

AN EXPLORATION OF IMPULSE BUYING FOR NEW INSIGHTS INTO
CONSUMER BEHAVIOR



GİZEM AYKANAT

BOĞAZIÇI UNIVERSITY

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An Exploration of Impulse Buying for New Insights Into Consumer Behavior

The thesis of Gizem Aykanat
has been approved by:

Prof. Glden Asugman
(Thesis Advisor)



Assoc. Prof. Ulař Akkk



Assist. Prof. Esra Arıkan
(External Member)



May 2019

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I, Gizem Aykanat, certify that

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ABSTRACT

An Exploration of Impulse Buying for New Insights Into Consumer Behavior

The purpose of this study is to explore the concept of impulse buying in the light of previous research and to investigate a research model in order to enhance our understanding. The relationships between impulse buying and personality characteristics of self-concept, affect intensity and need for uniqueness were examined. The survey consisted of the constructs borrowed from the literature and was administered through an online procedure. Results from a convenience sample of 410 respondents were investigated. Findings support the research model proposed and indicate that self-discrepancy, affect intensity and need for uniqueness have positive relationships with impulse buying behavior. Moreover, the conducted research indicates that there are significant relationships between the usage of social media, online shopping habits, age and impulse buying behavior.

ÖZET

Dürtüsel Satın Alımın Tüketici Davranışlarında Yeni Görüşler İçin Araştırılması

Bu çalışmanın amacı, önceki araştırmaların ışığında dürtüsel satın alma kavramını anlamak ve araştırma modelini incelemektir. Dürtüsel satın alma davranışının benlik kavramı, duygu durumu yoğunluğu ve özgün olma ihtiyacı arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Anket literatürden alınan ölçekler ile oluşturulmuş ve internet üzerinden yürütülmüştür. Kolayda örneklem yolu ile toplanan 410 katılımcının yanıtları araştırmaya dahil edilmiştir. Bulgular, araştırma modelini desteklemiş olup dürtüsel satın alma ile benlik farklılıkları, duygu durumu yoğunluğu ve özgün olma ihtiyacı arasında pozitif ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bunlara ek olarak, araştırma dürtüsel satın alma ile sosyal medya kullanımı, internet alışverişi alışkanlıkları ve yaş arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AI	Affect Intensity
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
IB	Impulse Buying
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
NFU	Need for Uniqueness
PAD	Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance
SE	Self-Esteem
SOR	Stimulus-Organism-Response
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The use and disposal of the products and services by consumers in their daily lives are dealt with in consumer behavior studies. These studies also examine the causes and the effects of their psychological and social behaviors. Consumers' decision making process is one of these major areas of consumer behavior which was researched in detail and theorized by marketing scholars. (e.g. Engel & Blackwell, 1982). The process generally consists of five stages through which consumers pass by. The steps are as follows; problem recognition, searching for alternative solutions or information research, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and post purchase phase. According to this model (see Figure 1), several stages occur before purchasing and there is an evaluation step after purchasing.

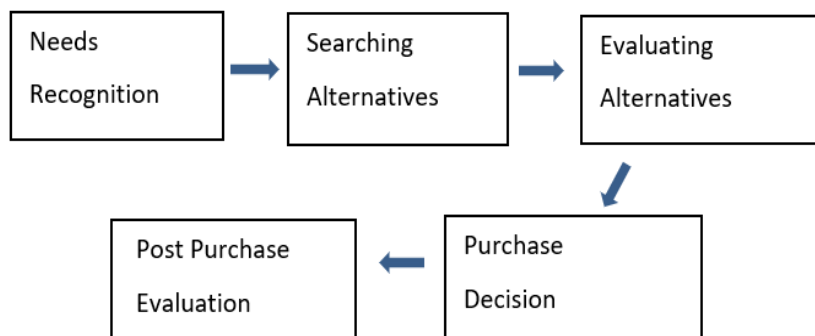


Figure 1. Model of consumer decision making (Engel & Blackwell, 1982)

The process begins with the problem recognition where the buyer encounters a problem or a need to be met. Among the reasons leading to this step are internal or external stimuli or both of them (Kotler & Keller, 2012). Schiffman and Kanuk (2010) stated that consumers experience two types of needs in the recognition step, one of which is the actual state type. In this step, consumers recognize that their products' performance is low. However, in the desired state type, consumers have a tendency to try a new product which prompts the decision making process.

According to the model, the second step is searching for alternative solutions for the recognized need. The information search process begins as soon as a consumer recognizes the need which can be fulfilled by the product. Consumers' previous experiences might be used as a source for information, but when these experiences are lacked, they feel the necessity to look into other information sources. Generally, consumers' decisions are based on both past experiences and external sources, which are from marketing activities and non-commercial ways (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010). Consumers are mostly informed about a product via commercial sources, such as advertisements, websites, packaging etc. On the other hand, the most effective information sources are stated to be the personal ones, such as friends and family, experiences and mass media as a public source (Kotler & Keller, 2012). When the search for information is completed, consumers list their alternatives and begin to evaluate them.

The last stages of decision making model are purchase and post-purchase activities which are related to the consumers' satisfaction with the purchase. After consumers purchase a product, they begin to use it and they need to be sure whether the product fulfills their expectations or not. When the expectations from the product and the performance of the product match each other, the results are neutral. When

the performance of the product is better than what is expected, the results are satisfactory or opposite. (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010).

The process of decision making is represented in terms of this five-stage model in theory, but individual experiences may differ from the proposed model. The decision process consists of steps through which a consumer passes while purchasing a product or service. However, according to Kotler and Keller (2012) some stages might be skipped or switched depending on the type of purchases (see Figure 2). This way, consumers do not pass through all of the stages involved in the decision making process. To address this issue a modification in this model has been made by the Coley and Burgess (2003). In the process of decision making, consumers might be under the influence of sudden desire or exposure to certain stimuli, which may cause consumers to violate the normative decision-making process. As it is impossible to keep unaffected by this sudden desire, it becomes inevitable for him to buy the item which is confronted. And this process which is followed by impulsive reaction is called impulsive buying or unplanned purchase. (Kacen & Lee, 2002). As suggested by Coley and Burgess (2003), what is meant by impulse buying is a purchase which is made by the consumer at the exact moment when he is exposed to certain stimuli, regardless of future consequences.

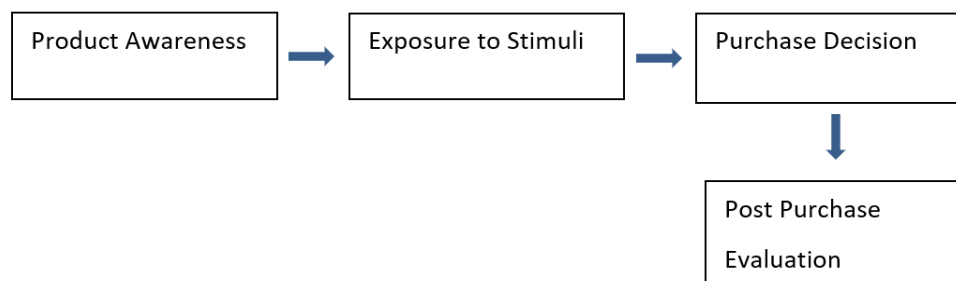


Figure 2. Impulse buying process (Kotler & Keller, 2012)

Consumer decision making can be explained in different situations or under different circumstances in several ways, one of which is the impulse purchases and impulse buying behavior. Several marketing scholars have been trying to explain it throughout time. (e.g. Kollat & Willet 1967; Piron, 1991; Rook, 1987; Stern, 1962). According to the explanations made by scholars, impulse buying behavior involves an emotional part and by nature it is unplanned. In impulse buying situations, minor differences are noticed in the decision making process. In most of the situations, impulse behavior occurs after the first step, which is the problem recognition. Further steps could be skipped or taken in a short period of time. In other words, searching for alternatives and evaluation steps are being passed together.

1.2 Objective of the study

Based on the fact that impulse buying as a unique aspect of consumers' lifestyle is a significant phenomenon. Store layouts, product packaging and in store promotions are the ways used to make consumers purchase impulsively in stores. (Dholakia, 2000). As a consequence, impulse buying results in a large sale of products (Hausman, 2000). Researchers from different domains such as consumer behavior and psychology have long been attracted to the topic of impulse buying due to its prevalence and significance. Prior research indicates that there are several factors which are categorized as internal, external and situational factors that influence impulse buying behavior. The aim of this study is to examine prior relevant studies, and to investigate the factors that have an influence on impulse buying. Among all the factors affecting impulse buying, this research particularly tries to study personal factors; emotional part, internal processes and motivations on the impulse purchases.

More specifically, the objective of the study is to explore the relationship between impulse buying and several personal concepts such as affect intensity, need for uniqueness and self-concept.

In addition, impulsive purchases have been identified to increase due to the inevitable increase in online retailing, which is accessible 24-hours every day through the internet. Thus, this study also explores possible relationships between the use of internet and social media habits and impulse buying behavior.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definitions of impulse buying

A purchase behavior had been classified into three groups as planned, unplanned and impulse buying by Stern (1962), who provided the basic framework of impulse buying by this classification. In planned buying, time-consuming information search and rational decision making are required. On the other hand, in the unplanned buying process, all the shopping decisions are made without any advance planning. In terms of quick decision making, unplanned buying and impulse buying differ from each other. Experiencing a sudden, strong, irresistible and unplanned urge to buy is involved in impulse purchases. Stern was the first scholar to develop four distinct types of impulse purchases, which can be identified as (Stern, 1962, p. 60):

- a) Pure impulse buying: This is the novelty or escape purchase which breaks a normal buying behavior of the shopper.
- b) Reminder impulse buying: This kind of impulse buying occurs in the store when the shopper notices the needs of products.
- c) Suggestion impulse buying: Without any knowledge or experience about the product, the shopper purchases a new product by visualizing a need for it and shows suggestion impulse buying.
- d) Planned impulse buying: This kind of behavior occurs when shoppers enter the store with the intention of purchasing certain products and also with the expectation of making other purchases. A shopper may not have

information about the kind of sales promotions and new products/brands that are on offer in the store. In that case, planned impulse buying takes place.

Kollat and Willet (1967) defined impulsive buying as an unplanned purchase taking place in the store environment which reminds shoppers of their shopping needs. The products which fulfill these needs are not involved in the pre-shopping list.

Impulse buying was defined by Engel and Blackwell (1982) as an action performed without being recognized previously and formed before entering the store. Also, it is a buying intention which is formed before entering the store. It was concluded that hedonic buying decisions made inside the store are involved in impulse buying and reminder purchasing activities are excluded.

Rook (1987, p. 191) stated that “impulse buying occurs when a consumer experiences a sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately”. Impulse buying was an unintended and non-reflective reaction. It happens as soon as the consumer is exposed to the stimuli inside the store. Before the study of Rook, the focus point of impulse buying was the product. In earlier studies, consumer and his personal traits were not involved as the factor which influenced impulse purchases. Researchers in later years investigated a variety of behavioral aspects of impulse buying and explored personal impulsiveness.

Rook and Gardner (1993) explained that impulse buying was an unplanned behavior in which quick decision making and tendency for immediate acquisition of the product were involved.

Asugman and Cote (1993) proposed two broad types of impulse buying; reminder and reactive buying. In reminder buying purchase occurs for primarily utilitarian reasons. The consumer is either reminded that they need the product, or upon first seeing the product, recognizes it will satisfy an existing need. On the other

hand, reactive buying is initiated by a stimulus which is likely to provide hedonic rather than utilitarian value.

It was described by Beatty and Ferrell (1998) that immediate purchases without any pre-shopping objectives are referred to as impulse buying, either to buy the specific product category or to fulfill a specific need. Beatty and Ferrell explained that as soon as a buying desire is experienced by the shopper, the impulse buying behavior occurs, without much reflection.

Bayley and Nancarrow (1998, p. 100) defined impulse buying as a “sudden, compelling, hedonically complex buying behavior in which the rapidity of an impulse decision process precludes thoughtful and deliberate consideration of alternative information and choices”. Similarly, Block and Morwitz (1999) defined impulse buying as buying an item with little or no deliberation, as a result of a sudden, strong urge to buy.

Kacen and Lee (2002) addressed two characteristics of impulse buying as sudden decision making and immediate possession. According to them, impulsive buying behavior involves more arousal and less resistance. Impulse buying is a deliberate behavior when it was compared to planned buying behavior.

2.2 Explaining impulse buying

Theoretical models or frameworks have been proposed in the literature in order to explain impulse buying behavior. Following sections provide a review of the most common models, which are the reference point model proposed by Hoch and Loewenstein (1991), a model of impulse buying proposed by Dittmar, Beattie and Friese (1995), the two-factor cost-benefit accessibility framework proposed by Puri

(1996), and a model of environment-shopper relationships proposed by McGoldrick, Betts and Keeling (1999).

2.2.1 The reference point model

The reference point model, which explains why and how consumers are impulsive, was proposed by Hoch and Loewenstein (1991). The concept of the reference point is explained as “people are less concerned with absolute attainments than with attainments relative to some psychologically relevant comparison point” (p. 494).

That is to say, when a consumer experiences the exposure to a stimulus, he or she feels the urge to possess it (Rook, 1987). As a result, a shift can be observed in the consumer’s reference point, in which the consumer already imagines possessing the product. What is considered as a loss is ‘not acquiring the product’, and the product is purchased in order to minimize the loss (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991). At that point in time, any future considerations such as monetary issues can be outweighed by the benefits of immediate gratification from purchase (Dittmar & Drury, 2000). Several situations can cause shifts in the consumer’s reference point and consequently promote the consumer’s impulsivity. The consumer’s proximity to the product is promoted in one way or the other in most of these situations in which physical proximity, temporal proximity and social proximity are involved (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991). The physical proximity increases the desire to acquire the product. According to Mischel and Grusec (1967), the reason which causes a shift in the reference point is that the product is arranged in an ambiance through the appropriate visual merchandising. As a temporal proximity, the possibility of immediate gratification or an immediate ‘reward’ increases the desire to possess the product. Finally, individuals compare themselves with their peers who are slightly

better off than themselves, and want to possess what their peers already have, (Dittmar et al., 1995), which is called social comparison, leading to a shift in the reference point of consumers.

2.2.2 Model of impulse buying by Dittmar et al. (1995)

One's life experiences and interactions with others can determine how that person presents oneself to the others and it is the basis of social constructionist theory.

Dittmar et al. (1995) is based their model of impulse buying (see Figure 3) on this theory. In this impulse buying model, it is mainly assumed that products are purchased and consumed both for their functional benefits and also for their symbolic meanings, which give an indication of the social status and wealth. The functional benefits of products and their symbolic meanings can be separated from each other by means of this model. The main finding was identified to be the difference between the goods that are not purchased impulsively and those which are purchased impulsively. It is stated that, these products can express the individual's identity better. Also, gender differences in impulse buying can be regarded as another finding. For example, mood-related concerns are more likely to be the focus point for women, whereas men tend to be more concerned with financial reasons. In other words, due to emotional and relationship reasons, goods which are related to elemental values attract the attention of women. However, because of functional instrumental reasons, men are more attracted to goods which relate to leisure and finance.

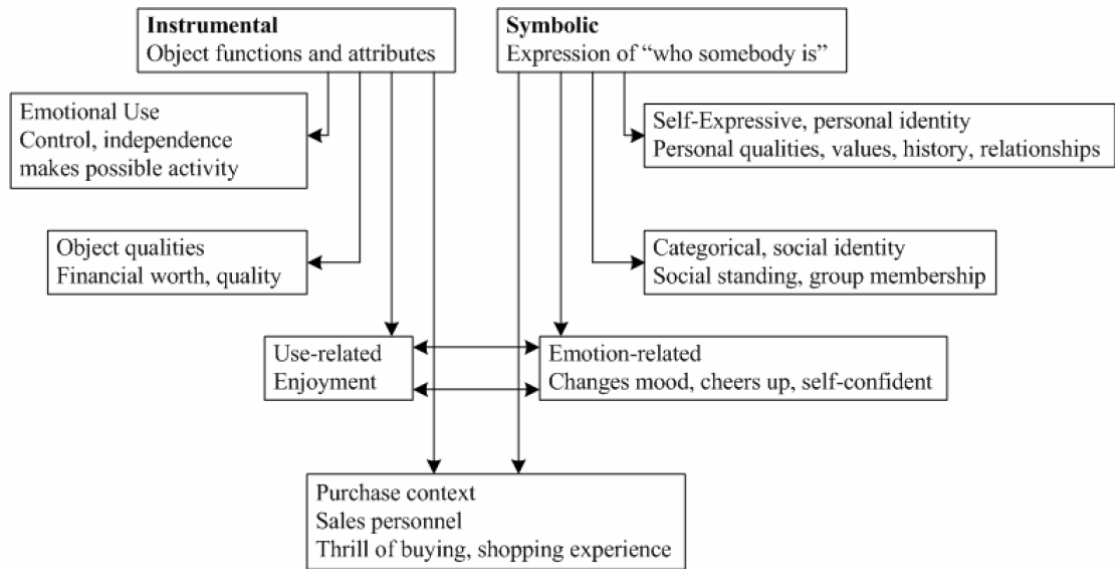


Figure 3. Meaning dimensions in impulse purchases (Dittmar et al., 1995)

2.2.3 The cost-benefit accessibility framework

Cost- benefit accessibility framework, proposed by Puri (1996), suggests that the relative accessibility of inputs such as the costs and the benefits of impulsiveness is a factor which influences impulse buying behavior. According to the model, the negative costs of impulsiveness, the advantages of acquiring the product and the propensity of an individual to be more impulsive are all emphasized in a situation which determines the degree of impulsivity. The tendency to feel an urge and the compelling force of impulsiveness are both high in situations when the benefits are more than the cost of impulsiveness. On the other hand, when the costs outweigh the benefits of impulsiveness, the consumer struggles with the urge, which reduces the possibility of any impulse buying behavior. The consumer's chronic values are the ones which determine whether a consumer focuses on the benefits or costs of impulsiveness. Rather than the costs of impulsiveness, benefits of impulsiveness are

more likely to be focused by certain consumers, who possess more hedonic values. On the other hand, costs of impulsiveness might be taken into consideration more by the consumers who are more prudent. Thus, prudents do not generally act impulsively while the hedonics are only focused on the benefits of impulsiveness. The likelihood of impulsiveness is determined by the interplay between the situational factors and the consumer's propensity to be impulsive.

2.2.4 A model of environment-shopper relationships

A model of environment-shopper relationships in the context of seasonal sales was suggested by McGoldrick et al. (1999). The customer's socio-demographic features and the customer's cognitive features are the two moderators, which identify the relationship between the environment and the customer response (see Figure 4) The socio-demographic status of a consumer is a moderator which functions both as a determinant of the consumer's response to the environment and also as a determinant of the possibility of an impulse purchase. Gender (Dittmar et al., 1995) and age (Bellenger, Robertson & Hirschman, 1978) have been proposed as identifying factors of impulsiveness. In addition, it is the consumer's beliefs and images about the environment which determines his or her response. For example, in situations where there are seasonal sales, some consumers look forward to making savings as much as possible, whereas some others focus on the inconveniences of shopping, such as standing in long lines and being in such a crowded place. The relationship between the consumer's response to the environment and the resulting behavior is moderated by the propensity to 'avoidance of dissonance', which causes the consumer feel under pressure because the consumer feels it necessary to defend or justify the decision which is made. As Piron (1991) suggested, the results of impulse behavior

are not evaluated by the consumer, which is regarded as one of the features of impulse buying process. Similarly, considering the post-purchase dissonance may be avoided by the consumer while making purchases.

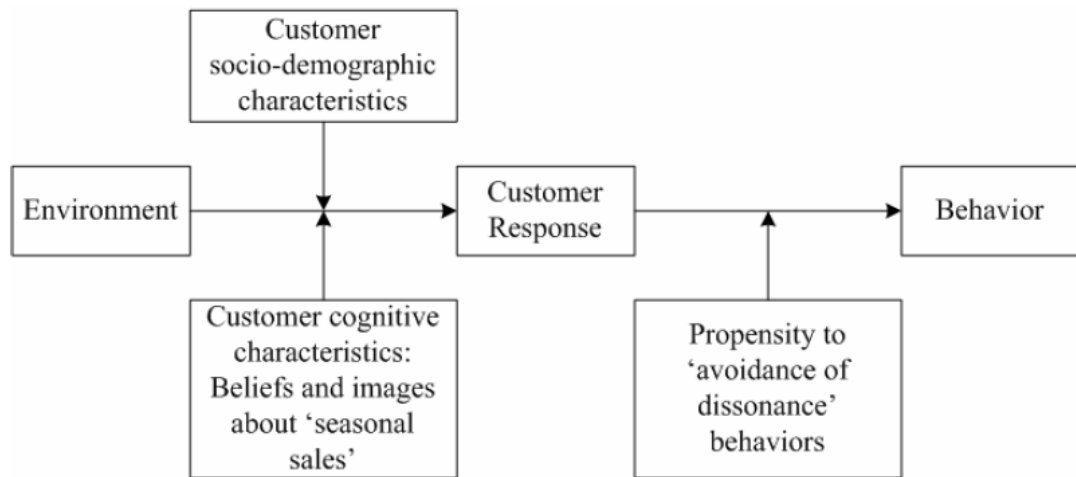


Figure 4. A conceptual model of environment-shopper relationship (McGoldrick et al., 1999)

2.3 Explicit web features and online impulse buying

Shopping on the internet is a very easy and convenient means of shopping, which has been offered to consumers (Szymanski & Hise, 2000). The web stores are available every day and all day, with no lines to wait and waste your time. Also, consumers do not need to hurry as there are no closing times. As a result, it is possible for consumers to browse the product offerings of various e-retailers at any time whenever they like. Furthermore, online shopping is time-saver and allows consumers to save energy as well, since they can visit an online shop easily using their smartphones, find the products and buy them in a very comfortable way. In addition, unlike online shoppers who save money, shoppers in the physical shopping

environment might encounter problems such as the cost of getting to the store, costs for using the car or other means of transport, costs of parking etc., which means that they have to spend money. Such beneficial features of online shopping increase the convenience and ease of shopping significantly and the ease of buying and impulse buying are positively related to each other (Stern, 1962).

There are certain factors that make online shopping easier and preferable. One of them is online merchandising, which is defined as “factors associated with selling offerings online separate from site design and shopping convenience” (Szymanski & Hise, 2000, p. 312). Product offerings and information about these products are all involved in online merchandising; consumers are offered helpful information, such as product reviews in an online setting.

Unlike traditional offline shopping environments, the internet provides shoppers more privacy and anonymity in shopping. Since consumers have the anonymity, they visit stores and buy some items which they might be embarrassed of buying while shopping offline. Some researchers claim that impulse buying is also influenced by this availability of anonymity (Koufaris, Kambil & LaBarbera, 2001; Rook & Fisher, 1995). Owing to the social anonymity on the internet; it is inevitable for consumers to get indulged in such impulse buying, which might be considered as embarrassing offline. Hence, the factors which encourage impulse buying are the privacy and anonymity provided by the internet.

Another important aspect of a website, which enhances online purchasing, is personalization. The content of the website changes depending on the needs and preferences of the visitor, who is considered as an individual (Chakraborty, Lala & Warren, 2003). The visitor is allowed to check the information he/she wants to view, enjoys more relevant information and also targeted advertisements. Thus, via

personalization, unwanted products or information can be kept out, the efforts needed to filter unwanted information can be reduced, the accuracy of searches can be improved and the ease and the speed of transactions can be increased (Chakraborty, et al., 2003).

On the other hand, there are also several web features that make online impulse buying more difficult. One of them is related to the internet as a shopping environment. When compared to traditional offline environments, online shopping environment is perceptually much poorer, because internet appeals to only two of our senses, sight and hearing, whereas all of our five senses can be stimulated by the physical shopping environment. As a result, consumers cannot fully inspect the merchandise, because the marketing stimuli are more or less in the form of texts, pictures and sounds. Since there is a closer association between impulse buying and strong perceptual attraction, it has been suggested that, unlike the internet as a shopping environment, offline shopping environment can trigger impulse purchases much more effectively (Koufaris et al., 2001). On the other hand, it is possible to improve the shopping experiences online in certain ways, such as using different media formats to display information about the product, enlarging the product pictures, and viewing color samples in the form of a text. In addition, multi-media can be used in order to trigger emotions in the same way as they are used in-store displays. Product reviews can also be used as a compensation for product trials which are lacked on the internet.

In a traditional commerce setting, consumers feel immediate gratification, which is one of the driving forces of impulse buying behavior, as soon as they have purchased the product, which they are interested in. On the other hand, in the online retailing environment, consumers will have to wait for the delivery of the items they

have purchased online, except for downloadable electronic products. Therefore, impulse buying on the internet or on some other shopping channels might be discouraged because of the time lapse between buying and receiving the product (Bayley & Nancarrow, 1998). However, it is also suggested that when a consumer acquires the product rather than actually possesses it, the urge to buy impulsively can be fulfilled (LaRose, 2001). In the case of online shopping, the consumer is allowed to fulfill any urges to buy impulsively at any time. The purchasing transaction rather than the actual delivery of the product makes the consumer feel immediate gratification. Therefore, the online shopping environment can be conducive to impulse buying.

Finally, it is much easier for consumers to make a comparison between the products and prices online, when compared to the context of shopping offline. Before making the final decision of whether to buy or not, the consumer tends to make comparisons and information searches about the product. The internet gives consumers the opportunity of searching for more information about products and services. However, it leads to longer decision making processes and rational thinking, which discourages impulse purchases (Koufaris et al., 2001).

The factors which lead to increased consumer loyalty and unplanned purchases were examined by Koufaris et al. (2001), whose model studies the direct or moderating effect of individual and environmental factors on consumer attitudes and behavior (see Figure 5). The intention to return and unplanned purchases were considered as the consumer behavior. The attitudinal factors were perceived control and shopping enjoyment. The individual factors were customer tenure, need specificity, and product involvement and the environmental factors were search mechanisms and challenges, all of which were studied in the model. The model in

the context of a web-based video rental and delivery store has been validated by the authors who found support for some of their hypothesis. More specifically, it was found out that unplanned purchases were not associated with the shopping environment or the perceived level of control. It was believed by the authors that the findings would have been different if the online store sold a wide variety of products.

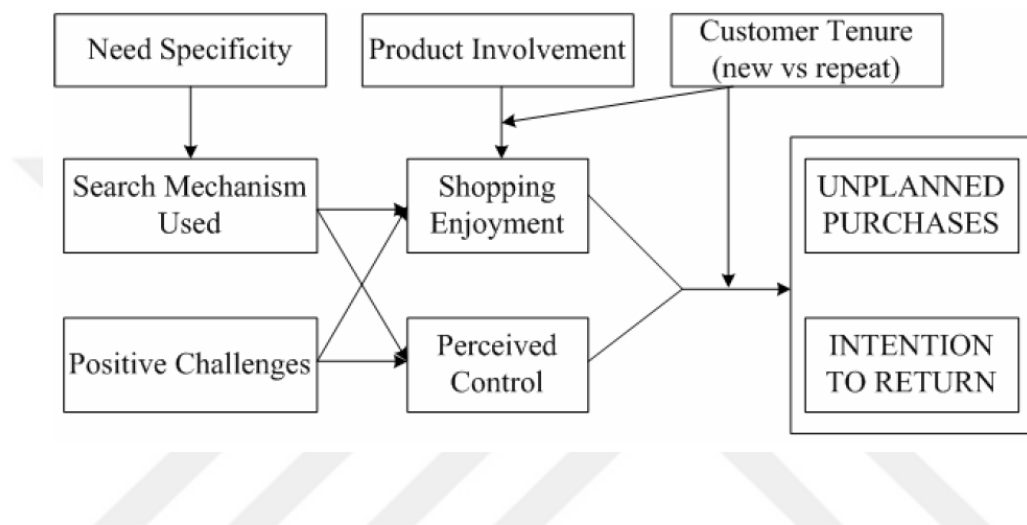


Figure 5. Theoretical framework for consumer behavior on the web (Koufaris et al., 2001)

The effect of implementation characteristics of payment processes on recall of past expenses and future impulse buying was studied by Dutta, Jarvenpaa & Tomak (2003). The usability of the payment process, which is the number of steps involved, the feedback, which is information about the consumer's current spending as well as past expenses, and rehearsal which is the situation where individuals track their expenses against mental budgets are studied (see Figure 6). Authors found out that higher usability of the payment processes resulted in greater impulse buying in the absence of rehearsal. Feedback did not have a significant effect on impulse buying, because there are strong interactions between usability and rehearsal. These results

are significant for the design of payment systems; a more usable payment process should be used, since the consumer is less aware of the current financial situation.

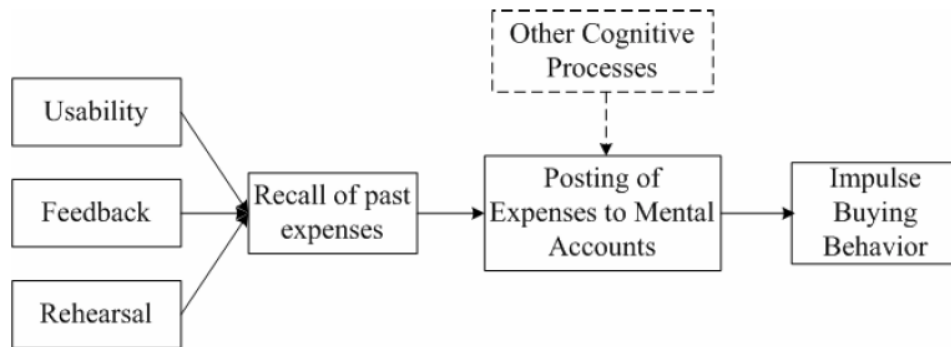


Figure 6. Impact of online payment process on consumer decision making (Dutta et al. 2003).

The effects of three different media formats of web pages on impulse buying intentions for music CDs were studied by Adelaar, Chang, Lancendorfer, Lee and Morimoto (2003). Text, images and video which were the three distinct media formats and emotional responses were studied (see Figure 7). It was found out that media format had an influence on impulse buying intentions. More specifically, the media format, which was the lyrics of the song text in combination with playing the song, generated the highest impulsive buying intention. In addition, a consumer's impulse buying intention was significantly influenced by his or her emotional responses. The simplest media format led to more impulse buying which means that textual format should be used instead of the more complicated options.

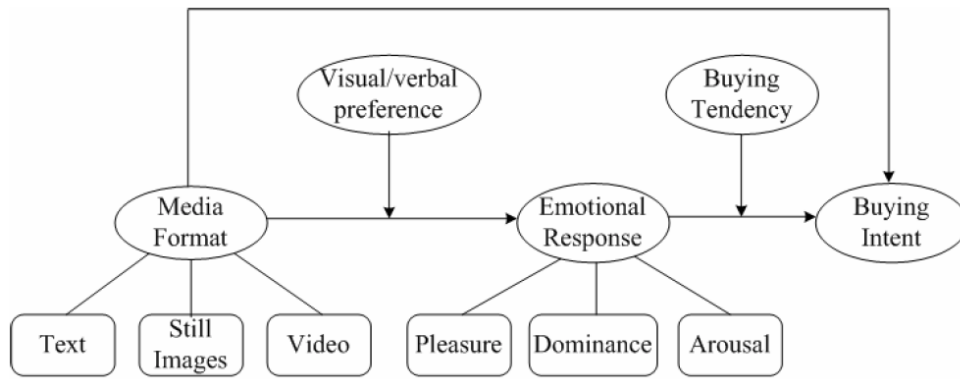


Figure 7. Theoretical model for the effects of media format on behavioral intention (Adelaar et al., 2003).

The relationship between online store beliefs and consumer online impulse buying behavior was studied by Verhagen and Dolen (2011), based on the cognitive emotion theory, which suggests that emotions are resulted from the perception of evaluating a stimulus and beliefs are assumed to be the precursors of emotions. According to cognitive emotion theory, observation of a stimulus and the consequent formation of evaluative perceptions causes emotions, which leads to impulse buying. Positive affect (the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, excited and inspired), and negative affect (the extent to which a person feels distress, irritation, and disturbance) tend to be influenced by merchandise attractiveness, site ease of use, enjoyment and website communication style. Thus, they are likely to cause impulse buying. According to the results, ease of use has been found to have no effect on emotions. On the other hand, merchandise attractiveness (attractiveness of assortment, interesting offers, impressions of the products etc.) had an influence on both positive and negative effects. In addition, store enjoyment (stimulated by music in the background and visual fun affects) and website communication (the style

which the site uses in communication and services for visitors, such as calm, assertive, friendly knowledgeable etc.) both have a significant influence on positive affect. Thus, the representational delight and merchandise attractiveness were important in impulse buying settings.

2.4. Impulse buying motives

The two different kinds of impulse buying motives involve internal motivators of shoppers and external motivators in shopping environment. Marketer controlled or sensory stimuli emanating from the marketing system, the product itself and atmospherics are referred as external motivators. On the other hand, cravings, overwhelming desires to buy and internal thoughts are referred as internal motivators (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991). Additionally, situational factors can also affect impulse buying behavior.

2.4.1 External motivators

It was suggested by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) in PAD theory that primary emotional responses such as pleasure (happy or sad), arousal (to feel stimulated or uninspired to take action), or dominance (ability to control a situation or be obedient) can be influenced by environmental factors. These factors are sense modalities and information rate and emotions such as a person's tendency to enjoy the act of shopping or to purchase items in specific types of store environments, which are more closely connected with an individual's personality. Then the type of behavior which individuals respond to, such as approaching the situation or avoiding the environment altogether, can be influenced by these emotional responses. Positive

actions directed toward a particular setting can be represented by approach behaviors, such as intention to stay, browsing and purchasing, which can be positive final actions by consumers (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). According to SOR theory, stimulus (S) influences people's internal affective evaluations (O), which leads to approach or avoidance responses (R). What is meant by this is that environmental influences are responded either in a positive way (approach behavior) or in a negative way (avoidance behavior). The sequence of the S-O-R can be completed by emotional states which function as mediating or intervening variables (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974). When consumer behavior is depicted as S-O-R system, the emotional responses of the consumers are influenced by marketing mix variables and other environmental inputs, such as ambient, design and social factors, which are the external stimuli to the person. Organism refers to "internal processes and structures", which intervene between stimuli external to the person and the final actions, reactions or responses emitted. Perceptual, physiological, feeling and thinking activities are involved in the intervening processes and structures. The final outcomes and the final decisions of consumers, which can be approach or avoidance behaviors are represented by responses in the S-O-R paradigm (Bagozzi, 1986).

Therefore, external stimuli are first related to the shopping environment where the store size, ambience (lighting, colors, sounds, odors, etc.) design (layout, presentation of merchandise, floor coverings, etc.) and formats are included. It was suggested for the first time by Applebaum (1951) that it was the consumer's exposure to a stimulus while shopping, which results in impulse purchasing, since the customer is influenced directly and indirectly by the various stimuli inside the store. The factors which lead to enhanced impulse buying are highly-stimulating and pleasant store environments (Hoyer & Macinnis, 1999), as well as the product

appearance and background music, all of which influenced the customer externally (Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001). Xu (2007) argued that consumers' emotional states were influenced by external factors in store environments that result in impulse buying. In addition, it was emphasized by Rook and Hoch (1985) that it is the external stimulus which influences a consumer's sensation and perception, initiating buying impulses, further followed by an urge to buy. It was also found out by Mattila and Wirtz (2008) that impulse buying behavior is positively affected by store environmental stimuli, especially when this environment is over-stimulating. As a result, consumer's emotions are likely to be affected by such stimuli in the retail store (Donovan, Rossiter, Marcolyn & Nesdale, 1984). There has been a big consistency between this finding and the research in psychology, which suggests that over-stimulation reduces consumers' self-regulation and thinking ability and, in the end, it increases the chances of impulse buying (Baumeister et al., 1998).

Past studies on "impulse buying" indicated that the most powerful factor which triggered the act of impulse buying used to be considered as "encounter with the object". When a consumer encounters a relevant stimulus in the shopping environment, buying impulses emerge (Piron, 1991). As Rook suggests in his research (1987), consumers have trouble resisting the desire to buy as soon as they have encountered with the item they urge to buy. Physical proximity can stimulate sensory inputs which affect desire. For instance; touching items in a store, tasting free samples of food, sniffing aroma or test-driving a luxury car might enhance consumers' desire to buy (Vohs & Faber, 2007).

One of the important factors determining impulse buying is the price of the product. Shoppers might feel that they are not spending as much as they have previously planned, especially when they are encountered a product with a low price

(Stern, 1962). For instance; It was found by Duarte, Raposo and Ferraz, (2013) that the price of a product acts as a determining factor, influencing both food choice and impulsive purchases, especially among consumers with lower income such as teenagers or students. Thus, when there are sales and discounts on products, consumers are more likely to be impulsive. Innovative sales promotions, creative messages, appropriate use of technologies in stores are all closely related to impulse buying (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010).

It was suggested by Harmancıoğlu, Finney and Joseph (2009) that in promotional activities, excitement, fun and variety are emphasized by managers in order to promote the impulse buying urge. Dawson and Kim (2009) observed that there is a connection between impulse buying and up and cross-selling strategies. In-store Point of Purchase (POP) posters in supermarkets were found to be influential on impulse purchase behaviors. Promotional techniques such as in-store settings, on shelf positions, price-off promotions, free sampling, point of purchase displays and coupons are all in-store stimuli, which are used to enhance impulse buying of products.

Product category is another external motivator that triggers impulse buying (Dittmar et al., 1995; Rook, 1987; Stern, 1962). Certain products are bought more impulsively than others. Products can be categorized as hedonic products and functional products according to the literature (Hausman, 2000; Sharma, Sivakumaran, & Marshall, 2000). Hedonic behavior is marked with pleasure. However, in the utilitarian behavior, shoppers seek for functional benefits and economic value while shopping. It has been found that impulse buying occurs more in the case of hedonic products because of the symbolic meaning they convey (Puri, 1996). Consumers who are willing to buy products such as cosmetics in order to

enhance their appearance and self-image aim to boost their self-esteem by feeling attractive (Lucas & Koff, 2014) and tend to buy these products impulsively. Besides product category, some variables such as the appearance of the products, product size and brand have also been suggested as being effective on consumer impulse buying (Stern, 1962). Attractive design and packaging of the product, made by retailers, have an influential impact on impulse buying decision. Stern (1962) suggests that product package type is associated with size and weight, which influences consumer's impulse purchase. Duarte et al. (2013) claimed that product brand is an important factor of impulse purchase based on the stimuli, because of the message carried by the brand. These authors showed in their studies that well-being, friendship, belonging, fun and enjoyment are four different personal values, which are fulfilled by consuming snack food brands, especially when the need to fulfil these personal values trigger the consumer urge to make impulse buying.

Another factor which gives shoppers an opportunity to shop frequently is credit cards and their incentive, resulting in impulse buying. "Rapidity" as one of the characteristics of impulse purchase was expanded in detail by Bernthal, Crockett and Rose (2005), who observed those with credit cards were more likely to purchase impulsively. Having a credit card while shopping, makes the customer free of psychological implications of spending as the card functions as a shield, used at the time of shopping.

Mattila and Wirtz (2008) stated that impulse buying is influenced by social factors as the presence of other customers and store employees, whose friendliness and helpfulness while assisting customers influence impulse buying behavior positively, and increase the willingness to buy. Furthermore, the negative impact of

perceived crowding tends to be lowered by the perceived friendliness of salespeople when purchases are unplanned. Similarly, Bittner (1990) suggests that customer decisions and evaluations are affected and predicted by employee behaviors. A qualified, well-trained sales person can guide and help the customer while purchasing, thus he/she can reduce frustration and trigger impulse buying behavior (Tinne, 2010). While analyzing social factors in impulse purchases, the contradictory idea which was put forward by Rook and Fisher (1995) should be taken into consideration, who argued that anonymity might encourage impulse purchasing. Shoppers are inclined to try on new things and styles and they feel as if they were wrapped in the anonymity of a self-service environment. In a research on “perceived crowding” by Machleit, Eroglu & Mantel (2000), it was postulated that there is a negative correlation between human density and satisfaction and number of purchases (Grossbart, Hampton & Rammohan, 1990). On the other hand, it was discussed by Biyani (2005) that the buyer can feel himself/herself relaxed when the shopping environment is crowded and the items are not displayed in an order, which leads to impulse buying.

The summary of external factors that have been discussed so far can be seen in Figure 8.


- 
- Shopping environment
 - Visual stimulus
 - Product price
 - Promotions
 - Product category
 - Brand, package and size
 - The use of credit cards
 - Social factors

Figure 8. External factors influencing impulse buying behavior

2.4.2 Internal motivators

Internal factors are defined as various factors related to personality and internal thought processes of the shopper, which characterize an individual rather than the shopping environment or stimuli.

One of the most important determinants of impulse buying has been found to be the affective state or mood of an individual. Positive and negative feeling states, discussed in a study by Youn and Faber (2000), were claimed to be functioning as potential motivators for impulse buying. Youn and Faber especially focused on the impacts of “positive feelings”, “depressed feelings”, “feeling flat” and “painful feelings”. It was argued by Sneath, Lacey and Kennett-Hensel (2009) that in some situations individuals attempt to get rid of the feelings which make them depressed and also they try to improve their moods, which results in impulse buying. Similar results were found by Verplanken and Herabadi (2001), who argued that individuals

with negative psychological perceptions such as low esteem, negative feelings or moods feel the need to escape from these negative perceptions, which is closely related to impulse buying. Rook and Gardner (1993) also stated that consumers are likely to impulse buy during negative mood states, such as sadness, in order to improve their mood. However, but they also indicated that consumers engage in impulse buying during pleasurable mood states, such as excitement, happiness etc. For instance; if an individual is in a good mood, he or she tends to reward himself or herself more generously and therefore, he or she tends to be more impulsive (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998).

Another determining factor which has an impact on impulse buying is shopping enjoyment, which is defined by Beatty and Ferrell (1998) as the pleasure an individual obtains in the shopping process. Shopping is regarded as a fun seeking event for those who have more fun than the others who do not. As shopping is considered a form of recreation, consumers are more likely to buy impulsively without being stuck to a shopping list (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998). In a similar way, Goyal and Mittal (2007) claim that the degree of shopping enjoyment varies across people and some buyers tend to find shopping more pleasant than the others. An individual with a high degree of shopping enjoyment is more likely to spend more time in-store browsing than others. Therefore, he is expected to have a stronger urge to make impulse buying (Badgaiyan & Verma, 2014).

Perceived risk is another individual characteristic that affect the buyers' decision making process and impulsiveness. Perceived risk is a risk which consists of two components, one of them is uncertainty about the outcome and the other one is the importance of loss (Dowling & Staelin, 1994). While purchasing, consumers perceive a certain level of risk which varies depending on the type of product and the

person (Hoover, Green & Saegert, 1978). Decision-making, which involves risk is a challenge to make a successful choice, and consumers' evaluations and behaviors are influenced by their perceptions of risk (Boksberger, Bieger & Laesser, 2007). When perceived risk is high, consumers become more risk averse. Despite the minimal cognitive control, which is an important characteristic of impulsive buying, it is likely for the consumers to go through cognitive processes when high level of risk is involved in purchase decisions. Subjects with high perceived risk show risk aversion and they do not display impulsive buying behavior. However, subjects with low perceived risk are expected to disregard cognitive processes and to show increased impulsive buying behavior (Lee & Yi, 2008).

In their study, Hoch and Loewenstein (1991) presented the reasons why individuals are engaged in impulse buying on time-inconsistent preferences. This view suggests that there is an ever-shifting conflict between desire and willpower, which is represented by consumer decisions. When a consumer has an urge for a product to buy, which is much stronger than the intentions not to buy, then impulsive buying occurs. As a result, impulsive spending involves two separate mechanisms, one of which is a desire to buy and the second one is the ability to exercise control over this urge. Unlike being impulsive, being controlled is negatively related to impulse buying and it is a personal factor affecting impulse buying at the trait level. (Youn & Faber, 2000). When consumers have a power to control themselves very well, they tend not to make impulsive purchases whereas the lack of self-control leads to impulse buying (e.g. Baumeister, 2002; Vohs & Faber, 2007). Actions such as thinking about spending money or staying away from the goods that are displayed are all involved in the self-control process.

Another personal factor to be considered is hedonic need, which is an antecedent of impulse buying. Hedonic consumption was described by Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) as a consumer behavior which is related to the multi-sensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of a consumer who has experiences with the goods in the shopping process. In other words, multiple sensory modalities, such as touch, taste, scent, and sound are all involved in a hedonic shopping experience; imaginative ideation and emotional arousal can be produced as well. Hausman (2000) posits that impulse buying is a hedonic need which is motivated by the achievement of higher order needs grouped around Maslow's "hierarchy of needs". Efforts to satisfy higher order needs result in different types of impulse buying behavior. Sharma et al. (2010), classified impulse buying as hedonic behavior which is connected with feelings and psychosocial motivations, not with thinking and functional benefits. Certain needs are satisfied by the shopping act itself. It is stated by Hausman (2000) that consumers shop not only to meet their needs but to satisfy different kinds of hedonic needs as well. While shopping, consumers encounter items and when these are regarded as suitable for a need, they tend to purchase them. As their shopping experience aims to fulfil hedonic needs, the goods which are purchased during these shopping excursions are chosen and purchased in an unplanned way. Thus, they symbolize impulse buying behavior.

Belk (1984, p. 291) defines materialism as "the importance a consumer attaches to worldly possessions" and proposed it as another personality variable influencing purchases. In a materialist economy, the norm is obtaining materials. Those high in materialism believe that purchasing goods results in positive outcomes, which exhibit status and lead to increased power (Luo, 2005). Similarly, Richins and Dawson (1992) found that the number and quality of possessions owned

by an individual are the determining factors defining success. In addition, people who are high in materialism, value the items which are clearly seen and worn in public. Later, it was proposed by Richins (2011) that materialistic consumers are attracted to attain a social class by means of material possessions. Such consumers are stimulated by the urge to spend and they make impulsive purchases. Tatzel (2002) suggests in his work that materialism is closely linked to the urge to spend, and materialistic consumers display a positive attitude both towards debt and buying impulsively. Later, it was found by Watson (2003) that consumers high in materialism have a tendency to spend money and to borrow money for luxury goods, but they are less likely to save money.

Self-discrepancy, which is defined as a difference between actual self and ideal self, is another personal antecedent that may cause impulse buying. Wicklund and Gollwitzer (1981) addressed self-discrepancy by explaining the human pursuit of self-definitions. The self-definition is formed within the social context. And if the individual's sense of possessing a self-definition is built via social means, it is necessary for each individual to have a method of symbolizing that possession, so that others can react to the symbol. With this symbol, the individual gains a sense of being recognized in order to be complete, within the self-definition. This recognition leads to an enhanced feeling of being complete as a violinist, mother etc. If the self-definition is aspired, for example; intellectually, but deficiencies in education exist or if the symbols which are associated with the individual's self-definition are lacked, then few people acknowledge the person's quality of being intellectual. The lack of adequate evidence for the self-definition is called "incompleteness" or self-discrepancy as a 'gap' between how they see themselves (actual self) and how they wish to be seen (ideal self). These are the deficiencies in symbols of the individual's

accomplishments. In order to recover from this incompleteness, via the symbolic meanings of purchased items or services, individuals may find themselves involved in impulse buying (Dittmar, 2005).

Another important personal factor which influences impulse buying is the intensity or magnitude of the experienced emotion. Literature has identified stable individual differences in the typical intensity with which individuals experience their emotions (Larsen & Diener, 1985; Larsen, Diener & Emmons, 1986). Given the same level of emotional stimulation, individuals high on the affect intensity dimension will exhibit stronger emotional responses, regardless of the specific emotion evoked. (Larsen & Diener, 1987) Individuals experiencing positive emotions more strongly also experience their negative emotions more strongly as well. The higher a person goes “up” when he is up, the lower the person goes “down” when he is down (Larsen & Diener, 1987, p. 2). The regular experience of both strong positive and strong negative emotions over time is regarded as the construct of affect intensity. When individuals who experience intense emotional reactions are compared to those who do not, it was clearly noticed that those experiencing intense emotional reactions are influenced much more strongly than the others. Asugman and Cote (1993) stated that the one who possesses high affect intensity is much more likely to experience emotions from a given product when compared to the one who does not. Therefore, it is inevitable for them to place a higher value on the product and they are more willing to buy it. According to the results of their study, people with high affect intensity level are more likely to engage in affect oriented buying behavior like reactive buying (Asugman & Cote, 1993, p. 29)

The need for uniqueness is another internal characteristic that have an impact on impulse buying. The concept of consumers' need for uniqueness is based on Synder and Fromkin's (1977) theory of uniqueness in which an individual feels the need to see himself different from the others and he competes with other motives in situations in which they regard themselves as highly similar to the others. Individuals attempt to reclaim their self-esteem by conducting self-distinguishing behaviors. Consumers' need for uniqueness states that individual differences should be reflected by means of consumer goods and their visual display. With the use of unique goods, consumer differentiates the self (Tian, Bearden & Hunter, 2001). Thus, consumer impulse purchase will increase depending on one's level of need for uniqueness.

The summary of internal factors that have been discussed so far can be seen in Figure 9.

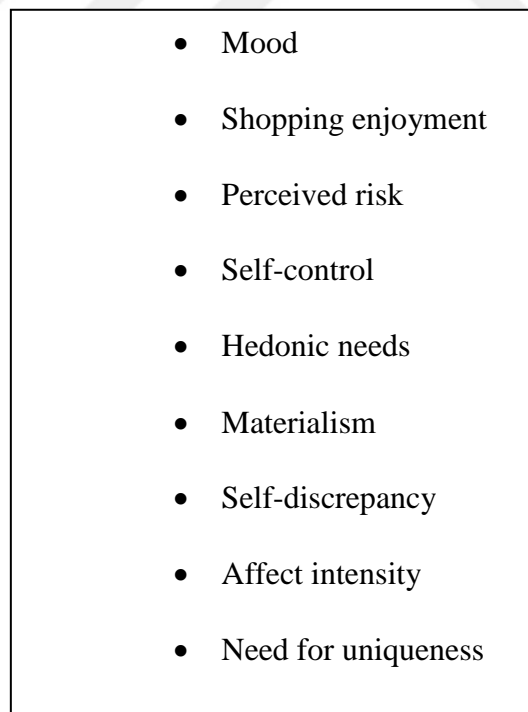
- 
- Mood
 - Shopping enjoyment
 - Perceived risk
 - Self-control
 - Hedonic needs
 - Materialism
 - Self-discrepancy
 - Affect intensity
 - Need for uniqueness

Figure 9. Internal factors influencing impulse buying behavior

2.4.3 Situational motivators

Situational factors such as time, money and the presence of others are suggested as other motivators on impulse buying. Shapiro (1992) stated that the retail location, time of shopping, seasons and shopping habits are involved in impulse buying as situational predictors. According to Beatty and Ferrell (1998), impulse buying can be influenced by many situational factors such as actual and perceived time available and spending power. Whether a consumer purchases impulsively or not depends on the time he or she spends browsing to buy. When a shopper has more time, he or she will spend longer time browsing in-store environment (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). Time pressure is widely viewed as the inverse of the available time for a shopper to make purchases. However, time pressure is regarded as a situational variable, which plays an important role on the consumers' decision making process within a store environment. It influences impulse buying negatively, since the consumer feels frustrated due to the lack of time to shop or browse in the store (Lin and Chen, 2013).

The purchasing power of the individual depends on the availability of money, which facilitates impulse buying process (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). When a consumer cannot afford to buy anything, he or she avoids being in a shopping environment, even if he/she is willing to buy. Muruganantham and Bhakat (2013) mentioned that situational factors such as dramatic increase in personal incomes and credit availability make impulse buying a prevalent consumer behavior in retail environments. Foroughi, Nor and Reyhane (2012) proposed that available money and time have a positive effect in urge to do an impulse purchase.

Decision making at the time of shopping is influenced both positively and negatively by the presence or absence of other customers. Lou (2005) states that when others are present in the store environment, the consumer is likely to purchase impulsively, so it has positive impacts on impulse buying. For instance; individuals in a group are more likely to eat more. On the other hand, when a consumer feels as if he/she would be perceived as being irrational, then the presence of others has a deterring impact on the consumer. In such situations, consumers tend to purchase impulsively when there is nobody in the store (Rook & Fisher ,1995).

The summary of situational factors that have been discussed so far can be seen in Figure 10.

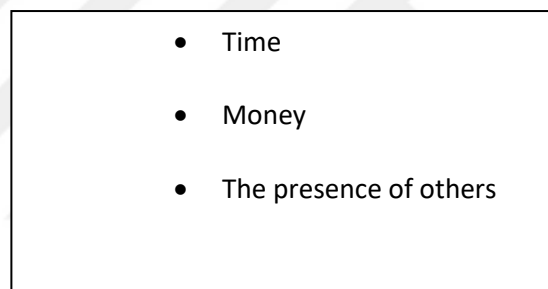


Figure 10. Situational factors influencing impulse buying behavior

2.5 Antecedents of impulse buying

Factors which influence impulse buying can be classified into three categories; the external antecedents which are product characteristics and store characteristics, the internal antecedents, which are personal characteristics and situational factors (see Figure 11).

The external antecedents of impulse buying have been divided into two main groups and studied as product related antecedents and store related antecedents so

far. Product related antecedents of impulse buying have been studied as; product category (Hausman, 2000; Lucas & Koff, 2014; Puri, 1996), product brand (Duarte et al., 2013), package and size (Stern, 1962), product price (Duarte et al., 2013; Piron, 1991; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010; Stern, 1962;) and promotions (Dawson & Kim, 2009; Harmancioğlu et al., 2009). The store related antecedents of impulse buying have been studied as shopping environment (Applebaum, 1951; Hoyer & Macinnis, 1999; Mattila and Wirtz, 2008; Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001; Xu, 2007), and visual stimulus and proximity (Donovan et al., 1984; Piron, 1991; Rook & Hoch, 1985; Vohs & Faber, 2007;).

The internal antecedents of impulse buying, which are the antecedents related to individual characteristics have been examined as; individuals' mood state (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Rook & Gardner, 1993; Sneath et al., 2009; Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001; Youn & Faber, 2000), consumers' shopping enjoyment level (Badgaiyan & Verma, 2014; Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Goyal & Mittal, 2007), perceived risk (Lee & Yi, 2008), self-control (Baumeister, 2002; Vohs & Faber, 2007; Youn & Faber, 2000), consumers' hedonic needs (Hausman, 2000; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Sharma et al., 2010) and materialism (Luo, 2005; Richins, 2011; Tatzel, 2002; Watson, 2003), self-discrepancy (Dittmar et al. 1995, 1996; Dittmar, 2005), affect intensity (Asugman & Cote, 1993; Sojka & Giese, 2003) and need for uniqueness (Gwee & Chang, 2013; Tian et al., 2001).

The situational antecedents of impulse buying studied in the past literature are consumers' available time (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991; Lin & Chen, 2013; Shapiro, 1992), available money (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Foroughi et al., 2002; Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991; Muruganatham & Bhakat, 2013) and the

presence of other consumers or sales personnel (Biyani, 2005; Lou, 2005; Rook & Fisher, 1995; Tinne, 2010).

Personality characteristics of self-concept, affect intensity and need for uniqueness which are among the antecedents of impulse buying will be examined in further detail in the next section.

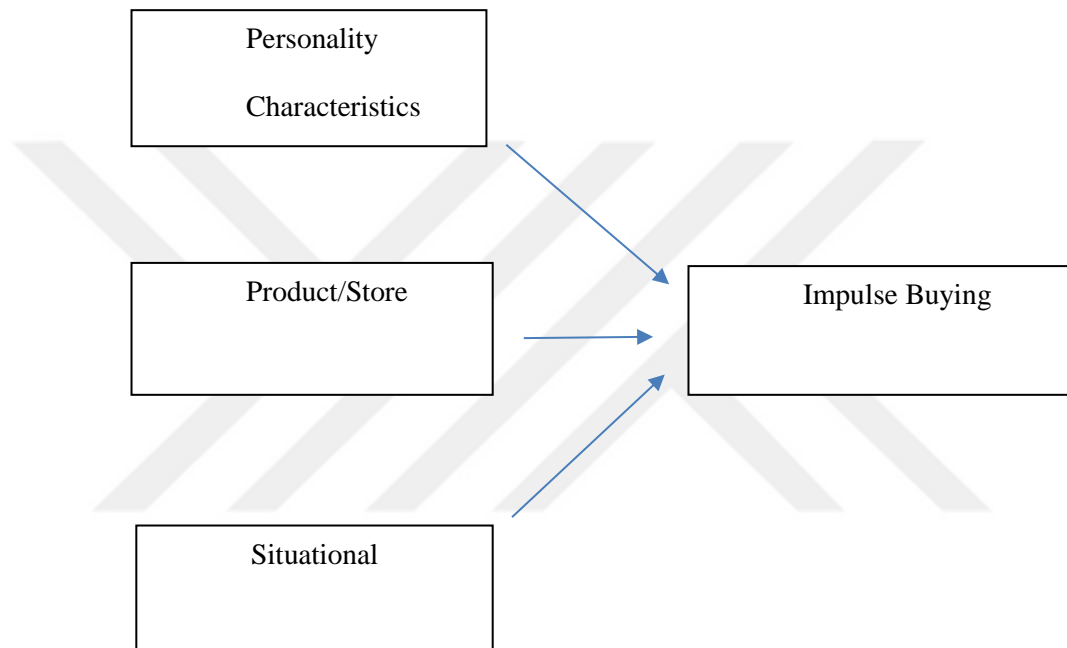


Figure 11. Antecedents of impulse buying

2.5.1 Self-concept as a motivator of impulse buying

It is a fact that people buy to meet their needs but they buy the emotive aspects of their experience with products at the same time. For instance; a consumer perceives and also encodes the scent of a perfume while smelling it. And he/she might generate internal imagery, such as sights, sounds, tactile sensations as well, all of which are defined as “experience”. Here, the impulse that the hedonic consumption involves is

emotional arousal, which is regarded as a major motivation while consuming certain types of products, such as novels, plays and sporting events (Holbrook, 1980).

Further, there is a connection between emotional involvement and the consumption of product which are much simpler, such as cigarettes, food and clothing (Levy, 1959). Products are considered as subjective symbols, not as objective entities, when a hedonic consumption perspective is used. The consumption purposes of material goods are discussed in terms of what is meant and represented by the product.

One of the most significant notions in consumer research is the one which claims that many products have symbolic characteristics. The social meaning of products rather than their functional utility, acts as a determining factor which the product consumption is based on. The goods purchased by consumers possess personal and social meanings as well as their functions (Levy, 1959). What is proposed by “symbolic consumption” perspective is that the consumption of actual products cannot be regarded separately from their symbolic meanings (Dittmar et al., 1995). The basic premise is that the determining factors of product evaluation and adoption are the symbolic qualities of products.

The way the consumer thinks about himself is reinforced and added by a related symbol, which is considered as appropriate (the product will be used and enjoyed) (Levy, 1959). Enhancing the sense of self is the aim of each consumer who acts in a way that is consistent with his self-definition. “Self- defining” means that individuals predicate of themselves some quality which a sense of control and capability such as “parent” or “artist” are corresponded to. Further, the focus point is that these goals are defined by interacting with others and social recognition is required for the sense of progress towards the goal (Mead, 1934). The problem

named as the human pursuit of self-definitions is addressed by Wicklund and Gollwitzer (1981). Individuals can define themselves as a musician, athlete, scientist or mother, and they have targets to achieve with the intention of becoming what they would like to be. Specific symbols which are related to self-descriptions are required in order to express the “self” to the others. It was stated by Wicklund and Gollwitzer (1981) that an individual is required to possess an accessible means of self-symbolizing, such as the possibility of acquiring new symbolic indicators (e.g. status symbols; prestige affiliations) or broadening immediate social reality through social influence.

Purchasing consumer goods plays an important role as it is an important factor in the process of constructing and maintaining consumers’ self-identities, attaining social status and making oneself “feel better” (e.g. Elliot,1994). The multitude of social roles, which are compulsory to be played requires “setting the stage” for purchasing goods that are symbolically significant. In order to define social reality and make sure that behaviors that are appropriate to that reality will ensue, product symbolism is employed. Thus, it is suggested that in order to define and clarify behavior patterns which are connected with social roles, the social actor often consumes product symbolism (Solomon, 1983). In the process of shaping the self-image and maximizing the quality of role performance, consumers are dependent upon the social information inherent in products.

It is postulated by the self-completion idea that alternative symbols of the self-definition are sought when important symbols of self-definition are lacked. It is assumed that indicators (symbols) of completeness can substitute one another. The symbols which support the self-definition can be pointed to by a person who is

unlikely to pursue further symbols. Thus, when symbolic indicators of the status of “scientist” or other self-definition are lacked, self-symbolizing efforts will be attempted (Wicklund & Gollwitzer, 1981).

If the symbols which are associated with the individual’s self-definition are lacked, then few people acknowledge the person’s quality of being intellectual. The lack of adequate evidence for the self-definition is called “incompleteness”. These are the deficiencies in symbols of the individual’s accomplishments. They create the motivation to pursue detailed evidence of possessing the self-definitional quality. It is the point on which symbolic self-completion theory is focused. When consumers are forced to encounter the lack of a relevant indicator, they are expected to get involved in self-symbolizing efforts, which means that they attempt to conceal the weakness by means of possessing alternative indicators. (Gollwitzer, 1987). In order to recover from this incompleteness, via the symbolic meanings of purchased items or services, individuals may find themselves involved in impulse buying since an aspect of a person’s identity is possible to be clarified, affirmed or expressed through impulsive purchases, because an aspired social group or life-style can be symbolized by a product. A multitude of identities are involved in the self-concept, and products may function as different symbols of completion. (Verplanken, Trafimow, Khusid, Holland & Steentjes, 2009).

Actual-self has been identified as the way how individuals see themselves. An ideal-self is defined as how they would like to see themselves and the difference between actual and ideal selves indicates the degree of self-discrepancy (Higgins, 1987). Therefore, this discrepancy is considered as one of the motivators of impulse buying. “Individuals with a particular commitment to buying consumer goods as a self-repair strategy are likely to engage in ideal self-oriented buying behavior when

their self-discrepancies are high.” (Dittmar, 2005, p.836). Dittmar, Beattie and Friese (1995) used the self-completion strategy and explained the reasons why consumers tend to purchase particular goods such as clothes or jewelry more impulsively than other goods such as tools. The goods which are purchased impulsively tend to reflect a consumer’s self-identity, since such goods possess strong symbolic and emotional meanings. Based on the symbolic self-completion theory (Wicklund & Gollwitzer, 1981; Wicklund, Gollwitzer & Hilton, 1982), it is suggested that material possessions are utilized in order to compensate for perceived weaknesses and deficiencies in the self-concept. Thus, perceived discrepancies between actual self and ideal self can be removed via the compensatory function of material objects. It was argued by Dittmar, Beattie and Friese (1995) that these discrepancies have a significant role in impulse purchases since their magnitude is associated with the extent of impulse buying

2.5.2 Affect intensity as a motivator of impulse buying

Earlier in consumer behavior literature, it was assumed that consumers made mostly rational decisions based on utilitarian product attributes and benefits starting with 1980s. Researchers started studying products and brands, and emotions that were evoked by marketing stimuli (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Consumer emotions which are focused on consumers’ emotional responses to advertising (e.g. Derbaix & Vanhamme, 1995), the emotions which are caused by the use of specific products (Holbrook, Chestnut, Oliva & Greenleaf, 1984), the role of emotions on the satisfaction of consumers (e.g., Phillips & Baumgartner, 2002), and the role of emotions on other contexts such as complaining (Stephens & Gwinner, 1998), service failures (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 1999), and product attitudes (Dube, Cervellon

& Jingyuan, 2003) were all involved in studies, in which emotions were identified as an important component of consumer response.

Decision making, which was influenced by consumer's emotional state, was explored by Isen, Means, Patrick and Nowicki (1982), who found out that consumers with high positive emotions are more likely to reduce decision complexity and they spend much less time making decisions. It was suggested by Oxenfeldt (1974) that consumers can have emotions toward certain stores which influence their perceptions and thus their decisions.

One of the most significant aspects of emotional responses is the intensity and magnitude of the experienced emotions, which can differ from one individual to another, despite the fact that emotions are felt and shared by all individuals. There are individual differences in response intensity to a given level of emotion-provoking stimulation, which is referred as the construct of affect intensity (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). The intensity or magnitude of a response can be identified in terms of three major factors as follows: a) the intensity of the stimulus b) factors such as hunger, caffeine, fatigue, adrenaline and so forth, which have an influence on the background excitability of the nervous system, and c) stable individual differences such as arousability (Gray, 1967) or reactivity (Strelau, 1982). Differences in response magnitude to a given stimulus would be attributed to the individual difference factor if the first two factors remained the same. The affect-intensity construct is focused on understanding and explaining how individuals show different responses to the same emotion-provoking stimuli. (Larsen, 1985).

This dimension of individual differences can be defined in terms of two poles, one of which is by individuals who experience their emotions mildly, with only minor fluctuations and the other one is by the ones who are emotionally reactive

and variable since they experience their emotions much more strongly. When individuals who are high on the affect intensity dimension are confronted with the same level of emotional stimulation, they ignore the specific emotion evoked and exhibit stronger emotional responses. (Larsen & Diener, 1987). Individuals who experience their positive emotions strongly also tend to experience their negative emotions strongly. Unlike positive affect intensity, which refers to how strong an individual's positive affect is while experiencing mainly positive emotions on the average, negative affect intensity refers to how strongly a person has negative affect while experiencing mainly negative emotions. (Larsen & Diener, 1987). What is regarded as the construct of affect intensity is that both strong positive and strong negative emotions are regularly experienced over time.

As a conclusion, regardless of the evoked emotion, affect intensity refers to the intensity of response and it generalizes across specific emotion domains (Larsen & Diener, 1987). While dealing with emotional situations, individual differences should be considered, and in this way many situations in buyer behavior, such as impulse buying can be better understood. That's why, affect intensity should contribute to impulse buying behavior. For instance, it was stated by Asugman and Cote (1993) that individuals experiencing strong emotional reactions have a tendency to be influenced by these emotions more than the others experiencing mild emotions. A person tends to place positive or negative value on the product which induces a strong emotional feeling. When compared to an individual who is low in affect intensity, the one who has high affect intensity will experience more emotion from a given product, on which they place a higher hedonic value and therefore they will be more willing to make a purchase. Thus, it was stated by Asugman and Cote (1993)

that affect intensity is strongly and positively connected with reactive buying behavior, as an impulse buying behavior, in which emotions are focused.

Their findings supported by Sojka and Giese (2003) in a study in which individuals with high cognition and high affect were compared. According to the results, there is a connection between price awareness and high cognition and between impulse buying and high affect. While individuals with high cognition (regardless of affect) were likely to compare prices and brands, the individuals with high cognition and high affect have a tendency to evaluate service and sales personnel. On the other hand, individuals with high affect (regardless of cognition) prone to name brands while individuals with low cognition and high affect engage in impulse buying. Additionally, low cognition/high affect individuals were found to prefer visual information, since they may be particularly susceptible to impulse products, which are advertised using pictures, or they might have a tendency for visually attractive point-of-purchase displays. It is also suggested that internet might be used to purchase items by this group of consumers. If the purchase “urge” hits at a time when retail shopping is unavailable (after hours, transportation limitations etc.), these consumers tend to satisfy their need to purchase by clicking on e-commerce sites, the preference of which can be determined by visual components (Sojka & Giese, 2003).

2.5.3 Need for uniqueness as a motivator of impulse buying

An earlier research which had been carried out on commodity theory which is based on the economic principles of supply and demand, stimulated the concept of uniqueness motivation (Fromkin, 1968; Fromkin & Brock, 1971). In commodity theory, unavailable commodities are scarce, and because of their scarcity they are

valuable. Thus, commodity theory is psychological unlike economic theory. ”The scarcity claim” refers to a written statement or a visual icon, which indicates a quantity or time restriction, imposed on a deal’s availability (Lynn, 1989). The scarcity claim suggests that quantity is a determining factor which identifies the number of units available, as in the case of limited edition. Another determining factor is “time”, which can indicate the availability period. For instance; ‘this deal is available for this week only’, thus, the scarcity claim makes a deal more desirable. Value is praised where a scarcer deal has more value in the scarcity principle which suggests that less available temptations tend to be more desirable (Cialdini, 1985).

Fromkin (1968) claims that the possession of scarce commodities is a socially acceptable way which redefines the self as different or unique in society. For example; unique material possession, such as automobiles, household appliances, is a qualification which distinguishes a person from his neighbors, and also contributes to the person’s feelings of uniqueness. It was suggested that consumers have freedom to delay a buying decision but this freedom should be threatened by these strategically scarce conditions, which trigger psychological reactance and create an urgency to buy the product, which precedes impulse buying behaviors. (Gupta, 2013)

Individuals might be willing to desire a sense of uniqueness in several situations, in which their uniqueness motivation can be fulfilled and a positive sense of uniqueness can be possessed. The theory of uniqueness is based on the assumption that despite their conformity, high degrees of similarity are not valued, when compared to the others. (Synder & Fromkin, 1977). As a theory on which the concept of consumers’ need for uniqueness is based, Synder and Fromkin’s theory of uniqueness (1977) suggests that an individual feels it necessary to be different from the others and he/she competes in situations in which they consider themselves as

highly similar to the others, and as a result, they feel their self-perception threatened. Therefore, individuals attempt to conduct self-distinguishing behaviors in order to reclaim their self-esteem. In this regard, they purchase relevant goods and via their visual display the self is differentiated by from the rest. (Tian et al., 2001).

In order to show that they are different and unique, they tend to choose unusual products which might be considered as good choices by their family or friends. In some situations, they might go against norms and put themselves at the risk of social disapproval (Tian et al., 2001). The scarcity claims tend to work better on the individuals who possess scarce products, which is referred as scarcity enhancement of desirability. People with high need for uniqueness desire more of these scarce products which increase their desirability. According to Gwee and Chang (2013) desirability is a factor which determines whether consumers' impulse purchase will be increased or not (Gwee & Chang, 2013). Since consumers value the exclusivity of possessing scarce products, the extent of consumers' need for uniqueness can be used to measure the value which is placed on such exclusivity. People who possess high need for uniqueness and own a rare product are more likely to increase the product utility (Herpen, Pieters & Zeelenberg, 2005).

In addition, when consumer possessions are differentiated, an individual might feel satisfied because these possessions increase the risk for identity to be threatened (Synder & Fromkin, 1977). After being classified outside the norm, products together with their uses and displays might function as remarkable symbols of uniqueness or specialness. If an individual who seeks to be different from the others believes that the product purchased will be recognized and classified in a way that matches and supports his self-concept, the self-concept of that individual will be sustained (Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967). Consumers' need for uniqueness should

reflect both self-image and social image enhancement processes. An individual seeks a unique product which makes him restore his self-view as a person who is different from the others. Self-image enchantment occurs when a symbolic meaning is transferred from the product which is purchased to the self, resulting from an internal personal process. However, the product which is a publicly recognized symbol, determines how the consumer is affected ultimately. Therefore, in order to obtain favorable comments from the others (i.e. a social image as one who is different), a unique product can be used because of its recognized meaning, which also enhances self-image.



CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Research objectives

In this research, a specific type of purchase which is impulse buying is examined. Impulse buying is omnipresent and is a unique aspect of consumer behavior. Despite widespread efforts by researcher to clarify this common but special case of consumer purchase behavior, there is yet no agreed upon clear-cut explanations regarding its explicit associations, explanation and prediction. Thus, considering these points that beg further attention the present study focused on clarifying impulse buying and its correlates which hopefully may enhance our understanding further.

Several definitions have been made by scholars (e.g., Cobb & Hoyer, 1986; Kollat & Willet, 1967; Rook, 1987; Stern, 1962) and one of the comprehensive definitions of impulse buying is proposed by Piron (1991, p. 512) as follows: “Impulse buying is a purchase that is unplanned, the result of an exposure to a stimulus, and decided on-the-spot. After the purchase, the customer experiences emotional and/or cognitive reactions”. The definition itself indicates the important characteristics of impulse purchases and clarifies the nature of impulse buying behavior as being unplanned, involving immediate action and having emotional content. Based on these, the aim of this study is to focus on personality characteristics that have been dealt with only marginally in the previous literature and yet require further attention. Considering the findings of previous studies, this study basically aimed at investigating the correlation of impulse buying with the personality variables of affect intensity, need for uniqueness and self-concept.

Based on this aim, the following questions were explored:

What factors among personality characteristics may influence impulse buying that have not received enough attention so far in the literature?

What kind of a relationship exists between one's self-concept and impulse buying behavior?

What is the degree of correlation between the intensity of one's emotions and one's impulse buying behavior?

Does the need to be unique influence impulsive buying behavior and to what extent?

What is the degree of correlation among one's affect intensity, self-concept and need for uniqueness?

What percent of variation in impulse buying behavior can be explained by one's degree of affect intensity, self-concept and need for uniqueness?

Besides these, several internet and media usage and demographic variables are included in the study.

3.2 Research model

The literature on impulse buying reviewed in the previous sections indicate that several personality factors influence impulse buying. A definite explanatory set of variables however, could not be identified so far in the literature. Therefore, the present study focuses on three of the personality variables that have been suggested in the literature but have not been explored together in the same study. Thus, the present model rests on the limited previous findings on these personality variables and delineates possible relationships to improve our understanding of impulse buying behavior. Figure 12 depicts the proposed model.

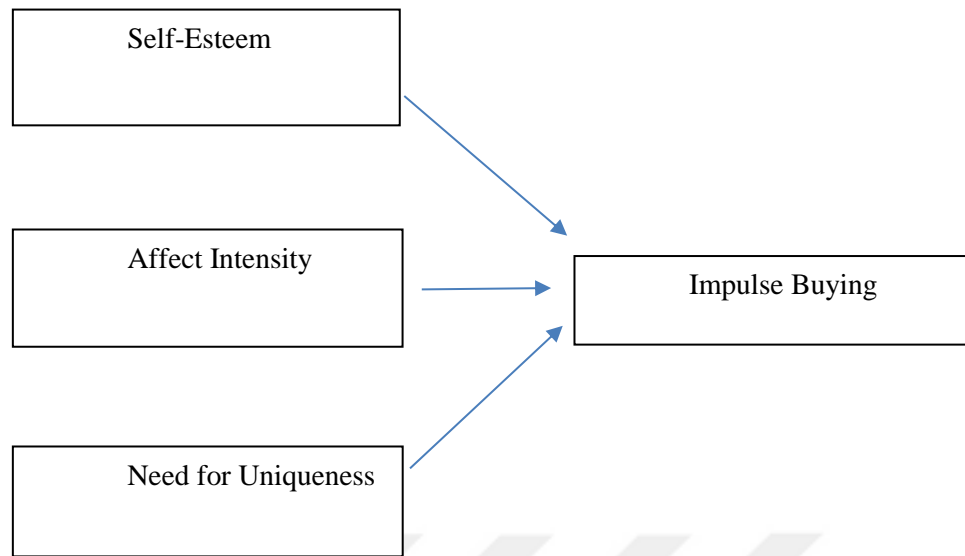


Figure 12. Research model

3.3 Hypothesis development

The hypotheses developed in the research are summarized as follows;

3.3.1 The relationship between self-concept and impulse buying

The way the consumer thinks about himself is reinforced and added by a related symbol, which is considered as appropriate (the product will be used and enjoyed) (Levy, 1959). Enhancing the sense of self is the aim of each consumer who acts in a way that is consistent with his self-definition. Specific symbols which are related to self-descriptions are required in order to express the “self” to the others. It was stated by Wicklund and Gollwitzer (1981) that an individual is required to possess an accessible means of self-symbolizing, such as the possibility of acquiring new symbolic indicators (e.g. status symbols). It is postulated by the self-completion idea

that alternative symbols of the self-definition are sought when important symbols of self-definition are lacked. Actual-self has been identified as the way how individuals see themselves, an ideal-self is defined as how they would like to be, based on the theory of self-discrepancy (Higgins, 1987), which is defined as the difference between actual and ideal selves. If there is a gap between ideal and actual self, the individual needs to close these gaps by symbols or perceptibly, by products. Therefore, this discrepancy is considered as one of the motivators of impulse buying. According to Reynolds (1988), as a measure of self-concept, the self-esteem can be measured. There is a small gap between actual and ideal self of individuals, therefore, their self-discrepancy is low if their self-esteem is high. In contrast, their self-discrepancy is high if their self-esteem is low.

Thus, the following relationship is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1: As the self-esteem decreases (self-discrepancy increases), the impulse buying behavior is likely to increase.

3.3.2 The relationship between affect intensity and impulse buying

Literature has identified stable individual differences in the typical intensity with which individuals experience their emotions (Larsen & Diener, 1985; Diener, Larsen & Emmons, 1986). Given the same level of emotional stimulation, individuals high on the affect intensity dimension will exhibit stronger emotional responses, regardless of the specific emotion evoked (Larsen & Diener, 1987). The one who possesses high affect intensity is much more likely to experience emotions from a given product when compared to the one who does not. Therefore, it is inevitable for them to place a higher value on the product and they are more willing to buy it (Asugman & Cote, 1993). Thus, the following relationship is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2: As the affect intensity increases, the impulse buying behavior is likely to increase.

3.3.3 The relationship between need for uniqueness and impulse buying

Fromkin (1968) claims that the possession of scarce commodities is a socially acceptable way which redefines the self as different or unique in society. For example; unique material possession, such as automobiles, household appliances, is a qualification which distinguishes a person from his neighbors, and also contributes to the person's feelings of uniqueness.

Thus, the following relationship is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 3: As the need for uniqueness increases, the impulse buying behavior is likely to increase.

Additional hypotheses on media and shopping behavior:

With the growing advancement of social networking sites, such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram etc., consumers are provided with the opportunity to interact not only with each other but their role models or celebrities etc. as well. Today, consumers are connected on social media platforms, which enable them to discover, share, recommend, rate products. Online environment has become a subject that attracted to attention of researchers. For example, According to LaRose (2001), integrating multiple media and exposing consumers to rich stimuli will provide increasing opportunities for impulsive purchases. In an online environment, every possible external stimulus including media formats such as texts, images or videos can promote online impulse purchasing (Adelaar, 2003). According to Verhagen and van Dolen (2011), sociable virtual experience has a substantial effect in impulse buying and quality of websites exhibits an environmental prompt which directly

affects the likelihood of buying impulsively. In an online platform, the overall virtual experience is stimuli and impulse buying is response to the stimuli offered by an online environment (Ning Shen & Khalifa, 2012) based on the SOR framework (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Between the stimuli and response, there is organism which refers to internal processes to reach the response and which could be either pleasure or arousal to buy impulsively as a response. Nigh Shen and Khalifa (2012) state that ‘‘the sense of social presence with a web site has a positive effect on both pleasure and arousal’’ (p. 404). Besides, consumers who spend more time on the internet and social media are more exposed to online stimuli.

Thus, the following relationships are hypothesized:

Hypothesis 4: The higher the time spent on the internet, the higher is the impulse buying.

Hypothesis 5: The higher the time spent on social media, the higher is the impulse buying.

Hypothesis 6: The more the number of social media channels used, the higher is the impulse buying.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Type of research and preliminary study

This study is descriptive as it is concerned with describing the behavior of consumers and the relationships between certain variables. A survey is used which includes the variables of the study and their measures. Before preparing the survey in detail and collecting data, a pre-survey study was conducted with a group of 20 university students. People participating the survey have been asked to complete the questionnaire containing scales for impulse buying, self-esteem, affect intensity, need for uniqueness and other questions about internet and social media usage habits. In this way, the clarity of the expressions was checked and revised if necessary. After revising some necessary parts, the final draft of the survey was ready to be used.

4.2 Measurement instrument and questionnaire design

A thorough literature search and review has been completed before preparing the measurement tool for this study. Specifically, measures utilized in the literature for impulse buying, affect intensity, self-concept and need for uniqueness have been investigated and reviewed for their suitability for the present research. The adoption of well-established scales will enable the researcher to explain the findings within the conceptual and descriptive literature in this stream of research.

In order to measure impulse buying behavior, participants answered to the nine-item impulse buying scale (see Appendix A) of Rook and Fisher (1995).

Regarding the reliability of the scale, alphas of .88 and .82 were reported by Rook and Fisher in two studies with different samples. Five Likert-type statements developed by authors were used (5 = strongly agree; 1 = strongly disagree).

According to Reynolds (1988), as a measure of general self-concept, the Rosenberg (1965) Self-Esteem Scale can be used. Based on this statement, a three-item self-esteem scale (see Appendix B) proposed and tested by Boush, Friestad and Rose (1994) was used to measure the self-concepts of respondents in this study. The scale is five-point likert type (5 = strongly agree, 1 = strongly disagree) with an alpha of .73.

Affect intensity is usually measured by means of the 40-item Affect Intensity Measure (Larsen & Diener, 1987). This measure possesses adequate reliability and validity and is highly correlated with a measurement of daily mood reports (Larsen & Diener, 1987). In this study, for measurement of affect intensity of the respondents, a short affect intensity scale (see Appendix C) developed by Geuens and Pelsmacker (2002) was utilized. The scale has three dimensions which are positive emotions, negative emotions and reversed positive emotions. The short affect intensity scale seems to possess adequate validity and reliability (Cronbach's alpha for the short affect intensity scale, exceeding .80). Five Likert-type statements were used (5 = always; 1 = never).

Tian et al. (2001) conceptualized consumer need for uniqueness as a three-dimensional consumption tendency (creative choice, unpopular choice and avoidance of similarity) through which individuals express their need for uniqueness, operationalized with a 31-itemscale with an alpha of .95. Ruvio, Shoham and Makovec Brenčič (2008) have further refined the 31-item scale of Tian et al. (2001)

and have come up with a 12-item short form of it. For the present study, this short form of the need for uniqueness scale has been utilized. (The scale is five-point likert type; 5 = strongly agree, 1 = strongly disagree).

The questions in the rest of the survey are mostly open-ended questions regarding consumers' shopping behavior or demographics (see Appendix E). The scale items were translated from English to Turkish and the translations were checked in order to ensure whether there is consistency or not, via back-translation from Turkish to English by a bilingual. In addition, there existed the impulse buying scale (Rook and Fisher, 1995) in Turkish which has utilized by other researchers. It was checked through this scale, as well.

4.3 Sampling plan and data collection

Convenience and snowball sampling are utilized as the sampling method. The key feature of convenience sampling is being the least expensive and least time-consuming technique. To investigate the relationships proposed in this research a student population seemed appropriate based on the practices of the previous literature (Coley & Burgess, 2003; Dittmar et al.,1995; Gwee & Chang, 2013; Larsen & Diener, 1987). However, considering the concerns of using student samples an adult sample has also been targeted.

The initial set of undergraduate students, grade 3 and 4, and graduate students were reached. These respondents were requested to identify others of the same class standing and forward the questionnaire to these students. Further, they are also requested to forward the questionnaire to adults they can reach. The researcher has also made an initial distribution to an adult group via online medium.

The sampling is composed of college students attending to Boğaziçi University, İstanbul University and Marmara University. The reason why İstanbul is included in the population is that İstanbul has a powerful capacity of representing the general population structure of Turkey. These universities have large campuses which are located at Anatolia and European side. The size of the final student sample is 173.

The core group of adults reached were also requested to forward the questionnaire to other adults. Thus, the sample snowballed by getting larger as participants identified other possible respondents. The final adult sample reached was a group of 237 people.

The questionnaires were delivered online to the respondents during a 5-week period in the spring of 2019. In total, the survey was applied to 417 people which is considered to be an acceptable sample size for the required analyses. After cleaning the data which contained missing parts, 410 surveys have remained for the analyses.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSES AND FINDINGS

The main results of the analysis will be outlined in this chapter and structured in three components. Firstly, the descriptive statistics of the sample will be explained. Secondly, results of the reliability analyses will be explained. Later, for the dimensionality of the scales of impulse buying behavior, self-esteem (self-concept), affect intensity, and need for uniqueness, the results of the factor analyses will be explained. In order to show the correlation between the parameters, correlation analyses will be presented. Thirdly, in order to investigate the relationship between the constructs in the hypothesized model, results of the regression analysis will be presented. Finally, for the media usage and demographic variables, t-test and one-way Anova analyses will be explained.

Data was analyzed using SPSS 22.0. statistics program.

5.1 Descriptive analysis of the sample

The questionnaire was conducted to an appropriate sample of 417 respondents contacted, after determining the precise data, the final usable sample was collected from 410 persons of different demographics.

The results of the descriptive analysis of samples are presented (see Table 1). 42.1 percent of the respondents are student and the rest 57.9 percent is the non-student adult group. 36.6 percent of the respondents are from 18-24 years old, which represents the most crowded age group of the sample. This group is followed by the 45-54 years old and 25-34 years old with 22.4 and 17.8 percent respectively. Female

respondents are 59.3 percent and males are 40.7 percent reflecting not an excessive remote distribution to the Turkish population according to Turkish Statistical Institute's 2018 data as 50 percent women and 50 percent men. Moreover, 33.7 percent of samples are not working, 66.3 percent are part-time and full-time working. 9.9 percent of the students meet their requirements themselves whereas the crucial requirements of the 31.4 of the students are met by their parents or someone else. The education levels, the marital status of the adults and the information related to whether they have a child or not are all presented in the Table 1.

Table 1. The Descriptive Analysis of the Sample

		Frequency	Percent			Frequency	Percent
Age (N = 410)	18-24	150	36.6	Education (N = 237)	High school	14	6.0
	25-34	73	17.8		University	155	65.4
	35-44	58	14.1		Master's degree	68	28.6
	45-54	92	22.4	Marital Status (N = 237)	Married	182	76.8
	≥ 55	37	9.0		Single	55	23.2
Gender (N = 410)	Female	243	59.3	Child (N = 237)	At least one child	74	31.2
	Male	167	40.7		No child	163	68.8
Sample group (N = 410)	Student	173	42.1	Cost of Living (N = 173)	1 (by oneself)	18	9.9
	Adult	237	57.9		2	9	5.2
Grade (N = 173)	Grade 3	65	37.7		3	19	11.0
	Grade 4	52	30.0		4	32	18.6
	Graduate	56	32.3		5	26	15.1
Employment (N = 410)	Not working	138	33.7		6	15	8.7
	Part-time	59	14.4		7 (by one's family)	54	31.4
	Full-time	213	51.9				

5.2 Exploratory factor and reliability analyses

Extraction of underlying structure among variables (such as dimensionality and unidimensionality) is the key objective for exploratory factor analysis. All the items that form a scale load up on a single construct are indicated by unidimensionality (i.e. which is used to describe a specific type of measurement scale.) However, dimensionality also indicates a construct that is defined by numerous dimensions (factors). Principal component analysis is used in this study. Additionally, Kaiser Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and the significance level of Bartlett's test of sphericity are used to check the appropriateness of data for EFA. A significant Bartlett's test and a high KMO value are desired in order to justify or give reason for the use of EFA (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). Besides, rotation in EFA causes factor loading to be more distinctly differentiated, which is frequently necessary to facilitate interpretation. Varimax-rotation is used in this study. All dimension underlying the impulse purchasing behavior, affect intensity, self-esteem and need for uniqueness are uncovered by factor analysis in order to understand dimensionality structure and to evaluate the factor loadings.

Reliability of a multiple item scale is computed and quantified by Cronbach's alpha which identifies the scope to which scales produce stable results on different trials for various samples (i.e. the degree of consistency of a measure). An internal study estimate in which each item in a scale is correlated with all the other items and with the summated scale score is called Cronbach's alpha. As a result, average correlations among items are used to produce a reliability coefficient (Hair et al., 2010). The common rule of thumb states that in order to indicate a high internal stability the minimum value for Cronbach's alpha should be .70 (Churchill, 1979).

5.2.1 Analyses of impulse buying behavior scale

The dimensionality of the 9-item impulse buying scale proposed by Rook and Fisher (1985) has been established in the literature as a unidimensional measure loading in one factor. To check the present data structure, an exploratory factor analysis has been performed. First and foremost, Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests that shows the appropriateness of a sample data for factor analysis are conducted and gave appropriate results ($KMO = 0.944$, $Bartlett = .000$) that can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Impulse Buying Behavior

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.944
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2838.090
	df	36
	Sig.	.000

The values higher than Eigenvalue statistics 1 were determined to be meaningful.

There is only one factor which is higher than 1 in Eigenvalue statistics. The first factor explains the 66.16 percent of the total variance of impulse buying. Therefore, results of the factor analysis produced a single factor structure in compliance with previous research findings.

According to the reliability analysis results Cronbach's alpha score is found to be 0.935 which show high level of reliability (Churchill, 1979). The same procedures are repeated for the scales of self-esteem, affect intensity and need for uniqueness scales.

5.2.2 Analyses of self-esteem scale

The exploratory factor analysis is conducted to test the dimensionality of self-esteem scale (Boush et al.,1994) consisting of 3 items. Firstly, Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests showing the appropriateness of the sample data for factor analysis were done and produced appropriate results ($KMO = 0.706$, $Bartlett = .000$), as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Self-Esteem

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.706
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	506.095
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

There is only one factor whose Eigenvalue is higher than 1 which compliance with the previous findings. The first factor explains 75.64 percent of the total variance of self-esteem. Therefore, the factor analysis produced a single factor structure.

Results of reliability analysis shows Cronbach's alpha score of 0.836 which is highly acceptable (Churchill, 1979).

5.2.3 Analyses of affect intensity scale

The dimensionality of the 20-item short affect intensity scale proposed by Geuens and Pelsmacker (2002) has been established in the literature as a dimensional measure loading in three factors (namely positive emotions, negative emotions and reversed positive emotions). To check the present data structure, an exploratory factor analysis has been performed. Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests show the appropriateness of the sample data for factor analysis were done and

produced appropriate results ($KMO = 0.900$, $Bartlett = .000$) which can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Affect Intensity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.900
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	4746.882
	df
	190
	Sig.
	.000

It is observed that there are 3 factors higher than 1 in Eigenvalue statistics. The first factor explains the 24.87 percent of the total variance, the second factor explains the 20.99 of the total variance. The third factor explains the 17.24 of the total variance. Therefore, results of the factor analysis produced a three-factor structure in compliance with previous research findings and these three factors in total explain the 63.1 percent of the total variance of affect intensity. The questions numbered as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 in the scale are in the first factor (positive emotions), the questions 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20 are involved in the second factor (negative emotions), and the questions 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 are in the third factor (reversed positive emotions) in compliance with previous research results. There is only one score below 0.5 in anti-image correlation matrix, but its factor loading is 0.443 which is not significantly lower than 0.5.

For this scale a Cronbach's alpha score of 0.882 is detected which indicates reliability (Churchill, 1979).

5.2.4 Analyses of need for uniqueness scale

The dimensionality of the 12-item short need for uniqueness scale proposed by Ruvio et al. (2008) has been established in the literature as a dimensional measure loading in three factors (namely avoidance of similarity, unpopular choice and creative choice). Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests show the appropriateness of the sample data for factor analysis were done and produced appropriate results ($KMO = 0.905$, $Bartlett = .000$), which can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Need for Uniqueness

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.905	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3321.093
	df	66
	Sig.	.000

There are 3 factors higher than 1 in Eigenvalue statistics. The first factor explains the 27.45 percent of the total variance, the second factor explains the 24.30 of the total variance. The third factor explains the 23.46 of the total variance. Therefore, the factor analysis produced a three-factor structure and these three factors in total explain the 75.2 percent of the total variance of consumer need for uniqueness.

The questions in the scale 9, 10, 11, 12 are involved in the first factor (avoidance of similarity), the questions 5, 6, 7, 8 are involved in the second factor (unpopular choice) and the questions 1, 2, 3, 4 are involved in the third factor (creative choice) in compliance with previous research findings.

According to the reliability analysis results Cronbach's alpha score is found to be 0.916 which show high level of reliability (Churchill, 1979).

5.3 Data screening and assumptions of regression

A. It is recommended that data should be set free from missing values because missing data might affect author-based results (Hair et al., 2010). This method includes a process such as removing missing value response. Moreover, Spss was built in order not to allow to proceed analysis with a missing data in any of the items. Thus, for such missing values, data is checked. As a result, seven responses were noticed as having missing values in major constructs in the analysis. Instead of inserting data for those values, those responses were detached from the analysis. The remaining data gives no concern for further data analysis.

B. Outliers are observations differing from all other members of a particular group or sets (i.e. an observation with peculiar different from other observations). An uncommonly increase or decrease value on a variable might point out a potential outlier which might then affect the exactness of data analysis. Due to data entry errors, extraordinary events, extraordinary observations, and unique combination of values which is not visible in any of the variables outliers may be detected (Hair et al., 2010).

Residuals statistics table was checked in order to understand whether there will be an unexpected effect of a possible extraordinary respondent on the model. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2003), the participants that have the cook's distance value higher than 1 might cause trouble for the model. In this study, the maximum value of Cook's distance was determined to be 0.067. There are no extraordinary events and no extraordinary observations in the data and the data is taken for further analyses.

C. In order to control linearity, normal probability plot (p-p) of the regression standardized residual and scatter plot was examined. The plots are straight diagonal lines. No deviation from normality was observed. When scatterplot is examined, it

was noticed that most of the points were focused in the center.

D. High correlation among independent variables reveal a potential multicollinearity difficulty which shows the effects of the variables cannot be separated on the dependent variable. Nevertheless, among each other, the independent variables should not be correlated but with the dependent variables. When the correlations among the independent variables are considered, it was noticed that the highest correlations were determined to be around 0.5, which is lower than 0.7. Therefore, putting these variables into regression at the same time does not create a big problem.

Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) can also be used as the statistical measures of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity can be assessed by examining Tolerance and the Variance Inflation Factor. The amount of variability of the independent variables that are not explained by other independent variables are reflected by Tolerance, and VIF (which measures the impact of collinearity among the variables in a regression model) is the inverse of Tolerance. All of the values for tolerance were detected to be over 5 and all the values for VIF were noticed to be under 10 (Hair et al., 2010).

5.4 Main findings of the study

5.4.1 Correlation analysis

In order to analyze and compare the direct relationship of each hypothesis construct-to-construct correlations were examined and results are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Correlations Among Constructs

	IB	SE	AI	NFU
IB	1			
SE	-.805**	1		
AI	.658**	-.545**	1	
NFU	.604**	-.533**	.589**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). IB:Impulse Buying, SE:Self-Esteem, AI:Affect Intensity, NFU:Consumer Need for Uniqueness

The relationship between impulse buying and independent variables was tested using Pearson correlation method. According to the analysis carried out, there is a meaningful relationship between impulse buying and all variables ($p < 0.01$). Results show that there is a significant negative correlation between impulse buying and self-esteem. ($r = -.805$). There is a significant positive correlation between impulse buying and affect intensity, need for uniqueness ($r = .658$, $r = .604$ respectively), as proposed in the research model.

Besides, there is a significant negative correlation between self-esteem and affect intensity, need for uniqueness ($r = -.545$, $r = -.533$ respectively) and there is a significant positive correlation between affect intensity and need for uniqueness ($r = .589$).

5.4.2 Regression analysis

Multiple linear regression was employed in order to investigate the research model. Impulse buying is the dependent variable, factors that are expected to predict impulse buying behavior are the independent factor set composed of self-esteem, affect intensity and consumer need for uniqueness.

F and p (sigma) scores are evaluated from Anova table (see Table 8) and it is validated for multiple regression analysis ($F(3,406) = 361.403$ and $p = .000$). *R* square shows that how much of the variance in dependent variable (IB) was explained by the model (SE, AI and NFU). According to the results of the analysis, it was found out that affect intensity, self-esteem and need for uniqueness explain the 72.8 percent of the total change in impulse buying behavior (see Table 7).

Table 7. Model Summary of Regression Analysis

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square
.853 ^a	.728	.726

Table 8. ANOVA Results of Regression Analysis

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	25093.343	3	8364.448	361.403	.000 ^b
Residual	9396.618	406	23.144		
Total	34489.961	409			

In order to understand the significant contributions of independent variables on the dependent variable, coefficients table was examined which is shown in Table 9. All independent variables proposed in the research model are significant according to their *p* values.

Table 9. Coefficients of Regression Analysis

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	25.970	2.367		10.974	.000
SE	-1.888	.104	-.593	-18.226	.000
AI	.195	.026	.252	7.406	.000
NFU	.126	.031	.140	4.135	.000

Regression equation is written according to the unstandardized *B* values of Coefficients Table.

$$IB = 25.970 + (-1.888*SE) + (0.195*AI) + (0.126*NFU)$$

According to this equation, if self-esteem increases by one-point, impulse buying would decrease by 1.888 points and if affects intensity increases by one point, impulse buying would increase by 0.195 points. Lastly, if need for uniqueness increases by one point, impulse buying would increase by 0.126 points.

According to the results, self-esteem is the best describing factor and it explains 59.3 percent of the total variance in impulse buying. Affect intensity is the second best factor explaining the 25.2 percent of the total variance in impulse buying. Additionally, need for uniqueness explains 14 percent of the total variance in the independent variable.

It can be concluded that an increase in self-esteem will cause a decrease in impulse buying score while increases in affect intensity and need for uniqueness will contribute positively to impulse buying. Therefore, all of the hypotheses of the proposed model (H1, H2 and H3) are supported and the model is valid.

In order to compare the scores of impulse buying behavior between the student sample and the adult sample, independent samples t-test was conducted.

According to results, a remarkable difference was noticed in the mean scores of impulse buying of adults ($M1 = 21.31$) and students ($M2 = 30.02$); ($t(408) = -10.73, p = .000$). Therefore, it was considered appropriate to do separate regression analyses for these two groups.

For the adult sample, the obtained regression results are significant both for the model and for each of the predicting variables. Specifically, predictor variables produce an R square of .596 with a significant F value of 114.390 (see Table 10, 11). Table 12 depicts results for independent values and related statistics. Accordingly, all independent variables are significant and they each contribute to adults' impulse buying behavior significantly. Regression equation is written according to the unstandardized B values of Coefficients Table.

$$IB = 27.717 + (-1.772*SE) + (0.158*AI) + (0.092*NFU)$$

According to this equation, if self-esteem increases by one point, impulse buying would decrease by 1.772 points and if affects intensity increases by one point, impulse buying would increase by 0.158 points. Lastly, if need for uniqueness increases by one point, impulse buying would increase by 0.092 points.

Table 10. Model Summary of Regression Analysis of Adult Sample

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square
.772 ^b	.596	.590

Table 11. ANOVA Results of Regression Analysis of Adult Sample

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	8080.509	3	2693.503	114.390	.000 ^c
Residual	5486.386	233	23.547		
Total	13566.895	236			

Table 12. Coefficients of Regression Analysis of Adult Sample

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 (Constant)	27.717	3.056		9.070	.000	21.697	33.738
S.E.SUM	-1.772	.131	-.621	-13.505	.000	-2.031	-1.513
A.I.SUM	.158	.035	.209	4.447	.000	.088	.228
NFU.SUM	.092	.041	.105	2.256	.025	.012	.172

For the student sample, the obtained regression results are significant both for the model and for each of the predicting variables. Specifically, predictor variables produce an *R* square of .725 with a significant *F* value of 148.385 (see Table 13, 14). Table 15 depicts results for independent values and related statistics. Accordingly, all independent variables are significant and they each contribute to students' impulse buying behavior significantly. Regression equation is as;

$$IB = 26.709 + (-1.96*SE) + (0.2*AI) + (0.128*NFU)$$

According to this equation, if self-esteem increases by one point, impulse buying would decrease by 1.96 points and if affects intensity increases by one point, impulse buying would increase by 0.2 points. Lastly, if need for uniqueness increases by one point, impulse buying would increase by 0.128 points.

Table 13. Model Summary of Regression Analysis of Student Sample

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square
.851 ^b	.725	.720

Table 14. ANOVA Results of Regression Analysis of Student Sample

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	9658.185	3	3219.395	148.385	.000 ^c
Residual	3666.671	169	21.696		
Total	13324.855	172			

Table 15. Coefficients of Regression Analysis of Student Sample

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	26.709	3.832		6.970	.000
S.E.SUM	-1.960	.173	-.581	-11.341	.000
A.I.SUM	.200	.042	.256	4.816	.000
NFU.SUM	.128	.048	.146	2.693	.008

As these results indicate, although there are slight differences between each of the sample results and the total sample result regarding the regression model proposed for this study, all of them are equally significant. Further, the findings regarding the behavior of independent variables on the dependent variable of the regression analyses are quite similar. Therefore, the total sample results regarding the model can be evaluated and interpreted for the conclusions of the study.

5.5 Findings on shopping behavior and media usage

Respondents are found to spend on average 3.5 hours on the internet and 1.9 hours on social media daily. The mean value of respondents' online purchases against their total purchases is 31.68 percent and the average number of total social media channels they use is 1.89. The most commonly used social media sites were identified to be Instagram, Facebook, Twitter and Youtube. The 66.6 percent of the

respondents are using Instagram, and 42 percent, 27.8 percent and 17.1 percent of the sample use the other ones respectively. Based on these findings further analyses are conducted to explore possible relationships.

1. In order to see whether impulse buying behavior has a relationship with the internet and social media use, the hours spent daily on the internet and the impulse buying scores are investigated. Also, hours spent daily on the social media and impulse buying behavior degree is explored. Pearson correlation results indicate that there exists no significant correlation between time spent daily on the internet and impulse buying (see Table 16). Therefore, H4 is rejected. However, there is a significant, positive correlation between the time spent daily on the social media and impulse buying. ($r = .131, p < .01$). The higher the time spent on social media, the higher is the impulse buying. Therefore, H5 is supported.

Table 16. Pearson Correlation, Impulse Buying – The Time Spent Daily on Social Media and Internet

	IB	internet	socialmedia
IB	1		
internet	.091	1	
socialmedia	.131**	.659**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

2. In order to understand whether there is a relationship between the total number of social media channels used and impulse buying, another Pearson correlation is performed (see Table 17). According to results, there is a significant positive correlation between the number of social media channels used by respondents and their impulse buying behavior ($r = .226, p < .01$). The more the

number of social media channels used, the higher is the impulse buying. Therefore, H6 is supported.

Table 17. Pearson Correlation, Impulse Buying – The Number of Social Media Channels Used

	I.B.SUM	mediaSUM
I.B.SUM	1	
mediaSUM	.226**	1

3. The respondents were asked (in ratio) how much of their total shopping is done online. In order to see whether there is a relationship between the rates of their online shopping and impulse buying, a Pearson correlation analysis is conducted (see Table 18).

Table 18. Pearson Correlation, Impulse Buying – Online Shopping Rates

	I.B.SUM	onlineshop(%)
I.B.SUM	1	
onlineshop (%)	.276**	1

Results show that there is a significant positive correlation between the online shopping rates of the respondents and impulse buying ($r = .276, p < .01$).

4. The respondents were asked what items they have purchased impulsively in the last two months. The responses were classified under the titles as follows: clothing, accessories, shoes, sportswear/equipment, body care/cosmetics, electronics, food, kitchen appliances, home decoration, books/magazines and others. According to the data obtained, the first 4 groups of items mentioned can be listed in order as: clothing (70.5 percent of the respondents buy clothing impulsively), shoes (37.6 percent), food (30.7 percent), accessories (25.9 percent).

5.6 Findings on demographics

1. In order to compare the scores of impulse buying behavior between the men and the women, independent samples t-test was conducted. According to the results, no significant difference is detected between the impulse buying scores of women ($M_1 = 25.34$) and men ($M_2 = 24.47$). ($t(408) = 0.93, p = 0.35$).

2. One-way Anova test was conducted in order to understand whether impulse buying behaviors change depending on the age groups. The sample consisted of 5 age groups as the survey question categories regarding age indicated (1:18-24, 2:25-34, 3:35-44, 4:45-54 and 5: ≥ 55 respectively). For the groups, a remarkable difference was noticed in the scores of impulse buying at the level of $p < 0.5$ ($F(4,405) = 22.21, p = .00$). The means of the age groups indicate that as age increases, the mean score for impulse buying decreases ($M_1 = 29.71, M_2 = 25.08, M_3 = 22.15, M_4 = 21.15, M_5 = 19.67$). In other words, the higher the age category gets, the lower impulse buying scores get.

Post-hoc comparisons in which Tukey test is used pointed out that there is a significant difference between the mean scores obtained for group 1 (18-24) and for all the other groups. The other groups which differ statistically in a remarkable way are as follows: Group 2-4 and Group 2-5.

3. For the adult sample, independent samples t-test was conducted in order to understand whether impulse buying behavior differs depending on marital status. According to the results of the test conducted, there is no significant difference between the scores of those who are married ($M_1 = 21.02$) and the scores of those who are not ($M_2 = 22.27$). ($t(235) = -1.07, p = 0.28$).

4. For the adult sample, independent samples t-test was conducted in order to see whether impulse buying behavior differs depending on the state whether they

have children or not. According to the results of the test conducted, no significant difference was observed between the scores of those who have a child ($M_1 = 20.93$) and the scores of those who do not have a child ($M_2 = 22.14$). ($t(235) = -1.14, p = 0.25$).

5. One-way Anova analysis was conducted in order to understand whether impulse buying behavior differs depending on whether respondents work or not. The sample consisted of 3 groups as the survey question categories regarding the state of work indicated (I'm unemployed, I work part-time and I work full-time). For the three groups, a significant difference in the scores of impulse buying was noticed ($F(2,407) = 38.68, p = .00$). According to mean scores, those who are part-time employed (group 2) are the most impulsive respondents ($M_1 = 27.98, M_2 = 30.42, M_3 = 21.54$). In Post-hoc comparisons; for group 1 and 3, it was pointed out that there is a significant difference between the mean scores obtained. And for groups 2 and 3, there is a significant difference between the mean scores obtained. In other words, those who do not work and those work full-time differ from each other and those who work part-time and those who work full-time differ from each other in impulse buying behavior. However, the ones who are unemployed and the ones who work part-time do not differ from each other significantly.

6. The student sample categorized into 7 groups in order to understand whether impulse buying behavior differs depending on whether students can afford their expenses by themselves or not (from 1 to 7. Group 1 = I can meet my expenses myself and group 7 = My expenses are met by my family or somebody else). No significant difference was noticed in the scores of impulse buying for the 7 groups ($F(6,166) = 2.13, p = 0.052$).

7. Students were divided into 3 groups in order to see whether impulse buying behavior differs depending on their grades. (3rd grade: $M_1 = 28.98$, 4th grade: $M_2 = 30.12$ and graduate: $M_3 = 31.46$). For these 3 groups, no significant difference was noticed in the scores of impulse buying at the level $p < 0.5$ ($F(2,170) = 1.178$, $p = 0.31$).

8. The adult sample consisted of 3 groups as the survey question categories regarding the state of education (high school: $M_1 = 23.93$, university: $M_2 = 21.17$ and graduate: $M_3 = 21.09$). For the 3 groups, no significant difference was noticed in the scores of impulse buying ($F(2,237) = 0.89$, $p = 0.41$).

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Overview of the hypotheses and findings

The main objective of this research was to investigate the concept of impulse buying and to further clarify it regarding its predictors. For this purpose, a thorough literature review has been completed and certain personality variables have been identified as possible influencers. Specifically, affect intensity, self-esteem and the need for uniqueness characteristics looked promising for further study according to the previous findings of different studies.

Overall, findings of the present study support the proposed research model in that self-esteem, affect intensity, and the need for uniqueness levels of people explain a significant degree of variation in the dependent variable of impulse buying behavior.

Based on the symbolic self-completion theory (Wicklund and Gollwitzer, 1981; Wicklund et al., 1982), it is suggested that material possessions are utilized in order to compensate for perceived weaknesses and deficiencies in their self-concept. Thus, perceived discrepancies between actual self and ideal self can be removed via the compensatory function of material objects. It was argued by Dittmar, Beattie and Friese (1995) that these discrepancies have a significant role in impulse purchases since their magnitude is associated with the extent of impulse buying. On the other hand, if the discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal self is not high, then the self-esteem of the person is strong.

According to the findings obtained from the analysis, it was observed that there is a statistically significant and strong negative correlation between impulse buying and self-esteem. Thus, the higher is the self-esteem of a person the less is his/her inclination to impulsive purchasing. As the level of self-esteem decreases (which indicates the presence of self-discrepancy between actual and ideal self) their impulse buying behaviors increase. Therefore, present findings provide support to the symbolic self-completion theory and indicate that self-esteem is a strong predictor of the level of impulsive buying of a person.

Affect intensity refers to the typical strength of affective states, the intensity of response and it generalizes across specific emotion domains (Larsen and Diener, 1987). Based on this, it was stated by Asugman and Cote (1993) that individuals who have high affect intensity will experience more emotion from a given product on which they place a higher hedonic value and therefore be more likely to make impulse purchases. According to the findings of the present study, there is a statistically significant positive correlation between affect intensity and impulse buying. In other words, people are high in affect intensity, are also high in impulse buying behavior. When the previous literature is considered, this finding is in line with what is suggested in earlier studies.

The theory of uniqueness is based on the assumption that high degrees of similarity among people are not valued. (Synder & Fromkin, 1977). Individuals have a desire to be unique and different. People with high need for uniqueness attempt to compensate for their perceived deficiency by doing a number of things one of which is desiring to acquire things that are scarce. Desirability is a factor which determines whether consumers' impulse purchase will be increased or not (Gwee & Chang, 2013). According to the findings of analyses conducted, it was noticed that there is a

statistically significant and positive correlation between impulse buying and need for uniqueness. In other words, people high in need for uniqueness, are also high in impulse buying behavior.

Besides these findings, results of correlation analysis show that there is a negative correlation between self-esteem and affect intensity, and self-esteem and need for uniqueness and there is a positive correlation between affect intensity and need for uniqueness. These findings indicate that the constructs revealed relationships that are in line with their nomological net.

In order to delineate the possible effects of recent developments in media and shopping habits (i.e internet and social media, online shopping) on impulse buying, several other issues are explored in the present study survey.

In this regard, the respondents were asked questions related to their time spent on the internet and on social media. A significant, positive correlation is found between the time spent in the social media and impulse buying. In contrast, there exists no significant correlation between the time spent on the internet and impulse buying.

Further, a significant positive correlation is detected between the number of social media channels used by the respondents and impulse buying. Thus, as recent studies suggested, social media usage may figure out as an influential factor on impulse buying.

There is also a positive correlation between the online shopping rate of respondents and impulse buying behavior. These findings indicate that, by their inherent characteristics, using social media channels enhance impulse buying behavior. This is an important finding as it has implications both for academicians and marketers. Inspecting which characteristics of social media are related to impulse

buying tendency is a future research topic. Based on these characteristics, marketers may emphasize those attributes in their social media sites. In this respect, the attributes of online shopping that relate with impulse buying also deserves further attention in future research. Although there are findings in recent literature regarding these issues (Adelaar, 2003; LaRose, 2001; Ning Shen & Khalifa, 2012; Verhagen & van Dolen, 2011), they are far from being conclusive.

The socio-demographic status of a consumer is a moderator which functions both as a determinant of the consumer's response to the environment and also as a determinant of the possibility of an impulse purchase. Gender (Dittmar et al., 1995) and age (Bellenger et al., 1978) have been proposed as identifying factors of impulsiveness in previous studies. As a result of the data analysis, no significant difference was detected between the scores of the women and those of the men. On the other hand, for the age groups, a remarkable difference is noticed in the scores of impulse buying. As indicated by the group means, as the age of respondents increase, their impulse buying scores decrease. Consistent with the literature (Bellenger et al., 1978; Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001; Wood, 1998), people tend to become less impulsive in their purchasing habits as they get older according to the present results.

For the adult sample, it was examined whether impulse buying behavior differs depending on marital status and the state of having children or not. According to the results, no significant difference was observed. In the same way, no significant difference was observed depending on the state of education. Additionally, for the student sample, it was examined that whether impulse buying behavior differs depending on the grade and depending on whether they self-support

their expenses or not. No significant difference was observed regarding these variables either

6.2 Conclusion

This study comprising a systematic review of the research has been conducted about impulse buying behavior of consumers. There are several external, internal and situational antecedents influencing impulse buying behavior, which have been studied and discovered up to now. This study aimed at examining the effects of three personality factors among these with respect to their relationships to impulse buying behavior. The present study focuses on the personality variables that have been suggested in the literature or explored in different studies but have not been explored together in the same study regarding their effects on impulse buying. Thus, the main goal of this research is to explore and establish a framework for impulse buying behavior based on the self-concept, affect intensity and need for uniqueness. Findings clarify how consumer impulse buying behavior is influenced and how it differs depending on consumers' affect intensity, self-concept and need for uniqueness. Specifically, the proposed research model is significant and the independent variables explain a considerable percent of variation in impulse buying. Results are in line with the expected behavior of study constructs and form a sound basis of how future research regarding impulse buying may be enhanced. Based on the present results, people whose self-esteem are lower tend to be higher impulsive purchasers and their affect intensity and need for uniqueness are also high. These results may indicate that products may suggest things and act as more attractive stimuli to these people in reminding them of their ideal selves and enhance their

possessing behavior. Thus, how exactly the process occurs remain to be seen in future work.

Moreover, according to the literature, internet shoppers tend to be more impulsive compared to traditional shoppers (Donthu & Garcia 1999). Based on the use of the internet and social media channels used, the level of impulse buying behavior seems to vary in this study as well. Future research is needed in this respect as well in order to clarify whether social media usage is a cause of impulse buying or whether it is an outcome of having an impulsive buying tendency.

Additionally, several demographic variables were included in this research and inspected with respect to their implications.

CHAPTER 7

LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Overall, as in each study this study has also its limitations. For one thing it is a cross sectional design like many other previous examples on the topic. However, it could be better if a longitudinal design could be employed in order to detect consumers' attitude, pre-impulse purchase states and the phase of impulse buying. Also, studies that could focus on specific product categories such as clothing items or electronics would give a more comprehensive view. Different categories could be analyzed and compared based on impulse buying, self-concept, affect intensity and need for uniqueness. Thus, it would give a chance to investigate how these parameters change when product types change.

Another limitation concerns the type of sampling employed in this study. As other examples exist in the literature, this study also utilized non-parametric sampling procedure due to cost constraints.

In this study, the relationship of impulse buying with personality characteristics of self-concept, affect intensity and need for uniqueness have been examined. However, there are plenty of internal, external and situational factors suggested in the literature which influence impulse buying behavior. Including other such variables could expand our understanding and prediction of impulse buying.

To conclude, this study has been conducted in a specific period of time and on a specific budget, just as the other studies. The results of this study could be compared to the findings of prospective studies, which could be conducted on

different populations, in a longer period of time, on a larger budget, using different sampling methods.



APPENDIX A

BUYING IMPULSIVENESS SCALE OF ROOK AND FISHER (1995)

1. I often buy things spontaneously.
2. "Just do it" describes the way I buy things.
3. I often buy things without thinking.
4. "I see it, I buy it" describes me.
5. "Buy now, think about it later" describes me.
6. Sometimes I feel like buying things on the spur-of-the-moment.
7. I buy things according to how I feel at the moment
8. I carefully plan most of my purchases. (reversed)
9. Sometimes I am a bit reckless about what I buy.

APPENDIX B

SELF-ESTEEM SCALE OF BOUSH ET AL. (1994)

1. I feel good about myself as a person.
2. I can do many things well.
3. I am looking forward to the future.



APPENDIX C
THE SHORT AFFECT INTENSITY SCALE
OF GEUENS AND PELSMACKER (2002)

Factor 1: Positive Emotions

- 2. When I feel happy, it is a strong type of exuberance.
- 7. My happy moods are so strong that I feel like I'm in heaven.
- 9. If I complete a task, I thought was impossible, I am ecstatic.
- 18. When I'm feeling well, it's easy for me to go from being in a good mood to being really joyful.
- 20. When I'm happy, I feel like I'm bursting with joy.
- 22. When I'm happy, I feel very energetic.
- 27. When things are going good, I feel "on top of the world."
- 35. When I'm happy, I bubble over with energy.

Factor 2: Negative Emotions

- 11. Sad movies deeply touch me.
- 13. When I talk in front of a group for the first time, my voice gets shaky and my heart races.
- 25. When I do something wrong, I have strong feelings of shame and guilt.
- 30. When I do feel anxiety, it is normally very strong.
- 36. When I feel guilty, this emotion is quite strong.
- 39. When I am nervous, I get shaky all over.

Factor 3: Reversed Positive Emotions

- 12. When I'm happy, it's a feeling of being untroubled and content rather than being zestful and aroused. (reversed)

24. When I succeed at something, my reaction is calm and contented. (reversed)

29. When I know I have done something very well, I feel relaxed and content rather than excited and elated. (reversed)

33. When I feel happiness, it is a quiet type of contentment. (reversed)

37. I would characterize my happy moods as closer to contentment than joy. (reversed)

40. When I am happy, the feeling is more like contentment and inner calm than one of exhilaration and excitement. (reversed)



APPENDIX D

THE SHORT CONSUMER NEED FOR UNIQUENESS SCALE

OF RUVIO ET AL. (2008)

Creative choice

1. I often combine possessions in such a way that I create a personal image that cannot be duplicated.
2. I often try to find a more interesting version of run-of-the-mill products because I enjoy being original.
3. I actively seek to develop my personal uniqueness by buying special products or brands.
4. Having an eye for products that are interesting and unusual assists me in establishing a distinctive image.

Unpopular choice

5. When it comes to the products I buy and the situations in which I use them, I have broken customs and rules.
6. I have often violated the understood rules of my social group regarding what to buy or own.
7. I have often gone against the understood rules of my social group regarding when and how certain products are properly used.
8. I enjoy challenging the prevailing taste of people I know by buying something they would not seem to accept.

Avoidance of similarity

9. When a product I own becomes popular among the general population, I begin to use it less.

10. I often try to avoid products or brands that I know are bought by the general population.

11. As a rule, I dislike products or brands that are customarily bought by everyone.

12. The more commonplace a product or brand is among the general population, the less interested I am in buying it.



APPENDIX E

SURVEY INSTRUMENT TRANSLATED IN ENGLISH

This study is a master's research conducted in order to contribute to scientific findings related to our consumption behaviors. It is crucial to reply all of the survey questions to ensure the unity of the research. All your responses will be assessed in terms of scientific contribution, the answers are not definitely right or wrong. We appreciate the expected contribution of the research findings to consumer satisfaction and academic fields related to consumption, and we appreciate your participation.

Please mark the appropriate choice for you, related to our buying behaviors.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. I often buy things spontaneously.	1	2	3	4	5
2. "Just do it" describes the way I buy things.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I often buy things without thinking.	1	2	3	4	5
4. "I see it, I buy it" describes me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. "Buy now, think about it later" describes me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Sometimes I feel like buying things on the spur-of-the-moment.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I buy things according to how I feel at the moment.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I carefully plan most of my purchases.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Sometimes I am a bit reckless about what I buy.	1	2	3	4	5

In this study, “impulse buying” is defined as unplanned purchases, which occur as a result of the stimulation of the urge to make sudden and spontaneous purchases. Based on this definition, when you consider the shopping that you did in the last two months:

10. Please, indicate the percentage of your impulse purchases rate in all your purchases.

11. What are the products which you purchase impulsively?

12. What are the products which make you feel happy/satisfied after making the purchase?

13. What are the products which make you feel bad/regretful after making the purchase?

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
14. I feel good about myself as a person.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I can do many things well.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I am looking forward to the future.	1	2	3	4	5

The expressions options below are related to our reactions towards the situations which we experience in daily life. Please choose the option that describes your reaction best for each situation.

	Never				Always
17. When I feel happy, it is a strong type of exuberance.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My happy moods are so strong that I feel like I'm in heaven.	1	2	3	4	5

19. If I complete a task, I thought was impossible, I am ecstatic.	1	2	3	4	5
20. When I'm feeling well, it's easy for me to go from being in a good mood to being really joyful.	1	2	3	4	5
21. When I'm happy, I feel like I'm bursting with joy.	1	2	3	4	5
22. When I'm happy, I feel very energetic.	1	2	3	4	5
23. When things are going good, I feel "on top of the world."	1	2	3	4	5
24. When I'm happy, I bubble over with energy.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Sad movies deeply touch me.	1	2	3	4	5
26. When I talk in front of a group for the first time, my voice gets shaky and my heart races.	1	2	3	4	5
27. When I do something wrong, I have strong feelings of shame and guilt.	1	2	3	4	5
28. When I do feel anxiety, it is normally very strong.	1	2	3	4	5
29. When I feel guilty, this emotion is quite strong.	1	2	3	4	5
30. When I am nervous, I get shaky all over.	1	2	3	4	5
31. When I'm happy, it's a feeling of being untroubled and content rather than being zestful and aroused.	1	2	3	4	5
32. When I succeed at something, my reaction is calm and contented.	1	2	3	4	5

33. When I know I have done something very well, I feel relaxed and content rather than excited and elated.	1	2	3	4	5
34. When I feel happiness, it is a quiet type of contentment.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I would characterize my happy moods as closer to contentment than joy.	1	2	3	4	5
36. When I am happy, the feeling is more like contentment and inner calm than one of exhilaration and excitement.	1	2	3	4	5

Please, choose the option that suits you best.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
37. I often combine possessions in such a way that I create a personal image that cannot be duplicated.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I often try to find a more interesting version of run-of-the-mill products because I enjoy being original.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I actively seek to develop my personal uniqueness by buying special products or brands.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Having an eye for products that are interesting and unusual assists me in establishing a distinctive image.	1	2	3	4	5
41. When it comes to the products I buy and the situations in which I use them, I have broken customs and rules.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I have often violated the understood rules of my social group regarding what to buy or own.	1	2	3	4	5

43. I have often gone against the understood rules of my social group regarding when and how certain products are properly used.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I enjoy challenging the prevailing taste of people I know by buying something they would not seem to accept.	1	2	3	4	5
45. When a product I own becomes popular among the general population, I begin to use it less.	1	2	3	4	5
46. I often try to avoid products or brands that I know are bought by the general population.	1	2	3	4	5
47. As a rule, I dislike products or brands that are customarily bought by everyone.	1	2	3	4	5
48. The more commonplace a product or brand is among the general population, the less interested I am in buying it.	1	2	3	4	5

If you are a student, please answer the questions in table A. If you are not a student, please answer the questions in table B.

Tablo A / For those who are students:

49. Age:

50. Gender: Female Male

51. I'm a student in grade three.

I'm a final grade student.

I'm a graduate student.

52. University/department you attend:

53. I meet my expenditures myself. My family meets my expenditures.

54. I am unemployed.

I am employed part-time.

I am employed full-time.

55. How many hours (on average) a day do you spend on the internet?

56. How many hours (on average) a day do you spend on the social media?

57. What means of social media do you use?

58. Please, specify the percentage of your online shopping rate in all your purchases.

59. How much of the goods categorized below do you buy online?

	None of them			All of them
Clothing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Accessories	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Shoes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sportswear/equipment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Body care/cosmetics	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Electronics	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Food	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kitchen appliances	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Home decoration	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Books/magazines	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Tablo B / For those who are not students:

49. Age: 18-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55+

50. Gender: Female Male

51. Education status: Primary/Secondary High school
 University Graduate

52. I am unemployed.

I am employed part-time.

I am employed full-time.

53. If you work; your occupation, your mission, your title:

54. I am married. I am nor married.

55. Do you have a child?

56. How many hours (on average) a day do you spend on the internet?

57. How many hours (on average) a day do you spend on the social media?

58. What means of social media do you use?

59. Please, specify the percentage of your online shopping rate in all your purchases.

60. How much of the goods categorized below do you buy online?

	Hiçbirini			Hepsini
Clothing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Accessories	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Shoes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sportswear/equipment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Body care/cosmetics	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Electronic	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Food	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kitchen appliances	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Home decoration	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Books/magazines	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX F

ORIGINAL SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Bu çalışma tüketim davranışlarımızla ilgili bilimsel bulgulara katkıda bulunmak için hazırlanmış bir yüksek lisans araştırmasıdır. Araştırmanın bütünselliği açısından tüm sorulara yanıt vermeniz önem taşımaktadır. Cevaplarınız tamamen bilimsel katkı açısından değerlendirilecektir, doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur. Araştırma sonuçlarının tüketici tatmini ve tüketimle ilgili akademik alanlara yapacağı katkı ve katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Aşağıda yer alan, satın alma davranışlarımız ile ilgili ifadelerden sizin için uygun olanı lütfen işaretleyiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum			Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Sık sık spontane (ani, anlık) bir şekilde alışveriş yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
2. "Hadi hemen yapalım" ifadesi benim alışveriş tavrımı tanımlar.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Düşünmeden sık sık bir şeyler satın alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. "Görürüm ve satın alırım" ifadesi beni tanımlar.	1	2	3	4	5
5. "Hemen satın al, sonra düşünürsün" ifadesi beni tanımlar.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bazen satın aldıklarım konusunda hiçbir şeyi umursamam.	1	2	3	4	5
7. O anda nasıl hissettiğime bağlı olarak ürünleri satın alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Satın almalarımı dikkatlice planlarım.	1	2	3	4	5

9. Bazen boş bulunarak bir şeyler satın aldığımı hissediyorum. 1 2 3 4 5

Bu çalışmada 'dürtüsel satın alım' tüketicinin önceden planlamadığı, ani ve spontane bir şekilde satın alma isteğinin uyarılması sonucu gerçekleşen anlık satın alımlar olarak tanımlanmıştır. Buna göre, son 2 ay içinde yapmış olduğunuz alışverişlerinizi düşündüğünüzde:

10. Dürtüsel satın alımlarınızın, tüm alışverişleriniz içindeki oranını yüzde (%) şeklinde belirtiniz.

11. Dürtüsel/plansız satın aldığınız ürünlerin ne olduğunu (veya hangi ürün kategorilerinde olduğunu) belirtiniz.

12. Dürtüsel olarak satın aldıktan sonra kendinizi mutlu/memnun hissettiğiniz ürünler nelerdi?

13. Dürtüsel olarak satın aldıktan sonra kendinizi kötü/pişman hissettiğiniz ürünler nelerdi?

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	1	2	3	4	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
14. Birey olarak kendimden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5	
15. Birçok şeyi iyi yapabiliyim.	1	2	3	4	5	
16. Geleceği dört gözle bekliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	

Aşağıdaki ifadeler, günlük yaşamda karşılaştığımız durumlara verdiğimiz tepkiler ile ilgilidir. Lütfen aşağıdaki ölçekten söz konusu durumlardaki tepkinizi en iyi ifade eden seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

	Hiçbir Zaman	1	2	3	4	Her Zaman
17. Kendimi mutlu hissettiğim zaman çok kuvvetli bir coşku yaşarım.	1	2	3	4	5	
18. Bana kendimi mutlu hissettiren duygular o kadar kuvvetlidir ki, kendimi cennette gibi hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	

19. Yapılması imkansız olduğunu düşündüğüm zor bir görevi tamamlarsam, kendimi aşırı mutlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Kendimi iyi hissettiğim zaman iyi moddan gerçekten çok coşkulu bir moda geçiş yapmak benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Mutlu olduğumda coşkudan patlayacak gibi hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Mutlu olduğumda enerjik hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Her şey yolunda gittiğinde kendimi “dünyanın en tepesinde” hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Mutlu olduğum zaman enerji patlaması yaşarım/enerji dolarım.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Üzücü filmler beni derinden etkiler.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Topluluk karşısında ilk kez konuştuğum zaman sesim titremeye başlar ve kalp atışlarım hızlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda çok kuvvetli utanç ve suçluluk duygusu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Endişe ve gerginlik duygusunu normalde çok kuvvetli hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Suçlu hissettiğim zaman bu duygu oldukça kuvvetlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Gergin olduğum zaman kendimi zayıf/güçsüz hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Mutlu olduğum zaman, kendimi aşırı ilgili ve istekli hissetmekten ziyade sorunsuz ve tatmin olmuş hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5

32. Başarılı olduğumda reaksiyonum sakin bir memnuniyet olur.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Çok iyi bir iş başardığımı bildiğim zaman, kendimi heyecanlı ve çok coşkulu hissetmekten ziyade rahatlamış ve tatmin olmuş hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Mutluluk hissettiğim zaman, bu sessiz sakin bir memnuniyet duygusudur.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Bana mutluluk veren duygular, neşeden ziyade memnuniyet duygusuna daha yakındır.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Mutlu olduğumda hissettiğim duygu, heyecandan ve enerji patlamasından daha çok, iç huzur ve memnuniyet duygusudur.	1	2	3	4	5

Aşağıdaki ifadelerin sizin için ne kadar uygun olduğunu lütfen işaretleyiniz.

	Hiçbir Zaman				Her Zaman
37. Sahip olduğum varlıkları öyle bir şekilde kombine ederim ki benzeri oluşturulamayacak bir imaj yaratırım.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Sıradan ürünlerin daha ilginç versiyonunu bulmaya çalışırım çünkü orijinal olmak hoşuma gider.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Özel ürünler ya da markalar satın alarak kişisel özgünlüğümü aktif olarak geliştirmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
40. İlginç ve farklı ürünleri takip etmek kendime özgü, ayırt edici bir imaj yaratmamda bana yardımcı olur.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Satın aldığım ürünler ve bunları kullandığım durumlar söz konusu olduğunda toplum kuralları ve geleneklerine uymam.	1	2	3	4	5

42. Satın alınacak ya da sahip olunacak şeyler konusunda sosyal çevrem (anlaşılmış) kurallarını sıkça ihlal ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Belirli ürünlerin ne zaman ve nasıl kullanılması ile ilgili sosyal çevrem kurallarına sık sık karşı çıkarım.	1	2	3	4	5
44. İnsanların kabul etmeyeceklerini düşündüğüm şeyleri satın alarak bu insanların geçerli zevklerini harekete geçirmekten hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Sahip olduğum bir ürün, insanlar arasında popüler olduğu zaman o ürünü daha az kullanmaya başlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Genel kitle tarafından satın alındığımı bildiğim ürünleri ya da markaları almaktan kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Kural olarak, herkes tarafından satın alınan ürünlerden ya da markalardan hoşlanmam.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Bir ürün ya da marka insanlar arasında ne kadar yaygın olursa onu satın alma konusunda o kadar az ilgili olurum.	1	2	3	4	5

Öğrenci iseniz Tablo A'yı, değilseniz Tablo B'yi cevaplayınız.

Tablo A / Öğrenci iseniz:

49. Yaşınız:

50. Cinsiyetiniz: O Kadın O Erkek

51. O Üçüncü sınıf öğrencisiyim.

O Son sınıf öğrencisiyim.

O Lisansüstü öğrencisiyim.

52. Okuduğunuz Üniversite/Bölüm:

53. Yaşam masraflarımı: Kendim karşılıyorum Ailem karşılıyor

54. O Çalışmıyorum

Yarı zamanlı çalışıyorum

Tam zamanlı çalışıyorum

55. Günde ortalama kaç saatinizi internette geçiriyorsunuz?

56. Günde ortalama kaç saatinizi sosyal medyada geçiriyorsunuz?

57. Hangi sosyal medya kanallarını/sitelerini kullanıyorsunuz?

58. İnternet alışverişlerinizin, tüm alışverişleriniz içindeki oranını yüzde (%) şeklinde belirtiniz.

59. Aşağıdaki kategoriler içerisindeki ürünlerin ne kadarını internet üzerinden satın alıyorsunuz?

	Hiçbirini			Hepsini	
Giyim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Aksesuar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ayakkabı	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spor malzemeleri	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vücut bakım/kozmetik	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Elektronik	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gıda	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mutfak araç gereçleri	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ev dekorasyon	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kitap/dergi	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Diğer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Tablo B / Öğrenci değilseniz:

49. Yaşınız: 18-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55+

50. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın Erkek

51. Eğitim Durumunuz: İlköğretim Lise Üniversite Lisansüstü

52. O Çalışmıyorum

O Yarı zamanlı çalışıyorum

O Tam zamanlı çalışıyorum

53. Çalışıyorsanız; mesleğiniz, göreviniz, ünvanınız:

54. O Evliyim O Evli Değilim

55. Çocuğunuz var mı?

56. Günde ortalama kaç saatinizi internette geçiriyorsunuz?

57. Günde ortalama kaç saatinizi sosyal medyada geçiriyorsunuz?

58. Hangi sosyal medya kanallarını/sitelerini kullanıyorsunuz?

59. İnternet alışverişlerinizin, tüm alışverişleriniz içindeki oranını yüzde(%) şeklinde belirtiniz.

60. Aşağıdaki kategoriler içindeki ürünlerin ne kadarını internet üzerinden satın alıyorsunuz?

	Hiçbirini			Hepsini
Giyim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Aksesuar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ayakkabı	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spor malzemeleri	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vücut bakım/kozmetik	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Elektronik	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gıda	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mutfak araç gereçleri	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ev dekorasyon	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kitap/dergi	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Diğer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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