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**The moderating role of social influence in the relation
between music inside a store and impulse buying.**

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INTRODUCTION

How many times does it happen that if a person goes shopping with a list come back with more products than the one in the list? It may happen that you go out in order to buy a shirt and come back with five shirts and five shorts, or it may happen that you go out to buy eggs and you come back home with full bags. It may happen to feel this really strong urge to buy something and buying it for real. This is a behaviour called *impulse buying* and involve pretty much every human of the earth.

It is not easy to define impulse buying, since during the years it received many definitions from many authors. Is impulse buying something that happens in just a short amount of time? Not exactly, since consumers could already have clear ideas and buying a product fastly. Is it something unplanned before entering the store? Not always, since the consumer could already feel the need to buy inside him.

In the years, researchers have tried to define impulse buying and all of his variables and shades, but they hardly found a common definition.

Rook (1987) said that impulse buying is “when 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 regards of its consequences”.

Impulse buying is a behaviour that has been strongly discussed in the last years, since researchers and managers have understood the importance of analysing this behaviour and having a clear consideration of it. In this research, I focused on offline impulse buying behaviour, since I wanted to study some factors that happen directly inside the store. Chapter 2 will show a review of the different kind of impulse buying and which are the many factors that influence or restrain him.

We will look at internal factors that influence impulse buying, as narcissism and shopping enjoyment, and we will look at external factors that influence impulse buying, which are variables that are related to shopping habits.

Then I will analyse situational factor, that as the name suggests happening in certain situation, as when a consumer has a lack of money, and I will close chapter 2 with demographical factors and the conceptual framework. At the end of chapter, we will go through the analysis of the store environment, as it the main subject of the third chapter.

I was interested in analysing the role of music and social influence as motivators of impulse buying behaviour, and in Chapter 3 I will show a data analysis on a survey that I distributed to 460 people.

I thought about studying social influence since it often happens that people go shopping with friends or family, and I wanted to understand if impulse buying could suffer the influence of this factor or not. Moreover, Luo (2005) already made a study on the role of social influence in impulse buying. He discovered that when people go shopping with friends, they tend to do more impulse purchases, while when they go shopping with family, they tend to do fewer impulse purchases (Luo, 2005).

Chapter I:

Impulse buying

1.1 Defining impulse buying

In this chapter we will analyse through a managerial perspective the importance and the features of impulse buying, why it is a field that has seen a rise of attention in the last years.

Impulse buying behaviour is present in everyone's lives, making it a mix of rational and irrational behaviour. It is triggered by emotions, ambience and other psychological factors. Studies on impulse buying has started during the 50s, where Clover (1950) wrote a paper about the importance of impulse buying in retail stores. He showed through an experiment the importance and the weight that impulse buying has on retail store, interviewing hundreds of managers. It was the first person to obtain empirical information from impulse buying, and he showed how closing a retail store would lead to lower sales, since impulse buying's sales would be lost. Years later, researchers and psychologist have tried to find and give a definition to the phenomenon of impulse buying.

In order to explain what impulse buying is, we can divide buying behavior into three different area: planned buying, impulse buying and unplanned buying. A planned purchase behavior is commonly presented by costumers that think a lot about the need of a certain product before buying it. It is easier to find planned purchases in premium categories of product or bought back product. Some of these includes electronics, cars and houses. A planned purchase behavior takes place when a consumer invests a significant amount of time in the research of the product, ending in buying it (Cobb, 1986).

Before making any step, people talk with their friends and trusted people, in order to facilitate their decision making. Moreover, they look magazine or online website to compare prices. The buying process of a planned purchase takes more time to harden, since this outcome involves a large amount of money. In fact, consumer will search for internal and external validation before making any decision. Thus, there are some divergence between an impulse purchase and a planned purchase. This gap tends to close when we talk about unplanned purchase and impulse purchase (Cobb, 1986).

Then, in order to better understand impulse buying, we need to remember that impulse buying represent the macro-area of four different features, which we will see better in chapter 2.

Stern (1962) defined these four types of impulse buying: pure impulse buying, reminder impulse buying, suggestion impulse buying and planned impulse buying.

Reminded impulse buying happens when the consumer receives different stimuli during the visit at the store, that increase in him the need to buy a specific product. Differently, reminded impulse buying insures when stimuli of past use of a product come to the mind of the consumer, inducing him to buy the product (Han, 1991).

Planned impulse buying, as the name says, it is a purchase that is partially planned before the visit to the store. The consumer has in mind the idea of buying a specific product, but he doesn't know which brand to choose. Anyway, the process of planned impulse buying happens during the store visit and can be triggered by different factors. The most important trigger of this kind of impulse purchase is the presence of any discount for a particular category of products, so the price plays a very important role (Han, 1991).

Pure impulse buying is something that is totally unplanned, and that happens following external stimuli inside the store. It usually ends in the purchase of a new kind of product, that is out of the routine of the consumer (Han, 1991).

Lastly, suggestive impulse buying happens when a consumer sees for the first time a product inside the store and feel the urge to buy that product. The consumer has no antecedent use or knowledge of the product. Some years after Stern's research, Doody and Davidson (1966) define impulse buying as "an unplanned purchase guided by the spur of moment". A great number of researchers have analyzed this subject, manipulating in-store variables to verify their impact on impulse buying tendency, as Du Pont, who studied their dependence on product category, or West who studied the kind of store. Anyway, are Kollat and Willet (1967) the first researchers that understand that impulse purchase depends mostly on the consumer, because is the consumer that buy products.

So, in the years later the definition of the phenomenon, researches tried to give details on the utility of an impulse purchase for a retailer, and which tactics could be used by management in order to increase the probability for a consumer to put aside the shopping list, and buying more on impulse, manipulating pricing, promotions and the position of products on the shelf.

In the 80's, the definition of impulse buying changed, resulting in a better explanation of human behavior. The first turning point happens in 1987, where Rook introduce the "urge to buy", which is a condition that precede the purchase itself. He explains that the impulse doesn't generate an action as it is purchasing, but it generates a desire. Rook starts from the psychological definition of impulse buying underlying that an impulse is not something planned, but it is something that arise after a stimulus: once the consumer feels the impulse, this leads to an immediate action, so an impulse purchase. The ability to postpone the gratification of the purchase, which depends on the personality of the consumer, works as a mediator (Rook, 1987).

Rook than gives his definition of impulse buying, describing it as "something that happens a consumer has a sudden and strong need to buy something immediately. The impulse to purchase is hedonistically complex and can generate a conflict between emotions. Moreover, it happens without consumer noting consequences" (Rook, 1987).

Rook and Fisher, in 1995, deepen the research on impulse buying, giving a more complete image of the path followed by the consumer in order to purchase a product. They change the focus of their studies from

psychology to buying impulsiveness. Later on, in 1998, Beatty and Ferrell will define the first model of impulse buying, that will be described in the next chapter.

1.2 Beatty and Ferrell model

In this paragraph, we will try to define and explain Beatty and Ferrell model, depicted in 1998.

Beatty and Ferrell (1998) are two researchers which analyzed the precursor of impulse buying and created the first impulse buying model, which was accepted by the critic and is still in use nowadays. In this model they analyzed how different factors influence impulse purchase. They defined something very important, that is that impulse purchase behavior is preceded by an urge to buy impulsively, and they give different meanings to these constructs. The felt urge to buy impulsively derives from the proximity to the object and is the variable that connect all the precedent variables to the actual impulse purchase. They defined impulse purchase as a sudden and immediate purchase without any pre-purchase intention, nor to buy a specific product of a specific category, nor to buy something for a specific reason. They say that the behavior happens after suffering a strong urge to buy, that tends to be spontaneous and unreflective (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998).

When they started this research, there were already different studies and researches on impulse buying, but there was not a model which could better explain this phenomenon. So, with this research, they tried to close an important gap.

As can be seen from the graphic, they proposed different hypotheses that created 14 paths to follow. Out of the 14 paths, 12 were significative while 2 not significative.

They then discussed more in detail the results of their study. For example, when a consumer has more time to search through the store, this influence his permanence inside the store, and as a consequence this behavior tend to increase impulse purchase tendencies and boost-up his emotion (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). Then, they found out how individual differences variables affect impulse purchase. For example, the shopping enjoyment of a consumer can increase the positive affect, ending as a consequence in an increased urge to buy impulsively. The same happens with impulse buying tendency. A bigger impulse buying tendency, tend to create a better in-store browsing, which leads to an increase urge to buy impulsively. Unexpectedly, shopping enjoyment influencing in-store browsing. Beatty and Ferrell think that this is due to the fact that they described in-store browsing more as looking around, and not buying products (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998).

Situational variables, which in this case are time availability and money availability, worked as expected. Is clear to say that when a customer has more time to browse the store, or has more money to spend, can increase the urge to buy on impulse (Luo, 2005).

Then, they analyzed the effect that affect variables have on urge to buy impulsively. Negative affect was significative and shows that a bad mood lowers impulse buying behavior. On the contrary, positive affect, which is affected by time availability, money availability and shopping enjoyment, resulted in an increased

urge to buy impulsively. As seen on the graph, money availability is the only variable that has a direct effect on impulse purchase.

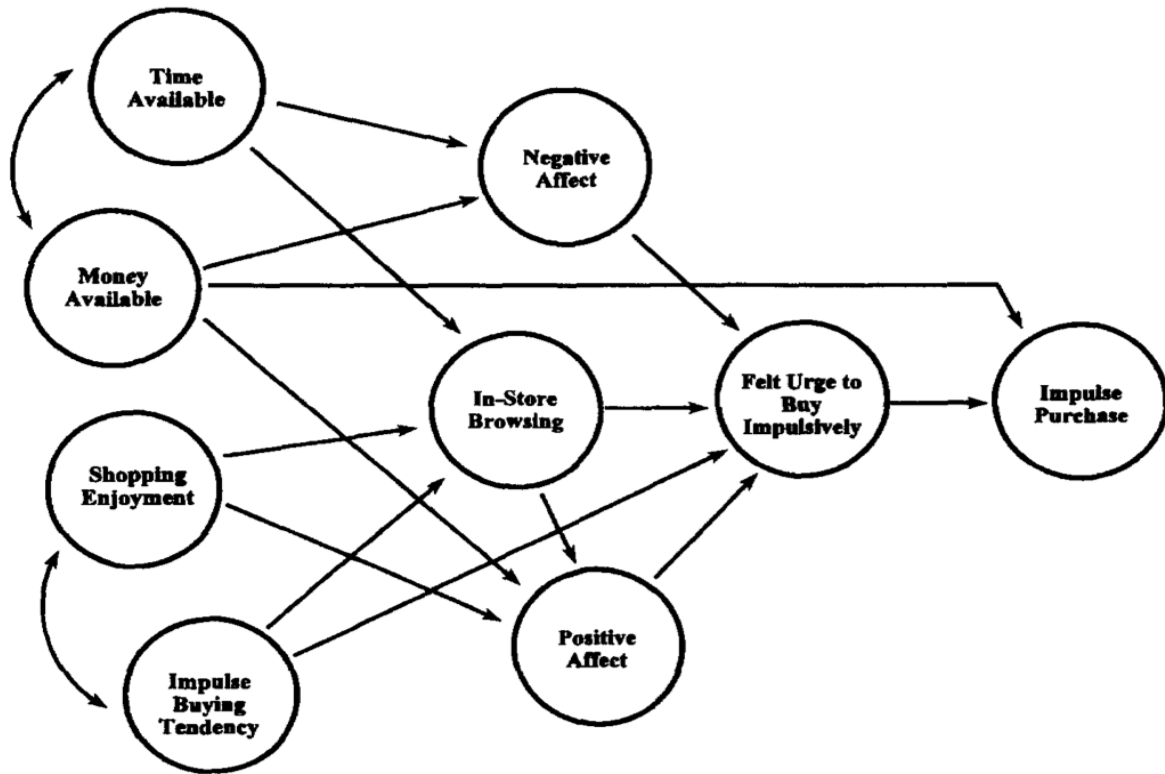


Fig. 1. Beatty and Ferrell model (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998)

They then give out of some important managerial implications based on their finding.

First of all, since time availability has a strong influence on in-store browsing, retailers should find a way to make consumers think they have a lot of time to spend in-store. This can be done by making shopping more efficient. Moreover, providing easy credit line or giving customers more discounts, could increase their perception of money availability, increasing the urge to buy on impulse (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998).

Then, they suggest retailers to find the customers which tend to buy more on impulse and create some sort of promotion to target them.

The importance of the work made by Beatty and Ferrell lays in the fact that they were able to explain impulse buying using new elements which are strictly correlated between them, giving importance to situational variables, affect variables and contextual variables, and focalizing more on the urge to make a purchase, more than the purchase itself (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998).

1.3 Trends in impulse buying

The impulse market is the sector of all those purchases that are not planned, but rather arise from the sight of a certain article that recalls a "need on the spot" and creates a need that must be satisfied immediately.

The evolution of the impulse market has been influenced over time by various factors: demographic development, the transformation of consumers, the response of producers/retailers to these trends (the latter is perhaps the most interesting and not to be underestimated). While the population is becoming increasingly older and smaller households, with a better average income, in recent years there has been a greater presence of working women, a growing attention to leisure time and a greater use of consumer credit: all this (in short) has led to a change in buying habits. In the food sector there is now more attention to "health and wellness", more need for ready-to-eat foods and smaller packages; there has been a multiplication of products for "on the go" consumption, innovative and functional packaging also sold by retailers (and not only in large retailers) to satisfy the demands of users. A user that seems to be more characterized, compared to the past, by purchases also dictated by the "whim" of the moment.

Impulsive buying is decisively influenced by the actual purchasing power of shoppers: if they have an extremely tight budget at their disposal, no matter how much they may indulge in impulsive behavior, they will always show a tendency towards impulsive buying that is significantly lower than that of consumers with significantly higher purchasing power. Moreover, the possibility of yielding to a desire perceived as urgent and persistent is strictly dependent on the culture of belonging. For example, in so-called Western countries, where the individual, his freedom of choice, well-being and satisfaction are considered fundamental values, impulsive buying is more accepted and justified (both socially and individually) than in other countries. This therefore leads to the natural occurrence of such behavior in certain cultural contexts to a greater extent.

This aptitude for impulse buying has been greatly stimulated by the spread of consumerism culture, which favors and justifies the creation, emergence and satisfaction in the individual of a series of previously unknown desires and needs. It must be said that consumerism has already been established for several decades in countries with mature economies (such as Europe and the USA), while it is a relatively new phenomenon in several countries with emerging economies. For example, as said by Stearns (2001), it can be observed that in countries such as China and India, it is only in recent years that a middle class has been created that has the purchasing power to create a significant internal market. This has allowed, therefore, albeit with a certain delay and in a peculiar way, the emergence in these countries of a more consumerist lifestyle, and therefore more open to the possibility of frequent episodes of impulsive buying. In any case, the latter remain a possibility that characterizes only the economically more emancipated (and moreover more westernized) part of the population (Stearns, 2001).

Therefore, globally we can expect to find significantly different impulse buying trends depending on the cultural area, country and consumer segment selected from time to time. The same applies to the relative frequency of impulse buying with reference to the online and offline world: on the basis of the specific target identified (age, culture, country of affiliation, income, etc.) it is possible to detect significant differences in the habits to adopt such behavior with respect to each of these channels.

In Italy, we see the insurgence of impulse buying behavior during the economic boom of the 1970's, which is in line with the other countries that had an economic stability. At those time, the mind of the consumer was shifting toward a more consumeristic mindset, which led consumers to think about some needs that they didn't have before.

Since the early 1990s, however, there has been a shift in this trend. In fact, even after the end of the period of strong economic expansion and the beginning of a series of difficulties in terms of growth (which were first and foremost reflected in a progressively less dynamic labor market), consumers have acquired a more rational attitude towards shopping than in the past, thus diminishing their tendency to make impulse purchases. Some of the causes that have certainly contributed to this change of direction are certainly the acquisition by the subjects of a greater awareness of the consumer stimuli deriving from the market, which has at the same time led them to exercise greater self-control with respect to their purchasing choices.

In the new millennium, there have been very few researches that has shown the change in the trend of impulse buying in Italy, but surely it has notably increased, due to the higher income available to people and the buying power obtained by younger people.

An example of this situation can be seen in a new survey from CreditCards.com which shows that 5 in 6 Americans confess to make impulse purchases. The ranking sees at the first position millennial, who are the ones that makes the most impulse purchases.

Creditcards made a telephone survey among United States adults, finding out that 90% of millennials make impulse purchases. Among them, we see even higher purchases from millennials that are aged 25 years old or less.

The poll discovered that this mentality differs a lot from older people, where 21% of them says they never bought anything on impulse (Creditcards, 2017).

Thanks to the poll, they discovered that most of the impulse purchase (about 68%) are carried out inside brick-and-mortar shops, and that is facilitated by the fact that people who enters this kind of stores usually walk through a great number of products, that are placed in a way that instill in the consumer a urge to buy the product.

Moreover, the survey has also shown how online impulse purchases suffered a big growth, showing that managers has found a way on how to produce emotions through a screen. 31% of U.S. citizens admit having purchased on impulse online in the past months, compared with the 19% of a year ago (Creditcards, 2017).

The amount of online purchases has increased since people are doing more online shopping. But the growth of impulse expenses is the one that saw the biggest growth, as told by the National Retail Federation.

Creditcards continues by saying that in 2018, in U.S., almost 50% of impulse purchases were made by people between the age of 18-24 years old and that older people were substantially reducing the amount spent on impulse buying.

People under the age of 24 in U.S., spent almost 170 dollars for transaction in 2018, and most of them were made on impulse.

Millennials, one of the younger generations, spent approximately 100 U.S. dollars per transaction. From the graph below, we can easily see how younger people are the one who makes more purchase on impulse, and this trend is lowering when people is getting older. The graph, made by Statista, shows the share of purchase bought on impulse, divided by age, in U.S. in 2018 (Statista, 2018).

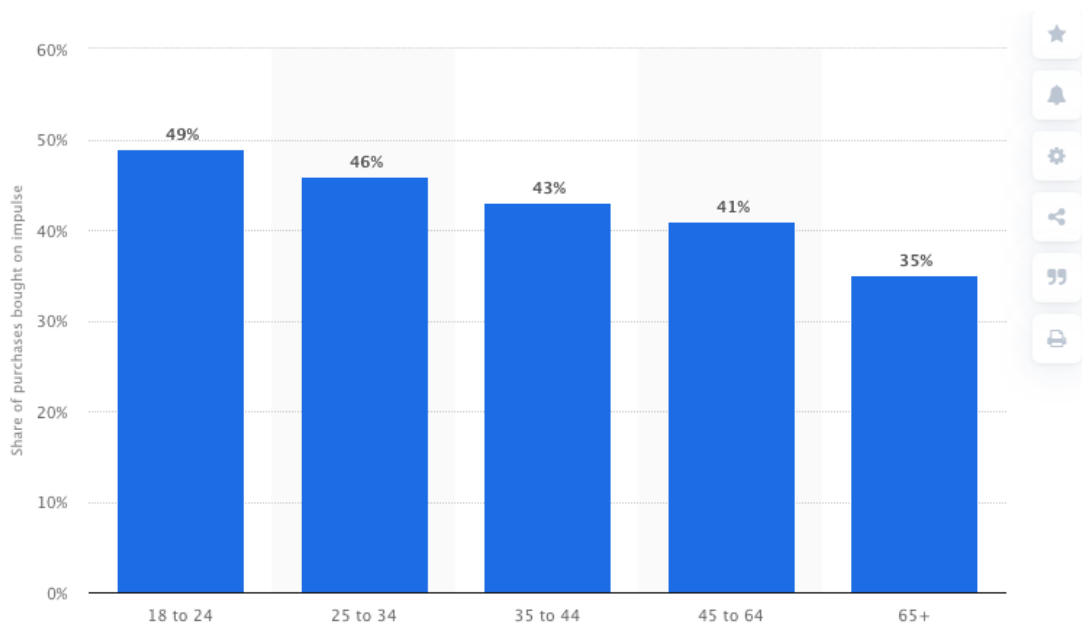


Fig. 2 Share of purchase bought on impulse by age, in U.S. in 2018

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1.3.1 Pharmacy case

Nowadays, we observed that consumer's choice of products has improved, both between different categories of products and within the same category of products. This is due to the fact, as can be seen inside pharmacies, that consumers make their final decision inside the store, depending upon discounts or under the suggestion of the pharmacist. As a consequence, it is important that pharmacies can generate a higher demand, using impulse buying and consumer's indecision, in order to highlight the different opportunities inside the store (Farmamanager).

Impulse buying's consistency appears to be higher when product and brand visibility increase.

These depend upon different things:

- Disposition of the assortment, which the organization needs to be based on mental needs of the consumers.
- Merchandising layout which, more than just adapting to the bounds imposed by furnishing, has to be organized in function of the traffic flow which tend to maximize the touch points of consumers with the assortment.
- Placing next to each other complementary products, fundamental to spur in the mind of consumers the needs for a specific product.
- Merchandising display, which can be arranged vertically by consumer segment and horizontally by brand, or vertically by brand and horizontally by consumer segment.
- The quantity and quality of space allocated to categories and brands, which must reflect the different sensitivity of demand and different margins

What triggers the entire decision-making process in the client is the perception of a problem/desire and the subsequent observation of a gap between the situation he is in and the desired one. It is precisely from this that the desire to satisfy this need arises, previously triggered by internal stimuli (for example, dry facial skin) or external stimuli (for example, the pharmacy window showing a new face cream) (Farmamanager).

In this phase the pharmacy must be able to identify the stimuli that more than others activate the interest in a product and develop actions capable of stimulating this interest.

The second phase of the purchasing process is represented by the customer's search for the information necessary to identify the most suitable product to solve the problem, and/or to satisfy a given wish.

For this purpose, the person, in order to collect as much information as possible, uses different sources, including:

- Commercial sources (advertising, pharmacists, pharmacy), which have an informative role.
- Personal sources (family, friends), which have a role of legitimation and/or evaluation of the product.
- Public sources (media, consumer associations), which strengthen or diminish the opinion expressed by personal sources on a given product.
- Empirical sources: product testing (samples received during the pharmacy visit or product testing)

On this occasion the pharmacy must identify the different sources of information used by the customer and understand the importance it attaches to each of them. However, it is necessary for the pharmacy to give its best information, as most sales are assisted sales, i.e. they are made after advice from the pharmacist and depend to a large extent on the quality of the advice and the skills of the person at the counter (Farmamanager).

Once the most suitable product for one's needs has been identified, the person usually evaluates the alternatives in order to process the information collected, comparing all the attributes related to the product (quality, price, size and so on), and thus arrive at the final choice.

At this stage, the pharmacy must try to understand how the customer evaluates brand alternatives, in order to take initiatives that can influence the purchase decision. This aspect of the decision-making process is of particular importance in the segmentation of the offer (Farmamanager).

In fact, understanding the weight given by customers to the different characteristics of a product, could end in different actions:

- Real repositioning, very useful when the pharmacy has its own line of products, so as to create or maintain only models that are more in line with customer needs.
- Psychological repositioning, such as to change the perception that customers have of the product, to direct the choice towards more profitable brands in the assortment.
- Deposition, activity aimed at changing the perception of the characteristics of competing brands.
- Change the weight of the different factors in order to persuade customers to attach greater value to those aspects where the brands treated are actually strong.

After evaluating the different alternatives, there comes the time when the customer must choose whether to modify, postpone or cancel the purchase on the basis of the influence of the perceived risk. In fact, it is possible to identify six types of risk or adverse consequences perceived by the customer, which could undermine the finalization of the sale:

- Functional risk: product's characteristics and features do not match consumer expectations
- Financial risk: need of spending more money in order to reach a goal
- Physical risk: product's usage can put at risk the life of the consumer or of the environment
- Time-wasting risk: linked to the time wasted in order to make claims against the pharmacy, or due to the way of using the product
- Social risk: transmission of a social image that does not correspond to the personality of the customer following the use of the product
- Psychological risk: general dissatisfaction in case of a bad purchase

The last step of the decision-making process is the post-purchase evaluation, i.e. when the customer sums up the capacity shown by the product to meet his expectations. From these considerations comes a judgment of satisfaction or dissatisfaction and it is essential for the pharmacy to constantly monitor this rate in its customers.

1.3.2 Impulse buying and coronavirus

The pandemic that has hit the world this year, not only has changed day-to-day habits, as for example keeping distance with other people or always wearing a protective mask when in public. But the pandemic has slightly changed the way people buy and what they buy, since many people has seen a serious decrease in their salary.

Hershey (2020) has said that COVID-19 meant a “Significant reductions or volatility in demand for one or more of our products, which may be caused by, among other things: the temporary inability of consumers to purchase our products due to illness, quarantine or other travel restrictions, or financial hardship, shifts in demand away from one or more of our products, or pantry-loading activity”. In fact, Candy Industry, an online magazine, said that the sales of products who mostly happens on impulse, has seen a severe decrease, due to the fact that the pandemic couldn't let people visit and spend time in stores (Candy Industry).

New York Post showed how Mondelez International, one of the largest snack's companies, expects to witness a serious decline in the gum business. Both mint and gum industry are losing almost 30% of sales this year (TheList).

In an article from GlobalData Consumer (2020) it is explained how Sainsbury, an English chain of supermarkets, has announced that at least until September there will be restrictions on entering the shops. This shows how we will need time to come back shopping as we did before the pandemic.

The current main restriction is the number of people allowed in the store and the same time, in order to avoid the spread of coronavirus. This trend will lead to a comeback of making just one big shop a week, instead of visiting the store multiple times a week.

The pandemic has changed the way in which people shops. Now costumers need to prepare a shooping-list that permit them to make it through the week, since it has become hard to go to the store just to buy a single item.

For GlobalData Consumer, the reaction to this pandemic will result in decreased sales made on impulse, and on a more focused shop, since people will have less time to spend inside the store and will visit the store fewer

times in a week. Of course, impulse purchase mostly happens when the customer can dedicate more time on browsing the store, and this situation will hardly help.

So, the producers which sell articles that are not deemed as necessary, will have a negative impact. People is actually buying in bulk and buying only what is indispensable for the well-being of the family. For sure, this trend will not help the category of products bought on impulse, but at the contrary it will limit it (GlobalData Consumer).

A way to prevent this outcome lays on the capability of the producers to obtain impulse sales from the products which are in the online store. They need to find a way to evoke emotions in the consumers, and maybe creating a section with products that are regard to the impulse buying category.

On the other hand, there are circumstances and countries where the situation can be slightly different.

According to Slickdeals, U.S. citizens has notably increased their impulse purchases during this pandemic, reaching the 18% of their expenses.

The poll was made on 2,000 participants and has shown how the average spending of U.S customers has increased by almost 12% since January.

The poll exhibit that people has bought more on impulse during the pandemic in order to enhance their mood and that 25% of the participants bought treats, 22% bought apparel and 18% on home improvement. (Slickdeals)

CEO of Slickdeals' Josh Meyrs, CEO of Slickdeals, said that "in these uncertain times, consumers are looking to stretch their dollars even further, and impulse purchasing can serve as a tool to do so".

He added that "while someone may not plan to buy laundry detergent or groceries on a given day, stocking up on these everyday items when there's a great deal available can help your budget. As such, impulse spending can be associated with saving money in the long-run as opposed to being wasteful".

1.4 Perspectives on impulse buying

Studies on impulse buying derive from different perspective of consumer psychology, economic psychology and social psychology. Verplanken (2011) has divide impulse buying approaches in two categories: promotion-focused strategies and prevention-focused strategies. In this paragraph, we're going to resume them and classify the most important one.

Promotion-focused strategies	Prevention-focused strategies
Proximity bias	Limited information processing
Seeking pleasure, hedonistic values	Alleviating negative affect and mood repair
Fulfilling materialistic values	Dealing with low self-esteem
Purchasing symbols of identity	Personality traits: emotional instability
Personality traits: extravertedness, autonomy	Exerting conscious self-control
	Compulsive buying

Fig. 3. Promotion and prevention strategies (Verplanken, 2011)

Promotion strategies:

Promotions strategies are the one listed in the table above. They include seeking pleasure, as for example having a positive experience, or looking at obtaining hedonistic and materialistic value, as a way to obtain intrinsic pleasure and fulfillment. These two are the most important promotion strategies. Impulsive purchases thus serve as vehicles to accomplish promotion-focused goals. Another promotion strategy for Verplanken is identity-driven impulse buying. Moreover, Verplanken connect an extroverted identity to promotion strategies, since most of the times impulse buying tendencies happen in the presence of other people. Moreover, people who are more autonomous, use impulse buying as a vehicle to increase their aspirations of autonomy. Then, since impulse buying may be regarded as an instant gratification, it is described as a shape of proximity bias, since the rule than constitute this bias is an immediate reward (Verplanken, 2011).

Prevention strategies:

For prevention strategies we mean those strategies that prevent and help the consumers in situation where is behavior and emotion could be put at risk. The first example is the limited information processing. People always tend to overload the brain with information that sometimes are unnecessary, and so lowering the amount of information could work as a prevention strategy (Verplanken, 2011).

Moreover, when people have a low self-esteem or is in a bad mood, tend to buy more on impulse to alleviate this negativity. This is a self-regulation strategy that may work for a short amount of time, but that usually doesn't last forever. In fact, this behavior could turn out badly for the consumer involved, leading to a rebounding effect that could tear him down (Wegner, 1994).

Another prevention strategy is emotional instability, which is part of the personality trait. In this case, impulsive buying may be used as a vehicle to fix emotional imbalance. Finally, as explained by Black (2007) compulsive buying can be regarded as a prevention strategy. In fact, people which make compulsive buying may have to deal with psychological disorders.

Compulsive Buying:

Impulse shopping is regarded as a behavior which is slightly innocent. But, if impulse buying takes becomes compulsive buying, it has to be taken more carefully (O'Guinn and Faber 1989).

According to Kellett and Bolton, compulsive buying "is experienced as an irresistible–uncontrollable urge, resulting in excessive, expensive and time-consuming retail activity typically prompted by negative affectivity" and results in "gross social, personal and/or financial difficulties"

Thus, we are in the field of psychopathology, where this behavior is regarded by Black (2007) as a CBD (Compulsive Buying Disorder). This kind of behavior is very delicate, since it can result in the breakdown of personal relationships and family, or to the loss of a significant amount of money (Verplanken, 2011).

Another definition of compulsive buying comes from O'Guinn and Faber (1989) which defined compulsive buying as a "chronic, repetitive purchasing that occurs as a response to negative events or feelings. The alleviation of these negative feelings is the primary motivation for engaging in the behavior. Buying should provide the individual with short-term positive rewards but result in long-term negative consequences. Once developed, the individual should face great difficulty in controlling buying even after its detrimental effects are recognized".

Proximity bias:

Trope and Liberman (2010) says that when an object is closer to a person, it influences the opinion of people. Biased by proximity means that we are more attracted by an object that is near us than an object that is far from us. Verplanken (2011) makes an example with Eve, that grabs the apple from the Tree. The apple may have looked more appealing since it was close to her. Things that are nearby may seem bigger, more important, or more attractive than things further away. Verplanken and Herabadi (2001) suggest that this behavior can change depending on the internal factors of a person, and the contrast they can create, as for example rationality against emotions. For Trope and Fishbach (2000), consumers are usually able to distinguish the advantages and disadvantages created by short- and long-term purchases. But impulse purchases are sometimes more irrational and emotion-driven, having a bigger impact on short-term than long-term preferences.

Hoch and Loewenstein (1991) explained a different view of impulse buying, saying that every consumer possesses a "reference point". They say that when someone doesn't possess something, find themselves in a situation of "default reference point", and after a product is bought, they are in a new "reference point". So, they explain that the likely of buying something on impulse can depend upon this change of status. In fact, they say that sometimes people who really feel the need to buy a product, they have a transition from the "default reference point" to the "after purchase reference point". So, the consumer feels as he already have

this product on his hands. As a consequence, after this transition has happened, the consumer needs to buy the product, otherwise he would be left with a feeling of “lack” (Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991).

In 2010, Trope and Liberman suggest something similar to the study of Hoch and Loewenstein of 1991. They explained that when an object is far away from a person, change the understanding of that object. In fact, something that is far seems more abstract to a person than something that is near. So, as a consequence is easy to think that something as feelings or emotions has a higher chance of arising when a product is near to a person.

This is a reaction that happens with the person not realizing it, but surely when an object is nearer it will have more influence on human mind.

Looking for pleasure:

Verplanken (2011) says that the first association that people make with impulse buying is that it is fun. In fact, it is related with pleasure. This association happens mostly because impulse buying is made of emotions. Rook and Gardner (1993) discovered that people feel better when they make impulse purchases both on the emotional side and the mental side. The participants to a Rook and Gardner experiment told that they associated a positive mood with impulse buying. One of the main principles of psychology is that people is always in search of enjoyment and avoid what is bad for them (Verplanken, 2011). Impulse buying may fulfil these hedonistic motives. Holbrook and Gardner (2000) described a dynamic model where consumer experience was used as an independent variable and mood as a dependent variable. This model explained that a mix of buying experience with mood create an upgraded mood and that, in circumstances where the emotionality of the experience changed, this cycle changed too.

Rook and Gardner's (1993) explained that some people relate impulse buying with negative emotions, so there are situations in which impulse buying doesn't create positive emotions. This negative emotion can have different roots. In fact, while some can be chronic, so always there, others can come and go. Verplanken et al. (2005) explained how he found a correlation between impulse buying a a long-term negative mood and eating disorder. So impulse buying tendency could arise from a situation in which a person lives in constant state of negative affect (Verplanken et al., 2005).

From the data obtained so far, there is proof that a correlation between impulse buying and emotions exist, and that both the kind of emotions can influence impulse purchase, suggesting that there is no causality. In an experiment made by Sato and Verplanken (2010) they obtained proof of a causal relation. In this experiment, participants received an introduction job, that had to provoke emotions on them, as positive, negative or neutral. Participants at the end of the experiment received 5-pounds to buy food products. They discovered

that almost 50% of the products bought were snacks, which are product that are mostly bought on impulse (Sato and Verplanken, 2010).

The significant difference was seen between people that was in a negative and positive mood condition and people that was in a neutral condition. In fact, those who were on neutral conditions spent almost 15% less in unhealthy snacks than those with positive or negative mood. (Sato and Verplanken, 2010)

The Limited Information Processor:

Limited information processor is part of the information processing, which is the steps that lead to the storage of information. Information processing is divided in three main steps: attending, encoding and storing. In the attending step, is when people listen and pay attention to some information, for example focusing on a conversation. In the second stage, encoding, we start to process this information, paying attention to what is more important for us. The third and last stage is storing, which is the moment in which people store in the brain the information (via Study.com).

When Verplanken (2011) talks about limited information processor, he means a strategy that prevent our mind to store to many information, in order to avoid not useful one. In fact, we limit the storage of information. Sometimes, an overload of information could lead people to being involved in easier decision-making processes. Simon (1955) elaborated a descriptive model of decision making, which is regarded as the most satisficing heuristics. Following these strategies, people value all the options they have in the order the person received them. Then they eliminate the ones who doesn't meet some criteria and choose the one with the best values. This is why impulse buying may derive from heuristics, without keeping in consideration the urge to buy, level of excitement or joy (Verplanken, 2011).

CHAPTER II:

Literature review

2.1 Introduction

Rook (1987) defined impulse buying as "an unplanned purchase that is characterized by relatively rapid decision-making, and a subjective bias in favour of immediate possession". Impulse buying is a behaviour that is not easy to control, opposed to planned purchase behaviour. In fact, people who buy on impulse tend to reflect less when they buy, preferring to obtain immediate pleasure. These people tend to not think about the damaging consequences of their action, but they act from instinct instead (Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991).

From the end of the 80s to the end of the 90s, in the United States and Great Britain, researchers started to produce new research on impulse buying. They analysed all the factors influencing impulse buying behaviour, as Rook and Gardner (1993) which studied the consumer's psychological situation; Rook and Fisher (1995) which elaborated a theory on trait buying impulsiveness, and the evaluation of the adequacy of getting involved in impulse buying behaviour; Dittmar et al. (1995) which studied the self-identity. In the next paragraph, we will go through a deeper analysis of the many factors which influence impulse buying (Kacen, 2002).

Kacen (2002) reviewed different research which dealt with impulse buying, mostly explaining how impulse purchase behaviour is influenced by people's mood. For example, Donovan (1994) found a positive relation between a sentiment of satisfaction of people when inside a store with impulse purchase tendency. While Rook and Gardner (1993) and more recently Beatty and Ferrell (1998) discovered a positive relation between someone's positive emotional state and impulse purchase behaviour.

In 1995, Rook and Fisher, discovered that a consumer personal's "spur of the moment" was moderated by the adequacy of a consumer to engage in impulse purchases in some situations. Following this study, they built up a nine-item scale of impulse buying that was positively and significantly related to impulse purchasing behaviour. This means that it doesn't seem awkward for consumer to act on impulse and buy on impulse, if they think that this behaviour is tolerate by society. At the contrary, when people find that this behaviour is not tolerated by society, their behaviours changes (Kacen, 2002).

Moreover, Kacen (2002) explains that consumer's culture can have an effect on impulse buying. For a better understanding of this subject, Kacen (2002) suggests looking at the "theory of individualism and collectivism", where there is a clear explanation of all the variables that are connected with impulse buying (Kacen, 2002).

If we look at other research, we will obtain different insight on impulse buying, and why it is so important.

In 2009, Liao et al. (2009) described the substantial function that impulse purchases have had on shifting the sales in United states. Almost four out of five products, in some categories are bought on impulse, resulting as a consequence in a repetitive cycle of buying new products on impulse (Liao et al., 2009).

With a glance to different studies, we will easily understand the importance of impulse buying.

Always Liao et al. (2009) made a study on the sales of snacks and magazines. They discovered that impulse purchases amounted to around 4 billion dollars per year of product sold.

Rook and Gardner (1993) defined impulse buying as “an unplanned buying, which is characterized by both relatively rapid decision-making, and a subjective bias for immediate possession.

Rook (1987) described impulse buying as being something important to hedonistic desire of consumption and Wolman (1973) said that when someone receive a stimulus, he instantly feels the need and the urge of buying something on impulse, since it is strictly related to emotions.

According to Han et al. (1991), impulse buying was classified as four types: Planned impulse buying; Reminded impulse buying; Suggestion impulse buying; Pure impulse buying. Pure impulse buying is defined as an “escape purchase”. Product that are placed next to checkout could trigger people emotion making them buy the product. It is considered as the classical impulse purchase. Suggestion impulse buying happens in situations similar to pure impulse buying, but the shopper acts in a more rational way. An example could be a protein bar put next to checkout. The shopper, that maybe has to go to the gym short after, feels the need of buying the protein bar. Reminded impulse buying is based on reminding. The consumer hadn’t planned to buy a specific product but seeing in the store may trigger is need for the product. Planned impulse buying, which is the last of the four, is triggered by low prices or promotions.

Buying a product can be not voluntary, because some people do not put much attention or focus while shopping, and end-up buying something they didn’t need or that wasn’t in their list. So unplanned purchases are a consequence of this kind of behaviour (Masouleh, 2012).

Hoch and Loewenstein (1991) said that unplanned purchases, as the name suggest, happen in the moment that the consumer visits the store, and is the result of a sudden urge to buy a product. Even if unplanned purchases could be regarded as impulse purchases, they are not the same thing (Rook, 1987).

Always Rook (1987) explain the dynamic behind an impulse purchase. The consumer does not make a focused evaluation of the product and the decision to buy the product happens on impulse, without thinking. People who buys on impulse tend to not care when he’s buying a product or thinking at the aftermath of his choice (Rook, 1987).

2.2 Motivators of Impulse Buying

Hoch and Loewenstein (1991), talked about impulse buying being a reactive purchase in the context of strong enough stimulation and motivation that can override restraints. The reactive nature of the phenomenon of impulse, as discussed, calls for a deep exploration of various determinants of impulse buying. Therefore, the next part of the review deals with various motivators of impulse purchase.

On the basis of previous literatures, the motives of impulse purchase are divided into four kinds—internal motivators of shopper, external motivators in shopping environment, situational factors and store environment.

For the purpose of this review, we will go through an analysis of these four different motivators, focusing on the different features belonging to them.

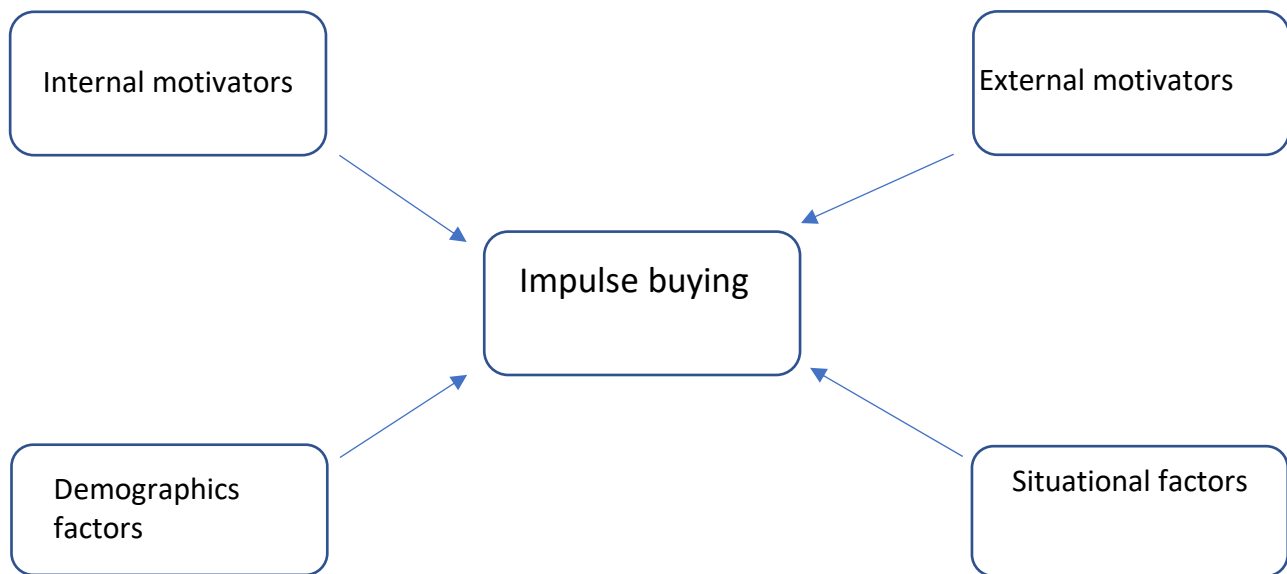


Fig. 4. Motivators of impulse buying

2.3 Internal Motivators of Impulse Buying (Shopper Related Factors)

Internal motivators of impulse buying means everything that happens inside the human mind, as emotions, need, feelings or urges (Kalla, 2016). They are related to experience and to mental stages that evolve inside the consumer. Shapiro (1992) said that sometimes people feel an irresistible need to make a purchase, even if they find far away from a product. As a consequence, this need can create a gap in the self-discrepancy, which is the difference between an actual state and an ideal state.

In 2005, Dittmar has explained the difference between a normal consumer and an “extravagant” consumer: the latter needs to make purchase in order to boost his self-esteem and to try to close the gap between their optimal representation and their actual representation (Kalla, 2016).

These people think that making purchases is a vehicle to find gratification, joy and success. But the main problem they faced was the fact that once they noticed their behaviour, they regretted it. And this situation creates a sort of cycle that never ends, starting with a normal tendency of impulse buying, and resulting in an exaggerate use of impulse buying (Kalla, 2016).

In continuation to above argument, existing research on this phenomenon also shows that low self-esteem is generally associated with increased susceptibility to influence from others (Cox, 1964). In marketing literature, the need to maintain or augment self-esteem has been associated with materialism and with purchases in some specific esteem-enhancing product categories such as those that enhance physical appearance (Arndt et al., 2004). However, Arndt et al. (2004) discussed only physical appearance but other related factors can also be looked at from the proposed perspective.

Dittmar et al. (1995) conducted a study on gender differences in compulsive buying, since impulse buying is likely to happen when a consumer buy on impulse is to increase is ideal self. In their research, they hypothesized that women could suffer impulse buying more than men. This was thought as a consequence of the fact that women are more emotion-oriented while men are more identity-oriented. They found significant result (Kacen, 2002).

Kalla (2016) said that consumer tend to buy something not for their functional value but for the meaning they have. This attitude is called “hedonic consumption” and researchers say that this happens when people think of a product as a symbol more than just a mere product. It is related with people’s emotion and cognitive aspects, as for example experience (Kalla, 2016).

Past research suggests that individuals (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982) respond to multi-sensory impressions from external stimuli by encoding these sensory inputs. In addition, they also react by generating multi-sensory images within themselves, all of which is also experienced. (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982) These internal multi-sensory images can be of two types: first, historic imagery, that involves recalling an event that actually did occur. Second, fantasy imagery, that consumer responds by producing a multi-sensory image not drawn directly from a prior experience. Instead of replaying a historic sequence, consumer constructs an imaginary one (Kalla, 2016). So, Singer (1966) suggest that “hedonic consumption” is bounded to a created reality that lays in imagination. So, hedonic consumption is created on platonic reality instead of the actual reality and this thesis can be related to Dittmar (1992) work.

Vohs (2007) suggest that the gap between what is real what is wanted can evoke some sort of impulse. Buying on impulse could help the consumer in reaching his “desired” state, closing the gap between what is real and what is still not real (Vohs, 2007).

One internal stimulus that has been studied by different researchers is autistic stimulus. Autistic stimuli are those who happen internally to the consumer and are created by an impulse. This sort of actions evokes as a reaction to something that cannot be obtained in the real state, but that only happen in the fantasy of the consumer (Kalla, 2016). This thought are irrational and illogic, and are most of the time related to emotions. Autistic thoughts were recognized as internal stimuli by Piron (1989), which regarded them as motivators of impulse buying. Hirschman (1985) explained the importance of affect on autistic thoughts. In fact, in an experiment he conducted, he said that people had positive moods before buying something on impulse (Kalla, 2016).

Youn and Faber (2000) discussed emotions has motivators of impulse buying. In fact, they suggest that negative and positive feeling could be motivators of impulse purchases. Their study specifically discussed the impact of ‘positive feelings’, ‘depressed feelings’, ‘feeling flat’ and ‘painful feelings’.

Along with studies of extreme moods, the study done by Tauber (1972) discusses mental diversion from boredom as a motivation for an unplanned shopping trip. In all this, personality played no role in unplanned buying (Kollat and Willet, 1967).

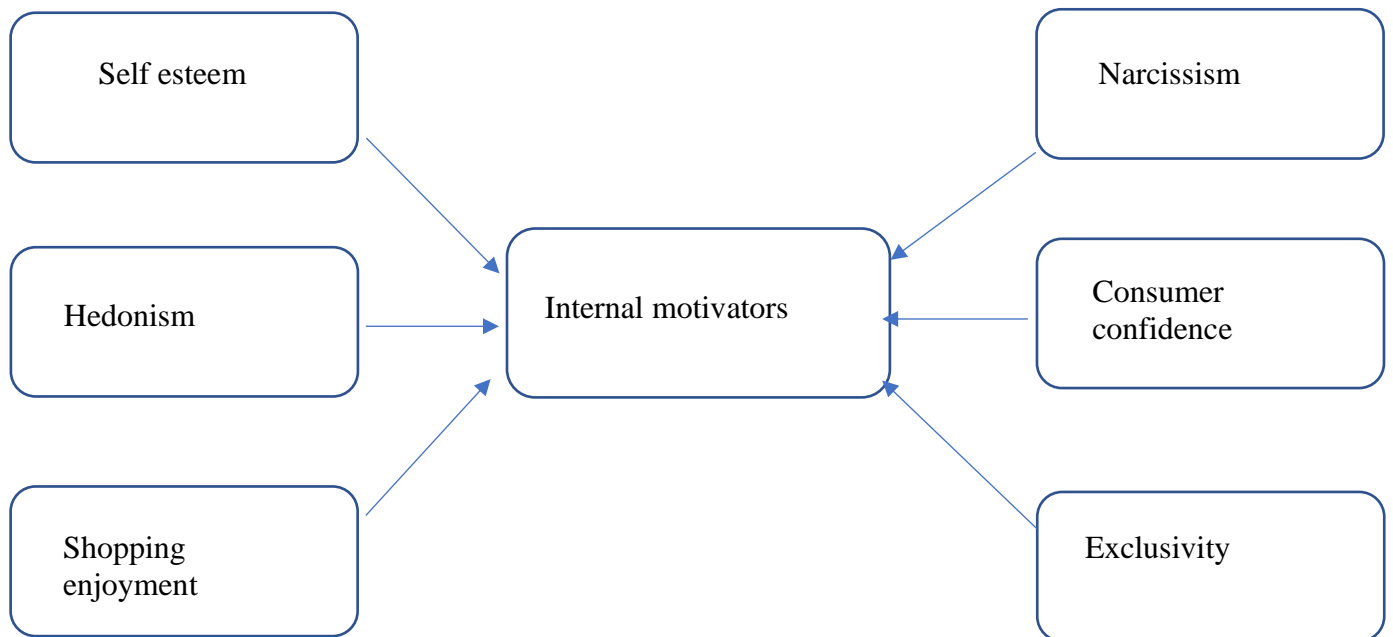


Fig. 5. Internal motivators of impulse buying

2.3.1 Self esteem

Coopersmith (1967) defined self-esteem as “a global feeling of self-worth or adequacy as a person, or generalized feelings of self-acceptance, goodness, and self-respect”. Kohn (1989) explained that self-esteem possess two sides: positive and negative. The positive one explains the degree to which a person feels that he’s able to do something and acknowledges his ethical values. Having a boosted self-esteem helps an individual to feel adequate confronting with other people, understanding his flaws (Ahmad et al., 2018). In 1995, Rook and Fisher said that in order to look wiser in decision-making, people sometimes desist from their inner behaviour and impulses.

Nayeb Zadeh and Jalaly, (2014) studied the correlation that exists between self-esteem and impulse purchases. They discovered that people who are high on self-esteem don’t need to make impulse purchases, so the relation between self-esteem and impulse purchases is negative.

Moreover, when a consumer has a boosted self-esteem, most of the times he tends to have better skills in resisting impulse buying (Ahmad et al., 2018).

Epstein (1973) explained that not all the views of the self are needed in order to stay positive. In fact, the three most important are the spiritual perspective, societal perspective and physical perspective. He added that consumer can increase their self-esteem when they feel positive and optimistic (Epstein, 1973).

2.3.2 Hedonism

Hedonic consumption is a behaviour that was explained deeply by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982). They defined it as “those aspects of behaviour that relate to the multisensory, fantasy, and emotive aspects of consumption” (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). From this perspective, they say that for a product to be used, it needs to possess some characteristics, as joy, quality and aesthetic (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

So, Ahmad (2018) said that hedonic consumption means being strongly charmed by a product and achieving and obtaining aspiration. In fact, people could fantasize in possessing an object (Ahmad, 2018).

Hausman (2000) went in contrast with previous researchers, saying impulse buying behaviour are more probable when consumers have a boosted self, and try to achieve different needs, as emotional needs. In fact, consumers tend to be more gratified when they feel the joy and happiness of impulse purchases (Hausman, 2000). This idea was shared with Park and Lennon (2006) which thought that impulse buying is a consequence of being more focused and happier during shopping.

In 1985, Westbrook and Black made a study on the different models that are influenced by hedonism. They found these perspectives are value shopping, role shopping etc.

2.3.3 Shopping enjoyment

Goyal and Mittal (2007), said that “shopping enjoyment is a buyer’s individual characteristic which represents the tendency to find shopping more pleasant and to experience greater shopping amusement than others”.

Westbrook and Black (1985) discovered that when consumers don’t follow their shopping list but buy on impulse instead, have a higher feeling of gratification and happiness. This suggests managers of shops and discount to offer people promotion for certain products, and reduction of prices, as a way to involve people and make them engage in impulse buying (Ahmad et al., 2018).

Sometimes, people who love to go to stores more frequently, tend to have more impulse buying tendencies (Badgaiyan & Verma, 2014).

2.3.4 Narcissism

Freud (1911) defined narcissism as “the libidinal complement to the egoism of the instinct of self-preservation” and as “a set of character traits concerned with self-admiration, self-centeredness and self-regard”.

Sturrock et al. (1998) explained that it could be possible for everyone to possess narcissism as a characteristic, but that there are people which are more prone to being narcissist.

Kalla (2016) made a research on narcissism. She provided and verified a connection between impulse purchase and narcissism. She explained that there are people that became adults believing of having become a “special person”, as defined by her (Kalla, 2016). One of the main characteristics of this “special person” is being able to buy a product without having it in mind before. Once the person understands this trait, he sees it as an incentive to impulse buying. Actions and thinking of people that are always looking to find comfort in their inner self tend to be vehicled by the narcissistic trait (Kalla, 2016).

2.3.5 Consumer confidence

Consumer confidence has seen a consistent growth if we compare it to the century that has passed by. Consumers are more aware of what they are buying and have more sources to compare prices and features of a product. Consumption has seen an important rise as a consequence of this boosted trait (Kalla, 2016).

The strong economy of last years has helped impulse buying to become one of the most frequent consumer’s behaviours. So, people feel more justified when they buy something on impulse and do not feel ashamed (Kalla, 2016).

2.3.6 Exclusivity

When we talk about exclusivity, we mean something that could only be possessed by a limited number of people. Impulse buying is strictly related to exclusivity, since many limited-edition products are bought more on impulse and not following a need (Kalla, 2016).

2.4 External Motivators of Impulse Buying (Shop Related Factors)

External motivators of impulse buying are the one that can be encountered in a store environment. Piron (1991) suggest that impulse purchases arise when a consumer receive an external stimulus while shopping. These stimuli can be created by the promotion and discount of the store or by the product (Piron, 1991).

Rook and Hoch (1985) suggest that the stimulus that happen inside the store influences the feeling of the consumer, and as a consequence this stimulus lead to a urge to buy the product.

Since the urge to buy appears in a fast way and inside the shop, consumers need to be careful and need to make a focused analysis in order to avoid the product or in order to buy it. This characteristic of impulse buying, the fact that happens very fastly, explain that impulse buying is a behaviour that happens right away the external stimulus (Muruganatham et al., 2013).

Many authors have discussed the importance of visual stimuli in initiating impulse in buying scenario. In the context of malls, another factor that was linked with impulse buying is self-service environment (Stern, 1962). In addition, shopping pleasure gets further enhanced with a shopper being free and unobserved to try on new

things and styles and fantasize, wrapped in the anonymity of a self-service environment (Muruganantham et al., 2013).

Older studies on impulse buying has stressed the importance of coming in contact with a product, as it is regarded as a detonator for impulse buying. Vohs and Faber (2007) say that when a consumer is near a product, is desired to buy the product may arise. In fact, the use of the five senses is fundamental to trigger emotions. Examples could be eating samples of food, smelling the fragrance of a product, or touching an object for the first time. Rook (1987) point out to the difficulties of consumer to resist the temptation of not buying a product when it is near them.

In 2006, Peck and Childers made a research on the correlation between autotelic need for touch and impulse purchase behaviour. They found out people who are lower on autotelic need for touch purchase less on impulse, while people who are higher on autotelic need for touch tend to buy more on impulse. This behaviour could explain the phenomena that happen inside the store, even if this subject has been poorly studied in last years (Peck and Childers, 2006).

Mohan (2013) talks about in-store browsing as another factor that influences impulse buying. Jones et al. (2003) suggest that this concept is very important for explaining impulse buying, and that this behaviour is mostly triggered inside a store. Of course, when a consumer is near a product, the need to purchase it increase consistently. Similarly, Cox (1970) studied the “positive relationship between the amount of shelf space given to an impulse product that has high consumer acceptance and total unit sales of that brand”.

Rostocks (2003) found in his study a correlation between impulse buying tendency and visual merchandising. He discovered that most people buy on impulse when they feel that the product is well positioned on the shelf. Impulse buying has been studied has a consequence of stimuli in the store environment. Many researchers found correlation between ambient factors, such as colours, scents and music, with impulse buying behaviours. These variables were found to have a positive influence on impulse buying (Mohan, 2013).

Mattila and Wirtz (2008) confirmed that the use of stimuli on the environment could have led to a temporary decrease in self-control, resulting in an increase possibility of buying on impulse.

Mohan (2013) explains that even if there are evidence that confirms the influence of environmental stimuli on impulse buying, it is still not clear if this stimulus alters the mood of the consumer or not.

2.5 Demographics and Socio-Cultural Factors

Demographics and socio-cultural factors are those factors related to the age, gender, and culture of an individual. In the last years many researchers have studied the relation between these factors and impulse buying.

Wood (1998) studied the relation between impulse buying and age in the United States. He found that the correlation between these two variables is negative. He discovered that impulse buying tendencies arise until the age of 39 years old. Thereafter, impulse buying tendencies fall down (Wood, 1998). Consistent with this

thesis is the work of Bellenger et al. (1978). They demonstrated that consumers above the age of 35 years old were less used at buying on impulse than consumers younger than them (Bellenger et al., 1978).

Eysenck et al. (1985) confirmed these results, explaining that younger people buy more on impulse compared to older people. Moreover, Kollat and Willet (1967) discovered that impulse buying is influenced by the demographic of people and by their traits while Vohs and Faber (2007) found that not only demographic of consumers influences impulse buying, but that culture plays a similar role.

Kacen (2002) explain that since the previous researches have shown a correlation between impulsivity and emotion stimulation, researches on demographic and cultural factors correlated with impulse buying are steady. This can be explained since adults and older people control in a better way emotion than younger people. As a consequence, younger people tend to buy more on impulse (Kacen, 2002).

In a research of 1996, Dittmar et al. manipulated gender to understand if it could affect impulse purchases. They found out that women and men act differently. Women tend to look at products more as symbols that could help them expressing their inner self. As a consequence, women tend to buy products driven by emotion, leading them to purchase more on impulse (Dittmar et al., 1996).

Then, they studied another factor that influences impulse buying. They made a study that showed that when the salaries of an individual increases, impulse buying increases too. So, consumers that earn less money try to avoid this behaviour, saving money for the day-to-day life, while consumers who earns more money think less about the present situation and are more prone to impulse buying behaviour (Dittmar et al., 1996).

Social influence is considered as another factor that influences impulse purchases. Kacen and Lee (2002) state that one's behaviour is altered by the culture of his own country and that this context could help in understanding impulse buying behaviour. In their study, Kacen and Lee (2002) suggest that collectivism influences impulse buying tendencies more than an individualist one. This is due to the fact that people who is more autonomous could face impulse buying behaviour, as a way to increase his inner state.

When people are browsing the store, the presence of friends rise the possibility of making impulse purchases, while the presence of family members, as the mother or the father, reduce the possibility of making impulse purchases (Luo, 2005).

In a study by Rook and Fisher (1995) it is explained how if people could shop in anonymity, this would increase impulse buying. This is due to the fact that people would feel less ashamed on considering buying a product (Rook and Fisher, 1995).

Mattila and Wirtz (2008) have discussed the importance of salespeople. Salespeople have a great effect on consumers and are considered as a cause to impulse buying. Sometimes they can manipulate the customer, by helping him and suggesting him. Baker et al. (1994) said something similar to Mattila and Wirtz, underlining the importance of salespeople inside a store.

Expanding further on 'rapidity' that is characteristic of impulse purchase, the research by Bernthal et al. (2005) observed that the people who possess credit cards are more likely to purchase impulsively. The act of spending

through credit cards frees the spender of psychological implications of spending, as the card involved acts as a temporary shield.

Moreover, Hoch and Loewenstein (1991) says that “buying may bring more buying, having fallen off the wagon”. This suggests a form of momentum in which additional urges are acted upon more quickly than previous urges. The shopping formats are likely to play a big role in utilizing this trigger. Malls and large-scale department stores are more likely to initiate this momentum of buying and the reason for the same could possibly be attributed to much higher levels of exposure and facilitated visual contact with an array of attractively displayed products.

2.6 Situational and Product Related Factors

Which are the situational factors that may influence impulse buying? The main situational factors are purchasing habits, time of purchasing and shop location (Shapiro, 1992). Beatty and Ferrell (1998) add to this list the purchasing power of customers and the time availability. They explained how the time that a consumer spends inside a store is influenced by the availability of time of that consumer. As a consequence, this situation positively affects feelings and emotions of consumers that can turn into impulse purchases (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). Jeffrey and Hodge (2007) added that if a consumer stays more time inside a store, he has a higher chance of receiving stimuli that can end in impulse purchases.

In 2003, Crawford and Melewer made a study on candy store. They discovered that candies are mostly bought on impulse, and that in 2002 rise of purchases in the retail sector has never been seen before (Crawford and Melewer, 2003). Moreover, Yu and Bastin (2010) made a research on the different categories of product where impulse buying is present. They found out that impulse buys are regarded to books, snacks and clothes (Yu and Bastin, 2010).

Tauber (1972) said that the product itself is not the only thing that influences impulse buying. In fact, he explained that the style and colour of clothes and the way they are placed on the shelf can influence impulse purchases (Tauber, 1972).

A similar research was made by Han (1991). He studied the world of clothing in relation with impulse buying and found that different patterns of impulse buying behaviour were present. Examples are emotional impulse buying and fashion oriented impulse buying.

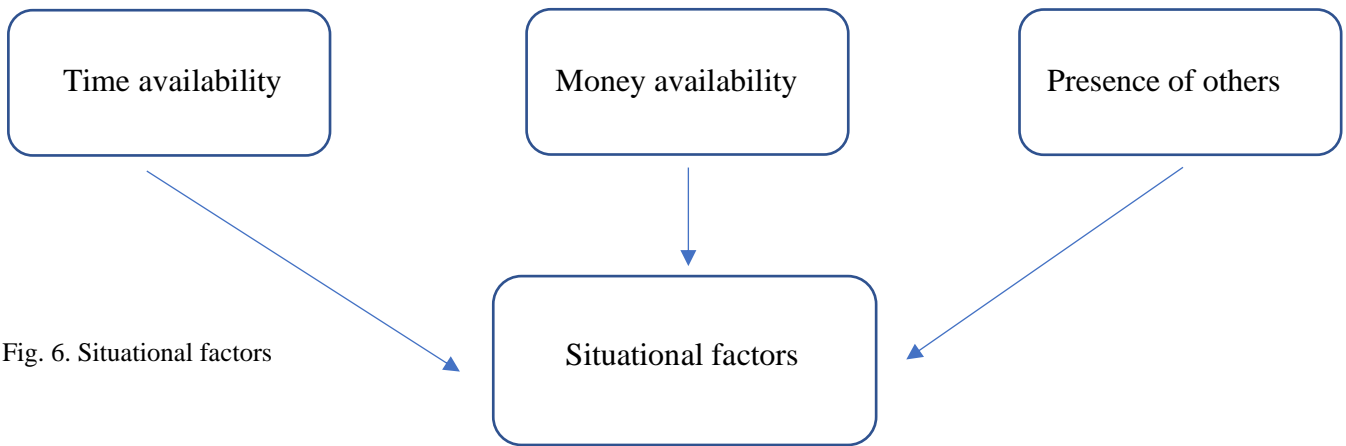


Fig. 6. Situational factors

2.6.1 Time availability

When a shopper has more time to navigate the store, the percentage of impulse buying behaviours increases. Beatty and Ferrell (1998) believe that sellers and shop assistant must try to change the perception of time that consumers think they have inside the store. This can be done by helping shoppers during their visit at the store or making the shopping more efficient (Foroughi et al. 2012).

2.6.2 Money availability

Beatty and Ferrell (1998) stressed the importance of money availability influencing impulse buying behaviour. They think that people who possess more money are more easily inducted in impulse purchases. If consumers don't have enough money, they will avoid buying and shopping environment, and impulse buying tendencies will be lower (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). Heidarizade and Taherikia (2010) say that money availability positively influence impulse buying behaviours; so, the more the quantity of money possessed by a consumer, the higher his impulse buying tendencies.

2.6.3 Presence of others

In 2004, Luo made a study on the presence of others as a factor influencing impulse buying. In the last years, impulse buying as received a lot of attention, and many researchers studied a large number of variables to understand this behaviour. Luo (2004) is one of the first researchers that focused on the collective side of impulse buying. In fact, most researches have focused their attention at impulse buying when it is related just to a single individual. Luo think that this behaviour is correct, but he thinks that impulse buying happens even during interpersonal situation, so when an individual is not alone (Luo, 2004). He assesses the importance of the presence of friends or family on shopping, and why it could influence impulse buying.

Luo says that according to social facilitation theory “an individual consumer’s learning, motivation, and behaviour may be facilitated by the presence of a group of people”. So he outlines five different situations in which people could be involved in impulse buying: when some other person is buying something, they may see it like a contest; they fear that someone else could have a product instead of them; they really listen to other people suggests; they may “copy” the behaviour of other people even if they may not need the product they are buying; the presence of others is enough for convincing them to buy something (Luo, 2004).

He then adds that when a consumer is going shopping with family, it is less probable for him to getting involved in impulse purchases, while if a consumer goes shopping with his friends, he has a igher chance of being involved in impulse purchases (Luo, 2004).

2.7 Store environment

Hausman says that “particular situations and retail settings influence both in-store choice and future store choice decisions because of the changing and adaptive nature of expectations, preferences, and behaviour” (Hausman, 2000). Then, Darden et al. (1983) explained that people are usually more attracted by the kind of store and not good prices and products are not determinant in deciding which store to shop.

This view was share by Kim (2003) who said that the appealing of the store and what it looks from outside is more important than what it is sold inside.

Babin and Kim (2001) explained that a factor that affects the purchase intention of a consumer is the store space. In fact, when colours and lightnings are used in such a way to evoke emotions, they can change the consumer’s behaviour and purchase intention. In this way the store could build a strong and long-term relation with the consumer. Kim (2003) added there most of the times, people is not sure what to buy when they enter a store. Thus, the store needs to send some stimuli to consumers, in order to convince them on buying a product or they call to mind the need of a certain product. In fact, impulse buying behaviour results as a contrast to a stimulus and induce the consumer in feeling an instant urge to buy (Kim, 2003).

Kollat and Willet (1967) explained that impulse buying happens more when people stay more time inside a store than when people stay just for a few inside the store. Han (1987) added that if the environment presents more stimuli, it is easier to induce consumer in impulse buying behaviour. In some situation, the environment can help the consumer, working as a real salesperson (Han, 1987). In a study, Stern (1962) highlighted the importance of advertisement inside a store, since it really helps people when browsing the store. The use of advertisement can result in impulse buying. He then added that products that cost too much money, compared to other in the same category, are usually not bought on impulse (Stern, 1962).

Store environment is the sum of the elements that compose the store. Examples of this are music, layout of the store, scent, lightning, which are all ambient factors. Social factors, as the presence of the personnel and design factors, which are assortment and layout. Layout is the disposition of everything inside the store, as for example shopping carts, shelves and aisles. Layout could refer even to the space inside a store, or the shape of

the items inside the store. Product assortment refers to all the products that the store has and how they are placed in the shelves.

Mattila and Wirtz said that when a consumer enters a store, he sees the environment as a whole. This influences the first impression of the consumer and as a consequence his intention to buy (Mattila and Wirtz, 2001). As a contrast, there are different studies which have analysed many factors of the store environment taken individually. Baker et al. (2002) studied in the same research the role of music, the design of the store and employees. They manipulated these three variables both individually and collectively. Mattila and Wirtz (2001) studied the importance of scent inside a store. Sharma and Stafford (2000) studied the personnel availability.

2.7.1 How store environment positively affects consumer behaviour

In this paragraph we are going to resume the positive affect created by the store environment. Yalch and Spangenberg (1990) stated that “Shoppers respond to music psychologically and behaviourally”.

Bruner (1990) says that “music, as part of the store environment, is an important, frequently and commonly studied variable that influences affective states” while Bitner (1990) adds that “store environment is a key ambient variable shaping consumer behaviour in retail environments”. Garlin and Owen (2006) stated that music creates positive emotions. Smith et al. (1989) addressed the importance of lighting systems in stores. In fact, an effective lighting system can increase the beauty of the environment, creating a positive atmosphere and as a consequence engaging the customer. In a research paper made by Yoo, Park and MacInnis (1998), it is shown how lighting and music used together can create a positive affect and increase client’s satisfaction.

Bitner (1990) again says that “if the store is well-arranged, shoppers will easily find the products they are looking for, inducing a positive experience; this can be done improving the store layout and using signages”. He added that when consumers see personnel as efficient and active, they may receive positive feeling (Bitner, 1990). Baker et al. (2002) say that having a beautiful and efficient layout can turn the shopping to more exciting, thanks to the reduction in stress.

Jones (1999) stressed the fundamental role of salespeople as a factor influencing the experience inside the shop. In fact, some positive behavioural traits of salespeople can influence consumer behaviour increasing his positive affect (Jones, 1999).

2.7.2 How store environment negatively affects consumer behaviour

Bitner (1990) says that “loud music may cause physical discomfort and may induce negative affect”. Sometimes store managers change the layout or other factors of the store environment, trying to make it more appealing. This could result in an excess of changing that lead to consumer’s negative feelings (Bitner, 1990). An example can be seen in Areni and Kim (1994) study, which shows that the wrong use of lighting level,

may reduce sight clearness, causing in the consumer a negative feeling. Spies et al. (2017) said that an inadequate layout may cause a negative affect.

The behaviour of salespeople is very important. They are one the variables that produces most affect in a consumer. In such a way, if they don't behave well or don't help consumers, they will create negative affect (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). Jones (1999) added that "bad shop assistance or the absence of shop assistants may cause negative affect".

2.8 Conceptual framework

This chapter has shown the various determinants of impulse buying, and some of his shades and the different types. To conclude the chapter, we end with the research question of this thesis: *Does social influence moderate the relation between music inside a store and impulse buying?* Previous researches have highlighted how there are gender differences in impulse buying behaviour, but we want to study if using music as a variable will lead to different results.

Many times, public spaces as stores make use of music in order to influence consumers. In fact, music plays an important role evoking emotion in the consumer. Music is made by different elements, as the melody, the rhythm or the harmony (Jia-Yin et al., 2017).

Many studies have highlighted the importance of music as behavior influencing. In fact, when music interact with other variables of the store, it can create different results, as changing time perception, or making the shopping experience more enjoyable (Jia-Yin et al., 2017). Some studies have shown how music can directly influencing impulse purchasing. Moreover, music can increase the self-esteem of consumers, and as a consequence this can lead to an increase in sales, and in in-store time visit (Jia-Yin et al., 2017).

As Milliman (1986) says, music is an important non-verbal communication, generally used to enhance store atmosphere and sometimes it may induce impulse buying behaviour. It makes people stay longer inside a store, spending more time and money than normal; so, it is probable that some of this shopping may be unplanned and possibly result in impulse buying. In fact, as Eroglu and Machleit (1993) say, music and lighting are important triggers that create an urge to purchase impulsively.

2.8.1 Moderating Role of Social Influence

The presence of other persons in a purchasing situation is likely to influence the decision to make a purchase. In some instances, the mere presence of others can influence behaviour (Luo, 2005). This effect could occur regardless of whether the others are peers or family members. In other instances, however, consumers may believe that others' opinions and behaviours are credible. Alternatively, they may take others' buying behaviour

as a justification for their own, thus releasing their inhibitions about buying. Finally, they may use others' behaviour and their purchases as visible indicators of socially desirable activities.

The nature of this influence, however, may depend on the norms and values of the group. As noted earlier, family members (e.g., parents) may foster a sense of responsibility to both the family and others and consequently may discourage wastefulness and extravagance. To this extent, they may consider impulsive buying to be undesirable (Baumeister, 2002).

Luo, in 2005, studied how the presence of others influence impulse buying. He verified that in the presence of friends, impulse buying behaviour tend to increase, while in the presence of family members, impulse buying behaviour tend to decrease.

We want to study if the presence of others can moderate the relation between music and impulse buying.

H1a: The presence of friends will positively moderate the relation between presence of music and impulse buying.

H1b: The presence of family members will negatively moderate the relation between presence of music and impulse buying.

I would like to study social influence as moderator, since it is an important part of our daily life. We conform to better meet the basic goals of self-concern and other concern. Conforming helps us do better by helping us make accurate, informed decisions. And conformity helps us be accepted by those we care about. People's behaviour changes radically when we are in presence of other people, and retailers can have a big advantage by having more insight in this subject. The mix of music and social influence could become a marketing weapon for targeting a specific part of consumers.

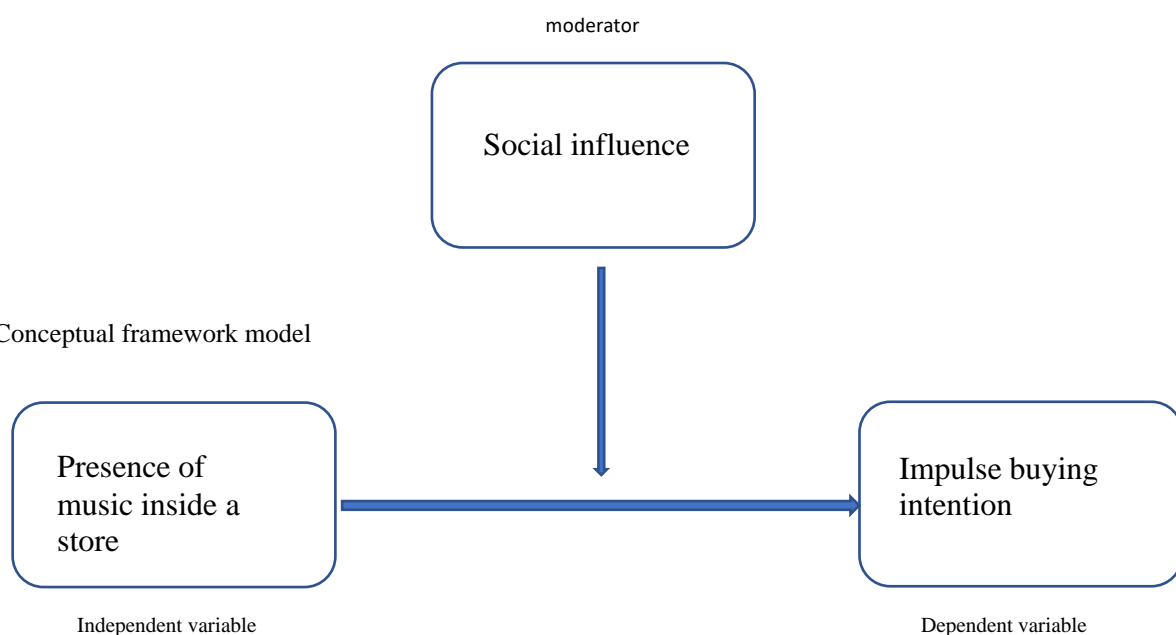


Fig. 7. Conceptual framework model

CHAPTER III:

Social influence and impulse buying

3.1 Research methodology

The main objective of this research is to evaluate if the social influence can moderate the relation between the presence of music inside a store and the impulse buying purchase intention. Social influence will be divided between shopping with family and shopping with friends. From previous literatures, it is agreed that shopping with friends can increase the probability of having impulse buying tendencies, while shopping with family can reduce this.

In order to obtain data to analyse for verifying this hypothesis, I designed a survey divided in different blocks:

Demographical block: in this block, I obtained insight about the age, gender, occupation and level of instruction of the sample I studied.

Attitude: in the first block, I decided to use a validated scale in order to understand new information in impulse buying tendencies of the sample

Purchase intention: in the last block, I created two scenarios, which I randomized. In these scenarios I manipulated the moderator, while keeping the independent variable constant.

Here, you can see the two scenarios that I used in the survey:

Ti trovi all'interno di un supermercato mentre fai la spesa con I tuoi amici. L'ambiente è accogliente, e **vieni distratto dalla presenza di musica all'interno del negozio**. Quando stai per uscire, noti vicino alla cassa le gomme da masticare, e nonostante non facessero parte della lista della spesa, pensi di comprarne un pacchetto.

Scenario 1

Ti trovi all'interno di un supermercato mentre fai la spesa con la tua famiglia. L'ambiente è accogliente, e **vieni distratto dalla presenza di musica all'interno del negozio**. Quando stai per uscire, noti vicino alla cassa le gomme da masticare, e nonostante non facessero parte della lista della spesa, pensi di comprarne un pacchetto.

Scenario 2

3.1.1 Participants

The online questionnaire was done by 460 participants; after a control on answers consistency's and after eliminating uncompleted questionnaires, the final sample is of 359 people.

From a demographic perspective, the sample seems pretty heterogenous: in fact, out of 359 participants, 264 were women, 94 were men and 1 other.

		Genere			
		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	Donna	264	73,5	73,5	73,5
	Uomo	94	26,2	26,2	99,7
	Altro	1	,3	,3	100,0
	Totale	359	100,0	100,0	

Fig. 8. Sex frequency table

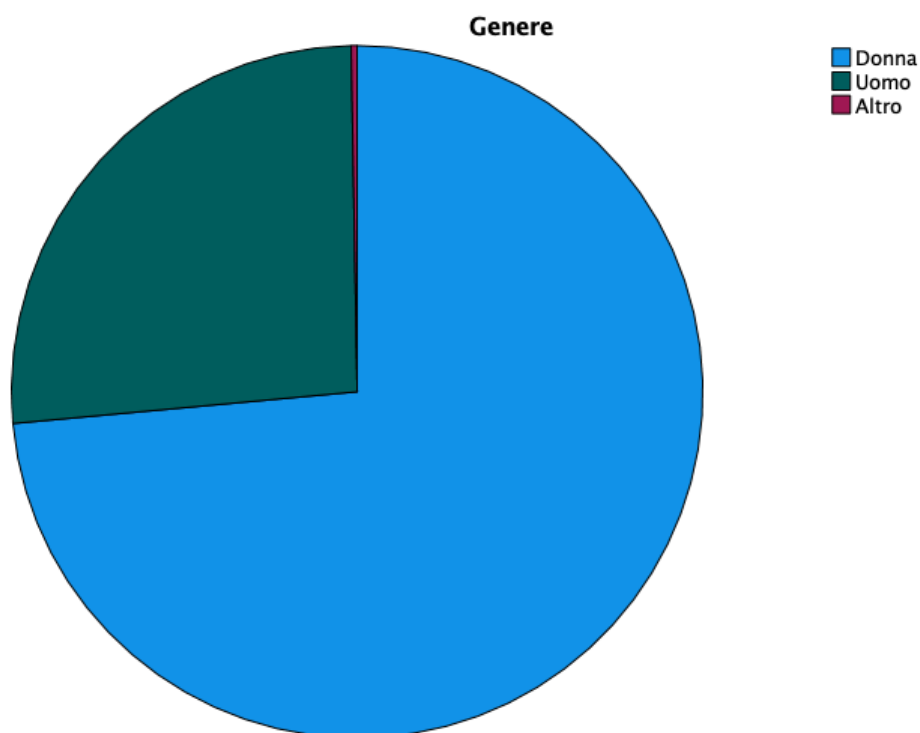


Fig. 9. Sex pie chart

The age of the participants lays mostly between the age of 18 and 55 years old. In fact, as can be seen in the graph below, 303 respondents have between 18 and 55 years old.

		Età_			
		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	Meno di 18 anni	1	,3	,3	,3
	Tra i 18 e i 34 anni	162	45,1	45,5	45,8
	Tra i 35 e i 54 anni	141	39,3	39,6	85,4
	Tra i 55 e gli 80 anni	52	14,5	14,6	100,0
	Totale	356	99,2	100,0	
Mancante	Sistema	3	,8		
Totale		359	100,0		

Fig. 10. Age frequency table

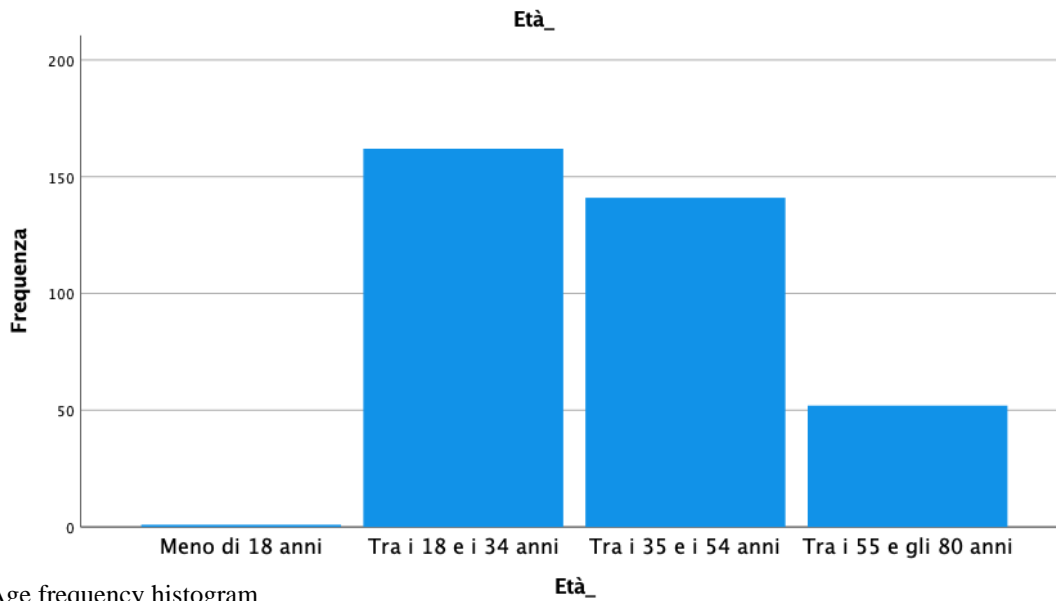


Fig. 11. Age frequency histogram

Then, I wanted to obtain more insight on the habits of the sample filtering by age. I had to create a new recoded variable, since in the survey people filled in the demographics with their age number. Creating a new variable I had the chance to divide all the participants into four different subsets: people with a range of 0-17 years old, people with a range of 18-34 years old, people with a range of 35-54 years old and people with a range of 55-80 years old.

I then created a contingency table, where I put the new variable of age, and a new variable called *tendenza*. I needed this variable in order to measure the level of impulse buying attitude of the participants, and here I explain the three different values:

- *Low attitude*: low attitude has value that lays between 1 and 3 and represents the portion of the sample with a low attitude towards impulse buying.
- *Medium attitude*: medium attitude has values that lays between 3,01 and 5 and represents the portion of sample with a medium attitude towards impulse buying.
- *High attitude*: high attitude has values that lays between 5,01 and 7 and represents the portion of sample with a high attitude towards impulse buying.

		Tendenza			Totale
		Low attitude	Medium attitude	High attitude	
Età_	Meno di 18 anni	1	0	0	1
	Tra i 18 e i 34 anni	49	95	18	162
	Tra i 35 e i 54 anni	50	79	12	141
	Tra i 55 e gli 80 anni	26	21	5	52
Totale		126	195	35	356

Fig. 12. Contingency table tendenza x età

So, from the graph above, we can see how the majority of people who did the questionnaire, has a medium tendency towards impulse buying. 50% of people between the age of 55 and 80 years old has shown a low attitude towards impulse buying, and these follow the lines of what we said in the literature review in chapter 2. People between 18- and 34-years old show similar path with people between the age of 35 and 54 between years old. In fact, the percentage of people in medium and high attitude are similar between the two subsets. The only main difference stays in the low attitude column, where people between 35 and 54 years old show a larger number than I the set of people between 18 and 34 years old, despite the total number of the former is bigger.

I then did the same process as before, but I changed the variable of *age* with the variable *gender*, to see if there are difference in the attitude between men and women. From the contingency table below, we can see how actually there are no big differences in the attitude toward impulse buying between men and women, but the number of people each column is pretty the same.

Tavola di contingenza Genere * Tendenza

Conteggio

		Tendenza			Totale
		Low attitude	Medium attitude	High attitude	
Genere	Donna	95	146	23	264
	Uomo	30	52	12	94
	Altro	1	0	0	1
Totale		126	198	35	359

Fig. 13. Contingency table tendenza x genere

3.1.2 Tools of research

With the questionnaire, we have basically measured two scales: attitudes toward impulse buying and purchase intention.

The first scale was measured through a 7-point Likert scale with 9 questions. The items are made as growing variables, whom to a larger number correspond a larger attitude toward impulse buying. As follows, the 9 questions:

1. I often buy things spontaneously.
2. “Just do it” describes the way I buy things.
3. I often buy things without thinking.
4. “I see it, I buy it” describes me.
5. “Buy now, think about it later” describes me.
6. Sometimes I feel like buying things on the spur of the moment.
7. I buy things according to how I feel at the moment.
8. I carefully plan most of my purchases.

9. Sometimes I am a bit reckless about what I buy.

All the question was valued from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

I then did a reliability analysis, in order to see if the scale was reliable or not.

Statistiche di affidabilità

Alpha di Cronbach	N. di elementi
,871	9

Fig. 14. Reliability analysis *attitude*

Cronbach’s alpha is 0,871, letting us to accept the validity of the scale. In fact, the value is over 0.8, which means that it is very good.

I then did a factor analysis, in order to verify if I could create only one new variable out of the 9 items scale.

Varianza totale spiegata

Componente	Totale	Autovalori iniziali		Caricamenti somme dei quadrati di estrazione		
		% di varianza	% cumulativa	Totale	% di varianza	% cumulativa
1	4,464	49,604	49,604	4,464	49,604	49,604
2	,847	9,413	59,017			
3	,771	8,566	67,583			
4	,694	7,709	75,292			
5	,657	7,303	82,595			
6	,499	5,544	88,139			
7	,391	4,349	92,488			
8	,369	4,097	96,586			
9	,307	3,414	100,000			

Metodo di estrazione: Analisi dei componenti principali.

Fig. 14. Factor analysis *attitude*

From this output, we can verify that the answers were consistent and that we can create a new variable out of all the questions of attitude. In order to obtain only one factor, the column of total needs to have only one factor above the value of 1, as in this case. This means that I was able to create a new variable, called *attitude*. This variable was created by doing the arithmetical mean of the values obtained by the 9 questions.

Then, i needed to analyse another scale, the one that followed the two scenarios. This was a *purchase intention* scale, made of 3 items of 7 points each, from 1 (very unlikely) to 7 (very likely).

The scale is as follows:

1. Would you be more likely or less likely to purchase the product, given the information shown?
2. Given the information shown, how probable is it that you would consider the purchase of the product?
3. How likely would you be to purchase the product, given the information shown?

I then followed by doing the same process as with the previous scale. So, I run a factor analysis and a reliability analysis.

Statistiche di affidabilità

Alpha di Cronbach	N. di elementi
,948	3

Fig. 15. Reliability analysis *purchase intention*

Varianza totale spiegata

Componente	Totale	Autovalori iniziali		Caricamenti somme dei quadrati di estrazione		
		% di varianza	% cumulativa	Totale	% di varianza	% cumulativa
1	2,720	90,676	90,676	2,720	90,676	90,676
2	,170	5,654	96,330			
3	,110	3,670	100,000			

Metodo di estrazione: Analisi dei componenti principali.

Fig. 16. Factor analysis *purchase intention*

Both these analyses gave positive results, since the Cronbach's alpha for the reliability analysis is 0,948, which is very good, and the factor analysis gave us just one factor with eigenvalue above 1. So, I created a new variable called purchase intention, which is the mean of the values of the three questions.

3.2 Results discussion

The main objective of this thesis was to verify the hypotheses present in the conceptual framework, which are the one that follows:

H1a: The presence of friends will positively moderate the relation between presence of music and impulse buying.

H1b: The presence of family members will negatively moderate the relation between presence of music and impulse buying. I wanted to test if social influence could moderate the effect between music inside a store and impulse buying purchase intention. In order to do this, I used IBM SPSS to analyse the data that I received from the questionnaire.

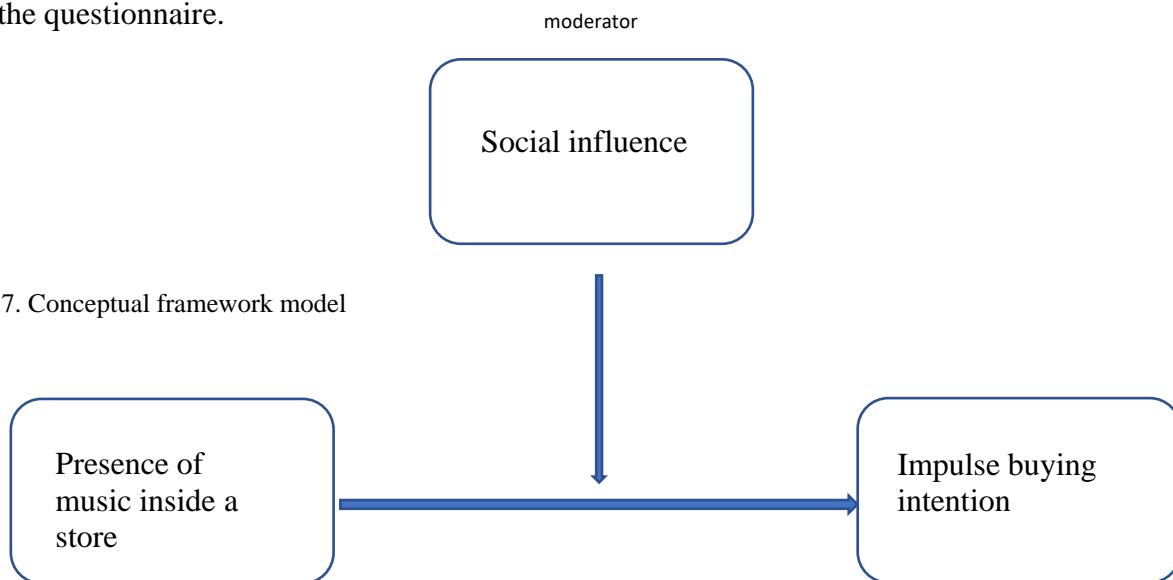


Fig. 17. Conceptual framework model

First of all, I wanted to assess which method of SPSS I was going to use to analyse this data and obtain some more information. In the two scenarios that I presented in the questionnaire, the presence of music inside a store was held as a constant variable, since it was present in both scenarios. The variable that I manipulated was social influence.

In the first scenario, people had to imagine going shopping with family members, while in the second one people had to imagine going shopping with friends.

So, in the data, I created a dichotomous variable between the two scenarios, where 1=Family and 2=Friends. Then, I created the variable called *purchase*, which is the mean of all the items of the two scenarios. I needed this in order to have a dependent variable to analyse.

scenari	Purchase
Famiglia	7,00
Amici	7,00
Famiglia	1,00
Famiglia	1,67
Famiglia	1,00

Fig. 18. Variables

Scenari is a nominal variable, since it represents the two scenarios, while *purchase* is a scale variable, since it is made by values from 1 to 7.

So, in order to test the effect of the independent variable (*scenari*) on the dependent variable (*purchase*), I thought about launching a linear regression on SPSS. A linear regression can show if there is an effect of one or more independent variable on a dependent variable and if there is correlation between the two variables.

Correlazioni

		Purchase	Scenari
Correlazione di Pearson	Purchase	1,000	,092
	Scenari	,092	1,000
Sign. (a una coda)	Purchase	.	,041
	Scenari	,041	.
N	Purchase	359	359
	Scenari	359	359

Fig. 19. Linear regression analysis

The table above shows the correlation between the two variables. There is a correlation of 0,092, which is a very low value. This means that probably the independent value has no effect on the dependent value.

This is confirmed in the table below. In fact, from the model summary we can see how the level of significance is 0,082, which is higher than the acceptable 0,05. This means that our hypothesis is rejected, and that social influence doesn't moderate the relation between the independent variable and the dependent variable.

Riepilogo del modello^b

Modello	R	R-quadrato	R-quadrato adattato	Errore std. della stima	Modifica R-quadrato	Statistiche delle modifiche			Sign. Modifica F
						Modifica F	gl1	gl2	
1	,092 ^a	,008	,006	1,82531	,008	3,046	1	357	,082

a. Predittori: (costante), Scenari

b. Variabile dipendente: Purchase

Fig. 20. Model summary

With this linear regression analysis, I rejected the main hypothesis with this research.

At the start of the survey, I put 9 items to evaluate the attitude of the participants. This variable was not included in any hypothesis, but I added it to obtain different frequencies and descriptive statistics that could have explained the attitude of my sample.

I thought about running a new linear regression, this time involving attitude as an independent variable and the purchase intention as a dependent variable. This analysis could explain if there is correlation between these two variables.

Correlazioni

		Purchase	Attitude
Correlazione di Pearson	Purchase	1,000	,220
	Attitude	,220	1,000
Sign. (a una coda)	Purchase	.	,000
	Attitude	,000	.
N	Purchase	359	359
	Attitude	359	359

Fig. 21. Linear regression analysis

As the graph above shows, the correlation between attitude and purchase intention is equal 0,22, which is a weak correlation, but could explain the relation between these two variables.

Riepilogo del modello^b

Modello	R	R-quadrato	R-quadrato adattato	Errore std. della stima	Modifica R-quadrato	Statistiche delle modifiche			Sign. Modifica F
						Modifica F	gl1	gl2	
1	,220 ^a	,048	,046	1,78812	,048	18,177	1	357	,000

a. Predittori: (costante), Attitude

b. Variabile dipendente: Purchase

Fig. 22. Model summary

The graph above represents the model summary of the interaction between attitude and purchase, and the model is significant. In fact, the level of significance is 0,000 which is lower than the acceptable significance level of 0,05.

So, we don't accept or reject any hypotheses, since the variable attitude wasn't present in the model. But we find that attitude has an effect on purchase intention.

Coefficienti^a

Modello		Coefficienti non standardizzati		Coefficienti standardizzati	t	Sign.
		B	Errore standard	Beta		
1	(Costante)	1,888	,330		5,722	,000
	Attitude	,380	,089	,220	4,264	,000

a. Variabile dipendente: Purchase

Fig. 23. Linear regression analysis

Since this regression analysis was significant and gave positive result, I wanted to understand, thanks to the linear regression equation, how Y would change increasing X by 1.

The linear regression equation is the following:

$$Y = b_0 + b_1X$$

In the table of the coefficients we have all the information we need to run this equation. In fact, our b_0 is equal to 1,888 and our b_1 is equal to 0,380. Moreover, our X is equal to 1. Substituting these values into the equation we obtain this:

$$Y = 1,888 + 0,380 * 1$$

$$Y = 2,268$$

Our Y is equal to 2,268. This means that if we increase by 1 the value of attitude, the purchase intention increases by 2,268.

Then, as last step of my analysis, I wanted to do a *moderation* analysis, in order to understand if the variable attitude could moderate the relation between the independent variable, which in this case would be social influence, and the dependent variable, which is the purchase intention.

This analysis was run with PROCESS, which is a tool that can be downloaded on SPSS and can be used to run moderation and mediation analysis. In this case, I used Model 1 of PROCESS, since it is the one necessary to run a moderation analysis.

In the image below, we can see the output create by PROCESS:


```

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5 *****

      Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.      www.afhayes.com
      Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

*****
Model : 1
  Y : Purchase
  X : scenari
  W : Attitude

Sample
Size: 359

*****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Purchase

Model Summary
      R      R-sq      MSE      F      df1      df2      p
      ,2445      ,0598      3,1772      7,5214      3,0000      355,0000      ,0001

Model
      coeff      se      t      p      LLCI      ULCI
constant      2,8653      1,0442      2,7440      ,0064      ,8117      4,9189
scenari      -,6237      ,6593      -,9460      ,3448      -1,9203      ,6729
Attitude      -,0184      ,2860      -,0643      ,9487      -,5809      ,5441
Int_1      ,2555      ,1784      1,4322      ,1530      -,0953      ,6064

Product terms key:
Int_1 :      scenari x      Attitude

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
      R2-chng      F      df1      df2      p
X*W      ,0054      2,0513      1,0000      355,0000      ,1530

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

```

Fig. 24. Process output

Unfortunately, the interaction between the independent variable and the moderator is not significant and has no effect on the dependent variable.

This was something I already expected, since the regression between *scenari* and *purchase* was not significant.

So, to conclude this chapter, I'll go through the three analysis that were run in SPSS:

- Linear regression between *scenari* and *purchase intention*: **not significant**
- Linear regression between attitude and purchase intention: **significant**
- Moderation analysis between *scenari*, *attitude* and *purchase intention*: **not significant**

3.3 Research limitations

Even if this research has brought to light some significant results, there are some limits that are connected with the model I tested and the research in general.

First of all, the first limit is that the survey has been distributed only via internet. I did this in order to obtain the largest number of answers. This could be considered a limit, since only those who had access to internet had a chance to give a feedback. Moreover, I received a large number of answers from a Facebook group of the city where I live, where participants are very homogenous in demographical characteristics. This could have driven the answers all toward the same results, making the sample more homogenous.

The second big limit of this research is the fact that the main hypothesis has been rejected because it is not significant. Surely, we found significance with the variable of attitude, but this is not the results I expected. Of course, when you reject a hypothesis, you learn something anyway, since you find out something different. Third limit of this research is the fact that the data only come from an online survey. In the online surveys, you never know the reasoning behind the answers of the people, and sometimes people try to end the survey as fast as possible. Moreover, the sample I studied cannot represent the entire population.

Respondents could not be 100% truthful with their answers. This could happen due to different reasons, such as attempting to protect privacy or social desirability bias.

Another limit of this research is the fact that it only takes into consideration a small number of variables. In this case, they were *social influence* and *attitude*. In order to obtain a better insight inside impulse buying, I could have used some more variables to explain this kind of behaviour.

One way of conducting this research was to use every variable that can be found in the store environment, or maybe internal triggers of consumers.

Moreover, one big limit is the fact that this research deals with offline impulse buying, which is yes still strong nowadays, but it is less studied than the online impulse buying, which is something more modern. Online impulse buying has seen a large grow in interest in the last years, and this can be seen thanks to the large number of thesis on online impulse buying. Another limit of this research is the weakness of the survey. In fact, it is possible that participants couldn't emphasize with the scenario and giving, for this reason, unthoughtful answers.

3.4 Managerial implications

The nature of this research is mostly theoretical but looking at the conclusions and at the review of the first two chapter, consumers and managers can acquire knowledge on this complex subject.

For example, *managers* might give more importance to the attitude of the consumers, even if probably many large shop or discount are already doing this. Surely if a consumer has a high attitude towards impulse buying, he will more easily fall into temptation and make some impulse purchases. As I wrote in Chapter 2, Mohan (2013) talked about the importance that store environment has on impulse buying tendencies. In this research I analysed the importance of music in a store to influence general purchases, and managers could use this knowledge to improve this variable of store environment. An example of the use of music inside a store is

Eurospin, which is an Italian discount. They created their own radio, called “Radio Eurospin”, but unfortunately there are no data which can identify if this strategy works or not.

From the *consumer* side, this research can increase their knowledge and explain some behaviours that sometimes feel natural and subconscious. A *consumer* that reads this thesis may question himself on the degree of attitude towards impulse buying that he possesses and identify himself as a person that buys on impulse or as a person that think a lot before buying. Lastly, this research could be useful to *researchers* that want to take this thesis as a benchmark to keep studying these variables or change them. In fact, in Chapter 2 I made a deep analysis on all the factors that influence impulse buying tendency, as for example internal motivators of impulse buying or external motivators of impulse buying. This research is based mostly on the effect of store environment on impulse buying but takes into consideration a larger number of variables.

Conclusion

Analysing a complex and spread phenomena as the one of impulse buying requires the consideration of many different variables and personal factors, attitudinal factors, psychological factors, situational and commercial. Hardly a scientific research will ever be capable of explaining every single mechanism that lead to impulse buying tendencies, since it is the consumer only that takes the final decision.

The consumer, during shopping, could be pushed by a strong sense of impulse, and could possess all the characteristics to buying on impulse, but he is the only one that can choose if buying something on impulse or reverse his decision.

So, what the research can do, is to study at the best the characteristics and dynamics that regulate this kind of behaviour, creating a model to explain the mental path followed by the consumers in a way that is the nearest representation of the reality.

The main objective of this research was part of this, since I wanted to discover new patterns linked to the world of offline impulse buying.

I started this research by writing Chapter 1, where I talked about the phenomenon of impulse buying from a managerial perspective. I searched through the web in order to obtain material that could better explain what I was trying to do, and that could have explained, in a simple way, impulse buying to everyone.

In Chapter 2, the literature review, I reported how many factors and variable influence impulse buying, and how this subject has been studied over the years. I made an analysis and revision of previous literatures on impulse buying, starting from the first works on impulse buying during the 50s, until the researches from the last year.

Impulse buying has seen many changes of definition since Clover (1950) work and has received a lot of attention and scientific paper.

What I wanted to understand, through this research, is simply if social influence would moderate the relation between the presence of music inside a store and the impulse buying purchase intention.

These are two variables that has already been studied in the past, and researchers have obtained significant results, both on the side of music and social influence.

For example, Luo (2005) discovered that in the presence of peer's people tend to buy more on impulse, while in the presence of family people tend to buy less on impulse.

In order to obtain the data to analyse, I proposed my survey to a large number of participants.

The results of the analysis were the opposite of what I was expecting, but not less important. The main hypothesis of this thesis was rejected since it was not significative, so social influence doesn't moderate the relation between music inside a store and impulse buying purchase intention. But I found a significative relation, which is the one between attitude and purchase intention. Even if the correlation between the two variables is weak, attitude has a positive effect on impulse buying.

This is something that I already imagined, since if someone has a bigger attitude towards impulse buying, it is more probable for him to have a higher impulse buying purchase intention.

So, the final message that appears from my own research, is that the attitude of a consumer is very important, even if it is almost impossible to understand and predict. And that certainly there are a lot of external and internal variables that can influence impulse buying behaviour, but in this case social influence can't explain it.

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Summary

How many times does it happen that if a person goes shopping with a list come back with more products than the one in the list? It may happen that you go out in order to buy a shirt and come back with five shirts and five shorts, or it may happen that you go out to buy eggs and you come back home with full bags. It may happen to feel this really strong urge to buy something and buying it for real. This is a behaviour called *impulse buying* and involve pretty much every human of the earth.

It is not easy to define impulse buying, since during the years it received many definitions from many authors. Is impulse buying something that happens in just a short amount of time? Not exactly, since consumers could already have clear ideas and buying a product fastly. Is it something unplanned before entering the store? Not always, since the consumer could already feel the need to buy inside him.

In the years, researchers have tried to define impulse buying and all of his variables and shades, but they hardly found a common definition.

Rook (1987) said that impulse buying is “when 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 regards of its consequences”.

Impulse buying is a behaviour that has been strongly discussed in the last years, since researchers and managers have understood the importance of analysing this behaviour and having a clear consideration of it.

In this research, I focused on offline impulse buying behaviour, since I wanted to study some factors that happen directly inside the store. Chapter 2 will show a review of the different kind of impulse buying and which are the many factors that influence or restrain him.

We will look at internal factors that influence impulse buying, as narcissism and shopping enjoyment, and we will look at external factors that influence impulse buying, which are variables that are related to shopping habits.

Then I will analyse situational factor, that as the name suggests happening in certain situation, as when a consumer has a lack of money, and I will close chapter 2 with demographical factors and the conceptual framework. At the end of chapter, we will go through the analysis of the store environment, as it the main subject of the third chapter.

I was interested in analysing the role of music and social influence as motivators of impulse buying behaviour, and in Chapter 3 I will show a data analysis on a survey that I distributed to 460 people.

I thought about studying social influence since it often happens that people go shopping with friends or family, and I wanted to understand if impulse buying could suffer the influence of this factor or not. Moreover, Luo (2005) already made a study on the role of social influence in impulse buying. He discovered that when people go shopping with friends, they tend to do more impulse purchases, while when they go shopping with family, they tend to do fewer impulse purchases (Luo, 2005).

In Chapter 1, we will analyse through a managerial perspective the importance and the features of impulse buying, why it is a field that has seen study on it increase rapidly in the last years.

Impulse buying behaviour is present in everyone's lives, making it a mix of rational and irrational behaviour. It is triggered by emotions, ambience and other psychological factors. Studies on impulse buying has started during the 50s, where Clover (1950) wrote a paper about the importance of impulse buying in retail stores. Stern (1962) defined these four types of impulse buying: pure impulse buying, reminder impulse buying, suggestion impulse buying and planned impulse buying.

Reminded impulse buying happens when the consumer receives different stimuli during the visit at the store, that increase in him the need to buy a specific product. Differently, reminded impulse buying insures when stimuli of past use of a product come to the mind of the consumer, inducing him to buy the product. (Han, 1991)

Planned impulse buying, as the name says, it is a purchase that is partially planned before the visit to the store. The consumer has in mind the idea of buying a specific product, but he doesn't know which brand to choose. Anyway, the process of planned impulse buying happens during the store visit and can be triggered by different factors. The most important trigger of this kind of impulse purchase is the presence of any discount for a particular category of products, so the price plays a very important role (Han, 1991).

Pure impulse buying is something that is totally unplanned, and that happens following external stimuli inside the store. It usually ends in the purchase of a new kind of product, that is out of the routine of the consumer (Han, 1991).

Lastly, suggestive impulse buying happens when a consumer sees for the first time a product inside the store and feel the urge to buy that product. The consumer has no antecedent use or knowledge of the product. In paragraph 1.2 I made a review of Beatty and Ferrell model. In their work, Beatty and Ferrell (1998) analysed different variables as influencing impulse buying. They studied the shopping enjoyment, money availability, time availability etc.

In the new millennium, there have been very few researches that has shown the change in the trend of impulse buying in Italy, but surely it has notably increased, due to the higher income available to people and the buying power obtained by younger people.

An example of this situation can be seen in a new survey from CreditCards.com which shows that 5 in 6 Americans confess to make impulse purchases. The ranking sees at the first position millennial, who are the ones that makes the most impulse purchases.

Creditcards made a telephone survey among United States adults, finding out that 90% of millennials make impulse purchases. Among them, we see even higher purchases from millennials that are aged 25 years old or less.

The poll discovered that this mentality differs a lot from older people, where 21% of them says they never bought anything on impulse (Creditcards, 2017).

The pandemic that has hit the world this year, not only has changed day-to-day habits, as for example keeping distance with other people or always wearing a protective mask when in public. But the pandemic has slightly changed the way people buy and what they buy, since many people has seen a serious decrease in their salary.

Hershey (2020) has said that COVID-19 meant a “Significant reductions or volatility in demand for one or more of our products, which may be caused by, among other things: the temporary inability of consumers to purchase our products due to illness, quarantine or other travel restrictions, or financial hardship, shifts in demand away from one or more of our products, or pantry-loading activity”. In fact, Candy Industry, an online magazine, said that the sales of products who mostly happens on impulse, has seen a severe decrease, due to the fact that the pandemic couldn’t let people visit and spend time in stores (Candy Industry).

New York Post showed how Mondelez International, one of the largest snack’s companies, expects to witness a serious decline in the gum business. Both mint and gum industry are losing almost 30% of sales this year. (Thelist) In an article from GlobalData Consumer (2020) it is explained how Sainsbury, an English chain of supermarkets, has announced that at least until September there will be restrictions on entering the shops. This shows how we will need time to come back shopping as we did before the pandemic. The current main restriction is the number of people allowed in the store and the same time, in order to avoid the spread of coronavirus. This trend will lead to a comeback of making just one big shop a week, instead of visiting the store multiple times a week. Studies on impulse buying derive from different perspective of consumer psychology, economic psychology and social psychology. Verplanken (2011) has divide impulse buying approaches in two categories: promotion-focused strategies and prevention-focused strategies. In this paragraph, we’re going to resume them and classify the most important one.

Promotion-focused strategies	Prevention-focused strategies
Proximity bias	Limited information processing
Seeking pleasure, hedonistic values	Alleviating negative affect and mood repair
Fulfilling materialistic values	Dealing with low self-esteem
Purchasing symbols of identity	Personality traits: emotional instability
Personality traits: extravertedness, autonomy	Exerting conscious self-control
	Compulsive buying

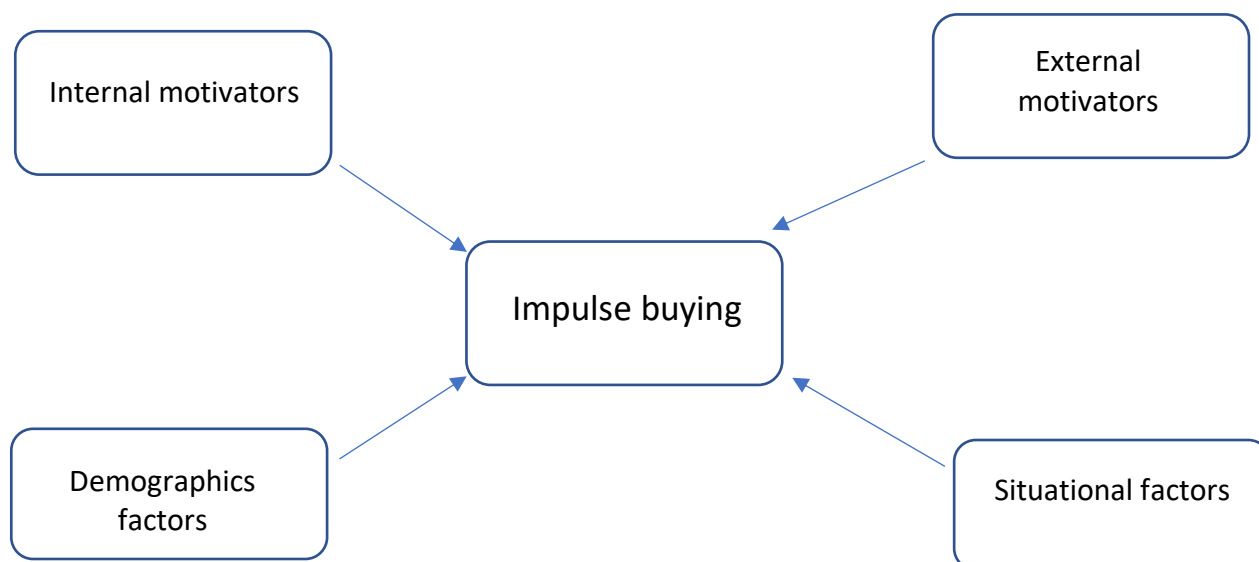
Promotions strategies are the one listed in the table above. They involve seeking pleasure, as for example having a positive experience, or looking at obtaining hedonistic and materialistic value, as a way to obtain intrinsic pleasure and fulfilment. These two are the most important promotion strategies. Another promotion strategy for Verplanken is identity-driven impulse buying. Moreover, Verplanken connect an extroverted identity to promotion strategies, since most of the times impulse buying tendencies happen in the presence of other people (Verplanken, 2011).

For *prevention strategies* we mean those strategies that prevent and help the consumers in situation where is behaviour and emotion could be put at risk. The first example is the limited information processing. People always tend to overload the brain with information that sometimes are unnecessary, and so lowering the amount of information could work as a prevention strategy (Verplanken, 2011).

Moreover, when people have a low self-esteem or is in a bad mood, tend to buy more on impulse to alleviate this negativity. This is a self-regulation strategy that may work for a short amount of time, but that usually doesn't last forever. In fact, this behaviour could turn out badly for the consumer involved, leading to a rebounding effect that could tear him down (Wegner, 1994).

Another prevention strategy is emotional instability, which is part of the personality trait. In this case, impulsive buying may be used as a vehicle to fix emotional imbalance.

In Chapter 2, I started the analysis of motivators of impulse buying. We can find external motivators of impulse buying, internal motivators of impulse buying, situational factors and demographic and socio-cultural factors.



Internal motivators of impulse buying means everything that happens inside the human mind, as emotions, need, feelings or urges (Kalla, 2016). They are related to experience and to mental stages that evolve inside the consumer. Shapiro (1992) said that sometimes people feel an irresistible need to make a purchase, even if

they find far away from a product. As a consequence, this need can create a gap in the self-discrepancy, which is the difference between an actual state and an ideal state.

In 2005, Dittmar has explained the difference between a normal consumer and an “extravagant” consumer: the latter needs to make purchase in order to boost his self-esteem and to try to close the gap between their optimal representation and their actual representation (Kalla, 2016).

Coopersmith (1967) defined self-esteem as “a global feeling of self-worth or adequacy as a person, or generalized feelings of self-acceptance, goodness, and self-respect”. Kohn (1989) explained that self-esteem possess two sides: positive and negative. Hedonic consumption is a behaviour that was explained deeply by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982). They defined it as “those aspects of behaviour that relate to the multisensory, fantasy, and emotive aspects of consumption” (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). From this perspective, they say that for a product to be used, it needs to possess some characteristics, as joy, quality and aesthetic. (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

So, Ahmad (2018) said that hedonic consumption means being strongly charmed by a product and achieving and obtaining aspiration. In fact, people could fantasize in possessing an object (Ahmad, 2018).

Goyal and Mittal (2007), said that “shopping enjoyment is a buyer’s individual characteristic which represents the tendency to find shopping more pleasant and to experience greater shopping amusement than others”. Freud (1911) defined narcissism as “the libidinal complement to the egoism of the instinct of self-preservation” and as “a set of character traits concerned with self-admiration, self-centeredness and self-regard”. Consumer confidence has seen a consistent growth if we compare it to the century that has passed by. Consumers are more aware of what they are buying and have more sources to compare prices and features of a product. Consumption has seen an important rise as a consequence of this boosted trait (Kalla, 2016). When talk about exclusivity, we mean something that could only be possessed by a limited number of people. Impulse buying is strictly related to exclusivity, since many limited-edition products are bought more on impulse and not following a need (Aruna et al., 2015).

External motivators of impulse buying are the one that can be encountered in a store environment. Piron (1991) suggest that impulse purchases arise when a consumer receive an external stimulus while shopping. These stimuli can be created by the promotion and discount of the store or by the product (Piron, 1991). Older studies on impulse buying has stressed the importance of coming in contact with a product, as it is regarded as a detonator for impulse buying. Vohs and Faber (2007) say that when a consumer is near a product, is desired to buy the product may arise. In fact, the use of the five senses is fundamental to trigger emotions. Examples could be eating samples of food, smelling the fragrance of a product, or touching an object for the first time. Rook (1987) point out to the difficulties of consumer to resist the temptation of not buying a product when it is near them. Mohan (2013) talks about in-store browsing as another factor that influences impulse buying. Jones et al. (2003) suggest that this concept is very important for explaining impulse buying, and that this behaviour is mostly triggered inside a store. Of course, when a consumer is near a product, the need to purchase

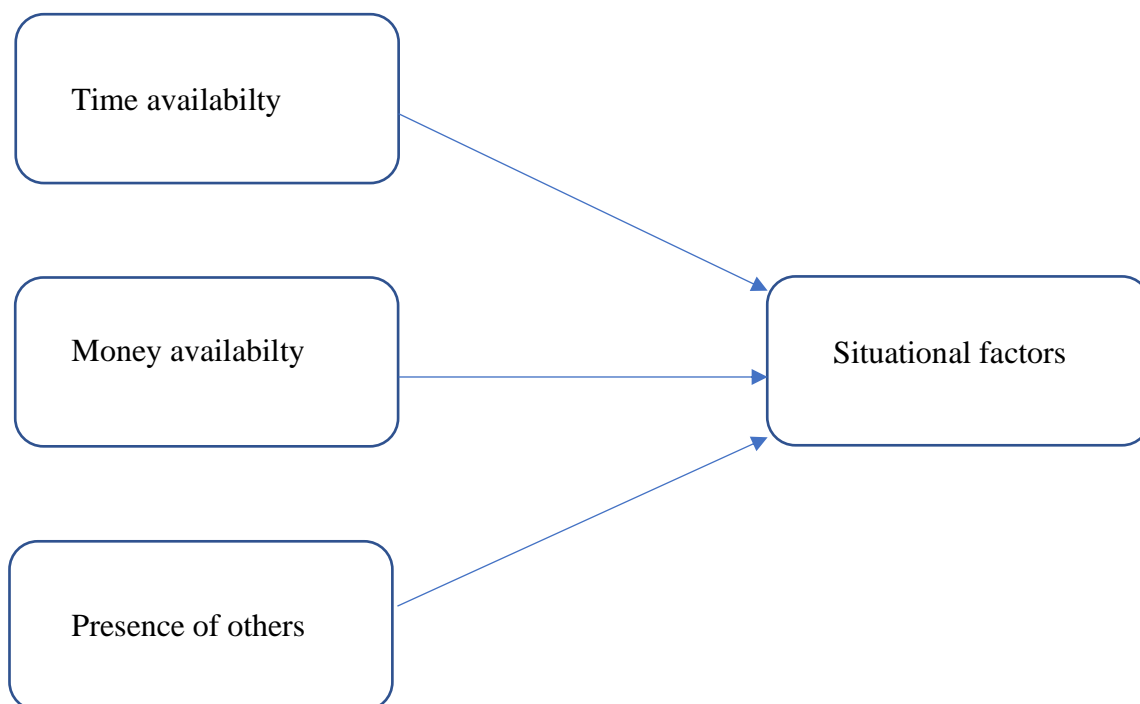
it increase consistently. Similarly, Cox (1970) studied the “positive relationship between the amount of shelf space given to an impulse product that has high consumer acceptance and total unit sales of that brand”.

Demographics and socio-cultural factors are those factors related to the age, gender, and culture of an individual. In the last years many researchers have studied the relation between these factors and impulse buying.

Wood (1998) studied the relation between impulse buying and age in the United States. He found that the correlation between these two variables is negative. He discovered that impulse buying tendencies arise until the age of 39 years old. Thereafter, impulse buying tendencies fall down (Wood, 1998). Consistent with this thesis is the work of Bellenger et al. (1978). They demonstrated that consumers above the age of 35 years old were less used at buying on impulse than consumers younger than them (Bellenger et al., 1978).

In a research of 1996, Dittmar et al. manipulated gender to understand if it could affect impulse purchases. They found out that women and men act differently. Women tend to look at products more as symbols that could help them expressing their inner self. As a consequence, women tend to buy products driven by emotion, leading them to purchase more on impulse (Dittmar et al., 1996).

Which are the situational factors that may influence impulse buying? The main situational factors are purchasing habits, time of purchasing and shop location (Shapiro, 1992). Beatty and Ferrell (1998) add to this list the purchasing power of customers and the time availability. They explained how the time that a consumer spends inside a store is influenced by the availability of time of that consumer. As a consequence, this situation positively affects feelings and emotions of consumers that can turn into impulse purchases (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). In 2003, Crawford and Melewer made a study on candy store. They discovered that candies are mostly bought on impulse, and that in 2002 rise of purchases in the retail sector has never been seen before (Crawford and Melewer, 2003).



When a shopper has more time to navigate the store, the percentage of impulse buying behaviours increases. Beatty and Ferrell (1998) believe that sellers and shop assistant must try to change the perception of time that consumers think they have inside the store. Beatty and Ferrell (1998) stressed the importance of money availability influencing impulse buying behaviour. They think that people who possess more money are more easily inducted in impulse purchases. If consumers don't have enough money, they will avoid buying and shopping environment, and impulse buying tendencies will be lower. In 2004, Luo made a study on the presence of others as a factor influencing impulse buying. In the last years, impulse buying as received a lot of attention, and many researchers studied a large number of variables to understand this behaviour. Luo (2004) is one of the first researchers that focused on the collective side of impulse buying. In fact, most researches have focused their attention at impulse buying when it is related just to a single individual. Luo think that this behaviour is correct, but he thinks that impulse buying happens even during interpersonal situation, so when an individual is not alone (Luo, 2004). He assesses the importance of the presence of friends or family on shopping, and why it could influence impulse buying.

In paragraph 2.7.1. I reviewed the positive affect created by the store environment. Yalch and Spangenberg (1990) stated that "Shoppers respond to music psychologically and behaviourally". Bruner (1990) says that "music, as part of the store environment, is an important, frequently and commonly studied variable that influences affective states" while Bitner (1990) adds that "store environment is a key ambient variable shaping consumer behaviour in retail environments". Bitner (1990) again says that "if the store is well-arranged, shoppers will easily find the products they are looking for, inducing a positive experience; this can be done improving the store layout and using signages". Bitner (1990) says that "loud music may cause physical discomfort and may induce negative affect". Sometimes store managers change the layout or other factors of the store environment, trying to make it more appealing. This could result in an excess of changing that lead to consumer's negative feelings (Bitner, 1990).

Chapter 2.8 was the conceptual framework of my thesis. The research question of this thesis is: *Does social influence moderate the relation between music inside a store and impulse buying?*

We want to study if the presence of others can moderate the relation between music and impulse buying.

H1a: The presence of friends will positively moderate the relation between presence of music and impulse buying.

H1b: The presence of family members will negatively moderate the relation between presence of music and impulse buying.

The main objective of this research is to evaluate if the social influence can moderate the relation between the presence of music inside a store and the impulse buying purchase intention. Social influence will be divided between shopping with family and shopping with friends. From previous literatures, it is agreed that shopping

with friends can increase the probability of having impulse buying tendencies, while shopping with family can reduce this.

In order to obtain data to analyse for verifying this hypothesis, I designed a survey divided in different blocks: *Demographical block*: in this block, I obtained insight about the age, gender, occupation and level of instruction of the sample I studied.

Attitude: in the first block, I decided to use a validated scale in order to understand new information in impulse buying tendencies of the sample

Purchase intention: in the last block, I created two scenarios, which I randomized. In these scenarios I manipulated the moderator, while keeping the independent variable constant. The online questionnaire was done by 460 participants; after a control on answers consistency's and after eliminating uncompleted questionnaires, the final sample is of 359 people. From a demographic perspective, the sample seems pretty heterogenous: in fact, out of 359 participants, 264 were women, 94 were men and 1 other.

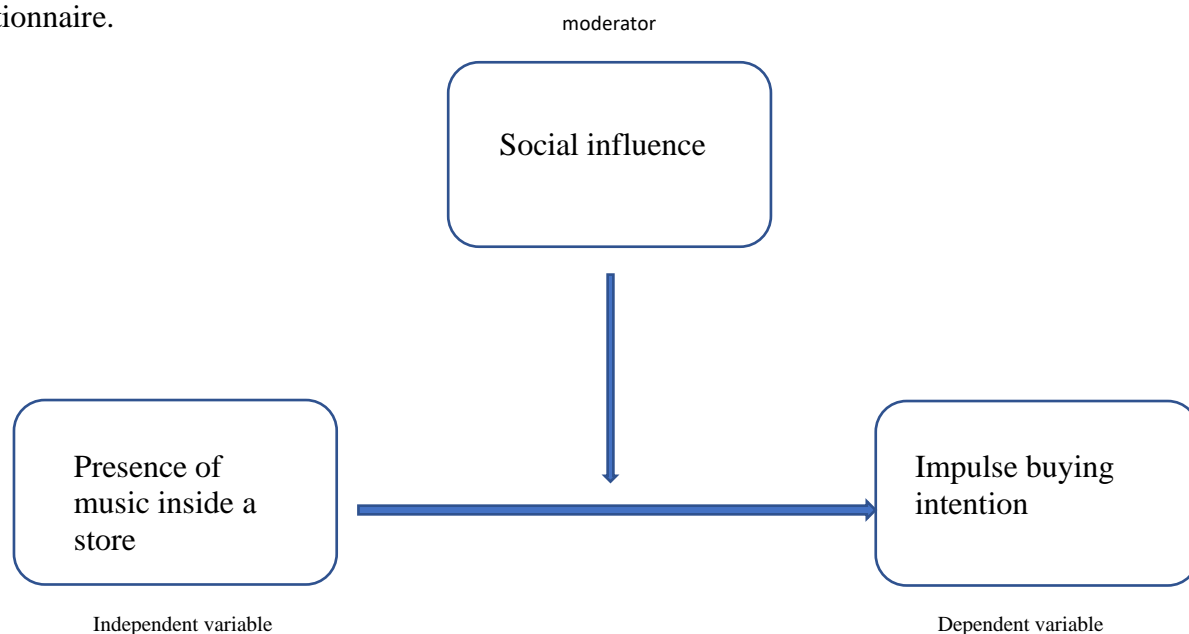
I then created a contingency table, where i put the new variable of age, and a new variable called *tendenza*. I needed this variable in order to measure the level of impulse buying attitude of the participants, and here I explain the three different values:

Low attitude: low attitude has value that lays between 1 and 3 and represents the portion of the sample with a low attitude towards impulse buying.

Medium attitude: medium attitude has values that lays between 3,01 and 5 and represents the portion of sample with a medium attitude towards impulse buying.

High attitude: high attitude has values that lays between 5,01 and 7 and represents the portion of sample with a high attitude towards impulse buying.

I wanted to test if social influence could moderate the effect between music inside a store and impulse buying purchase intention. In order to do this, I used IBM SPSS to analyse the data that I received from the questionnaire.



So, in order to test the effect of the independent variable (scenari) on the dependent variable (purchase), I thought about launching a linear regression on SPSS. A linear regression can show if there is an effect of one or more independent variables on a dependent variable and if there is correlation between the two variables. From the model summary we can see how the level of significance is 0,082, which is higher than the acceptable 0,05. This means that our hypothesis is rejected, and that social influence doesn't moderate the relation between the independent variable and the dependent variable.

Riepilogo del modello^b

Modello	R	R-quadrato	R-quadrato adattato	Errore std. della stima	Modifica R-quadrato	Statistiche delle modifiche			Sign. Modifica F
						Modifica F	gl1	gl2	
1	,092 ^a	,008	,006	1,82531	,008	3,046	1	357	,082

a. Predittori: (costante), Scenari

b. Variabile dipendente: Purchase

Model summary

I thought about running a new linear regression, this time involving attitude as an independent variable and the purchase intention as a dependent variable. This analysis could explain if there is correlation between these two variables.

Riepilogo del modello^b

Modello	R	R-quadrato	R-quadrato adattato	Errore std. della stima	Modifica R-quadrato	Statistiche delle modifiche			Sign. Modifica F
						Modifica F	gl1	gl2	
1	,220 ^a	,048	,046	1,78812	,048	18,177	1	357	,000

a. Predittori: (costante), Attitude

b. Variabile dipendente: Purchase

The graph above represents the model summary of the interaction between attitude and purchase, and the model is significant. In fact, the level of significance is 0,000 which is lower than the acceptable significance level of 0,05.

So, we don't accept or reject any hypotheses, since the variable attitude wasn't present in the model. But we find that attitude has an effect on purchase intention.

Since this regression analysis was significant and gave positive result, I wanted to understand, thanks to the linear regression equation, how Y would change increasing X by 1.

The linear regression equation is the following:

$$Y = b_0 + b_1X$$

In the table of the coefficients we have all the information we need to run this equation. In fact, our b_0 is equal to 1,888 and our b_1 is equal to 0,380. Moreover, our X is equal to 1. Substituting these values into the equation we obtain this:

$$Y = 1,888 + 0,380 * 1$$

$$Y = 2,268$$

Our Y is equal to 2,268. This means that if we increase by 1 the value of attitude, the purchase intention increases by 2,268.

Then, as last step of my analysis, I wanted to do a *moderation* analysis, in order to understand if the variable attitude could moderate the relation between the independent variable, which in this case would be social influence, and the dependent variable, which is the purchase intention.

This analysis was run with PROCESS, which is a tool that can be downloaded on SPSS and can be used to run moderation and mediation analysis. In this case, I used Model 1 of PROCESS, since it is the one necessary to run a moderation analysis.

```

Run MATRIX procedure:
***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5 *****
                Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.      www.afhayes.com
                Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3
*****
Model : 1
Y : Purchase
X : scenari
W : Attitude

Sample
Size: 359

*****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Purchase

Model Summary
      R      R-sq      MSE      F      df1      df2      p
,2445    ,0598    3,1772    7,5214    3,0000    355,0000    ,0001

Model
      coeff      se      t      p      LLCI      ULCI
constant    2,8653    1,0442    2,7440    ,0064    ,8117    4,9189
scenari     -,6237    ,6593    -,9460    ,3448    -1,9203    ,6729
Attitude    -,0184    ,2860    -,0643    ,9487    -,5809    ,5441
Int_1       ,2555    ,1784    1,4322    ,1530    -,0953    ,6064

Product terms key:
Int_1 :      scenari x      Attitude

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
      R2-chng      F      df1      df2      p
X*W      ,0054      2,0513      1,0000      355,0000      ,1530

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

```

So, to conclude this summary, I'll go through the three analysis that were run in SPSS:

Linear regression between *scenari* and *purchase intention*: **not significant**

Linear regression between attitude and purchase intention: **significant**

Moderation analysis between *scenari*, *attitude* and *purchase intention*: **not significant**