

AFFECTIVE AND COGNITIVE PROCESSES INVOLVED IN IMPULSE BUYING

by

AMANDA LEIGH COLEY

(Under the direction of Dr. Brigitte Burgess)

ABSTRACT

In decision-making consumers experience a "balance beam" effect between affective (emotional) desires and cognitive (reasoning) willpower, triggered by internal and external stimuli. As affect increases, cognition decreases creating impulsivity. The purpose of this study was to compare gender differences of affective and cognitive processes and product categories related to impulse buying. Two hundred seventy-seven students from The University of Georgia were surveyed about their impulse buying behavior. Using Analysis of Variances tests, males and females were found significantly different with respect to affective process components including irresistible urge to buy, positive buying emotion, and mood management and cognitive process components including cognitive deliberation, unplanned buying with the exception of disregard for the future. Significant differences were also found between the following product categories: shirts/sweaters, pants/skirts, coats, underwear/lingerie, accessories, shoes, electronics, hardware, computer software, music CD's or DVD's, sports memorabilia, health/beauty products, and magazines/books for pleasure reading. No differences were found in regard to suits/business wear and entertainment.

INDEX WORDS: Impulse Buying, Affective State, Cognitive State, Consumer Behavior

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Enduring efforts and unlimited attempts to explain consumer impulse buying behavior have been made by scholars throughout the world (e.g., Burroughs, 1996; Piron, 1993; Youn, 2000). A consumer's behavior at any given point in time is distinctly related to personal characteristics of self-control and impulsivity. The degree of magnitude in which these actions exist are dependent upon one another. The same is true with the amount and extent to which a decision process takes place. Consumers treat decision making as a means-end chain of problem solving where goals are sought to be achieved or satisfied. The greater the need or desire for accomplishment, the greater increase in motivation to succeed (Huffman, Mick, & Ratneshwar, 2000).

In 1982, Engel and Blackwell designed a general model to explain consumer decision-making (Figure 1). According to the model, consumers process information in five stages or subprocesses before making a consumption decision. The first stage involves problem, or need recognition. The next stage involves a search for alternative solutions and relevant information about potential solutions to a problem from either the external environment, or from knowledge memory. The third stage involves evaluation of the alternatives in terms of salient beliefs about relevant consequences. The fourth stage involves the purchase of the chosen alternative. Finally, the post-purchase stage is a reevaluation of the wisdom of the decision about the choice alternative made in light of

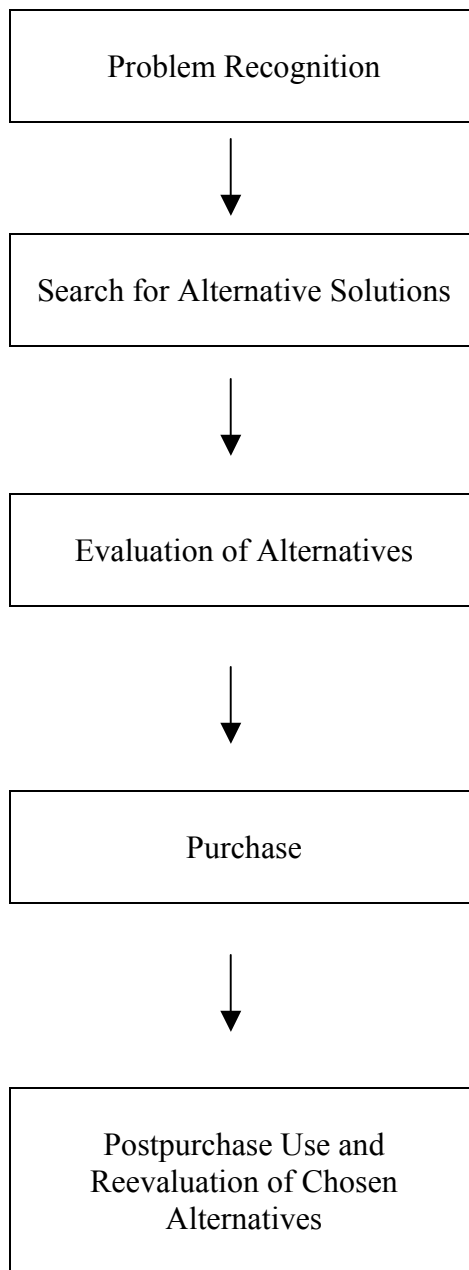


Figure 1: Engel and Blackwell Model of Consumer Decision Making
Source: Engel & Blackwell (1982).

its performance (Engel & Blackwell, 1982). Each of these stages takes place with a goal in mind and the need for that goal defines how and to what extent it will occur.

In understanding these important stages and how they relate to consumption behavior, coupled with a review of literature, it is evident to this researcher that Engel's and Blackwell's model of consumer decision-making has left out a very important stage, the impulsivity stage. This stage, which involves emotional processes, should appear directly after the problem recognition stage. If self-control does take precedence then a move to the next stage or the search stage of the process occurs. If impulsivity is stronger, then the search stage and the alternative evaluation stage relating to relevant consequences is by-passed altogether. Figure 2 shows the adjusted model, which attempts to illustrate how impulsivity is part of the decision making process.

The Engel / Blackwell model views the process of consumer decision making as involvement with weighing the costs and benefits of alternative actions. It fails to include factors that influence impulsivity of both the purchase and the consumption of the product. Since it is the individual consumer who experiences the impulse to buy, not the product, concentrating solely upon product category and retail format when predicting impulse buying is an extremely limited perspective (Burroughs, 1996; Piron, 1991; Rook, 1987; Rook & Hoch 1985). A method for better understanding impulse buying would incorporate characteristics of the individual consumer as well as their thoughts and emotions. Impulse buying behavior is a fact of life; most all consumers have made an impulse purchase at least once in their life. According to Welles (1986), nine out of ten shoppers occasionally buy on impulse.

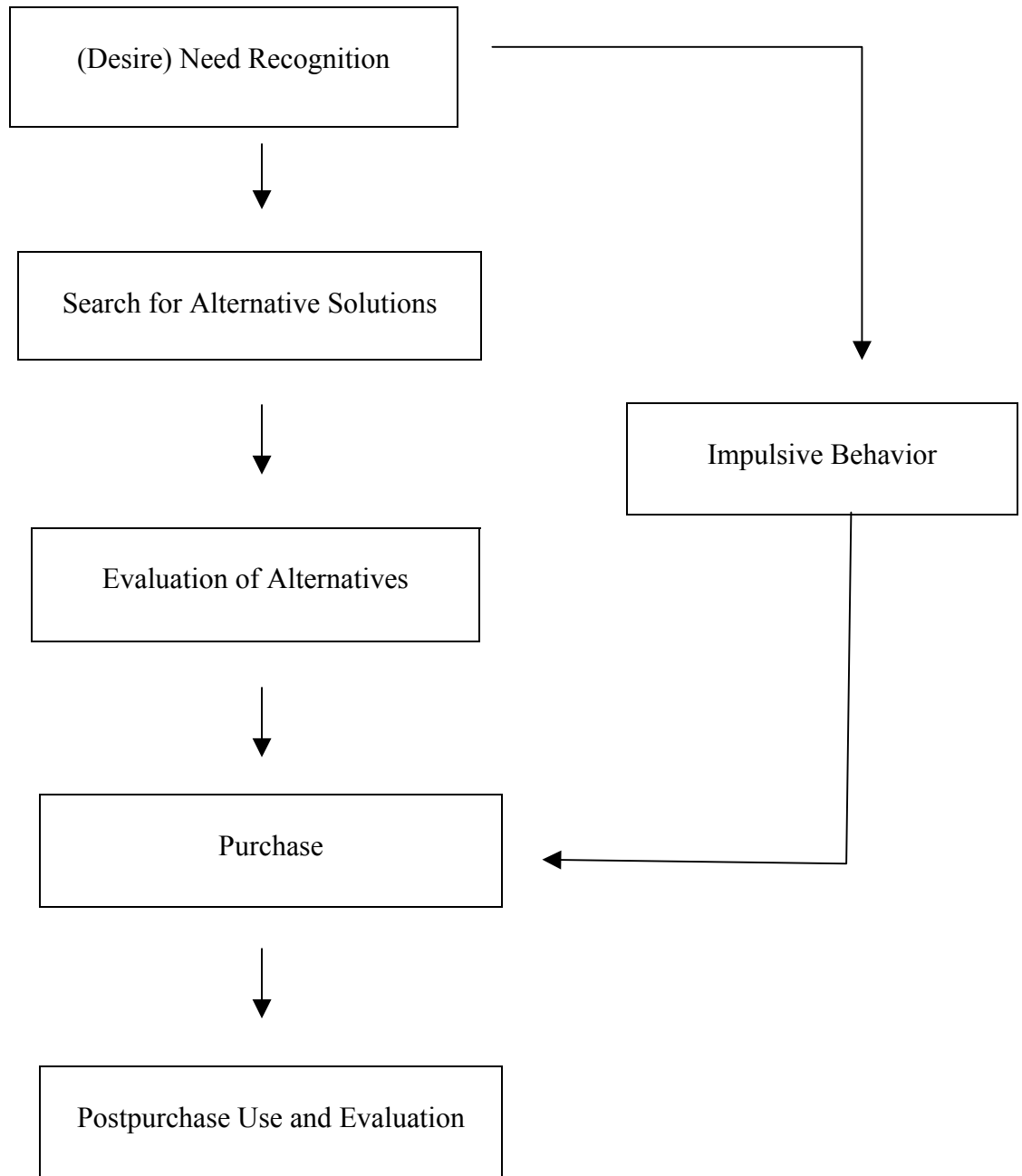


Figure 2: The Adjusted Engel and Blackwell Model of Consumer Decision Making
Source: Engel & Blackwell (1982).

For a thorough understanding of consumer behavior, researchers must recognize that consumers are influenced both by long-term rational concerns and by more short-term emotional concerns, which affect their decision to purchase (Hirschman, 1985; Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991). Holbrook, O'Shaughnessy and Bell (1990) explained that previous consumer research tended to consider consumer behavior either as a motive for reasoned action or as a warehouse for emotional reaction. To focus on either element by itself -actions or reactions- presents an incomplete view of the consumption experience. Therefore the need for an integrated overview of the consumption experience was proposed and attempts were made to synthesize and connect together the complementary roles of reasoned actions and emotional reactions in consumer behavior (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991; Holbrook et al., 1990). Although conceptually distinguishable, affective (emotional) processes, which create impulsivity, and cognitive (reasoned) processes, which enable self-control are not independent of one another. Impulse buying takes place when desires are strong enough to override restraints (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991; Weinberg & Gottwald, 1982). Without the power of self-control, people give in to desires and impulsive behavior occurs (Youn, 2000).

Recognition of the need for balance of the different but complementary roles that reasons and emotions play in the active and reactive experiences of consumption is imperative in understanding the dynamics of the impulse buying phenomena and the inner conflict between the two motives (Youn, 2000). Within the adjusted model's information processing stage (Figure 2), cognitive and affective components together influence how and to what magnitude emotions and/or reasons create impulsivity or self-control. The degree to which impulsiveness occurs depends heavily on these two

components, affective impulsivity and cognitive self-control. As the intensity of one process increases and takes over the other decreases and subsides.

It is evident that both affective and cognitive processes do occur in consumer decision-making. Understanding how and why imbalance of each process works and contributes to impulsivity or self-control is essential in understanding the complete process of impulse buying. This study will examine the cognitive and affective components of decision making as they relate to impulsive buying behavior. In addition, this study will go further in depth than previous studies to examine the components of affective and cognitive processes and will compare male's and female's affective and cognitive processes associated with consumer impulse buying. Also to be examined are differences between gender and product categories purchased.

Conceptual Framework

Although previous research recognizes that affective and cognitive processes do occur during consumer decision-making, little attention has emphasized the impact of these phenomena. For a complete understanding of impulsive consumer buying, attention needs to be directed toward these processes and their components. This study is based on conceptual framework of consumer impulsive buying as a function of two higher order psychological processes: affect and cognition, and their six lower order components (Table 1). The affective dimension reflects irresistible urge to buy, positive buying emotions, and mood management. The cognitive dimension reflects cognitive deliberation, unplanned buying, and disregard for the future. The overall power of each factor and the degree of influence between each component represents the ultimate

Table 1: Affective and Cognitive Psychological Processes and Related Factors

<p>Two Psychological Processes*</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1) <i>Affective process</i> refers to emotions, feeling states, moods2) <i>Cognitive process</i> refers to the mental structures and processes involved in thinking, understanding and interpreting <p><i>*Although the two are conceptually distinguishable, they are not independent of one another.</i></p>
<p>Six Factors</p> <p>Affective Process Components:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1) Irresistible Urge to Buy The consumers desire is instant, persistent and so compelling that it is hard for the consumer to resist.2) Positive Buying Emotion This term refers to positive mood states generated from self-gratifying motivations that impulse buying provides. Consumers are likely to engage in impulse buying in order to prolong their pleasurable mood states.3) Mood Management Impulse buying is in part motivated by the consumer's desire to change or manage their feelings or moods. <p>Cognitive Process Components:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">4) Cognitive Deliberation A sudden urge to act without deliberation or evaluation of consequences.5) Unplanned Buying Lack of clearly planning.6) Disregard for the Future The result of choosing an immediate option over lack of future concerns and considerations.

Source: Adapted from Youn (2000).

outcome of whether or not an impulse buy emerges. As the emotional irresistible desire to buy competes and takes over the cognitive control of willpower, impulse buying takes place (Youn, 2000).

Purpose

The primary purpose of this study is to determine gender differences in affective and cognitive impulsive buying processes and to determine differences between gender in terms of product category purchased.

Objectives

The specific objective of this study is to investigate similarities and differences of impulse buying between genders. The broad objective is to make a contribution toward the knowledge of consumer impulse buying.

Significance

Past research has addressed affective and cognitive processes as psychological occurrences that happen during consumer decision-making. Research (Youn, 2000) discovered components that contribute and relate particular buying outcomes to these two psychological processes of affect and cognition. The results of the current study will further explain the conceptual framework of impulse buying and the various psychological components of which it is comprised. This study will expand previous research by distinguishing gender differences in cognitive and affective processes and their relationships to impulse buying. This study, unlike previous research, will focus on

a comparison between male and females impulse buying behavior for similarities and differences between affective and cognitive processes and product categories purchased.

Contributing to a fuller theoretical understanding of impulse buying will provide insight to retailers, merchandisers, advertisers, marketers, and even consumers about which variables influence shopper's impulse buying urges and actions. Retailers will benefit by having a better understanding of the reasons consumers buy impulsively. With this knowledge retailers can become better prepared in approaching the consumer and completing the sell. Merchandisers can benefit from this knowledge by successfully enhancing floor and window displays. Advertisers and marketers can benefit by understanding the impact of emotions and thoughts and how advertising can be used in-order to stimulate these factors. As for the consumer, they can gain a better understanding of which components influence impulse buying. This awareness will help the consumer learn to recognize and ultimately manage the desire to buy impulsively.

Summary

Everyone buys and consumes impulsively at one-point or another (Rook & Fisher, 1995; Welles, 1986) which implies that the findings of this study will be helpful in a wide range of retail products and formats. Examination of the affective and cognitive psychological processes and components, which emerge during consumer decision-making, is a prerequisite for the comprehension of the essentials involved in impulsive consumer behavior. Awareness and understanding is critical in order to benefit and gain optimal satisfaction from our own and others' consumption behavior.

The next chapter includes a review of literature related to impulse buying. Included is a review of past research and past impulse buying definitions. In addition, consumer decision-making and affective and cognitive processes influencing impulse buying are presented, as well, as relevant information related to gender.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Literature

Chapter two provides a review of literature related to impulsive buying behavior as well as various definitions of impulse buying and a discussion on why they may or may not be complete. This chapter defines and describes the complexity of affective and cognitive psychological processes and their involvement before, during, and after decision-making, and how these processes are affected by gender.

Impulse Buying Definitions and Review of Past Research

Product Related Impulse Buying

Since the early 1950s economists, psychologists, and consumer behavior scholars from around the world have been investigating and attempting to explain the theoretical and practical significance of impulsive human behavior (e.g., Burroughs, 1996; Piron, 1991, 1993; Rook, 1987; Youn, 2000). In the consumption arena, one distinct and important area of impulsive human behavior is consumer impulse buying. The majority of the work on impulse buying has concentrated on defining and conceptualizing the concept.

Initially research on impulse buying was directed mainly at only a taxonomic level among various product categories (i.e., Bellenger, Robertson, & Hirschman, 1978; Clover, 1950; Frank, Massy, & Lodahl, 1969; Kollat & Willett, 1967; West, 1951), and within different retail establishments (Clover, 1950; Prasad, 1975). Product related

research concentrated on classifying individual products as impulsive versus non-impulsive items. Bellenger et al., (1978) discovered that consumer impulse buying was widespread, both across the population and across product categories. Statistics reported on impulse buying during this time were shocking: over 50 percent of supermarket items (Kollat & Willet, 1967), 51 percent of pharmaceuticals, and 61 percent of healthcare and beauty aid products were purchased on an unplanned basis (POPAl/DuPont Studies, 1978); furthermore, 62 percent of discount store purchases (Prasad, 1975) and 27-62 percent of all department store purchases fell into impulse purchases categories (Bellenger et al., 1978). Among those department store items purchased on impulse, 39.6 percent were from apparel goods including men's sport/casual clothing, men's apparel and furnishings, women's/girl's clothing, women's lingerie, women's sportswear, and women's dresses. Williams and Dardis (1972) found that 46 percent of women's outerwear and 32 percent of men's wear, out of total purchases, were made on an unplanned basis throughout department store, specialty stores, and discount stores. Few product lines were recognized as unaffected by impulse buying (Bellenger et al., 1978; Rook, 1987; Rook & Hoch, 1985). It could be expected that these percentages would be greater today. The faster paced world we live in, including time constraints, the difference in family structure, increased use in credit and availability of 24-hour retailing (e.g., home shopping network) may all contribute to making impulse buying a more common, everyday behavior.

Taxonomical research that classified products into impulsive and non-impulsive categories tended to obscure the fact that almost anything can be purchased impulsively (Kollat & Willett, 1969; Rook, 1987; Shapiro, 1973; Stern, 1962). This approach

developed a general conception that impulse buying referred to unplanned purchases (Bellenger et al., 1978; Cobb & Hoyer, 1986; Kollat & Willet, 1967). Research on impulse buying concentrated on identifying unplanned (unintentional) purchases, which is interpreted to be the difference between purchase intentions and actual purchases. Approaches were made to define impulse buying by distinguishing planned from unplanned purchases (e.g., Bellenger et al., 1978; Kollat & Willet, 1967; 1969; Stern, 1962). Methodologically, most of the research related to this approach was conducted by interviewing participants before and after their shopping trip (Bellenger et al., 1978; Cobb and Hoyer, 1986; Clover, 1950; Kollat & Willet, 1967; West, 1951). Upon entering the store, shoppers were asked questions as to what they intended to buy and were checked before leaving to find out what they actually bought. All items purchases but not mentioned in the first interview were listed as unplanned or impulse purchases. This methodological approach may lead to possible under/overestimating (Cobb & Hoyer, 1986). Several reasons include: memory inaccuracy, memory fatigue, or time constraints. A respondent could easily fail to remember all items they intended to buy, or may only focus on salient or big-ticket items. Effects of social desirability bias may also be present causing shoppers to make efforts to appear rational and goal-oriented (Cobb & Hoyer, 1986). The same problem may appear with surveys if shoppers are asked only questions concerning their shopping intentions. Also, store entry interviews about shoppers' purchase plan might condition their in-store purchase behavior; the interview might force shoppers to commit themselves to fulfill their purchase plans (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

Shopper Related Impulse Buying

Cobb and Hoyer (1986) conducted a study identifying three types of purchasers—planners, partial planners, and impulse buyers. There were three phases to the study, direct observation, personal interview, and self-administrated mail questionnaire. A sample of 227 male and female shoppers completed all three phases of the study. The three types of shoppers were identified based on two variables, amount of product category and specific brand planning that occurred prior to entering the store. Planners were those who intended to purchase both the category and the brand. Partial planners were those who intended to purchase the category but not the brand. Impulse purchases were those who had no intent to purchase category or brand. Results across both product categories (tissue and coffee) revealed the majority of the shoppers (59.9%) were planners, followed by partial planners (27.7%), and impulse purchasers (12.3%). Stepwise discriminant analysis was used to predict purchase group membership of tissue shoppers. The discriminant function overall correctly classified 81.7 percent of the shoppers by purchase types. A jackknife procedure was employed to add more validity resulting in a 69.4 percent overall correct classification rate. Both the validation classification and the original classification were significantly better than what would occur by chance. Planners (88.9%) and partial planners (86.8%) had highest rates for classification. Impulse purchasers resulted in a classification rate of only 33.3 percent due to considerable overlapping with the other two groups. The overall correct classification rate for coffee shoppers was 86.3 percent. The jackknife validation results produced 70.5 percent overall correct classification rate. Both classifications were

significantly higher than what would occur by chance. Out of those correctly classified 95 percent were planners and 90.5 percent were partial planners.

Variables included in the discriminant analysis revealed findings that task-related factors (such as frequency of purchase, strength of preference, search time, and package examination) appeared to be the best predictors of degree of planning. This finding is consistent with Prasad (1975) who stated that, "Unplanned buying may be more a function of situational variables than of individual shopper characteristics" (p. 12). Brand loyalty was shown to have the greatest overall influence and price was proven to be an important predictor. Forty-four percent of tissue shoppers and 26 percent coffee shoppers purchased on the basis of price. The results relating to price were expected. Stern (1962) also determined price to be one of the factors having the most direct influence on impulse buying.

Associating unintended and unplanned purchasing with impulse buying is not sufficient basis for categorizing a purchase as impulsive (Iyer, 1989; Kollat & Willet, 1967; Piron, 1993; Rook, 1987; Rook & Fisher, 1995; Weun, Jones, & Beatty, 1998). Stern (1962) classified four distinct types of impulse buying: pure impulse buying, reminder impulse buying, suggestion impulse buying, and planned impulse buying. Pure impulse buying is the most easily distinguished and is considered true impulsive buying. It is a novelty or escape purchase where an emotional appeal sparks a desire to consume, which breaks a normal buying pattern. Reminder impulse buying results from a predetermined need that was prompted upon encountering the item while shopping, for instance when the consumer sees an item that triggers a memory that their supply at home is low or completely consumed. Recollection of an advertisement or another previous

informational experience where a decision to previously buy the item was created, can also generate a reminder impulse buy when the item is encountered in the store. A suggested impulse buy occurs when a shopper sees an item for the first time and a desire to buy is formed without any prior knowledge of the product. Evaluation of quality, and function must be completed at the point of sale. Lastly, planned impulse buying occurs when the shopper enters the store with some specific purchase in mind; however the actual purchase depends upon price specials, coupon offers, and the like.

Stern (1962) conceptualized impulse buying as a response linked to the consumer's exposure to "in-store" stimuli (e.g., product). Stern (1962) essentially believed an impulse purchase was a response made only after entering the store and being confronted with stimuli that produced a desire or need that motivated a consumer to buy merchandise that was unplanned upon entering the store. Store stimuli serves as a kind of huge catalog or an external memory aid for those who go to the store without any predetermination of what they may buy knowing that once they get there they will be reminded or get an idea of what they need after they look around. The more consumers use the store interior as a shopping aid the more likely the possibility of a desire or need arising and creating an impulse buy (Han, 1987; Han, Morgan, Kotsiopoulos, & Kang-Park, 1991). Consumers' plans are sometimes contingent and altered by environmental circumstances (Rook, 1987). Shoppers may actually use a form of in-store planning to finalize his/her intentions (Rook, 1987). Planning is an ambiguous term and when and where the consumer pre-plans is a debatable point (Youn, 2000). Information is obtained from numerous sources and the need to buy may emerge anywhere at anytime, whether at

home while planning the shopping trip or at the store where visual cues stimulate the decision to buy.

External Stimuli and Impulse Buying

Characteristics of consumer situation, behavioral setting, and environment are each distinguishable determinants of consumer behavior, which contribute consistently to shopping outcome. In 1975, Belk presented five groups of situational characteristics:

1. *Physical Surroundings* are not readily apparent features of a situation. These features include geographical and institutional location, décor, sounds, aromas, lighting, weather, and visible configuration of merchandise or other material surrounding the stimulus object.
2. *Social Surroundings* provide additional depth to a description of a situation. Other persons present, their characteristics, their apparent roles, and interpersonal interactions occurring are potentially relevant examples.
3. *Temporal Perspective* is a dimension of situations, which may be specific in units ranging from time of day to season of the year. Time may also be measured relevant to some past or future event for the situational participant. This allows conceptions such as time since last purchase, time since or until meals or payday, and time constraints imposed by prior or standing commitments.
4. *Task Definition* features of a situation include an intent or requirement to select, shop for, or obtain information about a general or specific purchase. In addition, task may reflect different buyer and user roles anticipated by the individual. For instance, a person shopping for a small appliance as a wedding gift for a friend is in a different situation than he would be in shopping for a small appliance for personal use.
5. *Antecedent States* make up a final group of features, which characterize a situation. These are momentary moods (such as acute anxiety, pleasantness, hostility, and excitation) or momentary conditions (such as cash on hand, fatigue, and illness) rather than chronic individual traits. These conditions are further stipulated to be immediately antecedent to the current situation in order to distinguish states, which the individual brings to the situation from states of the individual which result from the situation (1975, p.160).

In summary these potential factors include (a) stimuli surrounding the object (e.g., décor or signs) (b) shopping alone or with someone, (c) time of day or season, (d) time

relevant to past or future event, (e) shopping intent or requirement (e.g., shopping for yourself or someone else), and (f) moods or momentary conditions (Belk, 1975). The classifications of impulse buying made by Stern (1962) describe impulsiveness as being distinguishable by situational factors. However, situational factors, which are linked to consumers' exposure to external (environmental) stimuli, are only half of the equation that may influence impulsive buying behavior. A buying impulse does not always only depend on direct visual stimulation (Youn, 2000).

Describing an impulse buy as “unplanned buying” where the decision is made only within the confines of the store is incomplete. Prior studies in respect to this approach have been criticized, as not all unplanned purchases are impulsively decided (Rook, 1987). It is possible for a purchase to involve high degrees of planning and still be highly impulsive; and some unplanned purchases may be quite rational (Shapiro, 1992). Iyer (1989) declared that all impulse buying is at least unplanned, but all unplanned purchases are not necessarily decided impulsively. With this in mind, defining impulse buying in terms of degree of planning is inaccurate and incomplete. Whether the item is on the “shopping list” is irrelevant, the purchase decision greatly depends on an activated state rooted within a person that leads to motivation. Since it is the individual, not the product, who experiences the impulse to consume this limited perspective has overlooked one key dynamic element of impulsivity, the consumers' internal psychological motivations. Undeveloped attention of the consumers' susceptibility to internal motives and overemphasis on products led early research to lack the solid theoretical framework needed for analyzing impulse buying (Shapiro, 1992).

Internal Stimuli and Impulse Buying

Hirschman (1985) proposed that autistic (self-generated, self-centered subjective mental activity) stimuli were also accountable for impulse buying. Internal stimuli refer to cravings, overwhelming desires and internal thoughts that trigger a desire to make an unanticipated purchase (Piron, 1991). Self-generated thoughts, such as daydreams, fantasies, delusions, and hallucinations, do not follow logic or rationality and are frequently associated with emotion and sensitivity (Hirschman, 1985) as a response to unattainable or forbidden objectives (Youn, 2000). Piron (1991) recognized autistics thinking as a primary process that operates in accordance with the pleasure principle by powerfully influencing impulse buying motives that are centered on hedonistic characterization (Youn, 2000).

Youn (2000) acknowledges that three criteria relating to unplanned purchases (response to in-store stimuli, no previously recognized problem and rapidity of purchase decision) are distinctive and potentially important criteria in the impulse buying phenomenon. Youn (2000) states that, unfortunately, prior research has possibly created misinterpretation and under-valuation of these criteria due to conceptual and methodological deficiencies where impulse buying is regarded as an unplanned purchase and that consideration of all these criteria when developing the definition of impulse buying would be extremely beneficial (Youn, 2000).

Stern's (1962) classifications of impulse buying relates to the first two criteria which Youn (2000) proposed as critical components in defining impulse buying: response to in-store stimuli and no previously recognized problem or need. The second dimensional criteria identified as a component to unplanned purchasing is whether or not

a purchase decision takes place in response to a previously recognized problem (Cobb & Hoyer, 1986; Engel & Blackwell, 1982; Youn, 2000). This criteria of impulse buying, when an action is undertaken without a problem having been previously recognized or buying intention formed prior to entering the store, is regarded as a significant dimension of impulse buying (Martin, Weun, & Beatty, 1993; Youn, 2000). The final criterion, rapidity of purchase decision or the time taken relative to the normal decisional time lapse, is significantly less under an impulse purchase situation (D'Antoni & Shenson, 1973; Youn, 2000).

The third of Youn's (2000) criteria was proposed much earlier by D'Antoni and Shenson (1973). These authors suggested that impulse buying could be distinguished from other types of consumer behavior in terms of the rapidity or impulsiveness with which consumers move through the decisional period toward the purchase. They explained that an impulse buy is generated from experiencing the inherent need to satisfy basic wants and needs and varies in degree among all individuals which is a function of numerous variables.

The processes between experiencing the want and the time right up before the purchase is defined by D'Antoni and Shenson (1973) as the decisional process and the time between the vague wanting until after the purchase is defined as the transitional stage. These researchers believed that the real determinant of an impulse buy, although varying greatly with respect to different individuals, is the decision time lapse or the time period between the two stages. It is suggested that the real basis for "impulsivity" is the time period taken to complete the decision process and therefore impulsive buying started evolving into this definition:

A decision in which the “bits of information” processed and thus the time taken relative to the normal decisional time lapse are significantly less with respect to the same or quite similar products or services (D’Antoni & Shenson, 1973, p.68).

Extra caution is necessary when defining the speed of decision-making.

D’Antoni’s and Shenson’s (1973) explanation falls short of recognizing that rapidness in decision making may result from previously created habits or be due to rapid rational thinking (Bagozzi, 1992; Belk, 1985; Rook, 1987; Shapiro, 1992, Youn, 2000).

Methodologically, measuring the lapse of time between the shoppers’ normal decisional period and the impulse purchase decisional period also presents problems in terms of feasibility. It would be very expensive for a researcher to hire people to measure each individual’s shopping time. Or, if the researcher asked the shopper to measure their own shopping time, it also might affect their shopping activity. This would cause validity and reliability problems. According to Youn (2000), D’Antoni and Shenson (1973) were, however, successful in placing significance on the consumer’s internal dynamics, rather than on the products physical characteristics or location characteristics.

Building on the same theme, Weinberg and Gottwald (1982) stated that impulsive behavior also depends on the personality of the individual consumer and decision behavior cannot be characterized by the extent of cognition alone. An impulse buy was defined as a purchase with high emotional activation of the consumer, little intellectual control of the buying decision, and involving largely automatic reactive behavior actuated by a special stimulus situation. The impulsive buying decisions may be “unplanned” in the sense of “thoughtlessness,” but not all unplanned purchases are impulsively decided, they can be absolutely rational (Iyer, 1989). When impulsive buying decisions or acts are produced, cognitive control is minimal and accompanied by strong emotions. Weinberg

and Gottwald (1982) recognized that an attempt must be made to determine the direction, intensity, and quality of the stimulus pattern.

To test and determine which stimuli the consumer responds thoughtlessly to, Weinberg & Gottwald (1982) developed a study concentrating on the affective processes involved in impulse buying. They constructed an artificial buying situation in such a way that buying decisions and purchases occurred at the same time and created a situation that caused the test person to decide spontaneously on the purchase. A total of 201 actual customers were secretly video taped and then asked to answer questions regarding their purchase. Later, clips of the shoppers were shown to a different sample who also answered the same questions. Factor analysis found that external perception and self-perception had identical hypothetical dimensions and a distinction could be made between the strength and direction of emotions. As for quality of emotions, items could be grouped according to three factors: joy, surprise, and intent. Factor analysis revealed the results from the observation tests reflected the same emotional dimensions as the results from the interviews.

Data from t-tests as well as chi-square tests showed buyers perceived themselves as significantly more interested, more amused, more delighted, and more enthusiastic compared to nonbuyers and they also perceived the direction and strength of their emotions as more distinct. These emotional qualities allow us to distinguish buyer from nonbuyer on their self-perception basis. Weinberg and Gottwald (1982) concluded that buyers' self-perception of emotional behavior (significant stimulus situation and strong activation) were the most essential characteristics of an impulsive buyer (buyer who impulsively decided to buy) and were significantly different from nonbuyers. The t-test

and chi-square test for the external perception data showed that actual buyers were perceived as more emotionalized than actual nonbuyers. The results also confirmed a weak relationship between buying decision and the cognitive factor of intended product use. In conclusion, information processing does play a part in the buying decision, however its influence is smaller than that of the emotional engagement.

Rook and Hoch (1985) enhanced the study of impulse buying by identifying internal psychological states that influence impulse buying. In focusing their attention on cognitive and emotional responses that consumers experience during impulse buying they identified five distinguishable elements: (1) feeling a sudden and spontaneous desire to act; (2) being in a state of psychological disequilibrium; (3) experiencing psychological conflict and struggle; (4) reduction in cognitive evaluation of the product; and (5) disregard for consumption consequences (Rook & Hoch, 1985). Rook and Hoch's (1985) study of impulse buying had two purposes. First, they wanted to examine the psychological content of consumers' self-reports of their impulsive buying behavior. Second, they wanted develop an impulsivity scale by investigating the relationship between impulsivity, consumers general attitudes toward shopping, attitudes toward shopping for particular types of products, and demographic characteristics.

One hundred one females and an equal number of males were interviewed in their homes. Interviewers wrote down all responses to a series of open-ended questions. Then subjects were asked to rate, on a Likert-type scale, 24 statements about their shopping behavior. Data were reduced using an oblique rotation. Two clear factors emerged: attitudes toward shopping (9-item shopping scale) and impulsivity (8-item impulse scale). The correlation between the two scales was .51 ($p < .001$). Individuals who scored high

in impulsivity were more likely to: like shopping at night ($r = .33, p < .001$), enjoy shopping while in a good mood ($r = .28, p < .001$), and like shopping by phone ($r = .21, p < .01$). These impulsive consumers were also less likely to schedule shopping on specific days ($r = -.38, p < .001$) or write out shopping lists ($r = -.41, p < .001$). Examination of the relationship between the two scales and personal characteristics were consistent with other previous research findings (Rook & Hoch, 1985).

Hirschman (1985) implied that the consumer's own train of thought may trigger the desire to make an unanticipated purchase and once triggered the urge may be so powerful and persistent it demands immediate action. The purpose of Rook's (1987) study was to identify impulse buying behavior components and to observe the extent to which consumer's subjective experiences corresponded to the concept of impulse buying. His study also focused on distinguishing experimental features such as: the onset of the buying impulse, how consumers cope with their impulsive urges to buy, and the types of negative consequences they incur as a result of their impulsive buying. A sample of 133 (65 males and 68 females) respondents selected from college classrooms and off-campus field settings, completed personal interviews and self-administrated questionnaires (Rook, 1987).

Respondents were asked to recall the last time they had experienced impulse buying and to describe it in vivid detail. Respondents were specifically asked to describe how their impulse to buy came about, where they were, and how it seized them. Two judges coded 14 descriptions of respondents' impulse buying experiences. Almost one third (32%) of the sample explicitly described their buying impulse as an all of the sudden urge to buy something. Nearly the same amount (31%) described the feeling of

being compelled to possess or to purchase something instantly. Responses varied as to impulse buying being a source of personal excitement. Almost one fifth (19%) of the sample depicted impulse buying as “exciting,” “thrilling” or “wild.” Some respondents felt a “tingling sensation,” “a warm feeling,” “hot flashes,” or a “surge of energy” as the urge to buy attacked them. A few described the feeling that over comes them when an impulse buy strikes as “no big deal” (Rook, 1987, p.194).

Only a handful (5%) described a sense of synchronicity involvement like magic. They said they felt they were in the right place at the right time. Several respondents said they felt “hypnotized” or “mesmerized” by the impulse buying experience and found themselves mindlessly moving toward a cashier, as if in a dream. Forty-one percent reported hedonic elements were involved and others suggested negative or painful elements were present. Twenty-nine percent reported significant interplay between the pleasure and reality principles. Some respondents reported ignoring awareness of potentially negative consequences. Over 80 percent of the sample reported incurring negative experiences as a result of impulse buying, 19 percent reported never having any kind of problem. Of those respondents reporting negative consequences, 56 percent had experienced financial problems, 37 percent said they suffered disappointment with product purchased, 20 percent reported feeling guilty; almost 19 percent reported negative consequences of someone else’s disapproval, and only a few (8%) reported negative consequences with other (nonfinancial) plans (Rook, 1987).

Rook (1987) stated that through experimental research social psychologists have found that delay in gratification has a positive correlation with age, intelligence, social responsibility, and the presence of a father in the home. He continued to explain that

research has also shown that gratification delay is more prevalent among people who are high in need for achievement. Rook (1987) defined impulse buying in this way:

Impulse buying occurs when a consumer experiences a sudden, and often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately. The impulse to buy is hedonically complex and may stimulate emotional conflict. Also, impulse buying is prone to occur with diminished regard for its consequences (p. 191).

Rook's (1987) definition is closely related to Stern's (1962) definition of "pure impulse" buying behavior, which was identified as a novelty or escape purchase that breaks a normal buying pattern. Impulsive buying is considered extraordinary, exciting, and highly emotional, spontaneous, fast, often urgent, and forceful, and the consumer is most likely to feel out of control because of disruption in regular behavior pattern. Alternatively, contemplated buying is more ordinary and tranquil, more slow, rational and cautious, less urgent and forceful, and more likely to be apart of one's regular routine (Rook, 1987).

According to Youn (2000), Rook (1987) is unfortunately unsuccessful in explaining the incorporation of emotional and cognitive reactions in the measurement of impulse buying. Rook (1987) described human impulsive behavior as being driven by both biochemical and psychological stimuli, with the latter function originating stimulation and motivation from both conscious and unconscious activity. An individual's impulses are a creation of two competing forces: the pleasure principle and the reality principle. The two compete because of difficulties in resistance of impulses that often involve anticipated pleasurable experiences. The pleasure principle compromises deliberation of the reality principle with immediate gratification (Rook, 1987). Consumers are influenced by an experience of inner conflict between both

rational and emotional motives when a sudden buying impulse strikes (Hirschman, 1985; Youn, 2000). Holbrook, et al. (1990), declared that:

Recent approaches to consumer research have tended to regard consumer behavior either as a mode of reasoned action or as a repository of emotional reactions. We [Holbrook, O'Shaughnessy & Bell] argue that a one-side focus on either aspect by itself – actions or reactions – provides a distorted view of the consumption experience. [Holbrook, O'Shaughnessy & Bell] therefore proposed an integrative overview of the consumption experience that attempts to provide a synthesis by tying together the complementary roles of reasons and emotions in consumer behavior (p. 131).

Expanding on the Holbrook, et al. (1990) definition of impulse buying, Hoch and Lowenstein (1991) recognized impulse buying as a struggle between these two psychological processes of affect (emotions) and cognition (thoughts). The affective process produces forces of desire resulting in impulsivity and the cognitive process enables willpower or self-control and the two are by no means independent of one another. Even though in previous research they are examined separately, neither one alone can provide adequate accounts of the complete decision making process (Hoch & Lowenstein, 1991). Integration of affective and cognitive reactions is an important aspect of impulse buying (Burroughs, 1996; Gardner & Rook, 1988; Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991; Rook & Gardner, 1993). Hoch and Lowenstein (1991) described impulse buying in the following way:

A struggle between the psychological forces of desire and willpower. Two psychological processes of emotional factors which are reflected in the reference-point model of deprivation and desire and cognitive factors which are reflected in the deliberation and self-control strategies that consumers utilize. The two are by no means independent of one another. A change in either desire or willpower can cause the consumer to shift over the buy line, resulting in a purchase. Emotions influence cognitive factors (e.g., desire motivating a rationalization of the negative consequences of a purchase) and vice versa (e.g., cost analysis reducing a desire) (p.504).

Prediction of what an individual may do at any point in time weighs heavily on personal characteristics of self-control and impulsivity. An overwhelming desire to buy battles with the willpower to delay instant gratification. When an individual lacks sufficient self-control over his buying desire, impulse buying transpires (Youn, 2000). The struggle between the inner emotional desire to buy and the inner cognitive willpower not to buy is like a balance beam that can shift at any moment and only a slight shift is needed in order to create a change. Emotional desire and cognitive willpower work against each other and generate an uneven impulsivity/self-control balance beam effect. As a consumer's emotional desire increases cognitive willpower decreases creating impulsivity, which will result in an impulsive buy if all other contributing factors remain constant (Youn, 2000).

A list of distracting factors is infinite, for example the store may close, or one's train of thought may be interrupted by say an emergency phone call or perhaps a crying baby, to name only a few. On the other end of the balance beam, when the cognitive willpower side happens to overtake the strength of the emotional side, contemplation and evaluation occur eliminating impulsivity. Note that a purchase may still take place, however the purchase no longer is an impulse buy because an evaluation process has occurred eliminating all factors that define the purchase as impulsive. For example the spontaneity, lack of control, stress and psychological disequilibrium disappear during the deliberation process eliminating the buy as impulsive (Youn, 2000).

Summary of Past Research and Impulse Buying Definitions

In summary, all impulse buying definitions described include reference to the sudden overwhelming urge to consume and to the speed of the decision making process.

Each relates impulsivity to an out of control state of feeling and a struggle between emotional conflicts. Many of these definitions evolve to develop comparisons between psychological cognitive and affective processes. Hoch and Lowenstein's (1991) definition provides the best general explanation of impulsive buying. Therefore this definition will be used in this thesis: the struggle between the psychological forces of emotional desire and cognitive willpower compete with one another and any slight change in either can cause a shift over the buying line. Many more definitions of impulse buying have been posited over the years. Appendix A includes an expanded overview of the evolution of impulse buying definitions from literature reviewed for this thesis.

Each day consumers make numerous decisions concerning every aspect of their daily lives. However, these decisions are generally made without very much thought as to how or what is involved in the particular process. Not all consumer decision-making situations require nor receive the same degree of information search. It would be an exhausting process if all purchase decisions required extensive effort. On the other hand, if all purchases were routine, then they would tend to be monotonous and would provide little pleasure or novelty.

The extent of effort that a consumer uses for problem solving tasks depends on how well established his/her criteria for selection are, how much information he/she already has about the product, and how many choice alternatives are available (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Theoretical economics has portrayed a world of perfect competition, where the consumer is often characterized as making rational decisions. Realistically, however, consumers rarely have all of the information or sufficiently accurate information or even an adequate degree of involvement or motivation to make the so-

called “perfect” decision. Consumers are limited by their existing skills, habits, and reflexes, by their existing values and goals, and by their extent of knowledge (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Consumers generally are unwilling to engage in extensive decision-making activities and are willing to settle for just “good enough” (March & Simon, 1958).

In an emotional or impulsive view of consumer decision-making, less emphasis is placed on the search for prepurchase information and more is placed on current mood and feelings. This type of decision-making describes emotional impulsive shopping behavior. On the other hand, buying products that give emotional satisfaction can be a perfectly rational consumer decision.

Affect and Cognition

Affect and cognition are rather different types of psychological responses consumers can have in any shopping situation. Although the affective and cognitive systems are distinct, they are richly interconnected, and each system can influence and be influenced by the other. Affect refers to feeling responses, whereas cognition consists of mental (thinking) responses (Youn, 2000).

Consumers’ affective and cognitive systems are active in every environment, but only some internal activity is conscious, a great deal of activity may occur without much awareness. Take for instance this grocery scenario posed by Peter & Olson (1999):

Greg may feel a bit angry about getting a cart with a wobbly wheel. He also pays attention to certain aspects of the store environment and ignores other parts. Some products capture his attention while others do not. He interprets a large amount of information in the store environment from the aisle signs to brand names to price tags to nutrition labels. In addition, he evaluates some of the

products in terms of meeting his needs and those of his family. He remembers what products he still has on hand at home what he has run out of and needs to replace. He makes choices from among some of the 10,000 to 20,000 items available in the store. In addition, he makes decisions about other specific behaviors. Should he go down aisle 3 or skip a week? Should he stock up on canned peaches or buy just one can? Should he give Angela a cookie for being good? Should he take the wobbly cart back and get another one? Should he pay with cash or by check? Should he get paper or plastic bags (p.37)?

In sum, Greg's grocery purchasing behavior is a complex function of his social and physical environment, the marketing strategies intended to influence him, his own behavior, and the processes of his affective and cognitive systems. Each factor interacts with and reciprocally influences the others (Peter & Olson, 1999).

Motivation begins with the presence of outside environmental stimuli or from individual internal stimuli that results in spurring the recognition of a need. When this happens a stimulus produces a divergence between the person's desired and actual state of being. As a consumer's satisfaction with his/her actual state decreases, or if the level of his/her desired state increases, he/she may recognize a problem that propels the need for action (O'Shaughnessy, 1987). Expressive needs are desires to fulfill social and/or aesthetic requirements; they are closely related to the maintenance of a person's self-concept. Utilitarian needs are desires to solve basic problems or fulfill basic needs (e.g., food, clothes). Two generalizations about needs should be mentioned. First, needs can either be innate or learned through secondary conditioning processes and/or consumer socialization. Second, all of a person's needs can never be fully satisfied, if one need is fulfilled another will spring up to take its place (O'Shaughnessy, 1987).

Once a need is aroused, it produces a drive state. A drive is an affective state in which the person experiences emotions and physiological arousal. The level of a drive

state influences the person's level of involvement and affective state. As drive increases, feeling and emotions intensify, resulting in higher levels of involvement and information processing. Drives, urges, wishes, or desires motivate a person toward goal-directed behavior. When people experience a drive state, they engage in goal-directed behavior that consists of actions taken to relieve the need state (e.g., searching for information, talking to other consumers about product, shopping for the best bargain, and purchasing products and services). Similarities exist between needs and problem recognition and goal-directed behavior and the search for information. Consumer decision-making is activated when the consumer recognizes that a problem exists, and problem recognition occurs when the consumer's actual state of being differs from a desire state of being. These concepts are essentially synonymous, in each instance the consumer engages in a series of behaviors to fulfill a need or solve a problem (O'Shaughnessy, 1987).

Consumer incentives are the products, services, information, and even other people consumers perceive will satisfy a need. Incentive objects are connected to the need recognition stage, where they act to narrow the gap between the actual and desired states. Incentive objects can be thought of as enforcers that direct the consumers behavior toward fulfilling needs (O'Shaughnessy, 1987).

A person's needs have a strong effect on motivation to maintain an optimum level of stimulation, which is the preferred amount of physiological activation or arousal. A person's level of stimulation at any given point in time is influenced by internal and external factors. A person will generally take action to correct the level whenever it becomes too high or too low. Maintaining an optimum stimulation level is closely related to the desire for hedonic experiences. Hedonic consumption refers to the needs of

consumers to use products and services to create fantasies, to feel new sensations, and to obtain emotional arousal (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

Early motivation researchers focused on the emotional reasons for people's consumption patterns and emphasized how products could be used to arouse and fulfill fantasies. Concepts on the symbolic nature of products emerged and suggested products are more than simply objective entities but are also tokens of emotional and social significance. Hedonism is a term that generally refers to gaining pleasure through the senses. People seek to experience a variety of emotions both positive and negative. One point made by hedonic consumption theorists is that emotional desires sometimes dominate utilitarian motives when consumers are choosing products. People often buy products not for their functional benefits, but rather for their symbolic values (Levy, 1959). A product's symbolic value and the emotion it is anticipated to elicit in the consumer is the desire behind what motivates hedonic consumption.

Many consumer researchers believe that people view their possessions as an extension of themselves—personal identity (Dittmar, Beattie, Friese, 1995; 1996; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Levy, 1959; Peter & Olson, 1999). Many products are brought partly to reflect the consumer's self-concept and are symbols representing the buyer's self to others. They have found a definite relationship between a person's self-image and certain products that a person buys. The tendency of a consumer to seek happiness through ownership of objects has been called materialism (Peter & Olson, 1999). At the highest levels of materialism, such possessions assume a central place in a person's life and are the greatest sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction

A felt need produces a drive state that creates affective reactions in consumers. Affect, or feelings, can be defined as a class of mental phenomena uniquely characterized by a consciously experienced, subjective feeling state, commonly accompanying emotions and moods (Gardner, 1987). Affect is a broad term that encompasses both emotions and moods. A mood is a transient feeling state that occurs in a specific situation or time. Moods are temporary in nature, which sets them apart from our personality, which is long lasting. Emotions are distinguished from moods by their greater intensity and their greater psychological urgency. Even though moods are short in duration and mild in intensity they influence the recall of information. Research has found that people are better able to remember information that has the same affective quality as their mood state (Isen, Shalke, Clark, & Karp, 1978). Mood states influence the encoding of and retrieval of information, as well as how information is organized in memory (Gardner, 1987). The relationship between affect and memory suggests that marketers should generally attempt to put consumers in a positive mood when they are presenting them with information on a product or service.

With an experiential purchase, some affective processes appear to dominate and precede rational decision-making. Some researchers have noted that emotions may predominate even in some highly involving situations. Experiential buying processes emphasize the fun and feelings that can be obtained by experiencing the product or service. Three types of experiential purchases are purchases resulting from variety seeking, which refer to the tendency of consumers to spontaneously buy a new brand of product even though they continue to express satisfaction with their old brand, purchases made out of brand loyalty, where a purchase leads to affective reactions as a direct result

of consumer's accumulated perceptions of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with brand qualities (Burroughs, 1996), and purchases made on impulse. The impulse buy process occurs as a result of creating affect through the classical conditioning of positive feelings toward the product. When the consumer encounters a product, processes the information about it holistically, and reacts with an extremely strong positive affect an impulse buy takes place (Burroughs, 1996).

The interrelationship among beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors is highly important in understanding the consumer buying process. Beliefs describe the knowledge a person has about objects, attributes, and benefits (O'Shaughnessy, 1987). Beliefs are formed through exposure to and the processing of information obtained from ads, friends, and through direct experience of the product. Product attributes are the characteristics that a product may or may not have (O'Shaughnessy, 1987). Product benefits are the positive and negative outcomes provided by the product's attributes. Consumer attitudes represent the amount of affect or feeling that a person holds for or against a stimulus object, such as a brand, a person, a company, or an idea. Attitudes may be formed through principles of classical and operant conditioning; mere repeated exposure to a previously neutral stimulus could induce positive feelings (O'Shaughnessy, 1987). Attitudes serve four different functions for consumers. First is the utilitarian function: consumers express an attitude to maximize rewards and minimize punishments from others. Second is the value-expressive function: consumers express an attitude to make a statement to others about what they believe to be important and valuable. Third is the ego-defensive function: consumers seek to maintain their self-concept by holding attitudes that protect them from unpleasant truths about themselves or the external world.

Fourth is the knowledge function: consumers use attitudes to help them comprehend a complex universe (O'Shaughnessy, 1987).

Consumer behavior refers to all the actions of acquiring, using, and disposing of product or service. Consumer behavior is described as either the intentions or likelihood involved in engaging in some behavior or the actual/overt behavior. Consumption behavior results from a number of different processes. When the consumer is in a high-involvement situation, the standard learning hierarchy operates: behavior occurs after beliefs are formed and attitudes are created. In the low-involvement hierarchy, behavior appears to occur after a limited number of beliefs are formed: attitudes play only a minor role in influencing behavior and are formed only after the consumer purchases and uses the product. In the experiential hierarchy, affect occurs first, followed by behavior (Rook & Hoch, 1985). Impulse buying exemplifies an experiential purchase. The behaviorally influenced hierarchy is usually followed in situations where strong situational or environmental forces propel the consumer to engage in the behavior.

Impulse buying is closely tied to reflexes or responses actuated by both external stimuli referring to environmental factors (such as visual salience) and or internal stimuli referring to self-generated autistic impulses (such as moods, emotions, and cravings) (Wansink, 1994). The action or reaction created by external and or internal stimuli is processed by affect or cognition or a combination of the two. The recognition of this combination of thoughts and emotions, created and perceived by the consumer, is what has lead to the present day understanding of impulse buying.

Gender Differences and Impulsive Behavior

One personal, extremely important variable that needs to be discussed is gender. Despite modern tendency to downplay differences between men and women the evidence shows they process information differently (Peter & Olson, 1999), relate and value material possessions differently, buy different items and for different reasons, and have different influences on purchase decisions (Crawford, Kippax, Onyx, Gault, & Benton, 1992; Dittmar, Beattie, & Friese, 1995; 1996).

Today, women either make or greatly influence most purchase decisions. Research has shown that women control approximately 60 percent of U.S. wealth and influence more than 80 percent of all purchases. Companies that fail to recognize this are headed for trouble (Peter & Olson, 1999). Even in 1967, Kollat and Willett recognized that women usually make more purchases than men and in fact enjoy shopping (Rook & Hoch, 1985) more than men, ($t = 4.6, p < .001$). This may explain their finding that women purchase a higher percentage of products on an unplanned basis due to the total amount of purchases being made. It is sensible to think that the more one shops the more one will buy. Kollat and Willett (1967) presented a conflicting view, stating that sex does not affect purchase behavior. Instead, they believe that if the number of purchases is held constant, men and women have the same degree of susceptibility to unplanned purchases. Rook and Hoch (1985) found that females are more impulsive ($t = 2.29, p < .025$). However, Cobb and Hoyer (1986) found that males were more likely to be categorized as impulse purchasers.

Literature reveals men's and women's intentions, values, and decision-making processes as related to purchases are different.

Generally, women process information differently from men and seem to be more 'generous, more nurturing, and less dominating than men.' Research has found that women treat possessions differently than men do. Ownership and possession of products is seen by some men as a way to dominate and exert power over others, discriminate themselves from others (status differentiation), and even engage in subtle forms of aggression over others. Women, in contrast, tend to value possessions that can enhance personal and social relationships. Compared to most men, most women seem to value caring to controlling, sharing to selfishness, and cooperating to dominating (Peter & Olson, 1999, p. 313).

Underhill (1999) explained in his book, Why We Buy, that for many women there are psychological and emotional aspects to shopping that are just plain absent in men. He states, "women can go into a kind of reverie when they shop—they become absorbed in the ritual of seeking and comparing, of imagining and envisioning merchandise in use" (p. 216). Women tally up the pros and cons of each item, and once they find the right price they make the purchase. Women are generally more patient and inquisitive than men about purchase decisions and they take pride in their ability to select the perfect item. Women have higher demands of the shopping environment than do men. In general, men move faster than women through store aisles, spend less time looking, usually do not like to ask where things are, or any other questions, and in many settings tend not to look at anything they had not intended to buy (Underhill, 1999). Males just want a place that allows them to find what they need in minimum time and get out fast. Many males feel that shopping is a waste of time unless it is functional (i.e., they actually bought what they set out to buy) (Rook & Hoch, 1985).

Rook and Hoch (1985) found that sex difference in consumer impulsivity could partly reflect the fact that typically men and women shop for different kinds of products. Men are more prideful in their proficiency with certain durable goods—cars, tools, boats, barbecue grills, and computers. Computer hardware and software have taken the place of

cars and stereo equipment as the focus of a male's love for technology and gadgetry. Women, though, have traditionally understood the importance of the impermanent world—cooking a meal, decorating a cake, fixing their hair and makeup (Underhill, 1999). Rook and Hoch (1985) found that women enjoy shopping for aesthetic goods like casual and dress clothing and grooming products ($t = 9.0, p < .001$).

The use of shopping as a social activity seems unchanged. Women still like to shop with friends. Studies show that when two women shop together, they often spend more time and money than women who shop alone (Underhill, 1999). We know that how much a customer buys is a direct result of how much time they spend in the store (Underhill, 1999). When a woman is in a store with a man, she will spend less time there than when she's alone, with another woman or even with children. The conventional wisdom on male shoppers is that they do not especially like to shop, which is why they do not do much of it. It is a struggle just to get them to be patient for a woman while she shops. As a result, stores generally gear the entire shopping experience from the packaging design to advertising to merchandising to store design and fixturing toward the female shopper. Traditionally, purchasing has been the women's job, they do it willingly, tend to be dependable, and take pride in their ability to shop prudently and well (Underhill, 1999).

The supermarket is a place of high impulse buying for both sexes. Grocery industry studies have shown that 60 to 70 percent of purchases by both sexes are unplanned (Underhill, 1999). In one supermarket study that counted how many shoppers came armed with lists almost all of the women had them, less than a quarter of the men did (Underhill, 1999). Cobb and Hoyer (1986) found that women are likely to exhibit

some element of planning prior to entering the store. In another study, Underhill and his associates found that 65 percent of male shoppers who tried something on bought it, as opposed to 25 percent of female shoppers (Underhill, 1999).

Income levels have a great impact on values, behavior, and lifestyles. There is a very strong relationship between college education and income level or purchasing power (Peter & Olson, 1999). Marital status also has an impact. As the number of years married increases, both the quantity and variety of consumption increase (Kollat & Willett, 1967).

While men may not love the experience of shopping, they get a definite thrill from the experience of paying. Another profligate male behavior is the man almost always pays, especially when a man and a woman shop together. It allows him to feel in charge even when he is not (Underhill, 1999). Subculture and social class influence how people think, feel, and behave relative to their physical, social, and marketing environments. Consider age as a factor. A person's thoughts, emotions, and behavior reflects their perceived self and is more related to their psychological age rather than their chronological age (Peter & Olson, 1999). Older shoppers have probably had more shopping experience and may feel better qualified to evaluate purchase alternatives (Kollat & Willett, 1967).

Understanding the strength of these processes will facilitate the understanding of how they relate to impulse buying and how differently, if at all, men and women interpret internal and external stimuli. Ultimately a concrete understanding of how and why emotional and cognitive processes occur will add tremendous beneficial knowledge about impulsive buying.

Summary

Conflicting definitions of impulse buying needs resolved. The definition should incorporate affective and cognitive processes. Additionally, more research on gender differences is imperative.

This chapter included an overview of past research and the evolution of impulse buying definitions. Literature pertaining to consumer decision-making, affective and cognitive processes involved in impulse buying, and gender-related information was presented. The next chapter describes the methodology for this study. It introduces research hypotheses, instrumental design, population and sampling, data collection method, and data analysis techniques.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Design and Methodology

This chapter outlines and defines technical methods involved in this research. Elements include research hypotheses, operational definitions of variables, design of instrument, recruitment of subjects, data collection, data analysis techniques, and study limitations and assumptions.

Null Hypotheses

Retail and related industries need to be aware and knowledgeable of psychological processes that occur during decision-making. Understanding the importance and impact that affective and cognitive processes contribute to impulse purchase and consumption are vital in order to attain personal and company sales goals. Based on literature review and past research the following hypotheses were constructed.

There will be no significant difference in impulse buying behavior between males and females in terms of:

H₁: individual components of the affective process.

H₂: individual components of the cognitive process.

H₃: overall affective and cognitive processes.

H₄: product category purchased.

Appendix B presents an explanation of independent and dependent variables for each hypothesis.

Operational Definitions of Variables

Good operational definitions yield better measurement that accurately reflects the likelihood of engaging in impulse buying. Operational definitions make it possible to identify factors that are linked to impulse buying and generate a greater understanding of how these factors enhance our overall knowledge of consumer behavior.

Independent Variable

The independent variable of this study was gender. Previous research on impulse buying has mainly focused on women due to the fact that they enjoy shopping more and in fact do it more than men (Kollat & Willett, 1967). Respondents were asked to indicate their gender in the demographics section of the survey (Appendix C).

Dependent Variables

Dependent variables included individual components of affective and cognitive processes, overall affective and cognitive process, as well as product category purchased. The components of the affective process each represent emotional involvement. Three component variables were used to measure characteristics of the affective process. These components included multiply items related to: irresistible urge to buy, positive buying emotion, and mood management. Eight questions were included in the survey using four forced-choice options of (1) strongly disagree to (4) strongly agree. Two questions were modified from Han (1991), five questions from Youn (2000), and one from Beatty (1998). See Table 2 for specific information.

Table 2: Empirical Support for Dependent Variables

Question Number	Empirical Support
<p>Affective Components Irresistible Urge to Buy</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. When I shop I tend to decide what I want to buy while I am looking around in a store. 2. I always buy if I really like it. <p>Positive Buying Emotions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. I feel a sense of thrill when I am buying something new. 10. I feel excited when making a purchase. <p>Mood Management</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Buying is a way of reducing stress in my daily life. 6. Sometimes, I buy something in order to make myself feel better. 7. Sometimes I regret buying new things. 8. I experience mixed feelings of pleasure and guilt from buying something on impulse. <p>Cognitive Components Cognitive Deliberation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. I make a list when I go shopping and buy only what is on the list. 15. I rarely ever buy impulsively. 16. When you think about your buying behavior in general, do you consider yourself to be an impulse buyer? 17. Would people who know you consider you to be an impulse buyer? <p>Unplanned Buying</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. When I go shopping, I buy things that I had not intended to purchase. 12. If I see something that I think I need, I buy it even though I went shopping for other purposes. <p>Disregard for the Future</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 13. I tend to spend money as soon as I earn it. 	<p>1-2. Han, 1987</p> <p>3. Youn, 2000 10. Beatty, 1998</p> <p>5-8. Youn, 2000</p> <p>4. Han, 1987; Rook & Fisher, 1995</p> <p>15-17. Youn, 2000</p> <p>11 Beatty, 1998; Youn, 2000 12. Han, 1987; Rook & Hoch, 1985; Martin, Weun, & Beatty (1993); Youn, 2000</p> <p>13. Youn, 2000</p>

The components of the cognitive process involve analytical thought. Three component variables were used to measure characteristics of the cognitive process. These components included multiple items measuring: cognitive deliberation, unplanned buying, and a single item measuring disregard for the future. Seven questions were included in the survey using four forced-choice options of (1) strongly disagree to (4) strongly agree. Two questions were modified from Han (1990), four questions from Youn (2000), and one from Beatty (1998). See Table 2 for specific information.

Respondents were asked to indicate the frequency with which they purchase a variety of items. These fifteen items represented an assortment of apparel and beauty products as well as items related to electronics, hardware, and entertainment. Responses were measured using five point Likert-type scales consisting of (1) never, (2) more than yearly, (3) yearly, (4) seasonal, (5) monthly or less. All frequency data relates to impulse buying, and not just patronage. See Appendix C for a full list of product categories.

Finally, seven demographic questions were asked to each respondent. One of the seven questions regarded gender. The other six questions, although not used to test hypotheses, included: marital status (single, married, divorced), years of age, job status (full time student, part time job, unemployed, full time student/part time employed, full time job, full time job/part time student, and full time student/full time job), school status (freshman, sophomore, junior, senior, graduate student), approximate grade point average, and estimated dollar amount available each month that can be spend on one's self.

Additional questions were included for future study, however these questions are beyond the scope of this thesis. These items can be found in the survey (Appendix C).

Instrument

The instrument (survey) for this study was modified from previous researchers, and contained 64 questions (Appendix C). The survey consisted of four, full, 8 ½" x 11", double-spaced pages. The top of the first page included a paragraph to indicate the research objective and subject's consent. The survey was comprised of six sections: (1) affective and cognitive components, (2) frequency of various types of items purchased, (3) amount of planning and consideration of various types of items purchased, (4) degree of influential external factors (i.e., advertising, salesperson, price), (5) frequency of shopping companion(s), frequency of credit card use, number of store usually shopped before making a purchase, and (6) demographic (i.e., income level, age, gender, job and school status) questions. There were 17 questions in section one, 15 questions in sections two and three, seven questions in section four, three questions in section five, and seven questions in section six. Forced-choice response scales measured section one. Five Point Likert-type response scales measured sections two through four and the first two questions of section five. The last question of section five and questions three, five and seven in section six were numerical responses marked next to the questions. The remaining questions in section six had the answers located to the right and the correct answer that applied was to be circled. Directions were included in each section. In addition to written directions, participants were instructed to base responses to the sections regarding product categories on their past impulsive buying behavior.

Population and Sample

Data were collected through a self-report survey administered to male and female graduate and undergraduate students from the University of Georgia (UGA) in Athens. The sample frame was from UGA's Class Schedule book for spring 2002. The researcher used a convenience sample comprised of graduate and undergraduate textiles, merchandising, and interior courses, and as well as several consumer economics courses and a psychology course. The researcher contacted professors of each class by phone at the end of one semester for permission to give out the survey during their class at the beginning of the next semester. A couple of weeks prior to the start of classes the researcher sent out conformation e-mails to each professor to decide the best date and time for the researcher to administer the survey.

Data Collection

During a two-week period at the beginning of the semester the researcher attended the first ten minutes of class for each course. During the ten minutes the researcher discussed the purpose and objective's of the study, gave directions, answered any questioned and collected the completed surveys. A total of 277 surveys were collected in January 2002. All surveys were complete and usable for the current study. The response rate was a 100%. No incentives were offered by researcher.

Data Analysis Technique

First each survey was coded numerically for data entry and for identification of individual survey. Responses were also coded so that the computer software, 'Statistical Package for Social Sciences' (SPSS), could recognize them. Then, all information representing each item was entered into the computer, including missing data.

First, frequency tests were run to find any errors within the data. Cronbach alpha tests were conducted to determine reliability of multi item variables. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests and mean scores were used to test the null hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 tested for male and female differences in individual affective components. Hypothesis 2 tested for male and female differences in individual cognitive components. Hypothesis 3 tested male and female differences in overall affective and cognitive processes. Hypothesis 4 tested male and female differences in impulsivity within purchased product categories.

Study Limitations

The following limitations were considered during the methodological process of this study:

1. The sample was limited in geographical location and generalization to other regions in the United States and other countries should be made with caution.
2. The method of selection was limited. Only the courses where the professor agreed to donate time during class periods were included.
3. Only those students present during the administration of the survey were included.
4. A limited number of courses were surveyed, due to time constraints.

Study Assumptions

The following assumptions were made during the administration of the survey:

1. All participants read and understood directions.
2. All participants carefully read and fully understood each question.
3. Each participant completed only one survey. Some participants were enrolled in more than one class surveyed, but were asked not to complete the survey a second time.

Summary

This chapter presented the research hypotheses, description of variables, instrument design, population and sample, procedures for data collection, data analysis method, and limitations and assumptions of the research design. The next chapter identifies the research findings and discussions as determined by quantitative data analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

Analysis and Discussion of Findings

This chapter presents the data analysis and research findings. The first section is a brief synopsis of statistic methods and variables used in each section of the survey.

Additionally, it describes the analyses of the data, the statistical results, and acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses. The second section includes the discussion of the results. The final section is a summary of this chapter.

Statistical Methods and Data Analysis

Any research based on measurements must be concerned with the dependability, or, as it is usually called, reliability of measurements. This particular study was designed to examine affective and cognitive processes involved in impulse buying. First, frequency tests were executed to spot check and determine any errors within the data. Next, Cronbach alpha tests were employed to determine the reliability of the “internal consistency” between the psychological processes individual components, which were measured using multi item variable scales. Alpha scores indicated whether or not items within the components were homogeneous that is measured the same thing. In other words, internal consistency refers to the estimated reliability based on the average correlation among items within a test; if coefficient alpha proves to be low, it would be said the items have little in common. Consequently, the test could not be said to have good internal consistency. Table 3 presents the item numbers, reliability scores, and correlation to total scores. Typically, alphas of .5 or greater are retained for analysis.

Table 3: Scale Reliability of Dependent Variables

Survey Question Number	Cronbach Alpha (Correlation to Total)
Affective Components	
Irresistible Urge to Buy	.4721
1. When I shop I tend to decide what I want to buy while I am looking around in a store.	(.3097)
2. I always buy if I really like it.	(.3097)
Positive Buying Emotions	.6881
3. I feel a sense of thrill when I am buying something new.	(.5260)
10. I feel excited when making a purchase.	(.5260)
Mood Management	.5706
5. Buying is a way of reducing stress in my daily life.	(.3883)
6. Sometimes, I buy something in order to make myself feel better.	(.4956)
7. Sometimes I regret buying new things.	(.2224)
8. I experience mixed feelings of pleasure and guilt from buying something on impulse.	(.3251)
Cognitive Components	
Cognitive Deliberation	.8078
4. I make a list when I go shopping and buy only what is on the list.	(.2977)
15. I rarely ever buy impulsively.	(.7212)
16. When you think about your buying behavior in general, do you consider yourself to be an impulse buyer?	(.7874)
17. Would people who know you consider you to be an impulse buyer	(.7248)
Unplanned Buying	.6909
11. When I go shopping, I buy things that I had not intended to purchase.	(.5374)
12. If I see something that I think I need, I buy it even though I went shopping for other purposes.	(.5374)
Disregard for the Future	N/A
13. I tend to spend money as soon as I earn it.	N/A

Although the alpha score for irresistible urge to buy was low (.4721) this variable was retained for analysis due to its importance in the literature review. As a result the findings related to this variable should be interpreted with caution. Multi item variables were condensed into new variables using means from items in the survey. After reducing multi item variables, ANOVA tests were conducted to test the null hypotheses.

Demographic Findings

Frequency tests were conducted to provide descriptive information regarding variables, including demographics (see Table 4). The frequency tests revealed females composed three quarters (75.8%) of the sample. This can be explained due to courses in which permission was granted for data collection had a significant relationship to careers dominated by females. The majority of the sample were juniors and seniors (86.6%), aged 20 to 22 (76.2%). These findings were anticipated because courses surveyed were upper level courses and these ages are typical for junior and senior students. Taking age into consideration, finding that the vast majority were single (93.5%) was not surprising. Grade point averages (on a 4.0 scale) consisted of 17.2 percent of the sample having a 3.5 or higher GPA, 33.7 percent having between a 3.0 and 3.4 GPA, 32.8 percent having between a 2.5 and 2.98 GPA, and 14.5 percent having a 2.45 or lower GPA. Almost 60 percent of the sample were full time students only and 37.9 percent reported a part time job. Due to possible misinterpretation of the answer choices the data may be distorted, and should be considered in generalizing these findings. Some respondents may not have selected all possible answers. Item wording may have also distorted

Table 4: Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Gender		
Male	67	24.2
Female	<u>201</u>	<u>75.8</u>
	277	100.0
Age		
18	2	.7
19	7	2.5
20	53	19.1
21	101	36.5
22	57	20.6
23	24	8.7
24	15	5.4
25	3	1.1
26	2	.7
27	4	1.4
28	3	1.1
30	1	.4
32	3	1.1
<u>33</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>.7</u>
277	277	100.0
Marital Status		
Single	259	93.5
Married	<u>18</u>	<u>6.5</u>
	277	100.0
Job Status		
Full Time Student	166	59.9
Part Time Job	105	37.9
Unemployed	/	/
Full Time Student /Part Time Job	2	.7
Full Time Job	2	.7
Full Time Job /Part Time Student	1	.4
Full Time Student /Full Time Job	<u>1</u>	<u>.4</u>
	277	100.0

Table 4: continued

Estimated Dollar Amount that you can Spend on Self Each Month		
\$.00	1	.4
20.00	2	.7
25.00	1	.4
30.00	4	1.4
40.00	1	.4
50.00	19	6.9
55.00	1	.4
60.00	3	1.1
65.00	2	.7
70.00	1	.4
75.00	9	3.2
87.00	1	.4
100.00	39	14.1
125.00	3	1.1
150.00	24	8.7
175.00	3	1.1
180.00	1	.4
200.00	49	17.7
225.00	1	.4
250.00	8	2.9
300.00	24	8.7
350.00	6	2.2
400.00	18	6.5
450.00	1	.4
500.00	21	7.6
600.00	6	2.2
700.00	3	1.1
800.00	3	1.1
900.00	2	.7
1000.00	8	2.9
1250.00	1	.4
1500.00	2	.7
3000.00	<u>1</u>	<u>.4</u>
	269	97.1
Missing	<u>8</u>	<u>2.9</u>
Total	277	100.0

Table 4: continued

School Status			
	Freshman	/	/
	Sophomore	17	6.1
	Junior	115	41.5
	Senior	125	45.1
	Graduate	<u>19</u>	<u>6.9</u>
		276	99.6
	Missing	<u>1</u>	<u>.4</u>
	Total	277	100.0
Approximate GPA			
	Percentage		
	1.90	1	.4
	2.00	4	1.4
	2.10	4	1.4
	2.15	1	.4
	2.20	4	1.4
	2.25	1	.4
	2.30	9	3.2
	2.35	1	.4
	2.40	13	4.7
	2.44	1	.4
	2.45	1	.4
	2.50	21	7.6
	2.60	13	4.7
	2.66	1	.4
	2.67	1	.4
	2.70	11	4.0
	2.75	4	1.4
	2.79	1	.4
	2.80	19	6.9
	2.85	1	.4
	2.88	1	.4
	2.89	1	.4
	2.90	13	4.7
	2.96	1	.4
	2.98	2	.7
	3.00	31	11.2
	3.06	1	.4
	3.08	1	.4
	3.10	7	2.5

Table 4: continued

3.15	2	.7
3.17	1	.4
3.20	15	5.4
3.25	2	.7
3.30	17	6.1
3.33	1	.4
3.37	1	.4
3.40	14	5.1
3.50	17	6.1
3.54	1	.4
3.58	1	.4
3.60	3	1.1
3.68	1	.4
3.70	6	2.2
3.72	1	.4
3.75	2	.7
3.80	6	2.2
3.90	3	1.1
4.00	<u>6</u>	<u>2.2</u>
	270	97.5
Missing	<u>7</u>	<u>2.5</u>
Total	277	100.0

(over/underestimated) response data related to estimated dollar amount spent on oneself each month. Estimated dollar amounts ranged from \$0 to \$3,000 per month with a mean of \$281 and a mode of \$200. There are possible explanations. If students in the lower half of the income range were full time students without jobs they probably did not have a great deal of extra money remaining after paying their bills. Also those who did have part time jobs probably worked twenty or less hours a week at minimum wage jobs resulting in little discretionary income after paying bills. For those few who fall at the upper half of the range, there are also possible explanations. They may be part time students with full time career jobs making significantly more than the traditional college student. In addition, some of these individuals may have financial funds from other sources (e.g., family). Another possible assisting factor to additional spending money could be from contributions of the HOPE (Helping Outstanding Pupils Educationally) scholarship. The HOPE scholarship, funded by the Georgia state lottery, is received by those students who graduate from Georgia high schools with a minimum grade point average of 3.0 and who continue to maintain their 3.0 at the University of Georgia. Overall it is evident by the mean score (mean = \$281) that a population of students does not respectfully represent the general population. The financial management on students likely involves severe budget constraints, offering limited potential for impulse buying. Additionally, gender roles and gender attributes are comparably different between the general population and a student population.

Hypotheses Findings

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 was rejected. Analysis of Variance tests were performed to determine significant differences between males and females in terms of irresistible urge to buy, positive buying emotion and mood management. Individual Analysis of Variance tests were conducted between gender and each of the three affective process components.

The result of the first test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males/females in terms of irresistible urge to buy was significant ($p = .011$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of irresistible urge to buy. By examining mean scores, it appears that females are more likely to experience an irresistible urge to buy (mean 2.8310) compared to males (mean 2.6194). A reason females may experience a greater irresistible urge to buy compared to males may be due to the greater number of total shopping experiences (Kollat & Willett, 1967).

The result of the second test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of positive buying emotion was significant ($p = .000$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of positive buying emotions. By examining mean scores, it seems that females are more likely to experience positive buying emotions (mean 3.2048) compared to males (mean 2.8134). Reasons why females experience greater positive buying emotions is that females may be generally more emotionally oriented compared to males. Dittmar (1995) found females (mean 4.92) mood and enjoyment were ranked highest on concern compared to men (mean 4.71).

Table 5: Summary of Hypotheses Tests

<u>Null Hypothesis:</u> There is no significant difference between males and females in terms of:	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	Significance
H1: Affective Components.			
a: irresistible urge to buy.	-2.55	275	.011
b: positive buying emotion.	-5.75	275	.000
c: mood management.	-3.74	97.97	.000
H2: Cognitive Components.			
a: cognitive deliberation.	-3.47	134.83	.001
b: unplanned buying.	-3.17	275	.002
c: disregard for the future.	-.12	274	.902
H3:			
a: Overall Affective Process	-5.28	275	.000
b: Overall Cognitive Process	-2.36	275	.019
H4: Product Category Purchased			
a: shirts/sweaters.	-4.43	275	.000
b: pants/skirts.	-3.46	275	.001
c: suits/business wear.	1.65	274	.100
d: coats.	-3.61	275	.000
e: underwear/lingerie.	-2.45	98.61	.016
f: accessories.	-5.97	274	.000
g: shoes.	-5.80	97.04	.000
h: electronics.	5.23	274	.000
i: hardware.	5.86	85.52	.000
j: computer software.	3.02	274	.003
k: music CD's or DVD's	2.17	273	.031
l: sport's memorabilia.	2.26	99.89	.026
m: entertainment.	1.17	118.83	.244
n: health and beauty.	-5.31	71.01	.000
o: magazines, books for pleasure reading.	-2.60	91.58	.011

The result of the third test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of mood management was significant ($p < .000$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of mood management. Mean scores indicate that females are more likely to engage in mood management (mean 2.8349) compared to males (mean 2.521). An explanation may be that females are more aware and more concerned (Underhill, 1999) of their moods and in return more capable and more motivated to change or maintain their feeling and moods compared to males (Peter & Olson, 1999).

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 was partially rejected. Analysis of Variance tests were employed to determine significant differences between males and females in terms of cognitive deliberation, unplanned buying and disregard for the future. Individual Analysis of Variance tests were conducted between gender and each of the three components of cognitive process, with significant finding in the two of the three tests.

The result of the first test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of cognitive deliberation was significant ($p < .001$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of cognitive deliberation. By examining mean scores, it appears that females are more likely to experience cognitive deliberation (mean 2.7583) compared to males (mean 2.5149). An explanation may be that females, when compared to males, are more patient and enjoy the experience of making a good choice selection. Men want to run in, get what they want, and get out (Underhill, 1999).

The result of the second test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of unplanned buying was significant ($p = .002$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of unplanned buying. By examining mean scores, it appears females are more likely to participate in unplanned buying (mean 3.0500) compared to males (mean 2.8358). This result may be contributed to the fact men are more likely to know what they need before entering the store (Rook & Hoch, 1987). The man knows what he wants and goes to get it without wasting anytime (Underhill, 1999).

The result of the third test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of disregard for the future was not significant ($p = .902$) (Table 5), which indicates that gender may not be an important factor in understanding disregard for the future. Mean scores indicate very little difference between males (mean 2.4030) and females (mean 2.4163). This result may mean that both genders spend without regard for the future at about the same rate. However, this result was not expected, Dittmar (1995) found males were more financially concerned.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 was rejected. Analysis of Variance tests were used to identify significant differences between males and females in regard to overall irresistible urge to buy, positive buying emotion, mood management, cognitive deliberation, unplanned buying and disregard for the future. Individual Analysis of Variance tests were conducted between gender and each of the overall affective and cognitive processes.

The results of the first test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of the overall affective process was significant ($p =$

.000) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males/females in terms of overall affective process. By examining mean scores, it seems that females are more likely to exhibit a greater tendency to shop under the influence of emotional mood or related influences of an affective process (mean 2.9569) compared to males (2.6716). A reason for this is explained in past results that females tend to value emotional and symbolic possessions because of more emotional and relationship oriented reasons, while males favor more functional, instrumental and activity related items (Dittmar, 1995; Underhill 1999).

The results of the second test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of the overall cognitive process were significant ($p = .019$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of overall cognitive process. By examining mean scores, it seems that females are more likely to exhibit more thinking while shopping (mean 2.7434) compared to males (mean 2.5846). Results by Underhill (1999) recognized that females are generally more patient and inquisitive than men about purchase decisions. Women tally up the pros and cons of each item, in order to make a selection and they take pride in their ability to select the perfect item. The results by Rook and Hoch (1985) found that men find shopping as a waste of time, may explain why they do not put much effort or thought into shopping. Typically men enter a store go straight to the item needed without wasting any time they get it and get out as quickly as possible.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 was partially rejected. Analysis of Variance tests were performed to clarify significant differences between male and females relating to impulsivity within

product purchased categories. Individual Analysis of Variance tests were conducted between gender and each of the fifteen product categories purchased. In all, 13 of the 15 product categories were significant: shirts/sweaters, pants/skirts, suits/business wear, coats, underwear/lingerie, accessories, shoes, electronics, hardware, computer software, music CD's or DVD's, sports memorabilia, entertainment, health and beauty products, and magazines, books for pleasure reading.

The results of the first test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently shirts or sweaters were purchased was significant ($p = .000$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of shirts or sweaters purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that females (mean 4.2524) purchase shirts or sweaters more frequently compared to males (mean 3.7612). A difference in sweaters purchases could be that females generally often wear more sweaters than males.

The results of the second test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently pants or skirts were purchased was significant ($p = .001$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of pants or skirts purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that females (mean 4.0714) purchase pants or skirts more frequently compared to males (mean 3.6716). One reason for this difference could be that generally a pant or skirt purchase is accompanied with a shirt or coordinating item purchase. Unless planned the purchase of a complete outfit for the male shopper is time consuming, stressful and probably avoided to due lack of patience on his part. As for the females shopper the experience is more pleasant and less likely avoided.

The results of the third test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently suits or business wear were purchased was not significant ($p = .100$) (Table 5), indicating a no difference between males and females in terms of frequency of suits or business wear purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that males (mean 2.3284) purchase suits or business wear more frequently compared to females (mean 2.1148). One reason for lack of significant difference could be that generally business wear for the man consists of a complete ensemble purchased together at the same time and determined to be wore at all times together (e.g., suit coat and suit pants). As for the women, most garments owned can be mixed and matched. Many items are multi purpose and can either be made to appear dressy or casual. This advantage of items may have caused females to understate frequency of business items purchased.

The results of the fourth test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently coats were purchased was significant ($p = .000$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of coats purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that females (mean 2.9000) purchase coats more frequently compared to males (mean 2.4478). One reason for this difference in coats purchased could be that females are more stylistic (Dittmar, 1995) and buy a number of different styles and colors of coats to be worn with a variety of different outfits, compared to males who may primarily buy a coat for its functional instrumental-physical (Dittmar, 1995) properties not so much for its fashion appeal.

The results of the fifth test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently underwear or lingerie were purchased was significant ($p < .016$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of underwear or lingerie purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that females (mean 4.0574) purchase underwear or lingerie more frequently compared to males (mean 3.7164). One reason for this difference could be that females wear an additional undergarment compared to males. This in itself causes females to have a need to purchase a greater number of items. A need for increased purchases also arises for females due to the variety of fabrics and colors their wardrobe consists of, for which different undergarments are needed to be worn with certain particular styles, sizes, colors, and fabrics.

The results of the sixth test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently accessories were purchased was significant ($p = .000$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of accessories purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that females (mean 3.8038) purchase accessories more frequently compared to males (mean 2.8657). One reason for this difference could be that in our culture females are generally regarded and accepted as more ornamentally adorned. Women tend to value emotional and symbolic possessions more than men, are more emotional and image guided. Jewelry and accessories have the potential for self-presentation, self-expression, and mood adjustment (Dittmar, 1995) making these items more appealing to females.

The results of the seventh test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently shoes were purchased was

significant ($p = .000$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of shoes purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that females (mean 4.1196) purchase shoes more frequently compared to males (mean 3.4478). One reason for this difference could be that females generally have a more variety of functional clothing. For example females have shoes that they only wear to work, another pair for after work activities, another pair for just weekend events, the list is countless. Males on the other hand generally may have a single pair or two that fit all occasions or circumstances. The difference exists because males are more concerned with utility and personal identity related to females greater concern with social identity, and image guided, stylistic, emotional enjoyment (Dittmar, 1995).

The results of the eighth test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently electronics were purchased was significant ($p = .000$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of electronics purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that males (mean 2.9851) purchase electronics more frequently compared to females (mean 2.2775). One reason for this difference could be that males prefer buying functional, instrumental and leisure items compared to a females preference of buying symbolic and self-expressive goods concerned with appearance and emotional aspects of self (Dittmar & Friese, 1996).

The results of the ninth test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently hardware is purchased was significant ($p = .000$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of hardware purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that

males (mean 2.5373) purchase hardware more frequently compared to females (mean 1.5933). One reason for this difference could be traditional social roles. Males generally tend to be the handy, fix-it person compared to females. Again, males tend to favor functional control and independence related items compared to females (Dittmar, 1995).

The results of the tenth test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently computer software was purchased was significant ($p = .003$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of computer software purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that males (mean 2.1045) purchase computer software more frequently compared to females (mean 1.7129). One reason for this difference could be that males find more enjoyment in computer activities compared to females (Underhill, 1999). Males tend to purchase items that are self-oriented and activity-centered, compared to females who tend to buy items that are relationship-centered (Dittmar, 1995)

The results of the eleventh test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently music CD's and DVD's were purchased was significant ($p = .031$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of music CD's and DVD's purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that males (mean 4.0746) purchase music CD's and DVD's more frequently compared to females (mean 3.6827). One reason males purchase CD's and DVD's more could be because of the functional and activity-centered attribute these items possess. However, this result was surprising it could be believed that because of the symbolic nature and emotional enjoyment that music and movies lend that females would be more frequent buyers of such items.

The results of the twelfth test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently sport's memorabilia were purchased was significant ($p < .026$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of sport's memorabilia purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that males (mean 2.7463) purchase sport's memorabilia more frequently compared to females (mean 2.3143). One reason for this difference could be that males are generally interested in a greater number of and more variety of sports than females. Utility and personal identity are expressed with such items. The male is fulfilling or compensating for a strong masculine identity or self-concept (Dittmar, 1995).

The results of the thirteenth test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently entertainment items such as equipment and admission fees were purchased was not significant ($p = .244$) (Table 5), indicating lack of difference between males and females in terms of frequency of entertainment purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that males (mean 4.1692) purchase entertainment more frequently compared to females (mean 3.9761). This finding was surprising. Since the sample was primarily single and aged 20-22 years, one would think that males would buy more because of dating. However, the difference is non-significant, the explanation maybe that because they are single women may pay their own way when not dating.

The results of the fourteenth test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently health and beauty products were purchased was significant ($p = .000$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of health and beauty products purchased. By

examining mean scores, it appears that females (mean 4.7905) purchase health and beauty products more frequently compared to males (mean 3.8209). One reason for this difference could be that females show more appearance and body related concerns in their choices than males. Females are more emotional and image guided and buy goods that project emotional and appearance aspects of self (Dittmar, 1995) advertising also makes women think they need a variety of products.

Lastly, the results of the fifteenth test to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females in terms of how frequently magazines and book's for pleasure were purchased was significant ($p < .011$) (Table 5), indicating a difference between males and females in terms of frequency of magazines and book's for pleasure purchased. By examining mean scores, it appears that females (mean 4.2571) purchase magazines and book's for pleasure more frequently compared to males (mean 3.7313). It could be believed that the combination of the two items, books and magazines, has lead to a misrepresentation. A separation of the two items into different categories may have resulted in a different finding. As for magazines females may purchases this item more than males because they present extensive information related to females concerns about appearance and body related issues.

Overall, males generally show strong personal identity concerns were as the female has stronger social identity concerns (Dittmar, 1995). An individual may impulsively buy a product to try to move his or her actual-self closer to an ideal-self. Material possessions help compensate for perceived inadequacies in certain dimensions of one's self-concept. Women buy goods that express emotional stylistic appearance while men buy goods that are more instrumental, use-related, and functional. Clothes,

jewelry, and cosmetics were bought more by women and electronic, sports equipment and entertainment more by men.

Summary

Overall results have shown that females are affectively and cognitively more impulsive. With the exception of disregard for the future, significant differences were found between gender and irresistible urge to buy, positive buying emotion, mood management, cognitive deliberation, unplanned buying, and with the exception of suits/business wear and entertainment, significant differences were found between gender and products categories of: shirts/sweaters, pants/skirts, coats, underwear/lingerie, accessories, shoes, electronics, hardware, computer software, music CD's or DVD's, sports memorabilia, health and beauty products, and magazines, books for pleasure reading. One explanation is women enjoying shopping more and do it more often than men. Females participate in the activity of shopping for different reasons than men, and shopping is a more culturally available and socially acceptable activity for them. The evidence given by previous research stating that women are more emotional may explain why they are also more impulsive. The next chapter includes a summary of the results, limitations of the study, implications from the results, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusions, Limitations, and Recommendations

This chapter includes a brief summary of the major findings resulting from this research, several limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to compare male and female affective and cognitive processes, as well as the overall affect of the two processes. Additionally, the study compared males and females in terms of product categories purchased. According to the statistical results, differences existed between males and females with respect to affective and cognitive processes, with the exception of disregard for the future, the overall combination of the two processes, as well as differences in product categories purchased with the exception of suits/business wear and entertainment.

Results suggest several implications for industry. First, retailers should constantly work on creating a positive shopping environment. Atmosphere is key in attracting and keeping the consumer excited about the shopping experience. Attractive décor with creative merchandising and showmanship of consumer trends creates a marketing phenomenon. Appropriate lighting, music and aromas enhance mood and emotion, which may trigger shoppers' affective tendencies to tip the balance beam in the impulsive direction.

Second, in-store displays and promotions, including advertising of sales is effective in-store communications. In-store stimuli are important influences of impulsive buying, the more successful the degree of in-store stimulation are in attracting the attention of the potential customer, the greater likelihood of a decision to purchase without visiting additional stores. Various marketing strategies should be considered related to distribution and promotions of products such as friendly and educated sales associates, and well created and interesting displays. Together these could enhance cognitive states by increasing information processing and assisting with deliberation, each may lead to less remorse after the purchase as well as increase browsing time, directly increasing sales.

Third, impulsivity is closely linked to availability. Some items are more impulsive items than others, merchandising these items in highly visible locations will increase frequency of impulse purchases. For example, the presence of magazines at checkout stands where high volume traffic is present will increase awareness of items and add an entertainment element to shopping. Plus, if the shopper grabs a magazine to pass the time while waiting in line, the chance of purchasing greatly increases.

Fourth, store environment and time pressure are related factors contributing to impulse buying. Creating wider aisles and effective information displays can alleviate time pressure that exists in informational searches. Less pressure of time decreases stress of shopping, directly increasing positive mood. It has been previously established that positive mood has a direct positive influence on buying. Accordingly, available time has a positive influence on in-store browsing. Retailers might attempt to influence the time

consumers have available in the store by making shopping more efficient. This can be accomplished by aiding the shopper in finding his or her planned items more quickly.

Fifth, retailers can increase the level of temptation by removing barriers. Presenting availability of credit, automatic teller machines, 24-hour retailing, price and money back guarantees will create temptations and increase impulse buying. Also by providing easy credit lines or discounts tied to opening a charge card, retailers are increasing shoppers' feeling of money availability. Retailers can also predict increased profit if they introduce sales events on paydays or tax return periods.

Lastly, retailers should work on identifying and profiling their target market. Concentrating primarily on the consumers that are most likely to purchase from their establishment is extremely beneficial. Less time is wasted on those consumers who are least likely a part of their target market. By identifying their target market, retailers can better understand the needs of their main consumers and can further promote the products most likely to be sold in their store. Retailers can also better identify the more impulsive items. Merchandising these items in the storefront windows, in the store aisles, by placing signage to draw attention, or even placing them on sale can market these items more efficiently. Drawing attention to impulse items and those items most likely wanted and needed by the target market will increase sales. Retailers should stress the quality of merchandise, variety of merchandise, and store décor in attempting to attract and maintain patrons' attention.

Study Limitations

The following limitations may have influenced the results of this study:

1. The sample was limited in geographical location and generalization of other regions in the United States and other countries should be made with caution.
2. The number of females versus males in the sample was different. This may influence the results of the differences between two groups.
3. Respondents could easily fail to remember all items they bought due to memory inaccuracy, memory fatigue, or time constraints.
4. The respondents could fail to report all items brought due to affects of social desirability and efforts to appear rational.

Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of this study have implications for future studies as follows:

1. Multiple measurement methods are needed for justifiability of the variety and intricacy of consumer behavior (e.g., participant observation, interviews, scenarios, protocols, etc.). An optimal approach is to track the consumer over time to examine how, when, and why.
2. Expand the sample to include the general population.
3. Expand the sample to include other geographical regions.
4. Although impulse buying is presumed to be largely universal, how does it impact other cultures?
5. Expand research to include demographic subcultures, social classes and lifestyle factors.

6. Future research might explore impulse buying within television, internet, telemarketing, direct mail shopping, and other non-store formats.
7. Future research could examine predictive dimensions that best differentiate impulsive buyers from other consumers.
8. Another consideration for research would be to investigate how impulse buyers justify their behavior.
9. Another issue that needs attention is how consumers resist their consumption urges.
10. It would be useful to investigate in detail how various marketing factors (e.g., credit cards, 24-hour retailing) affect impulse buying and which one has the strongest influence.
11. Most consumers engage in some degree of impulse buying, future research might explore at what point impulse buying becomes compulsive?

Summary

In closing, impulsive buying represents an interesting, multi-dimensional phenomena, which deserves and is likely to provide fertile ground for industry related implications and future consumer behavior research. With knowledge that these processes occur and are interrelated, research has still yet to examine the overall imbalance that is present. An integration of both the cognitive and emotional aspects of impulsive buying needs to occur if we are to even hope to approach a full understanding of the complete, complex phenomenon of impulsive buying.

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Appendix A:

Chronological Overview of the Evolution of Impulse Buying Definitions

Author	Summarized Definitions
Stern, 1962	Truly impulsive buying, the novelty or escape purchases which break the normal buying pattern.
Kollat and Willett, 1967	The cell in the intention-outcomes matrix that corresponds to the situation where no explicit recognition of a need for such a purchase existed prior to entry into the store.
D'Antoni & Shenson, 1973	Impulse buying can be distinguished from other types of consumer behavior in terms of the rapidity or impulsiveness, which the consumer moves through the decisional period for purchase of goods. "A decision in which the 'bits of information' processed and thru the time taken relative to the normal decisional time lapse are significantly less with respect to the same or quite similar products or services.
Bellenger, Robertson, Hirschman, 1978	Purchases resulting from a decision to buy after the shopper entered the store.
Weinberg & Gottwald 1982	Impulse buying is characterized as encompassing purchases with high emotional activation, low cognitive control, and largely reactive behavior.
Rook & Hoch 1985	Behavior which involves a sudden and spontaneous desire to act, representing a clear departure from the previous ongoing behavior stream followed by psychological disequilibrium and psychological conflict and struggle.
Rook, 1987	Impulse buying occurs when a consumer experiences a sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately. The impulse to buy is hedonically complex and may stimulate emotional conflict. Also, impulse buying is prone to occur with diminished regard for its consequences.
Han, 1987	Customers' purchasing behavior on unplanned basis along with the four aspects of the "impulse buying mix" (proposed by Stern, 1962)
Jeon, 1990	A sudden and immediate purchase with no pre-shopping intentions either to buy the specific product category or to fulfill a specific buying task.

- Holbrook, O'Shaughnessy & Bell, 1990 Recent approaches to consumer research have tended to regard consumer behavior either as a mode of reasoned action or as a repository of emotional reactions. We (Holbrook, O'Shaughnessy & Bell) argue that a one-side focus on either aspect by itself – actions or reactions – provides a distorted view of the consumption experience. It therefore proposed an integrative overview of the consumption experience that attempts to provide a synthesis by tying together the complementary roles of reasons and emotions in consumer behavior.
- Piron, 1991 A purchase that is unplanned, the result of an exposure to a stimulus, decided “on the spot.” Five crucial elements that distinguishes impulsive from non-impulsive: feeling a sudden and spontaneous desire to act, being in a state of psychological disequilibrium, experiencing a psychological conflict and struggle, reducing cognitive evaluation and consuming without regard for the consequences.
- Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991 A Struggle between the psychological forces of desire and willpower. Two psychological processes of emotional factors which are reflected in the reference-point model of deprivation and desire and cognitive factors which are reflected in the deliberation and self-control strategies are by no means independent of one another. A change in either desire or willpower can cause the consumer to shift over the buy line, resulting in a purchase. Emotions influence cognitive factors (e.g., desire motivating a rationalization of the negative consequences of a purchase) and vice versa (e.g., cost analysis reducing a desire).
- Rook & Fisher, 1995 Buying impulsiveness is a unidimensional construct that embodies consumers' tendencies both to think and to act in identifiable and distinctive ways. Specifically, buying impulsiveness is defined as a consumer's tendency to buy spontaneously, unreflectively, immediately, and kinetically. Highly impulsive buyers are more likely to experience spontaneous buying stimuli; their shopping lists are more “open” and receptive to sudden, unexpected buying ideas.

Burroughs, 1996	Impulsive buying behavior can be characterized as a type of holistic information processing whereby a match is recognized between the symbolic meanings of a particular product and a consumer's self-concept. When such a match is recognized, the resulting urge to purchase the item will be instant, compelling and affectively charged. So, powerful, perhaps, that it overrides any more analytic assessments of the purchasing situation.
Beatty & Ferrell, 1998	Impulse buying is a sudden and immediate purchase with no pre-shopping intentions either to buy the specific product category or to fulfill a specific buying task. The behavior occurs after experiencing an urge to buy and it tends to be spontaneous and without a lot of reflection.
Weun, Jones, & Beatty, 1998; Rook, 1987; Rook & Fisher, 1995	Impulse buying occurs when an individual makes an unintended, immediate, and unreflective purchase.
Wood, 1998	He defines akratic (weakness of will) impulse buying as unplanned purchases, undertaken with little or no deliberation, accompanied by effectual or mood states, which furthermore are not compelled, and which finally, are contrary to the buyer's better judgment.
Youn, 2000	An irresistible desire to buy competes with the willpower to delay immediate gratification. When an individual lacks adequate control over his buying desires, impulse buying takes place.
Youn & Faber, 2000	Impulse buying may be influenced by internal states or traits experienced by consumers, or by environmental factors/sensory stimuli. Lack of control, stress reaction, and absorption are the main general personality factors that underlie the tendency to buy impulsively
Dholakia, 2000	Introduces a model examining cognitive and volitional processes and makes distinction between consonant (harmonious) impulses and dissonant (conflicting) impulses and elaborates on the role of the impulsivity trait, situational variables, and constraining factors in enactment or resistance of the consumption impulse.

Appendix B:

Explanation of Independent (Exploratory) and Dependent (Response) Variables for each Hypothesis

	Independent (Exploratory) Variables	Dependent (Response) Variables
H1	Gender	Affective Components: Irresistible Urge to Buy Positive Buying Emotion Mood Management
H2	Gender	Cognitive Components: Cognitive Deliberation Unplanned Buying Disregard for the Future
H3	Gender	Overall Affective and Cognitive Components
H4	Gender	Product Category Purchased

Appendix C:
Impulsive Buying Survey

Impulsive Buying Survey

This is a survey on impulsive buying. Completion of this survey is considered to be your consent to participate in this research.

Impulse buying is defined as “a sudden powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately.”

When answering this part of the questionnaire, think back to your last couple of shopping trips.

(Circle One)

1. When I shop I tend to decide what I want to buy while I am looking around in a store.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

2. I always buy if I really like it.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

3. I feel a sense of thrill when I am buying something new.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

4. I make a list when I go shopping and buy only what is on the list.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

5. Buying is a way of reducing stress in my daily life.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

6. Sometimes, I buy something in order to make myself feel better.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

7. Sometimes I regret buying new things.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

8. I experience mixed feelings of pleasure and guilt from buying something on impulse.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

Impulsive Buying Survey

9. I always take time to consider and weigh all aspects before making a purchase.

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

10. I feel excited when making a purchase.

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

11. When I go shopping, I buy things that I had not intended to purchase.

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

12. If I see something that I think I need, I buy it even though I went shopping for other purposes.

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

13. I tend to spend money as soon as I earn it.

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

14. I sometimes find myself in a state of tension as I buy things that I know I cannot afford.

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

15. I rarely ever buy impulsively.

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

16. When you think about your buying behavior in general, do you consider yourself to be an impulse buyer?

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

17. Would people who know you consider you to be an impulse buyer?

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

Impulsive Buying Survey

How frequently do you purchase the following items? (Circle One)

1. Shirts/sweaters	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly or</u>
2. Pants/skirts	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
3. Suits/business wear	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
4. Coats	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
5. Underwear/lingerie	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
6. Accessories (i.e., belt, tie, jewelry)	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
7. Shoes	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
8. Electronics	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
9. Hardware (i.e., tools)	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
10. Computer Software	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
11. Music CD's or DVD's	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
12. Sports memorabilia (i.e., Georgia football hat, tee-shirt)	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
13. Entertainment (i.e., equipment, admission fees)	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
14. Health and Beauty (i.e., cosmetics, shaving lotion, vitamins)	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>
15. Magazines, books for pleasure	<u>Never</u>	<u>< Yearly</u>	<u>Yearly</u>	<u>Seasonal</u>	<u>Monthly o</u>

Impulsive Buying Survey

On a scale from 1-5, How much planning and consideration do you put into buying each of the following items?

	None		Some		A Great Deal
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Shirts/ sweaters	1	2	3	4	5
2. Pants/skirts	1	2	3	4	5
3. Suits/business wear	1	2	3	4	5
4. Coats	1	2	3	4	5
5. Underwear/lingerie	1	2	3	4	5
6. Accessories (i.e., belt, tie, jewelry)	1	2	3	4	5
7. Shoes	1	2	3	4	5
8. Electronics	1	2	3	4	5
9. Hardware (i.e., tools)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Computer Software	1	2	3	4	5\
11. Music CD's or DVD's	1	2	3	4	5
12. Sports memorabilia (i.e., Georgia football hat, tee-shirt)	1	2	3	4	5
13. Entertainment (i.e., equipment, admission fees)	1	2	3	4	5.
14. Health and Beauty (i.e., cosmetics, shaving lotion, vitamins)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Magazines, books for pleasure reading	1	2	3	4	5

