

The Development And Use Of Shopping Lists In Grocery Shopping In Sweden

Kim Angstmann

Jönköping International Business School. Sweden

Anna-Katharina Strauch

Jönköping International Business School. Sweden

Adele Berndt

Jönköping International Business School. Sweden

ABSTRACT

Shopping lists are developed prior to a shopping trip and used in-store, making them part of pre-shopping and in-store behaviour. The purpose of the research was to investigate various factors such as store knowledge and list design that can impact their development and use. A descriptive study was executed gathering shopping lists, till receipts and a response sheet from customers over a period of one week. The findings show customers are most likely to write product categories on the lists, compiled using scraps of paper. Lists were compiled using the store leaflet but consumers did not rely on their store knowledge in its development. Further, the majority of respondents deviated from their prepared list, resulting in incomplete or unplanned purchases. The small sample as well as the location can be viewed as limitations in the study. Understanding the way in which these lists are developed can assist retailers in their marketing both prior to the shopping trip and in-store. Retailers can gain a better understanding of the planning and use of lists seek ways to influence this process. This study provides detail on how lists are compiled by consumers while also suggesting the importance of in-store cues as the majority of customers are open to deviating from the list.

Keywords: Shopping lists; decision-making; planning; grocery shopping;
Type of paper: Research paper

INTRODUCTION

Swedish retail food sales were worth \$39 billion in 2011, making consumers' decisions about grocery purchases important. Due to the expenditure and time allocated to this common activity (Dholakia, 1999), planning prior to embarking on a shopping trip is common. It has been suggested that only 13.5% of consumers come into a grocery store with no purchase plans (Kelly, Smith, & Hunt, 2000), thus the majority have a plan for their time in the store. Purchase plans are reflected in the list, impacting time and finances (Thomas & Garland, 1993), and a potential effect on customer satisfaction and store loyalty.

Retail stores are able to determine actual sales from the sales data which is recorded during the checkout process but this data does not indicate what was planned prior to the shopping trip, nor the extent (if at all) of a deviation from the list. The list serves as an indication of what the consumer intends to purchase, making the study of lists important for marketers and retailers. It reflects the planning of consumers, and the effects of environmental and other cues (such as store promotional material) that can be observed.

Previous research has been conducted into the use of shopping lists in various countries including New Zealand (Thomas & Garland, 1993, 1996, 2004), the USA (Block & Morwitz, 1999; Spiggle, 1987), Denmark (Schmidt, 2012) and Canada (Bassett, Beagan, & Chapman, 2008). These studies suggest a widespread development and use of shopping lists in grocery shopping.

Despite their importance, there is limited research into the use of shopping lists (Schmidt, 2012). Relatively few articles have been published on the topic, and it is to this discussion that this study aims to contribute. This paper also seeks to contribute by determining the impact of a number of factors on the development and use of shopping lists.

Initially the paper will discuss the underlying theoretical issues associated with the formulation of shopping lists; thereafter the study and its findings will be presented. The article ends with a discussion and recommendations for future research.

RESEARCH PURPOSE

It is suggested that a shopping trip consists of different steps including planning and fulfilment. Planning the shopping trip represents intentional behaviour and the consumer's pre-shopping decisions are executed with the help of a shopping list (Spiggle, 1987). The question arising in the context of intentional behaviour is how pre-shopping decisions are made. The purpose of the research was to investigate the shopping lists compiled by customers of a Swedish grocery store as it related to the factors that impact its development and its subsequent use in the store. Factors that were examined were product and brand decisions, list design (including the type of paper), the use of the store flyers and store knowledge. Once the list had been compiled, its use in the store was also researched.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Consumers increasingly describe themselves as under time pressure (Dholakia, 1999), resulting in an investigation into ways to increase their efficiency, including how they undertake routine activities such as grocery shopping (Herrington & Capella, 1995; Hultén & Vanyushyn, 2011). One way to do this is through the use of a physical or mental shopping list (Gijbrecchts, Campo, & Goossens, 2003). A physical list is a written paper, while the mental list is stored in the memory (Hultén & Vanyushyn, 2011; Thomas & Garland, 2004). This study focuses on the physical shopping list due to their widespread use and the ease with which these can be collected and compared with actual receipts.

Planning and decision-making in grocery shopping

It has been suggested that there are three stages to grocery shopping, namely a planning stage, fulfilment stage and a post-purchase stage. For many consumers, planning is part of shopping (Kelly et al., 2000). The existence of the shopping lists is evidence of planning undertaken before embarking on a grocery shopping, and influences the time spent in-store (Bassett et al., 2008; Nordfalt, 2009; Putrevu & Ratchford, 1998), making it important (Cobb & Hoyer, 1986; Heinrichs, Schreiber, & Schöning, 2011; Inman, Winer, & Ferraro, 2009; Kelly et al., 2000; Spiggle, 1987). Planning can also result in lower exposure to in-store stimuli, and customers are less likely to overshop (Nordfalt, 2009). The fulfilment stage refers to that which takes place in the store when the list is implemented. The post-purchase stage includes post-action and goal evaluation which did not form part of this study.

Shopping lists as tools in grocery shopping

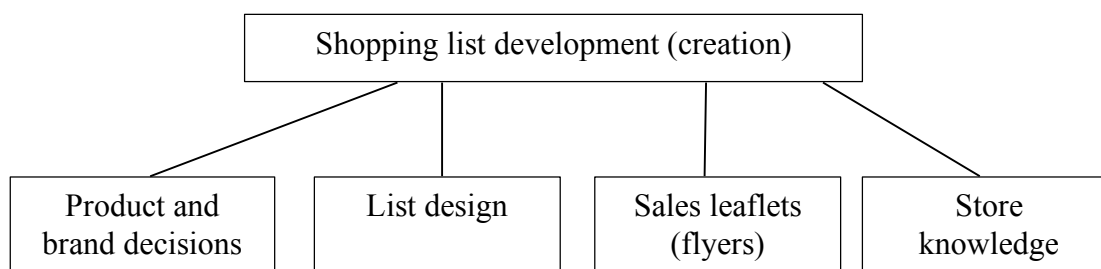
Shopping lists can serve a number of purposes. They can act as a *script* so as to make efficient use of the time in the store (Iyer & Ahlawat, 1986; Stoltman, Tapp, & Lapidus, 1988; Thomas & Garland, 1996). As such, they indicate the movement and actions within the store as well as

items to be purchased (Nordfalt, 2009). They can also serve as an *external memory aid* to remind the consumer to purchase items (Block & Morwitz, 1999; Thomas & Garland, 2004) in order to prevent items being forgotten (Fernandes, Puntoni, Van Osselaer, & Cowley, 2015), which in turn requires adjustments such as a revised menu. A shopping list is also an indication of *pre-shopping planning* (Polegato & Zaichkowsky, 1994; Thomas & Garland, 2004). It has been suggested that consumers use a shopping list to *control their expenditure* and ensure that they do not buy more items than planned, and so do not exceed their budget (Block & Morwitz, 1999; Inman et al., 2009; Thomas & Garland, 2004). For families, a shopping list can be a way for the family to function efficiently, making it a *management tool* (Bassett et al., 2008; Polegato & Zaichkowsky, 1994). It also serves as a *simplification strategy (in the store)* for grocery purchasers, giving shopping activities an order (Thomas & Garland, 2004) with consumers only going up certain aisles (Bassett et al., 2008). A shopping list can also assist consumers to stay within their shopping plans, and not be distracted by anything that could interfere, giving the list a *goal achievement purpose* (Inman et al., 2009). It could also be used to *reduce stress* associated with a relatively routine activity (Aylott & Mitchell, 1998). Consequently, the reason for its widespread use can be seen.

The development (creation) of the shopping list

Four main issues potentially impact the development of the shopping list, and which serve as the focus of this paper (Schmidt, 2012; Spiggle, 1987) (see Figure 1). These four factors are product and brand decisions, list design, sales leaflets (or flyers), and store knowledge. They have contributed to the formulation of four propositions formulated due the nature of the study and the data collected.

Figure 1: Factors influencing the development of shopping lists



Product and brand decisions

Consumers can make decisions about the purchase of brands or products (Stilley, Inman, & Wakefield, 2010b). When developing shopping lists, it is possible to plan by using a name or word which includes product class, product category, products and brands (Kollat & Willett, 1967). The use of *product decisions* has also been investigated (Cobb & Hoyer, 1986; Inman et al., 2009; Schmidt, 2012; Spiggle, 1987) as a product name acts as a signal for a delayed brand decision which will be taken in-store, consequently there is the potential for influence by other factors (Spiggle, 1987). A *brand decision* has been identified by various researchers on shopping lists. Spiggle (1987) found that 25% of respondents wrote a brand on their lists, compared with 7% (Thomas & Garland, 1996), 9.4% (Block & Morwitz, 1999) and 5.6% (Schmidt, 2012). Reasons for brand decision include product coupons, brand preference or convenience issues or representation of a product or category (Spiggle, 1987). Previous research suggests extensive use of product and products class when compiling shopping lists (Kollat & Willett, 1967; Schmidt, 2012; Spiggle, 1987) but it is not known whether this situation exists among Swedish shoppers. Thus, proposition 1 can be formulated:

P₁: The frequency reflected on the lists planned for shopping trips will be similar to those in previous studies, thus the order will be (a) product category, (b) product class, (c) product and (d) brand.

List design

A variety of paper (size, colour and form) is used when planning grocery shopping, including note pads and discarded envelopes (Heinrichs et al., 2011). When examining discarded shopping lists, Schmidt (2012) recognised that they differed in layout and design. The highest frequency had white paper and post-its that were identified in a wide variety of colours. Besides these, Schmidt (2012) found diverse paper types including an envelope, grease proof paper, a hotel writing pad and other examples of scrap paper (Schmidt, 2012). One category of paper not identified in Schmidt's research was paper that been especially acquired for the purpose of compiling lists, which is of interest for this study. As the planning phase can be extensive (Heinrichs et al., 2011), it is proposed that:

P₂: Shopping lists are more likely to be written on paper specifically selected for this purpose. (For example, the phrase "shopping list" appears at the top of the page.)

Store leaflets

Leaflets or flyers are regarded as one of the most important ways to communicate with consumers (Ailawadi, Beauchamp, Donthu, Gauri, & Shankar, 2009; Luceri, Latusi, Vergura, & Lugli, 2014), specifically in-store promotions (Govindasamy, Kumaraswamy, Puduri, & Onyango, 2007; Pieters, Wedel, & Zhang, 2007). As they are used to inform customers about current sales offers, they form part of the intention stage (Bell, Corsten & Knox, 2011) or pre-planning stage (Luceri et al., 2014) so that items are added to the list (Hultén & Vanyushyn, 2011).

Research has been conducted into the design of the leaflets due to their positive impact on sales (Gijsbrechts et al., 2003; Pieters et al., 2007). Aspects that have been researched include the size of the leaflet, the size of the pictures, the size of the featured items as well as a text and brands featured (Gijsbrechts et al., 2003; Pieters et al., 2007).

Thomas and Garland (1996) found that consumers use sales flyers to create the shopping list, with 39% having items on the list that were currently on sale. On average, each consumer planned 2.06 sales items (Thomas & Garland, 1996). In this study, some special offers are associated with membership of the store's promotional programme (known as W+), and these are exclusive to these members only while others are available to all customers. Proposition 3 can therefore be formulated:

P₃: Due to the potential impact of supermarket flyers on the content of the shopping list, they are used to develop the shopping list.

Store knowledge

Regular customers are defined as those who "purchase products or services from a person or business frequently" (Merriam-Webster, 2015). Store knowledge is defined as any information that the consumer has about the store layout and the placement of the items in the store (Park, Iyer, & Smith, 1989). If a consumer shops at one store on a regular basis, the knowledge of the store can be used before and during the shopping trip.

Store knowledge provides a number of benefits. As it is related to the experience that the customer has of the shopping situation, it provides efficiency benefits as consumers need to spend less time in store searching for items (Putrevu & Ratchford, 1998). It impacts the order in which items are purchased and provides mental cues about products to buy (Iyer, 1989).

Store knowledge provides the consumer with the familiarity of where to look for specific items, increasing in-store efficiency (Park et al., 1989). It can thus serve as an external memory aid, providing information about the store and help in recalling needs (Iyer, 1989). It indicated movement in the store as well as whether aisles were avoided (or not) but it did not necessarily limit unplanned purchases (Bassett et al., 2008).

Store knowledge can also reduce frustration experienced by time-poor consumers (Herrington & Capella, 1995) as they know where to look for items with exerting excessive effort.

Previous research conducted by Bassett et al. (2008) found that shoppers organise their lists based on the layout in the regular store, but it is unclear whether this can be viewed as general behaviour. Thus the following proposition is formulated:

P₄: Store knowledge is used to create the shopping list as part of the planning stage.

The use of the shopping list – the fulfilment stage

List fulfilment (using/buying) is the logical outcome of list development, and differences may come about between planning and buying. Sometimes only what is planned is purchased, but there are also occasions where more or less is purchased (Kelly et al., 2000). This leads to the identification of purchase types, namely unplanned purchasing, impulse purchasing and incomplete purchasing.

Some researchers treat *unplanned and impulse purchases* as synonymous terms (Bellenger, Robertson, & Hirschman, 1976; Cheng, Chuang, Wang, & Kuo, 2013; Cobb & Hoyer, 1986; Kollat & Willett, 1967; Thomas & Garland, 1993) while others view them as different (Park et al., 1989; Rook, 1987). An *unplanned purchase* takes place in the store (D'Antoni & Shenson, 1973). Stern (1962) suggests that some consumers have their memory triggered in-store, thus only remembering the need for toilet paper or milk does not imply an impulse purchase. Further, items bought weekly do not necessarily appear on the list (Bassett et al., 2008; Hultén & Vanyushyn, 2011) and consumers may have discovered new products while in the store (Nordfalt, 2009). Kelly et al. (2000) found that more than half of their respondents (63.7%) made unplanned purchases which could be due to the effectiveness of in-store communication of the retailer (Nordfalt, 2009). Thomas and Garland (1996) argue that unplanned purchases include items consumers just did not write on the list, thus it should not be seen as a planning failure (Thomas & Garland, 1996). This view is supported by Stilley, Inman, and Wakefield (2010a), Stilley et al. (2010b), Bassett et al. (2008) and Iyer (1989) who suggest that the consumer expects unplanned purchases and that they expect to be able to decide spontaneously in the store and plan accordingly (Stilley et al., 2010b). According to Rook (1987), an *impulse purchase* is clearly different from unplanned purchase as it is "a sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately" (Rook, 1987 p.191; Shoham & Brenčič, 2003).

Incomplete purchases come about when items are on the list are not purchased. Reasons for this include non-availability, high price, not being able to locate the product, poor item quality (Iyer & Ahlawat, 1986), poor assortment or time pressure (Kelly et al., 2000). In a study by Granbois (1968), 6% of the intended purchases were not purchased. While low in percentage, incomplete purchases are responsible for decreased sales for retailers and lost opportunities (Iyer & Ahlawat, 1986).

Most shopping trips involve a blend of scripted behaviour and an integration with the environment (Nordfalt, 2009). Consequently, **P₅:** there is little variance between the number of products appearing on the list and those actually purchased.

METHOD

The research was quantitative in nature and included response sheets and handwritten shopping-lists, which were analysed. This method is similar to that used in previous studies in this area as it made use of lists that had been collected (Block & Morwitz, 1999; Kollat & Willett, 1967; Schmidt, 2012; Spiggle, 1987; Thomas & Garland, 1993, 1996), the receipt associated with the list (Kollat & Willett, 1967; Thomas & Garland, 1996) and a response sheet (Spiggle, 1987; Thomas & Garland, 1993).

A grocery store in Jönköping was identified and a response sheet (in English and Swedish) was developed to gather demographic information. Data were collected personally during the last week of February on seven different occasions (4 hours each, spread throughout the day) throughout the week to gain a broad spread of customers. Judgemental sampling was used where respondents were selected based on the researchers' judgment and on the purpose (Malhotra & Birks, 2007), in this instance, the carrying of a paper shopping list.

Prior to analysing the data, the shopping lists and receipts were translated into English. All items written on the shopping lists were categorised in terms of product class, product category, product and brand.

During the research week, 152 respondents could be identified to participate in the study. One shopping list of the total amount had to be excluded due to the inclusion of items associated specifically with another grocery store. After preparing the data, 151 shopping lists could be used for the analysis. The total number of items identified on the shopping lists was 2,758 items, while receipts showed 4,933 items. Additionally, 24 items on the shopping lists and 14 items on the receipts could not be identified, leading to their exclusion.

FINDINGS

Demographic profile of the respondents

The sample comprised 71.5% female respondents, potentially reflecting the traditional role of women in households. All age groups were covered by the collected sample, but the largest group was aged 31- 60 years (64.2%). The research was conducted in a supermarket in Jönköping (A6 centre), hence 64.9% of the respondents came from Jönköping, but 35.1% lived outside Jönköping. The income of the participants was spread in different groups, ranging from 0-15.000 SEK (22.5%), 15.000-30.000 SEK (60.3%) to more than 30.000 SEK (13.2%). In the majority of cases (88.7%), the person who wrote their shopping list was also the shopper and where the list was written by another person, it was mostly the partner which was, in nearly all cases, the wife.

Of all participants, 49.7% shopped alone, 34.4% with their partner or someone else, and 15.9% shopped together with their (grand-) children. Referring to shopping duration, nearly the majority (49%) shopped between 16-30 minutes, whereas 27.2% stayed between 31-45 minutes in the store, and 13.2% less than 15 minutes. The majority (76.8%) of the participants stated that this was their regular store. It was found that 68.2% of the respondents indicated they were weekly shoppers.

Findings relating to shopping list development

The shopping lists collected were analysed to determine what was written on the list (from a product perspective) as well as whether the store leaflet and knowledge was used in the development of the list.

Product and brand decisions

Product categories appear most frequently (54.4%) followed by products (33.8%). Product classes and brands were only written on 6.3% and 5.5% of lists respectively (refer to Table 1). It can thus be seen that consumers wrote product categories most often on the list, followed by products. Thus, product category and product dominate on the shopping lists based on their frequency, indicating support of this proposition. The majority (52.3%) had at least one brand written on their shopping list. A total of 73 different brand names were identified on the lists, and 16.4% (12 brand names) were on sale. Regarding how often the different brand names were listed, 67.1% of brand names were listed once, whereas 16.4% were listed twice and 16.4% were written three or more times on the shopping lists. The three top planned brand names were all dairy products namely *Bregott* (16 times), *Keso* (12 times) and *Philadelphia* (8 times). Other product types that were mentioned were hygiene products and beverages.

Table 1: Product and brand decisions

Category	Example	No. of items	Frequency with which the items appear
Product class	Bakery; beverages	174	6.3%
Product category	Ready-to-eat cake; coffee	1500	54.4%
Product	Almond cake; cappuccino	932	33.8%
Brand	Rojos; Gevalia	152	5.5%
		2758	100%
Number of customers		151	

These findings (5.5%) are in line with the studies of Block and Morwitz (1999) who identified a brand percentage of 9.4%, Thomas and Garland (1996) of 7% and Schmidt (2012) 5.6%. The proposition is thus supported.

List design

The shopping lists were analysed regarding the paper design, the size of the list and if it was printed or handwritten. A total of 8.6% of the respondents used special paper (i.e. written on a piece of paper that stated the term *shopping list* on top). Respondents that used nice paper, a note pad paper with a nice imprint or logo, accounted for 15.9%. The majority (76.8%) used scrap paper and 98.0% wrote (rather than typed) the shopping list. Regarding the paper size, 72.2% used a smaller paper size than A5. In previous research, the majority of the shopping lists papers were post-it notes (Schmidt, 2012) which was not the case in this research where the majority were normal note pad paper without imprints and logos.

The lists were also examined regarding additional features, such as prices, drawings, characteristics or handwriting and whether detailed information is presented on the list. The volume, amount, price and sales price declaration appeared on 44.4% of lists, with multiple handwriting (25%) and reminders (10.6%) noteworthy on the lists.

As the majority of respondents had written their lists of scraps on paper (i.e. paper not specifically selected for the purpose of developing a shopping list), proposition 2 is not supported.

Store leaflets

For the shopping list creation, 46.4% indicated that they used the weekly sales flyer containing normal sales items and W+ offers. All respondents had regular priced items on their lists, and the majority of all items planned were regularly priced items (90.3%), with 7.4% of the items being normal sales offers and 2.3% were items of W+ (store-specific programme). A total of 68.2% of the respondents planned *normal sales* on their shopping lists, while 21.9% of all respondents planned according to W+ offers. Respondents (103) who planned normal sales items (204), planned an average of 1.98 items (204/103) on their lists. For W+ sales it was 1.93 items. It can thus be seen that the participants used the weekly leaflet provided by the store to create their shopping list.

Using a Pearson Chi square test, statistically significant differences were found between the day on which shopping took place and the use of the flyers to develop the shopping lists ($p=0.034$). The majority on Thursday, Friday and Saturday used the flyer while developing their shopping lists. Those describing this as their regular store were also more likely to use the flyer to develop their shopping list ($p=0.017$). The explanation for these findings can be associated with the delivery of the flyers (over the weekend) for the following week, and the culture of grocery shopping on these days (for the following week). Thus, proposition 3 (that supermarket leaflets are used to create the shopping list) is supported.

Store knowledge

The shopping lists were analysed regarding how and in which order the items were written on the shopping lists and compared with the order of products in the store. Coding was conducted to place the items on the shopping lists into an order, which resulted in the creation of 15 groups according to the sections in the store (strict coding). This initial coding did not indicate the existence of store knowledge and consequently, a second coding with larger categories and fewer groups were used to investigate this further (broad coding). The store layout was labelled A (flowers, vegetables/ fruit, meat, cheese and bakery), B (eggs, dairy and juice), C (frozen food), D (candy and snacks), E (cooking and household goods) and F (personal care and baby products).

Neither coding showed any patterns or relationship between the shopping list creation and the store knowledge of the consumers. The majority of 98.0% of all respondents did not use their store knowledge when creating their shopping list.

Thus, proposition 4 (store knowledge is used to create the shopping list) is not supported. Despite this lack of evidence of store knowledge in the planning of the shopping trip, the majority (72.9%) said it was their regular store which can serve as a reflection of store knowledge (Iyer & Ahlawat, 1986).

Findings regarding list fulfilment (P₅)

The number of unplanned and incomplete purchased items were identified and compared to the total items on the lists and receipts, respectively. The findings indicated that 75.5% had incomplete purchases, exact purchases amounted to 2% while 96% of respondents made unplanned purchases. In the case of incomplete purchases, 16.2% (446/2,758) of items were not purchased. On average, 3.9 planned items were not purchased while in the case of

unplanned purchases, 39.5% (1,951/4,933) of all items listed on the receipt were unplanned and on average, 13.5 unplanned items were purchased. The proposition is thus not supported.

Table 2: Incomplete and unplanned purchases

	No. of respondents	Total number of items	Total number of items on the list or receipt	Percentage
Unplanned purchases	145 (96%)*	1941	4933	39.5%
Incomplete purchases	114 (75.5%)*	446	2758	16.2%

***Respondents may appear in more than one purchase situation.**

Kollat and Willett (1967) suggest that over 50% of purchases are unplanned but this study has a smaller percentage (39.5%). It supports the findings of Block and Morwitz (1999) who found that a shopping list does not lead to avoiding unplanned purchases. It also supports the view of Stille et al. (2010a) who suggested that customers allow margin in their lists in order to purchase additional items. These findings support those of Thomas & Garland (1996) who found that most shoppers who used a shopping list made additional purchases. Time spent in the store (Park et al., 1989) and the number of items on the list (Abratt & Goodey, 1990) did not influence unplanned and incomplete purchases in this study.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of the research was to investigate the factors affecting the shopping lists compiled by customers of one of the Swedish grocery stores, specifically the product categories and brands they contained, list design, flyers and store knowledge and their use in-store.

Women were found to be the main creators of the shopping list, as evidenced in previous studies (Bassett et al., 2008) as women remain largely responsible for grocery shopping (Dholakia, 1999).

The contribution of this research is found in examining how lists are created (and the factors that affect its development) and subsequently how these lists are used in-store. Consumers develop their grocery list based on product class, product category, product and brand decisions. The majority of consumers listed product category and product items on the shopping list, with a small number of brands reflected (5.5%). While more than half the lists contained brands, they tended to focus on a narrow range of branded products, specifically dairy products. Overall, these findings are in line with previous studies (Block & Morwitz, 1999; Schmidt, 2012; Thomas & Garland, 1996).

Consumers use a variety of paper designs, ranging from professional shopping list paper to disrupted and rumpled scrap paper. Lists were created in many different daily situations, based on the types of paper used (envelopes, pages from phone books, shopping list templates or documents) and some contained other information such as appointments. The majority of shopping lists were handwritten on small scraps of paper.

The effectiveness of flyers as promotional tools varies among customer segments (Luceri et al., 2014), with limited use in previous studies (Smith & Carsky, 1996). Consumers use weekly leaflets for their planning to be able to detect the current sales offers and hence the best deals. The majority had sales items on the shopping list. Those shopping later in the week as well as

regular customers of the store were more likely to use the flyers, emphasizing their importance.

Store knowledge is regarded as information about the store that the consumer already has (Park et al., 1989). Despite analysis, store knowledge did not reflect in the development of shopping lists, suggesting that this is not an important characteristic in the planning of the shopping trip, reflecting different findings from Bassett et al. (2008).

The actual in-store experience showed deviations from the planned experience with a number of respondents having incomplete or unplanned purchases. While up to 50% of items purchased in-store are not stated by shoppers prior to entering the store (Olshavsky & Granbois, 1979) and 50% of purchases are unplanned (Kollat & Willett, 1967; Park et al., 1989), this study showed a smaller percentage of unplanned items. These findings suggest that respondents use the lists to indicate their needs, but they are also open to the in-store stimuli and cues, which can influence purchase behaviour.

There are a number of *limitations* associated with the research. The findings were limited by a relatively small sample and this research was associated with one specific store in one area of Jönköping, Sweden, thus impacting the extent to which the findings can be generalised. The research was also limited to one week which, while it was when most shopping took place, may not reflect behaviour in other periods.

Managerial implications can also be identified for retailers. The level of planning can be seen in this research. Retailers and brands can determine ways in which to further influence list development. Some brands (such as *Bregott*, *Philadelphia* and *Keso*) appear to be prominent in the minds of consumers, and developing similar strategies can be developed by other brands to gain “top of mind” awareness. The use of the flyer in preparing the shopping list also points to their widespread use.

There are a number of areas for *future research*, specifically the development of technology-based shopping lists (including the use of apps). Qualitative data can be collected to investigate shopping list planning in more detail. In this research, the effect of store knowledge was not evident requiring further research. Alternative aspects such as shopper involvement as an influencing factor in list development can also be investigated (Smith & Carsky, 1996) as well as the role of various family members in list development.

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