelated to the acquisition of the product; these researchers identified seven motivation based on aforesaid classification. These motives are: anticipated utility (expectation of benefits or hedonistic states which will be provided by the product to be acquired through shopping), role enactment (culturally prescribed roles regarding the conduct of shopping activity, such as careful price and product comparisons), negotiation (motivation to seek economic advantages through bargaining interactions with sellers), choice optimization (desire to buy the "absolute optimum" and seeking to find a product that fits to customer demand), affiliation (motivation to affiliate with friends, other shoppers, or retail merchants), power and authority (trying to achieve a sublime social status) and stimulation (seeking interesting stimuli in shop environment such as music and staining) (Westbrook, R.A. and Black, W.C., 1985). Westbrook and Black (1985) note that some are more utilitarian in nature while others are more hedonic in nature. Paying more attention on

Westbrook and Black classification, this point becomes clear that unlike Tauber's taxonomy, in Westbrook and Black classification the functional and non-functional motives are not completely separated from each other; and some of mentioned motivations are a combination of both functional and non-functional motives. For example, parts of the anticipated utility belong to the functional motivation and some other parts of it belong to the nonfunctional motivation. (Shahriar AZIZI, Amir SHARIFFAR , 2011) In one another categorizing the shopping motives, they can be divided into Hedonic motives and Utilitarian motives. Utilitarian motives are composed of product-oriented and external and rational motives related to the product (Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R., Griffin, M., 1994) Arnold and Reynolds (2003) introduce six types of motives related to a shopping behavior. In their viewpoint, shopping motives are: adventure shopping (buying is considered as an adventure activity which refers to shopping for stimulation, adventure, and the feeling of being in another world), social shopping (buying is an opportunity for socialization), gratification shopping (a third category is labeled "gratification shopping," which involves shopping for stress relief, shopping to alleviate a negative mood), idea shopping (it refers to shopping to keep up with current market trends and new fashions and to see new products and innovations), role shopping (buying is a role playing via consumers), value shopping (it alludes to shopping for sales, looking for discounts and hunting for bargains). The shopping motivation literatures underline the existence of large differences between functional and non-functional motivation, but both of them have an effect on the decision of consumer buying simultaneously (Shahriar AZIZI, Amir SHARIFFAR , 2011)

Dawson et al. (1990), identified two broad shopping motives, product and experiential, and related them to emotions while shopping and to various outcomes. Some (Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R., Griffin, M., 1994) have developed concepts about, and ways of measuring, consumers' nonutilitarian values – in other words the pleasure of shopping rather than the economic outcomes. Much is model-building work about individual choice decisions, which is interesting, but of little help in understanding changes in overall, market level behavior. Motivational forces are commonly accepted to have a key influencing role in the explanation of shopping behavior. Personal shopping motives, values and perceived shopping alternatives are often considered

independent inputs into a choice model; it is argued that shopping motives influence the perception of retail store attributes, as well as the attitude towards retail stores (Morschett et al, 2005). It is also argued that there is a need to focus more on the influence of retail ambience on shoppers engaged in leisure shopping (Backstrom, 2006).

V. SHORT COMING OF EXISTING THEORIES

Many studies examine the idea that consumers may find shopping a pleasurable experience (Jones, 1999). In its contemporary sense, shopping has become an activity of leisure and recreation that is as relevant and popular as going to a movie or simply strolling in the park (Bäckström, 2006; Moss, 2007). Jones (1999) in exploring the range of factors involved in entertaining shopping experiences (rather than focusing on the ways in which particular factors, such as in-store music, might impact consumers). There is of course a considerable body of work which attempts to identify and measure motivations for shopping. Tauber's (1972) seminal paper discussed 11 motives for shopping (apart from acquisition of goods). Most can be described as pleasure and leisure related. Of the studies, which have followed, Buttle and Coates (1983) is particularly interesting in attempting to validate these motives, and produce some evidence of how these sociological or psychological concepts are played out in reality by shoppers. Dawson et al. (1990) identified two broad shopping motives, product and experiential, and related them to emotions while shopping and to various outcomes. Some (Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R., Griffin, M., 1994) have developed concepts about, and ways of measuring, consumers' non-utilitarian values – in other words the pleasure of shopping rather than the economic outcomes. Consumers often benefit from increased competition in differentiated product settings during leisure shopping season. The consumer shopping behavior during leisure is largely driven by the recreational infrastructure as a competitive strategy of retailers. This also helps developing store loyalty, innovative concern and the high-perceived customer values whereby individuals experience enjoyment from shopping. Rajagopal (2006) explains that the leisure shopping behavior is largely driven by store attractions, inter-personal influences and comparative gains, consumers feel high risk and entangle in decision making in reference to their perceived use values. Jones (1999) examined the range of factors involved in entertaining shopping experiences. He examined retailer factors (prices, selection, store environment and salespeople) and customer factors (social

aspects, tasks, times, product involvement and financial resources) together. The overall conclusion from critical incident analysis was that almost two-thirds of the factors in entertaining shopping experiences were customer factors, especially social factors such as the companions on the shopping trip. Less than a third were retailer factors. Of the retail factors, "store environment" or sales personnel were mentioned far less often than product-related factors of price and selection.

Leisure shopping behavior is also influenced significantly by the cross cultural factors in reference to location of the retail stores, PoP displays and customer psychodynamics. (Rajagopal, 2007). Some researchers have specifically focused on recreational shoppers (Bellenger and Korgaonkar, 1980; Lesser and Hughes, 1986). Bloch et al. (1994) have identified four types of shoppers – enthusiasts, traditionalists, grazers and minimalists in the context of shopping behaviors in malls.

The messages of consumer behavior research seem to be that any kind of shopping may be pleasurable, that certain groups of shoppers are more interested in the pleasurable outcomes of shopping than others, and that certain store environments produce more pleasurable emotions which may relate to different purchasing behaviors. Many marketers see long-term changes in expectations and describe today's consumers as more discerning, less loyal, more demanding, more interested in expressing their own lifestyle and personality through purchases, and so on and so forth. Leisure shopping is influenced by time and attractiveness of sales offer, which include variables such as hours of work, public holidays, and paid leave entitlements, point of sales promotions and effectiveness of customer relations. These factors vary widely in reference to consumer segments and markets attractiveness and include compulsive buying behavior among customers, which is judge by the satisfaction in spending and perceiving pleasure of buying occasionally exercising choice and passing time in knowing new products, services, technologies and understanding fellow customers (Watkins and Bond, 2007, Rajagopal 2007).

However, Juliana Fung (2010) indicates that leisure and shopping experiences are strongly influenced by the participant's personal values, motivations, expectations, and perceptions. The consumer response is also affected by search associated with making a decision on leisure shopping in reference to innovative products,

retailers' sales campaigns creating the recreational impulse (Rajagopal, 2007). In the process of making buying decisions in leisure shopping, purchase acceleration and product trial are found to be the two most influential variables and also Rajagopal (2007) found Location preferences often dominate the consumer decision making in retail buying in general and leisure buying during the vacations (Rajagopal, 2007). The aesthetics and consumer behavior also influences the leisure buying disposition as it nurtures the customer value (Belk et al., 1981)

According to Rajagopal (2006), the wide choice, atmosphere, convenience, sales people, refreshments, location, promotional activities, and merchandising policy are associated during the leisure shopping.

Gender is also considered as to be foremost significant, having great magnitude on the value derived from the shopping experience. It was found that females tend to experience more hedonic value as compared to male from a shopping excursion and react more favorably to mall hygiene and entertainment factors (Masood U.L, Hassan and Javeria Abbas, 2013). Moreover, females have a more propensity towards hedonic value while shopping in contrast to male and conveyed more delight and fun at shopping malls thus spending more time as compared to males (Wong, Y.T., S.Osman, A.Jamaluddin and B.C.Yin-Fah, 2012). There is evidence of an increasing proportion of people saying that they spend time looking around the shops as a leisure activity and the trend is most marked among younger adults (Mintel, 2000).

Meanwhile, Schwartz (1992) found that individualistic societies have got more hedonic consumer as compared to collectivists (Schwartz, S.H., 1992, 1992). Guiry and his colleagues have accentuated recreational shopping as a multidimensional activity that extends far beyond just feelings of enjoyment (Guiry, 1999; Guiry et al., 2006). Moreover, in his dissertation Guiry (1999) identified three different types of recreational shopping trips (i.e., mission shopping, window shopping, mood shopping) and argued that the type of shopping trip influences the extent to which recreational shoppers experience different leisure dimensions (e.g., intrinsic satisfaction, spontaneity, fantasy). Guiry also argued that there are different 'subgroups' of recreational shoppers who vary in their sociability as well as in their level of involvement with shopping (e.g., 'low involvement' or 'high involvement' recreational

shoppers). Other studies have improved our understanding of the enjoyment derived from this shopping by turning attention to the relative prevalence of various sources of enjoyment. For instance, Cox et al. (2005) found that bargain hunting seemed to be a major source of shopping enjoyment while few shoppers liked to mingle with other shoppers. Kim and Kim (2008), however, found that shopping enjoyment was more strongly related to browsing behavior as compared to bargain hunting. Nevertheless, explorations of variations in consumers' ways of experiencing and pursuing leisure shopping are rare. Howard (2007) has recently argued that leisure shopping exists in a variety of circumstances and that the complexity of such shopping needs to be further considered. Michael and Richard (2000) identify seven of the ten leisure dimensions (mastery, fantasy, escape/enjoyment, compulsion, salesperson, spontaneity, and social) increased in intensity across three groups of shoppers, namely: nonrecreational shoppers, ordinary recreational shoppers, and recreational shopping enthusiasts.

Moreover, while previous research has described leisure shopping as reflecting social values (e.g., Tatzel, 1982; Williams et al., 1985; Arnold and Reynolds, 2003), Backstrom (2011) shows that many consumers prefer to enjoy this activity individually and also he argued pleasure and delight associated to leisure shopping was commonly alternated with feelings of frustration and disillusionment, e.g., when consumers did not succeed to accomplish a much desired purchase. Consumers' leisure shopping reflects a variety of consumer meanings and accordingly also a wide range of shopping practices. In addition, the dynamic nature of such shopping implies that consumers shopping practices may be characterized by sudden shifts in its related meanings and focus. For retailers thus, it is important to recognize that leisure shopping may involve a composite set of motives, including for instance both hedonic and utilitarian aspects. In retail store settings it might for instance be crucial to balance hedonic values (e.g., design) against more practical (e.g., product accessibility). Retailers should furthermore strive to hold a flexible and an open approach that allow for manifoldness as well as variations in consumers' preferences and practices. (Backstrom, 2011). Convenience and functional values may be of significant importance to individuals engaged in leisure shopping activities (Kim, H., Kim, Y., 2008). However, there is still a lack of more thorough empirical investigations of the

multifaceted and varied nature of such shopping. (Backstrom, 2011)

VI. IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

For industry professionals, it may be used to guide development of successful shopping experiences. study will helpful to marketers by providing a clear background about how marketers adopt marketing strategies to provide a better value to their customers in their leisure time. Further, retailers would have a tool that could be employed to examine current and potential patrons, thereby providing guidance for store design and marketing communications strategy. And it will lead to improve the in-store infrastructure of the shopping malls in future. This will lead to turn their customers as loyal to their organization with the grater satisfaction. A number of implications for retailers are apparent as well. Knowledge of distinct shopper segments is useful for retailers in constructing marketing communication strategy and designing appealing store environments.

There remains considerable opportunity for leisure researchers to develop further into the complexities of shopping. Given the current focus by retailers on the hedonic aspects of shopping and the general lack of academic activity in this area, therefore this study will mainly help to theoretically identify the leisure shopping behavior and factors leading to it in shopping malls. This study will contribute to learners' society by filling the literature gap in some extent. And it may help academics to the diverse body of existing shopping experience literature and help researchers develop studies blurring leisure shopping behaviors of consumers.

Hence, if the factors that influence on consumers leisure shopping are better understood by organizations, then solutions can be implemented to address leisure shoppers.

VII. CONCLUSION

This paper explores the factors influence on consumers' leisure shopping behaviour in shopping malls through the structured literature review. In the context of consumers' leisure shopping behaviour in shopping malls there has been limited theoretical research and although scholars have found some influence of demographic, economic and personality factors, they rarely focus on factors influence on consumers 'leisure shopping behaviour in shopping mall. Therefore, this paper turns the spotlight on factors influence on consumers' leisure shopping behaviour in shopping

mall context, which is having contradictory arguments in the context of literature.

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