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Understanding Impulse Buying Behaviour: The Role of Promotions, Emotions and Cognitive Dissonance

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Ph. D. Thesis in Business Administration

Work made under the supervision of
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Statement of Integrity

I hereby declare having conducted this academic work with integrity. I confirm that I have not used plagiarism or any form of undue use of information or falsification of results along the process leading to its elaboration.

I further declare that I have fully acknowledged the Code of Ethical Conduct of the University of Minho.

Resumo

Entendendo o Comportamento de Compra por Impulso: O Papel das Promoções, Emoções e Dissonância Cognitiva

O comportamento do consumidor como ciência visa obter uma compreensão do processo de tomada de decisão dos compradores, incluindo a análise da compra por impulso do consumidor e quando, como e por que tomam essas decisões.

A compra por impulso é uma compra não planeada, imprevista e imediata, cognitiva ou afetiva, sem nenhuma intenção pré-compra. As promoções na loja são uma das técnicas para atrair clientes para comprar mais ou experimentar um novo produto ou serviço e causar vendas por impulso. Além disso, existem muitas técnicas promocionais para atrair a compra por impulso, como descontos de preço; compre um, leve dois; amostras grátis; cartão de cliente e aproximação do fim do prazo de validade, que os retalhistas costumam usar. Em particular, as promoções de vendas são a força vital dos hipermercados e permitem que os consumidores obtenham poupanças e acesso a marcas de maior qualidade.

Esta tese tem por objetivo compreender melhor como as promoções e emoções podem influenciar as decisões, percepções e comportamentos dos consumidores, no sentido de comprar ou não comprar produtos por impulso e entender como as estratégias de promoção podem desencadear a compra por impulso. Esta tese enfoca a compreensão da tendência de compra por impulso cognitiva e afetiva. Um modelo que considera o impacto de promoções e emoções no IB e as suas consequências na dissonância cognitiva é desenvolvido. Usando uma abordagem de *mall intercept*, realizou-se uma pesquisa para testar o modelo proposto.

Uma análise de Modelagem de Equações Estruturais é usada para estudar a relação entre a tendência de compra por impulso cognitiva e afetiva, promoções, emoções e dissonância cognitiva. Os resultados mostram que as promoções incluindo descontos, amostras grátis e cartão de cliente têm um impacto significativo na compra por impulso cognitiva, que por sua vez tem um impacto na dissonância cognitiva. Também verificámos que as emoções, incluindo emoções positivas e negativas, afetam a compra por impulso afetiva e que esta não tem impacto na dissonância cognitiva.

No que se refere a implicaçõe spara a gestão, os resultados deste estudo fornecem suporte aos gerentes de hipermercados no aumento da natoriedade das diferentes técnicas promocionais que afetam os consumidores e permitem compreender os fenómenos de compra por impulso com o objetivo de minimizar os efeitos do sentimento de dissonância cognitiva.

Palavras-chave: Comportamento de compra por impulso, Compra por Impulso Afetiva, Compra por impulso Cognitiva, Dissonância Cognitiva, EDBP, Emoções, Promoções.

Abstract

Understanding Impulse Buying Behaviour: The Role of Promotions, Emotions and Cognitive Dissonance

Consumer behaviour as a science aims to gain an understanding of the buyers' decision-making process including the analysis of consumer impulse buying (IB) and when, how, and why they make these decisions.

Impulse buying is a sudden and immediate cognitive or affective unplanned purchase with no pre-shopping intentions. In-store promotions are one of the techniques to attract customers to buy more or try a new product or service and cause impulse sales. Furthermore, there are many promotional techniques to attract impulse buying such as price discounts, buy one get one, free samples, client card, and expiration date-based pricing (EDBP) which retailers commonly used. In particular, sales promotions are the lifeblood of hypermarkets and enable consumers to obtain savings and access to higher quality brands.

This thesis aims to get a better understanding of how promotions and emotions influence consumer decisions, perceptions, and behaviour towards buying or not buying products on impulse and understanding how promotion strategies can trigger users to an impulse buying. This thesis focuses on understanding the cognitive and affective impulse buying tendency. A model entailing promotions and emotions impact in IB and its consequences in cognitive dissonance is developed. Using a mall intercept approach, a survey was carried out to test the proposed model.

Structural Equation Model analysis is used to study the relationship between the cognitive and affective impulse buying tendency, promotions, emotions and cognitive dissonance. The results show that promotions including discounts, free samples and client card have a significant impact on cognitive impulse buying which has an impact on the cognitive dissonance. We also found that emotions including positive and negative emotions affect affective impulse buying, which has no impact on cognitive dissonance.

In what concerns managerial implications, the results of this study allow provide support to hypermarkets managers in increasing the awareness of the different promotional techniques that affect consumers and allow them to understand impulse buying phenomena with the objective of minimising the effects of cognitive dissonance.

Keywords: Impulse buying, Affective Impulse Buying, Cognitive Impulse Buying, Cognitive dissonance, EDBP, Emotions, Promotions.

Academic Papers and Conferences

Academic Papers

- Yassin, C., & Soares, A. (2018). Why Put Off Until Tomorrow What I Can Buy Today? The role of promotions and Emotions in Impulse Buying Behaviour. in Vrontis, D., Weber, Y, and Tsoukatos, E. (eds), Research Advancements in National and Global Business Theory and Practice, Euro-Med Press (ISBN: 978-9963-711-67-3), pp 1434-1444.

Conferences

- Yassin, C., & Soares, A. (2018). ''Why Put Off Until Tomorrow What I Can Impulse Buy Today? The Role of Promotions and Emotions in Impulse Buying Behaviour'' 25th Recent Advances in Retailing and Consumer Services Conference, Madeira,
  Portugal.
- Yassin, C., & Soares, A. (2018). "Why Put Off Until Tomorrow What I Can Buy Today? The role of promotions and Emotions in Impulse Buying Behaviour", 11th Annual Conference of the Euro-Med Academy of Business Research (EMRBI) for Research Advancements in National and Global Business Theory and Practice in Valletta, Malta (September 2018).
- Yassin, C., & Soares, A. (2019). "Enjoy Your Purchase Now; It Has an Expiration Date: Understanding Impulse Buying, Expiration Date Based Pricing and Cognitive Dissonance", 26th Recent Advances in Retailing and Consumer Services Conference in Tallinn.

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List of Acronyms

Abbreviation	Definition
IB	Impulse Buying
EDBP	Expiration Date Based Pricing
CD	Cognitive Dissonance
PAD	Pleasure, Arousal, and Dominance
IBTA	Impulse Buying Tendency Affective
IBTC	Impulse Buying Tendency Cognitive
RMSEA	Root Mean Square of Error Approximation
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
NFI	Normed Fit Index
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CR	Composite Reliability
C. R	Critical Ratio
SMCC	Squared Multiple Correlation Coefficient
Chisq/df	Chi-Square/Degrees of Freedom
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis

Chapter One – Introduction

1.1 Research Background

Marketing is about satisfying buyer needs, and behind each marketing strategy, there are theories aground firmly in economics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, and studies in human behaviour. Consumer behaviour insights are at the core of the scientific study of marketing. Hunt (1983) claimed that marketing as a behavioural science aimed at explaining the exchange relationships between buyers and sellers in the market. He also proposes the broad questions marketing seeks to explain: (1) The buyer's behaviour related with consummating exchanges; (2) sellers' activities; (3) institutional frameworks for these exchanges, and finally, the consequences for society of 1, 2 and 3.

Significant changes occurred in the marketplace after the Second World War leading to the development of consumer behaviour (Applebaum, 1951; Clover, 1950; West, 1951). More recently, the growth of consumerism and consumer regulations stresses the critical position that is given to the consumer. The transformation of the marketing concept from the selling concept to consumer-oriented marketing led to the development of consumer behaviour as an independent discipline in marketing science. A new paradigm aiming at concentrating more on what consumers want instead of what to produce emerged and throughout years researchers tried to understand how consumers behaved and tried to frame this behaviour into different models. Therefore, consumer behaviour is the science that aims to understand how, why, when and where the consumer buys or does not buy a product. Consumer behaviour is thus interdisciplinary and is based on concepts and theories developed by scientists, philosophers, and researchers in many fields. Consumer behaviour according to Solomon (1995) is: '' The processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy needs and desires''(p. 7).

Early research proposed that there exist comprehensive models for consumer decision making, they tried to suggest the psychology of individual consumers from the point at which they become conscious of a need to satisfying this need by purchasing and consuming a product, to their final evaluation of the purchase' consequences (Engel et al., 1968; Howard & Sheth, 1969; Nicosia, 1966). Those models, known as the Grand Models, were based on a rational view aiming at explaining how consumer reach an action in a rationality frame.

However, it has been found that sometimes consumers behave in a manner that those models cannot explain, for example, when they buy products without previous deliberation, i.e. Impulse buying (IB). During the last years, researchers have tried hard to tell what IB is and when and how this behaviour occurs, as well as identifying variables which influence IB.

Impulse buying is unplanned behaviour since the consumers are not exactly searching for some product and have no plans to buy the item (Dibb et al., 2006). It is a concept that has been explored dating back to the 1950s. In this research, an impulse buying is conceptualised as Beatty and Ferrell (1998) defined as: "A sudden and immediate purchase with no pre-shopping intentions either to buy the specific product category or to fulfil a specific buying task" (p. 170).

Impulse buying is a critical phenomenon nowadays. According to a recent OnePoll study commissioned by Slickdeals; the average person spends $450 per month impulsively, or $5,400 per year. Over the average adult's lifetime, this translates to an overwhelming $324,000 of impulse purchases (FOX News Network, 2018), and it was found that every year about $4 billion are impulsively spent (Liao & Wang, 2009). Ruvio and Belk (2013) declared that 62% of market sales in hypermarkets and 80% of sales in luxury products were credited to IB, thus, the IB is significant for the retail industry, and it has been shown that IB represents between 40 and 80 % of all purchases, depending on the type of product (Amos et al., 2014; Marketingdirecto, 2012).

In impulse buying, consumers take very rapid decisions while in the store without thinking or planning (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Cobb &Hoyer, 1986; Iyer, 1989; Jones et al., 2003; Rook & Gardner, 1993). So, it is fundamental to understand how and why this behaviour occurs. As marketers, we should understand IB decisions. Earlier studies on IB were concerned with issues of definition, distinguishing IB from non-IB and strained to categorise the types of IB into one of several categories (Bellenger, Robertson & Hirschman, 1978; Kollat & Willett, 1969). Such an approach lacked the understanding of impulsive buying as a trait appearing from consumer buying behaviour.

Therefore, later studies on IB have been done to understand the relationship of IB with internal and external factors (Amos et al., 2014; Bastin & Yu, 2010; Chan et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2013; Dawson & Kim, 2009; Dholakia, 2000; Dittmar et al., 1995; Dittmar et al., 1996; Kacen & Lee, 2002; Kollat & Willett, 1967; Luo, 2005; Peck & Childers, 2006; Rook & Fisher, 1995; Rook & Hoch, 1985; Shapiro, 1992; Sharma et al., 2010; Tendai & Crispen, 2009; Wood, 1998). External factors like promotions can

have a strong influence on consumer's decision-making (Applebaum, 1951; Nagadeepa et al., 2015; Rook, 1987; Ruswanti, 2013; Stern, 1962) as the consumer may feel why should he/she put off what he/she can impulse buy immediately on a promotion. Stern (1960) found that products bought on impulse are usually cheap. Price reductions and promotional tools like free samples, client card and "buy one get one free" were found to have a meaningful result on the consumer of acquiring more than they expect (Vitor et al., 2013). Marketing scholars mainly study sales promotion as one of the most critical techniques influencing IB (Clover, 1950; Muruganantham & Bhakat, 2013; Peck & Childers, 2006; Rook, 1987; Stern, 1962).

Emotions seem to play a significant role as an internal factor in the IB and have been acknowledged as a variable that powerfully affects buying behaviour including IB (Rook, 1987). Emotions can be generated through the shopping process itself (Hawkins & Motherbaugh, 2010). Many consumer decisions do not only focus on product characteristics but on the emotions related to buying the product or with the situation in which the product is purchased or used (Shiv & Huber, 2000). Also, sentiments have been found to be the fundamental trigger for pure IB (Stern, 1962). Thus, consumers can make purchase decisions as a reflection of their emotions during shopping time.

To the best of our knowledge, there are no studies about the relationship of IB simultaneously with both emotions and promotions on IB (Aragoncillo & Orus, 2018; Nawaz, 2018; Perkov & Jurčević, 2018; Wiwik et al., 2018). In addition, considering the consequences of IB, specifically in what concerns cognitive dissonance that may occur from following this behaviour and how marketers and consumers can benefit from IB without any harm or psychological effects is needed (Seetha & Suganya, 2017).

Finally, the retail industry has become one of the fastest rising industries, for both the foreign and domestic companies. This growth demands a high volume of marketing information to assist in decision making in what are the most convenient marketing strategies to attract consumers. While buying, the consumer looks for the value addition, cost saving and pleasure, and wants to feel the satisfaction post the purchase. Marketing strategies cannot be successfully implemented without a good understanding of consumer behaviour. Marketers recognise that the more they know about the consumers and about their decision making, the more they can design better marketing strategies and create innovative and new promotional ideas that will influence consumers more efficiently and effectively. From a practitioner's

perspective, it is then essential to know the most useful tools for triggering IB decisions within a desirable shopping experience in a very competitive environment for consumers.

1.2 Research Problem

As it is important for the marketing practice to understand consumer behaviour and all the reasons that lead to IB, there is a need to understand better the different effects of in-store promotions and emotions on IB that will finally, lead to a meaningful understanding of this kind of behaviour and its consequences. Most of the past researchers find that consumers impulse buy to promotions vary depending on the in-store promotional type. However, the reason underlying this difference is still understudied in the literature (Clover, 1950; Muruganantham & Bhakat, 2013; Peck & Childers, 2006; Rook, 1987; Stern, 1962). This thesis aims to address this gap by knowing the effect of different in-store promotional techniques on IB. Therefore, it examines the role of sales promotion category on the process of IB.

In addition, emotions, in general, affect IB, but the difference between positive and negative emotions is still under investigation (Hawkins & Motherbaugh, 2010; Rook, 1987; Stern, 1962). So, there is a need for research studying promotions, emotions, IB and cognitive dissonance simultaneously. Most of the past research indicated that promotions and emotions standalone motivating IB (Amos et al., 2014; Clover, 1950; Kang, 2013; Muruganantham & Bhakat, 2013; Nagadeepa et al., 2015; Peck & Childers, 2006; Sharma, Sivakumaran, & Marshall, 2010; Silvera et al.,2008; Sofi & Najar, 2018; Stern, 1962; Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001; Youn & Faber, 2000). Also, according to a recent study done by Seetha and Suganya (2017), further research can be carried out to increase our understanding of the concept of consumer behaviour and IB. Thus, the research aims to answer the following:

- Do promotions impact IB?

  In-store promotional techniques, for example, discounts such as two at the price of one is a kind of IB triggers (Hulten & Vanyushyn, 2011). Point-of-sales communication tools and promotional activities; client cards, discount, sampling serve as marketing stimuli and assist retailers in arousing consumers` IB (Duarte et al., 2013, p. 1238). Expiration date-based pricing (EDBP) affects consumer decision making (Bijlsma, 2016); it is a discount for perishable product categories, which are of increasing importance for hypermarkets as about 50% of the whole

income of grocery retailers can be accounted for the sale of perishable products (Thron et al., 2007).

- Do emotions affect IB?

  Rook and Gardner (1993) found while pleasurable mood states, such as excitement, encouraged IB, consumers were also likely to impulse buy during negative mood states, such as sadness, to improve their mood. This means that all emotions can influence IB positively which calls for further research about emotions.

- Does IB lead to cognitive dissonance?

  Post-Purchase stage in consumer buying behaviour refers to the evaluation of the outcome, consumers may either feel satisfaction, dissatisfaction or cognitive dissonance, and this can happen when buyers ask themselves whether they took the right decision to buy or not. Rook (1985) proposed that IB raises the cognitive pressure between beliefs about pleasure-seeking and beliefs about self-control, and this, in turn, arouses conflicting affective responses. Consumers spend more time evaluating the alternatives on planned purchases rather than on unplanned purchases. Subsequently, IB creates more dissonance (Madhavaram & Laverie, 2004; Muruganantham & Bhakat, 2013; Tinne, 2010).

1.3 Research Contribution

This thesis aims at contributing to existing knowledge on IB by exploring the effect of promotions, and emotions on IB and cognitive dissonance. The thesis also aims at studying consumers' favourite type of promotions and evaluate whether they are leading to IB or not, as well as research whether consumers experience some negative consequences like cognitive dissonance. Hulten and Vanyushyn (2011) said that impulsive buyers are giving more attention to the in-store displays and combo offerings, but in contrast, Verplanken et al. (2005) proposed that promotional materials inside shops have little influence on IB. Mathai and Haridas (2014) found that discount prices did not influence IB. This calls for further research about the relationship between IB and promotions. Emotions seem to play an important role in IB (Hawkins & Motherbaugh, 2010; Shiv & Huber, 2000; Stern, 1962). However, there is a need to take into consideration the importance of the emotional aspects of the consumers during IB (Mathai & Haridas, 2014).

Studying IB is very relevant for academic and practitioners alike as it will help to find out its causes and consequences in society. Academics should think critically about the effect of IB on society. There is a need for studies about the outcomes of impulsive habits (Seetha & Suganya, 2017). Besides, adequate regulation of many marketing practices needs extensive knowledge of consumer behaviour. Cognitive Dissonance early research suggested it could affect people's decision-making processes, potentially changing attitudes towards and satisfaction with purchase decisions (Cummings & Venkatesan, 1976).

This study may have significant implications considering the current economic climate. In this post-recessionary period, consumers care about the price factor and look for goods that are a good value for money. The research contributes to seeing the available information in sophisticated and creative ways in the fast-paced global environment that businesses face. In managerial terms, this knowledge may help retailers to elicit IB from consumers through a better understanding of the promotional in-store tools that are perceived by consumers as a significant motive for their purchasing decisions. So, retailers may identify the target public and the most efficient instruments to attract them when designing promotional campaigns.

1.4 Methodology

The research follows a quantitative approach. The questionnaire is the primary source for collecting information. Previously validated scales are adopted to measure the constructs of interest, including IB tendency, referring to the degree in which an individual makes unplanned immediate, and unreflective purchases (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Rook & Fisher, 1995). Even though IB is treated as a situational variable, it correspondingly showed in the consumer literature as a trait-based individual difference (Kacen & Lee, 2002). Verplanken and Herabadi (2001) developed the consumer cognitive and affective scales for measuring IB tendency which used in this thesis to measure IB of consumers who just finished their shopping trip. Likewise, previously validated scales are used to capture promotions and emotions and the post-purchase evaluation mainly cognitive dissonance. Sweeney, Hausknecht and Soutar (2000) developed a multidimensional measure of consumer dissonance based on consumers' dissonance experiences.

In addition, we enquired consumers about their favourite promotional activity and its effect on IB, the last product they had bought on impulse, the reason behind buying it and whether they were satisfied or dissatisfied after the purchase. The questionnaire was distributed to consumers after they had finalised

their shopping at the hypermarket to give us more clarification to understand why and when this precisely happens.

1.5 Delimitation of Scope and Critical Assumptions

The research will focus on the IB and its relation to promotions and emotions with the post-purchase feeling, especially cognitive dissonance. The delimitations are those characteristics that limit the scope and define the boundaries of the study. The first delimitation is the choice of two of the variables affecting the IB decisions which are emotions and promotions that were found to influence the IB as only one from the external factors and only one from the internal factors affecting this behaviour, but the other factors were screened off from view.

The researcher selects the Egyptian population for the investigation. The outcomes of this study could be generalizable to consumers who are often going to do their shopping from a specific hypermarket not small supermarket.

The researcher explained the objective and the questions of the survey to the participants to ensure they submit relevant answers and assured them that their answers were anonymous so they felt comfortable and guarantees to the person surveying that it will get to the core of the research and enables the researcher to answer the research questions.

1.6 Organisation of The Thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters, and the content of each chapter in the study will be as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter aims to provide preliminary background information on the study. Also, it clarifies the focus of the research and specifies the overall research aim. Furthermore, this chapter points out the value of the study. It explains the research outline and how it is organised.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter discusses the critical issues which underlie the research study; it will clarify the main theories, points of view, and the controversies pertinent to the issue being investigated, specifically general factors influencing IB, promotions, emotions, and cognitive dissonance. Thus, this chapter provides a

critical evaluation of the theoretical framework leading to the hypothesis and conceptual framework to be tested.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

This chapter explains the research method that this study falls having considered the methods used by other studies in the same area and how the different variables were measured. Also, the Methodology chapter explains how the research was conducted and how the data was obtained. It includes a detailed description of the research processes and procedures as well as an explanation of the reasons for doing so.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis

This chapter presents findings and results. Finally, the results are linked to the hypotheses previously formulated in the literature review.

Chapter 5: Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter consists of a summary of the significant findings of the study and a consideration of the results in light of existing research studies. Moreover, it includes implications of the study for theory and practice, and contributions to the body of knowledge. Finally, recommendations for further research are addressed.

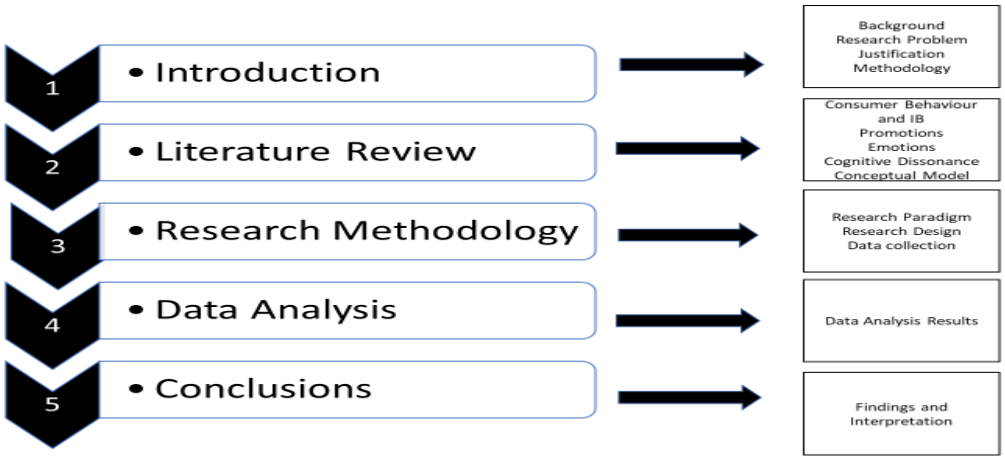

Figure 1.1 The Structure of The Thesis

Chapter Two - Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the relevant theoretical framework to understand IB within consumer behaviour is discussed. Consumer behaviour theories aim at forecasting how consumers make buying decisions and show marketers what is the best way to influence behaviours. Early approaches were rational choice making was dominating consumer behaviour; however, this perspective does not capture IB which is a significant part of a consumer's buying patterns.

The discussion of consumer buying behaviour is critical and will help in the understanding of IB and will also clarify the distinctive features of it. A deep understanding of the theoretical framework for the variables that are concerned in this study will be presented. Finally, a conceptual research model will be proposed.

2.2 Consumer Behaviour and Impulse Buying

The classic theories of Consumer Behaviour (see Appendix A – Consumer Behaviour Theories) show that the body of knowledge underlying consumers' decisions has been mostly studied from a rational perspective. This approach considers that choices are made after fully considering the various alternatives (Tversky & Kahneman, 2000, p. 1) or finding the most critical needs that must be fulfilled first. However, the expected rationality of consumer decision making, upon which most of the models mainly depend on, has been put into question.

In the 1980s, researchers started to question the rationality of many consumer actions (Erasmus & Boshoff et al., 2001). It was found that consumers commonly engaged in non-conscious behaviours that might not be well modelled through a rational information processing approach (Bozinoff & Cohen, 1982; Erasmus, Boshoff et al., 2001). Other researchers have found consumer behaviour is disorganised in certain circumstances, confused or opportunistic (Erasmus, Boshoff et al., 2001), and while such explanations may deny some rationality that may be concealed even to the performer, they unquestionably do not follow the well-structured, and the inflexible traditional model proposed as consumers violate these rules of rationality. In this case, consumers take decisions without careful consideration of the available alternatives, with insufficient information about the product of interest, or without prior intent to purchase (Tversky & Kahneman, 2000, p. 1). One example is IB.

Engel and Blackwell (1982) showed that consumers process information before making the buying decision. The model suggested that consumers made a post-purchase evaluation of the decision as the last stage. This model, though, does not reflect the emotional processes and the significance of self-control, and therefore, does not explain IB. Later, Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006) defined IB as a limited problem-solving decision, stating that IB decision-making process, search for information and the pre-purchase evaluations were limited. In the same vein, even the highly praised theory of reasoned action is based on assuming that "human beings were usually quite rational and made systematic use of accessible information" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980, p. 5), meaning that a wide range of behaviours that were spontaneous and impulsive, were excluded from its explanatory scope (Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Hale, Householder, & Greene, 2002). Thus, rationale based, or economic cost-benefit oriented models were not found to explain IB, and hence, the psychological perspective was given due consideration (Dittmar & Drury, 2000). Thus, for improved understanding of IB, attention was directed by researchers towards the underlying psychological processes of affect and cognition that influenced IB (Youn & Faber, 2000).

The level of involvement with the products may also vary in IB when compared to regular buying. Low-involvement leads to IB or purchasing with little or no planning (Michael et al., 2010). Youn and Faber (2000) pointed out that IB may be related to consumers' personalities like shopping enjoyment, impulsiveness, optimum stimulation level or lack of self-control. Shen and Khalifa (2012) detected that cognition of the consumer controls the relationship between buying impulse and the actual impulsive behaviour.

2.3 Impulse Buying

Impulse buying has been studied in two primary fields, psychology, and consumer behaviour. Academics have suggested that the IB concept has begun getting attention in Consumer Behaviour at the end of the 1940s with the DuPont Consumer Buying Habits Studies (Ünsalan, 2016). Moreover, in the 1950s, Clover, who has been identified as the first researcher to study IB, pointed out that some product categories were sold more on impulse (Muruganantham & Bhakat, 2013; Piron, 1991; Punj, 2011; Rook, 1987; Tinne, 2010). The concept of impulsiveness itself has started attracting attention in psychology in the 1920s (Ünsalan, 2016); medical and progressive psychologists have studied this idea too (Gerbing, Ahadi & Patton, 1987) as well as criminologists (Easting, Eysenck, et al., 1985). Moreover, many studies were supported by the Point-of-Purchase Advertising Institute which studied the IB characteristics (Applebaum, 1951; Cobb & Hoyer, 1986; Piron, 1991; Rook, 1987; Stern, 1962).

Researchers proposed several definitions of the concept of IB. Table 2.1 sums up these definitions and suggests that there are many points of view regarding the meaning of IB. So, the concept of IB has been explored for around 70 years, and throughout the years, scholars have added more elements and influences on the definition of IB (Rook 1987; Rook & Hoch 1985; Weinberg & Gottwald 1982). An exploration of the definitions suggests that although there are differences, most of them agree that IB is an immediate and unplanned purchase. Rook (1987), for example, defined it as an unplanned purchase which happens when a consumer experiences a positive effect when showing an incentive results in a difference between a consumer's total purchases, and those that were listed as intended purchases before entering a store. Piron (1991) confirmed the analysis of previous definitions and concluded that none of them adequately defined this interesting phenomenon, he also identified thirteen dimensions which were common across these various interpretations of IB proposed by different researchers.

Researchers tried to distinguish IB from the regular buying using different characteristics, and this can be seen in Beatty and Ferrell (1998) definition of IB: "an immediate purchase with no pre-shopping intentions either to buy the specific product category or to fulfil a specific buying task" (p. 170). It is a buying tendency that appears to be spontaneous and without previous reflection. It does not contain the purchase of a simple reminder item, which is an item that is merely out-of-stock at home (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998).

On the other hand, Muruganatham and Bhakat (2013) pointed out that IB is distinct from the unplanned buying as it is characterised by a swift decision-making and correspondingly includes going through a sudden, energetic, and irresistible urge to buy without any pre-shopping intention (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; George & Yaoyuneyong, 2010; Sharma et al., 2010). This is confirmed by Block, and Morwitz (1999) who articulated the definition of an IB as buying an item with slight or no planning suddenly, following a compelling urge, and this can explain that the dominant call may occur because of emotions or promotions.

Recently Sofi and Najar (2018) who showed that IB disorders the common decision-making framework in the consumer's brain. "The logical sequence of the consumer's actions is swapped by an irrational force of self-gratification" (p. 79). Zhang et al. (2018) define IB as an irrational purchasing behaviour resulting from a struggle between the psychological forces of desires and willpower. Table 2.1 lists significant contributions to defining Impulse Buying.

Table 2.1

Impulse Buying Definitions

Author (Year)	Definition
Applebaum (1951)	"buying was not planned by the customer before entering a store, but which resulted from a stimulus created by a sales promotional device in the store." (p. 176)
Stern (1962)	Planned, unplanned or impulse. Four types of IB: pure, reminder, suggestion and planned IB.
Cobb and Hoyer (1986)	An unplanned purchase.
Rook (1987)	"the difference between a consumer's total purchases at the completion of a shopping trip, and those that were listed as intended purchases prior to entering a store." (p. 190)
Iyer (1989)	A case of unplanned buying.
Rook and Gardner (1993)	An unplanned purchase characterised by rapid decision making and subjective bias in favour of immediate possession.
Rook and Fisher (1995)	IB occurs when a consumer experiences a sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately.
Beatty and Ferrell (1998)	The immediate purchase has no earlier aim or aims to buy the commodity.
Solomon (2002)	Behaviour that occurs when a consumer feels a sudden irresistible urge to buy.
Jones et al. (2003)	The degree to which a consumer is likely to make an unintended purchase. Spontaneous, and unreflective purchases.
Sharma et al. (2010)	"a sudden, compelling, hedonically complex purchase behavior in which the rapidity of the impulse purchase decision precludes any thoughtful, deliberate consideration of alternatives or future implications." (p. 277)
Sofi and Najar (2018)	IB happens when "The logical sequence of the consumer's actions is swapped by an irrational force of self-gratification." (p.79).
Zhang et al. (2018)	IB is a thoughtless purchasing behaviour results from a struggle between the psychological forces of desires and willpower.

2.3.1 Types of Impulse Buying

Different typologies of IB have been proposed. Bayley and Nancarrow (1998) stated four styles of IB which are: accelerator impulse, compensatory impulse, breakthrough impulse and blind impulse. *The accelerator impulse* is a self-confirmation role driven by an unexpected desire to stock-up for future needs while *the compensatory impulse* is a self-confirmation role that serves as a reward or an emotional boost. *The breakthrough impulse* is a self-redefining role revealed in an unexpected and unrepeatable way — finally, *the blind impulse*, dysfunctional, where the consumer has a sensation of being overwhelmed by the product. Accelerator and compensatory IB tend to happen very frequently. Breakthrough and blind IB tend to happen less frequently.

Stern (1962) held on the idea that IB is driven by the exposure to external and internal stimuli and characterised by a substantially different process from the traditional decision making. Stern suggested that there are four types of IB (Stern 1962, p. 59): *pure or real IB,* like buying a chocolate bar at the checkout line of a grocery which mostly depends on the consumers' emotions. *The reminder IB* refers to consumers making reminded impulse buys of something they remember that they need once they see it, *planned IB* when consumers know what they want to buy, but without knowing a specific brand, however, they will buy on planned impulse based on promotions. Moreover, *suggested IB*, such as a service contract for an electronic device or something that consumers will found to be useful, something that indicated for the consumers to buy at the moment without any previous intention.

This classification is also relevant in the context of online reviews (Zhang, Xu, Zhao & Yu, 2018), particularly suggested IB. As stated by Zhang et al. (2018) when consumer browses the online reviews of a product, the consumer could feel a need for it and consequently achieves suggestion IB, even though he/she had no definite shopping goal at the beginning.

Therefore, Cobb and Hoyer (1986) differentiated between IB and unplanned purchase by identifying three types of purchasers: *the planners* who intended to buy the product category and brand, *the partial planners* who intended to buy the product category but not the brand and finally, *the impulse purchasers* who have no intention for the product category nor the brand.

2.3.2 The Impulse Buying Process

The process of IB is unlike the regular buying behaviour process, as it lacks the information search and alternative evaluation stages, which are essential phases of the typical buying behaviour decision

(Figure 2.1). The consumer is triggered by stimuli that raise the impulse urge to buy immediately without bearing in mind any effort to search for information regarding the product and without any evaluation of the alternative products that might be available. So, consumers' IB decision begins with browsing, followed by creating desire and makes the purchase and then comes the post-purchase stage. Hoch and Loewenstein (1991) mentioned that people experience the urge to consume on impulse, not the product, they also recommended that buying may lead to more buying, by losing the self-control.

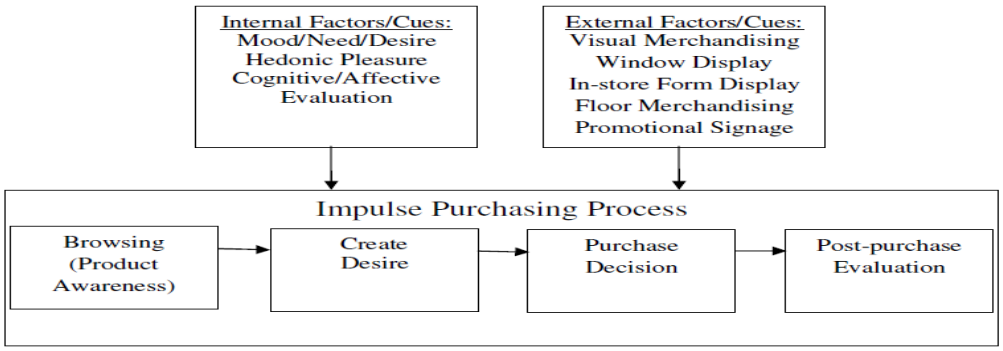

Figure 1.1 A Model of Impulse Buying Process

Source: Kim (2003, p. 9, adapted from Churchill & Peter, 1998)

2.3.3 Measurement of Impulse Buying

The contributions to IB literature also include the development of measurement scales (Table 2.2); a scale of IB has been proposed by Rook and Fisher (1995); consumer impulsiveness scale by Puri (1996) and IB tendency scale by Mick (1996). The IB tendency scale developed by Mick (1996), assess the extent to which a consumer is likely to make unplanned, immediate and unreflective purchases. Donthu and Gilliland (1996) developed the buying impulsiveness scale to assess the degree to which a person likes to buy in this way, by his/her choice not by being involved in the unplanned choice.

Later on, thoughts and emotions of consumers are of great interest to marketers who are actively looking for means to profit from the IB in their marketing activities (Dincer, 2010). Hence, the proposition of the IB tendency scale by Verplanken and Herabadi (2001) measuring the cognitive and affective aspects of IB tendencies. It is evident that both affective and cognitive processes occur in consumer decision-making. Considering how and why disproportion of each process works and contributes to impulsivity or self-control is vital in understanding the complete process of IB (Coley, 2002). IB is also known as a

function of affect and cognition effects in which the affect refers to feelings, mood and emotions, and cognition is referring to thinking and understanding (Youn, 2000).

Verplanken and Herabadi (2001) provided the affective and cognitive aspects of IB tendency measurement; they developed a twenty-item scale to measure cognitive and affective IB tendency. The authors agreed the facets are different, but they were strongly correlated and presented the most critical aspect of the IB tendencies: the cognitive aspect by the lack of planning and deliberation in purchase decisions, and the affective aspect by feelings of excitement, pleasure, lack of control and regret. According to a study done by Dincer (2010) using Verplanken and Herbadi (2001) scale, IB was mostly affective. Dincer (2010) found that: "the feeling of wanting to buy something (item 2), the excitement (item 5) and the liking (item 10) are the strongest items" (p. 157) then the behavioural dimension has been added to the affective and cognitive components by Youn and Faber (2002).

Table 2.2

Impulse Buying Major Measurement Scales

Author (Year)	Definition
Rook and Fisher (1995)	IB scale
Mick (1996)	Impulse tendency scale - the extent to which a consumer is likely to make unplanned, immediate and unreflective purchases.
Donthu and Gilliland (1996)	Buying impulsiveness scale - the degree to which a person not only shows that he or she involves in unplanned consumer choice but likes to buy in that way.
Puri (1996)	Consumer impulsiveness scale - "people chronic values towards impulsiveness", conceptualising it as "consumer impulsiveness", a concept based on the scopes of prudence (cognitive) and hedonism (affective).
Verplanken and Herabadi (2001)	IB tendency scale. Refer to the affective and cognitive aspects of IB tendency measurement.
Youn and Faber (2002)	"consumer buying impulsivity" and added the behavioural dimension to the affective and cognitive components.

2.3.4 General Factors Influencing Impulse Buying

Many studies have been done to explore the different factors affecting IB. However, many elements of human characteristics are responsible for consumers'impulse buying. These factors include internal and external stimuli, demographic factors and exposure to technology. External stimuli and internal stimuli trigger a need, leading to an immediate purchase decision, on the spot, and without thinking about the consequences (Piron, 1991).

It is also a fact that increasing the exposure of certain types of stimulating environments affects IB, as research confirms that it is stimulus-driven (Piron, 1991). It has been found that consumers are affected by internal and external factors of IB (Alerza & Yarahmodi, 2011; Dholakia, 2000; Donovan & Rossiter, 1994; Rook & Hoch, 1985; Xu, 2007). According to Kollat and Willett (1969), there are two theories for the IB; the first one is *the exposure to in-store stimuli hypothesis* and the second one is *the customer commitment hypothesis*. The Exposure hypothesis happens when consumers are exposed to the in-store stimuli which leads to IB, and this occurs when the consumers remember the need for a product by seeing it in the store or just buying the item by seeing it in the store without intentions to buy it. Instead of relying on a shopping list, also, the in-store promotional techniques result in shoppers recognising new ways of satisfying needs. Many studies have indicated that in-store stimulus can trigger IB.

Thus, opposing to what seems to be the view of some marketing academics and practitioners, exposure to in-store stimuli triggers only some IB, not all of them, this will be discussed in detail in the next section. The rate of IB depends on many factors like the product that is being promoted, the sort of stimulation technique, the kind of promotion itself and the expose and selection of the promotional incentives. If in-store stimuli do not trigger IB, at that time, it follows that other influences must be triggering some of this type of behaviour.

The customer commitment hypothesis is the second hypothesis according to Kollat and Willett (1969): "The customer-commitment hypothesis maintains unplanned purchasing, or differences between purchase intentions and actual purchases, are attributable, in part, to incomplete measures of purchase plans. "Measured purchase intentions" are not the same as "actual purchase intentions" because the shopper is unable to commit the time and cognitive resources necessary to make the two types of purchase intentions equivalent" (p. 82).

The hypothesis explains the differences between the actual purchase intentions and the actual purchase, stating that it is insufficient measures of purchase plans because to measure the purchase intentions is different from the real purchase intentions in which the shopper is unable to commit the time necessary to make the two types of purchase equivalent. It means that IB is not completely unplanned, but it is due to the methodology used to measure it. The consumer may be unable to adequately articulate his pre-purchase intentions resulting in an overstatement of IB (Kollat & Willett, 1969, p. 82). The awareness of later inventory tallying at the check-out counter, may bias responses like the out of stock of favourite brand, IB to another brand seems consistent with this hypothesis.

The internal factors refer to individual elements which include social, psychological, demographic, personality, learning, emotions, perception, and lifestyle. The external factors are related to external stimuli which include marketing mix; product, promotion, price, place, situational, economic, environmental factors and cultural factors. Below, we generally review all the elements found in the literature influencing IB. Also, emotions and promotions have been found to have a considerable influence on IB and will be discussed separately and in-depth in the next section.

2.3.4.1 Internal Factors

In earlier studies about IB, this was seen merely as an unplanned purchase. Later, the investigation started focusing on how demographic and lifestyle characteristics affected IB susceptibility. One of the most significant developments in IB research was discovering that internal motivations might also lead to IB rather than the idea that specific products were more likely to lead to IB (Rook & Hoch, 1985). Throughout the years, scholars found several internal variables that can affect IB (Table 2.3).

Demographics (Dittmar, 1995; Kollat & Willet, 1967), and self-identity (Dittmar, Beattie, & Friese, 1995) influence the consumer IB, and these studies support the importance of demographical forecasters of IB. Demographics and lifestyle characteristics include different personality-associated factors which are relying on the individual's internal cues and features that make him/her engage in IB. Dittmar et al., (1996) stated that gender affects IB. Women tend to buy the typical and self-expressive products which are associated with their appearance and emotional aspects of self, while men tend to IB necessary and leisure items which project their independence and activity. Educational experience also has been found to influence the act of IB (Wood, 1998). Consistently, it was suggested that consumer impulsivity is a routine

trait which can be connected to sensation seeking, materialism, and recreational aspects of shopping (Rook, 1987).

Correspondingly, the concept of buying as an impulsiveness trait referring to a person's tendency to involve in impulse shopping has been introduced (Rook & Fisher, 1995). Hawkins et al. (2007) believed that consumers look for variety, which may be a significant aim for switching brand and IB. It has been found that variety-seeking behaviour was linked to IB (Sharma et al., 2010).

Table 2.3

Internal Factors Influencing Impulse Buying

Author (Year)	Variable
Kollat and Willett (1967)	Client's character and demographics
Rook and Hoch (1985)	Internal motivations
Dittmar et al. (1995)	Self-identity and gender influences IB
Rook and Fisher (1995)	Impulsiveness trait
Dittmar et al. (1996)	Gender
Wood (1998)	Educational experience
Sharma et al. (2010)	Emotions and variety-seeking
Amos et al. (2014)	Age and Gender

2.3.4.2 External Factors

Bagozzi (1980) proposed that external environmental stimuli influence consumer behaviour. External marketing cues do not only attract new consumers to buy the product but also encourage existing consumers to buy impulsively extra items, complimentary items, better items and promoted items. Early studies considered that only specific product categories, like candy or magazines, were object of impulse buys. Yu and Bastin (2010) suggested that IB differs across a broad range of product categories including clothes, books, and equipment for exercises. The different types of products may also affect IB and the variation in IB behaviour not only between different shoppers considering buying the same item but also for the same consumer buying the same thing in different situations (Stern, 1962).

External factors include different influences (Table 2.4). IB is positively affected by the store environmental stimuli especially when the store environment is perceived as over-stimulating and triggering a lot of excitement (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Cheng et al., 2013; Mattila & Wirtz, 2008). Shapiro (1992) detailed that situational forecasters of IB include the retail location, time of shopping, season and shopping habits. Situational factors influencing IB may consist of actual or perceived time available and spending power (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998). The more the consumers spend time in the store before buying, the higher the chance to buy on impulse (Jeffrey & Hodge, 2007) as time pressure plays a moderating role in the relationship between the store environment, and the consumer's impulse moods (Xu, 2007).

In addition, high arousal and overstimulation lessens people's self-regulation and reduces people's ability to think through their actions which could increase the chances of IB (Baumeister, 2002). Likewise, Piron (1991) added to other scholars' conceptualisations his idea of "on-the-spot", referring to the fact that IB happens when the decision to purchase is made immediately upon seeing or touching the product or the triggering stimulus (Peck & Childers, 2006). This element matches the conceptualisation of Rook (1987), who uses the idea of the persistent urge to immediately buy something. Consequently, highly stimulating and pleasant store environments can lead to enhanced IB (Hoyer & Macinner, 1999). Product appearance, background music and styles and fantasise, wrapped in the anonymity of a self-service environment were also found to be critical external influencers (Rook & Fisher, 1995; Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001).

External stimuli have a role across different shopping channels. Self-service, innovative ideas of displaying the product in such places like airports (Michael et al., 2010) and websites, and situational factors (Chan et al., 2017) have shown a positive effect on shoppers' IB. Also, the exclusive availability of specific products, clean ambience and large format are some of the motives that could increase the IB at airport retail shops (Omar et al., 2001).

According to Amos et al. (2014), finances at the time of purchase have a positive relationship with IB. Credit cards are an incentive for shopping and motivate consumers to revisit the store using this payment method which may result in an increased IB (Dawson & Kim, 2009; Dittmar et al., 1996). It was also found that individuals with low levels of household income tend to enjoy immediate indulgence like day-to-day savings as opposed to delay of gratification (Wood, 1998).

Mattila and Wirtz (2008) proposed that social factors like store employees and other consumers impact IB. Praise from others, such as a salesperson, friends during the shopping, and the presence of peers may increase the chances of IB (Bastin & Yu, 2010; Luo, 2005), but the existence of one of the family members decreases it (Luo, 2005).

Kacen and Lee (2002) claimed that in a cultural framework, the theory of individualism and collectivism gives valuable insights into consumer's IB which can further assist both academics and practitioners in developing a better understanding of the sudden buying phenomenon. Similarly, Vohs and Faber (2007) stated that different cultural forces could also impact the way consumer go for IB. However, according to a recent cross-cultural study done by Aylin and Tram (2019), there are mixed results in the relationships between cultural dimensions and IB. They found a positive relationship between masculinity and IB of participants in Vietnam but not in Sweden and Turkey. They also found a significant positive relationship between power distance and IB in Turkey and Vietnam, and a negative relationship between uncertainty avoidance and IB in Vietnam and Turkey, but a positive one in Sweden (Aylin & Tram, 2019).

In the case of e-commerce websites, it has been found that the most common IB features, found in 75% of websites, included member/rewards program discounts, discounted prices, product ratings/reviews, sale pages, product interactivity (e.g., photo zoom/spin), and returns/refunds (Moser, Schoenebeck, & Resnick, 2019).

Table 2.4

External Factors influencing Impulse Buying

Author (Year)	Variable
Stern (1962)	Situation
Shapiro (1992)	Shopping habits, retail location, seasons and time of shopping
Wood (1998)	Socioeconomic factor as low-income influences IB
Dholakia (2000)	Promotional incentives
Kacen and Lee (2002)	Cultural influences
Luo (2005)	Presence of peers increases the urge to buy, but the presence of family decreases it
Peck and Childers (2006)	Touch increases impulse purchases /distance between consumer and product decreases
Vohs and Faber (2007) Aylin and Tram (2019)	Culture
Dawson and Kim (2009)	Credit cards
Tendai and Crispen (2009)	In-store shopping environment
Bastin and Yu (2010)	Salesperson and friends
Cheng et al. (2013)	Social Influence
Chan et al. (2017)	External stimuli like the website, marketing, and situational factors
Moser et al. (2019)	IB features in 75% of websites, including member/rewards, product ratings/reviews, and returns/refunds

In conclusion to this section, there is an interrelationship between external and internal variables in triggering IB as the store environment, and incentives are likely to affect consumers' emotional states which may further lead to IB (Donovan & Rossiter, 1994; Rook 1987; Xu, 2007). IB begins with a consumer's sensation and perception driven by external stimuli and are tracked by an unexpected urge to buy (I see, I want to buy) (Rook & Hoch, 1985).

2.4 Promotions

As seen, promotions are one of the external factors impacting IB (Dholakia, 2000). Firstly, before addressing this relationship, we must begin with a review of the promotion types, theories and techniques affecting consumer behaviour.

The promotional mix is the fourth component and fourth P of the marketing mix, and it includes traditional advertising, direct sales, public relations, personal selling and sales promotions. It can be defined as the tools used to communicate with the target market and produce organisational sales goals and profits.

Traditional advertising is any paid form of media to communicate with the target consumers, and it is a non-personal promotional activity. *Direct sales* or direct marketing is the type of advertising that is going directly to the target consumers; nowadays it may involve using emails or social media messages that ask the receiver to act, to benefit from a specific promotion, to order a product, or to visit a store. *Public relations* are those activities that try to promote a positive image and generate goodwill with the intent of increasing sales, like hosting special events and sponsoring charitable campaigns. *Personal selling* is a face to face way of communication between buyer and seller. Finally, *sales promotions* include different techniques such as in-store demonstrations, displays, contests and price incentives (e.g., 50% off, "buy one get one free"). Sales promotions include two types; sales promotions directed towards retailers are called *trade promotions*, and promotions directed towards consumers, which are called consumer promotions or *in-store promotions* (Blattberg & Neslin 1990).

In-store promotions have been considered a very effective element of the promotion mix. While it has been proposed that advertising goes through the process of cognition and then leads to action, in-store promotions are believed to directly elicit a response. Also, in-store promotions give consumers extrinsic reasons to buy a product, change between brands or even shift the pack size of the product (Gupta, 1988). In-store promotions are the lifeblood of hypermarkets that allow consumers to save and buy higher quality brands; it covers different tools that are used by retailers or manufacturers to invite consumers to buy more or try a new product or service and cause impulse sales (Mughal et al., 2014; Rook, 1987) in this study promotions are referring to the in-store promotions.

To understand promotions, we must look at theories and concepts from research in social psychology, microeconomics, behavioural economics, and marketing, specifically, the prospect theory, the

reference price, the price search and search cost concept, transaction utility theory, attribution theory, the monetary and non-monetary promotions, and behavioural learning theory.

According to *the prospect theory*, consumers do not just look at the actual prices of the products; they always put the amount in context relative to a personal reference price. *The reference price concept* states that consumers evaluate product prices based on the evaluation in a relevant context (Winer, 1986). In this case, a promotion, with an observed rate lower than the reference price, will be considered a profit; in contrast, going back to the actual amount compared to the new reference price would be a cost. The response of a consumer to a particular type of promotion can change over time, given the changed reference prices (Anderson & Simester, 2004). The reference price can be a conclusion to *the price search and search cost*; another concept with a background in microeconomics focuses on utility maximisation (Metha et al., 2003; Stigler, 1961). The price search states that consumers go through different phases of getting, proceed and stored prices information to acquire the best offer. Search costs include all experienced and opportunity costs associated with finding the best price (Dickson & Sawyer, 1990; Naik et al., 2005). Promotions and price knowledge increase the interest in price search and influence it as it leads to significant savings (Darke & Freedman, 1993).

Transaction utility theory is a concept introduced by Thaler (1985) who detailed that the full value derived from a purchase comes from the acquisition and transaction utility. Acquisition utility was the expected utility added from getting the product compared to the cost of paying for it. Therefore, transaction utility is the difference between the internal reference price and the buying price of the product, feeling the satisfaction by receiving a good deal. The conceptualisation of acquisition and transaction utility was confirmed empirically by Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton' (1990) and Grewal and Monroe's (1998) studies, that found that consumers think that the only way to feel satisfied is by buying the product at a price less than the regular price.

Attribution theory has its background in social psychology. It assumes that consumers try to find an explanation for a specific state, meaning that they try to understand the reasons behind the promotion and put price promotions into a frame (Folkes, 1988; Lichtenstein et al., 1991). It is agreed that consumers prefer to perceive the discount in a positive way, like aiming at gaining market share, rather than a negative way, such as the clearance of stock or lousy quality (Lichtenstein & Bearden, 1989). If the consumers fail to understand the reason behind the promotion, they will perceive it as unfair. Also, if the

discount is substantial, it may be disregarded if the consumers are not familiar with the brand (Moore & Olshavsky, 1989). Thus, the framing of promotions is an essential topic. It was firstly introduced by Tversky and Kahneman (1981), who analyse the behaviour of people depending on how they perceive the framing positively or negatively. Also, Diamond and Sanyal (1990) found that promotions with negative framing are less efficient than with positive ones. However, Gamliel and Herstein (2011) found that neither positive nor negative framing affect the purchase decisions of consumers.

In addition, the attribution theory leads researchers to categorise promotions techniques by one of the most well-known marketing typologies: *monetary and non-monetary promotions* (Quelch, 1989). Monetary promotions include price discounts or an extra free amount of the same product (Darke & Chung, 2005; Nunes & Park, 2003; Yi & Yoo, 2011). Non-monetary promotions include gifts, contests, and samples (Delgado-Ballester & Palazon, 2009; Hardesty & Bearden, 2003; Yoo et al., 2000). Consumers who are more price sensitive will respond to monetary promotions due to the utilitarian benefits that are offered by these promotions (Yi & Yoo, 2011). These monetary promotions are successful because they reduce the perceived price of a product in the mind of the consumer. Consumers who are more able to purchase items for pleasure will respond to non-monetary promotions because they are perceived as gains. Mendez et al. (2015) confirmed that there is a difference between the monetary and non-monetary promotions and that there seems to be a higher preference for monetary promotions over non-monetary promotions, but both monetary and non-monetary promotions can enhance brand loyalty. According to a recent study, non-monetary promotions generate more relational benefits than price-based promotions and appear to be a good method in developing relationships with consumers (Mussol, Aurier, & Lanauze, 2019).

The behavioural learning theory is also a social psychology theory which has been adapted to the marketing field. This theory states that consumers are continually adjusting their behaviour, especially if they are facing change through different stimulus like promotional variables. Once consumers purchase and are satisfied, they will repeat the purchase process (Nord & Peter, 1980; Rothschild & Gaidis, 1981; Skinner, 1953; Thorndike, 1911). If marketers had increased the promotional techniques at some point and then decreased their use, the sales would drop again because the consumers would then switch to another store as the stimuli have become the primary cause for their behaviour in choosing a particular store, rather than the store's products or features. The behavioural perspective, in contrast to the

economic view, highlights the importance of internal mental processes in consumer decision-making. The behavioural perspective emphasises the role of external environmental factors in learning, which it argues causes behaviour. The behavioural view, therefore, focuses on external environmental cues like advertising that stimulates consumer response. Some researchers have proposed models to study learning principles (Thorndike, 1911; Watson & Rayner, 1920 cited in Brosekhan & Velayutham, 2016). Attitude model as mentioned before (see Appendix A – Consumer Behaviour Theories) was proposed by Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) and is based on the notion that consumers make decisions based on beliefs, attitudes and intentions about the behaviour. As a result of this model, a consumer's plan to buy a product may be based on his positive or negative attitudes towards the promotion and then repeated based on the behavioural theory. Shimp and Kavas (1984) applied the theory of reasoned action to understand consumer's decision to use coupons and found that behaviour towards vouchers was influenced by consumer intentions to use coupons. Consumers' attitudes were formed through their beliefs in the rewards and costs of using coupons while subjective norms were formed through consumers' perception of whether significant others think they must spend the effort to clip, save and use coupons.

2.4.1 Promotions and Impulse Buying

Promotions have been studied as one of the essential techniques influencing IB (Clover, 1950; Kang, 2013; Memon et al., 2019; Muruganantham & Bhakat, 2013; Nagadeepa et al., 2015; Peck & Childers, 2006; Piron, 1991; Rook, 1987; Stern, 1962). It has been found that in-store ads and in-store promotional stimuli have a high impact on increasing IB (Asim & Saf, 2011). Moreover, regarding the different elements that can lead to IB, prices promotions including price reductions, discounts and combo offers are considered as having direct effects on consumers' buying decisions (Abratt & Goodey, 1990; Dittmar & Drury, 2000; Grewal et al., 1998; Hulten & Vanyushyn, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003; Ruswanti, 2013; Shapiro & Krishnan, 2001; Stern, 1962; Tendai & Crispen, 2009; Thaler, 1985;1999; Virvilaite et al., 2009; Youn & Faber, 2000). Table 2.5 sums up studies which have focused on the relationship between both constructs.

Inman and Winer (1999) found that 59% of people changed their decisions in the store when compared with the list of products they planned to buy before entering the store. It was indicated that there was a significant influence of in-store promotions. Thus, simultaneously, in-store promotions have a positive effect on consumers to purchase but may also have adverse effects. It has been proven that in-store promotion is an external stimulus that drives consumers to buy at the moment but after it is gone and over,

consumers are less likely to repeat the purchase (Bawa & Shoemaker, 1987; Dodson et al., 1978). At the same time, consumers may be discouraged to buy the same product with its regular price (Monroe, 1973; Winer, 1986; Kalwani et al., 1990; in Peattie & Peattie, 1993).

On the contrary, Verplanken et al. (2005) found that promotional material inside shops had little influence on IB and discounts did not influence IB (Mathai & Haridas, 2014). While the term IB may imply a lack of rationality or alternative evaluation, this is not necessarily true; for example, the decision to buy one product rather than a similar one of another brand because it is on sale is probably logical. In-store promotions aim to encourage target consumers by prompting an immediate response to buy the product by offering value incentives (Belch & Belch, 2007; Dholakia, 2000; Gupta et al., 2009; Ouwersloot & Duncan, 2008; Sundstrom et al., 2013). Stern (1962) proposed that goods bought on impulse are usually cheaper. Planned IB happens when the shopper makes specific purchase decisions based on price specials and coupon offers (Stern, 1962). This is typical of planned IB. For example, when the consumer has two yoghurts on her/his shopping list, and in the hypermarket, yoghurt is priced at €0.45 each or three for €1.00, i.e. for an extra €0.10, the consumer gets more yoghurt. In this case when the consumer purchases three yoghurts, the third one is considered a planned IB because it was bought based on the price. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1: Promotions positively impact impulse buying.

Table 2.5

Promotions and Impulse Buying

Author (Year)	Contribution
Rook (1987)	IB occurs when consumers experience an urge to buy impulsively when visually encountering cues such as promotional incentives.
Dholakia (2000)	Consumers can experience being pushed into IB when facing visual signs such as discounted promotional items.
Shapiro and Krishnan (2001)	IB is activated by unconscious memories of advertising reaching consumers over a diversity of promotional channels.
Laroche, Kim (2003)	Price reductions, cost savings, or sales promotions can lead to an unintended purchase.
Verplanken et al. (2005)	Promotional material inside shops have little influence on IB.
Peck and Childers (2006)	Point-of-purchase signs and packaging encouraging product touch may increase IB.
Tendai and Crispen (2009)	There is a significant relationship between IB and promotions.
Hulten and Vanyushyn (2011)	Impulsive buyers give more attention to the in-store displays and combo offers.
Muruganantham and Bhakat (2013)	Sales promotion is one of the strategies which attract consumers to supermarkets and IB.
Ruswanti (2013)	Discounted prices of 50-70% off the list prices influenced the consumers to shop spontaneously.
Sundstrom et al. (2013)	Consumer's perception of excellent value for money triggers IB. Discount quickly attracts consumers, and it affects the consumers' IB tendency.
Gupta et al. (2009)	When the store is large, the product display and the product prices are critical when the shop is small the product price is the most vital stimulus that can trigger the consumer to buy on impulse.
Mathai and Haridas (2014)	Discount prices do not influence IB.
Nagadeepa et al. (2015)	Sales promotion affects buying decisions of consumers and has a direct impact on their behaviour.
Memon et al. (2019)	Sales promotion has a moderate positive significant relationship with IB in supermarket setting.

2.4.2 Price Discounts

The price discount is a monetary promotion and a temporary reduction in the products' price. Discounts are an essential factor that leads to IB, a product with unexpectedly low price can make shoppers feel that they are spending less than they had initially planned (Ruswanti, 2013; Stern, 1962). According to Iram and Chacharkar (2017, p. 48): "Promotional discount of the product can manipulate the consumer to buy the product. In such a purchase situation, the consumers involve a very minimum thinking process in their mind". This trend has boosted the sales of the product by offering price discounts, and it proves that the consumer will buy more than they expected. Lindblom, Lindblom and Wechtler (2018) showed that price discounts have an impact on IB, not on planned purchases.

In contrast, a recent study done by Mathai and Haridas (2014) found that price discounts did not have any influence on IB. According to Alvarez and Casielles (2005), promotions that show a reduction in the price are claimed to be the most effective strategy that can increase the number of goods purchased by consumers, but it is important to know in which discount level the consumers can be affected. Della Bitta and Monroe (1980) found that consumers' perceptions do not differ significantly between 30%, 40%, and 50% discount levels. Besides, they found significant differences in the consumer's perception of the discount between 10% and 30 to 50% levels. They also mention some managers' beliefs that at least a 15% discount is needed to attract consumers to go for a purchase. Another study showed that the 10 - 40% price discounts are the range mostly used in past research on the price discounts in the consumer-packaged goods categories (Berkowitz & Walton, 1980; Curhan & Kopp, 1986). Within that range, the findings of Uhl and Brown (1971) and Della Bitta and Monroe (1980) suggest that it is reasonable to expect the relationship between the brand's average price and the depth of price discounts to be concave. In fact, if the discount is too small, it may not be noticed, and a massive price reduction like 60% or 70% may not be assimilated to affect the brand's expected price if it is considered exceptional. Janakiraman et al. (2006) argued that adverse effect induced by unexpected price hikes might suppress spending by limiting purchase by consideration of other goods, while positive impact produced by sudden price drops might increase spending by expanding attention of other products. The consumer mental accounting activity concept can also explain the price-induced accounting activity concept by IB according to Janakiraman et al. (2006). One effect of price discounts is that they cause a generalised affective effect on consumers. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed: Hypothesis 1. a: Price discounts positively impact impulse buying.

2.4.3 Buy One Get One Free

"Buy one get one free" is a non-monetary promotional tool that is used by marketers to encourage the consumers to purchase (Qaisar et al., 2018). It is a kind of IB triggers (Hulten & Vanyushyn, 2011, p. 378). Buy one get and get one free may be offered to shoppers at the regular price, thus adding value to the product. Since an additional amount is given free of charge, consumers may be persuaded to buy the product. However, at the same time, they must compare and evaluate the other quantity received concerning any costs.

Ahmed et al. (2015) showed that there was a significant relationship between "buy one get one free" and buying behaviour. It also has been found that "buy one get one free" offers are very useful in encouraging consumers to buy and repurchase the product (Jayaraman et al., 2013; Li, Sun & Wang, 2010; Thomas & Chrystal, 2013) and they influence IB (Kim, Lee & Park, 2016; Nasir & Bal, 2016; Ramanathan & Dhar, 2010; Yi & Yoo, 2011; Yin-Fah, Osman & Foon, 2011; Zeng & Hao, 2015). Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1. b: "Buy one get one free" positively impacts impulse buying.

2.4.4 Free Samples

Free samples are a traditional and useful non-monetary promotional tool mostly used when retailers want to introduce a trial of a new product or new taste launches to their consumers for free (Pawar, Shastri & Raut, 2016) and it has been shown that it leads to increase purchasing (Bawa & Shoemaker, 2004; Schlereth et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2014; Yao et al., 2016).

Research has found that sampling has two effects: the first is the short-term effect, in which the consumer purchases the product immediately after having been offered the samples, and long-term impact, increasing the consumer's cumulative goodwill formation (Heiman et al., 2001). This can lead the consumers to buy out of their shopping list and, in turn, increases their IB (Lammers, 1991; Shukla & Banerjee, 2014).

It also has been found that free samples enhance the perceived quality of the store (Sprott & Shimp, 2004) and have a positive effect on the consumer's attitude towards purchase intention (Chen, Duan & Zhou, 2017; Marks & Kamins, 1988). Ram and Sheth (1989) indicate that product demonstrations help reduce the resistance of consumers to new products by lowering practical and psychological barriers, thus encouraging product trial. However, Gilbert and Jackaria (2002) found that a free sample had no

significant impact on product trial, whereas Pramataris et al. (2001) and Fill (2002) have shown otherwise. Recent research was conducted to investigate the significance of in-store sampling in influencing IB. The study revealed that on the same day of introducing the samples to the consumers in the store, the sales for the product increases, and this means that many consumers tried the product. Also, it was found that approximately 74% of respondents were observed making IB of the product being sampled (Pawar, Shastri & Raut, 2016). Thus, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1. c: Free samples positively impact impulse buying.

2.4.5 Client Card

The client card is another non-monetary promotional tool considered as a type of loyalty programs (Nagadeepa et al., 2015). It has grown fast in the past few years. Recently, it is effortless for retailers to collect consumer data and register them into the store database and give the consumers the client card. Some hypermarkets are using different strategies like an accumulation of points or use the card to get a discount in other stores or for other services. Others may offer an amount of money on the card for the consumers to use it in a limited time by having large purchases from their store, etc. It allows a direct marketing approach also as it enables the marketer to communicate with their consumers in a more personalised way than advertising. Hence, many retailers try to benefit from keeping their actual consumers loyal by making a client card, and it has been proved that it increases sales (Lacey, 2009; Meyer & Waarden, 2008; Osuna, Gonzalez & Capizzani, 2016; Su, Zheng & Sun, 2013). Thus, the consumers with cards are more likely to remain loyal to the retailer, to purchase the products of that store more frequently and in larger quantities, and progressively feel less attracted by promotions from other competitors (Meyer & Waarden, 2008) and cause impulse sales (Nagadeepa et al., 2015).

In contrast, Arunmuhil and Arumugam (2013) showed that the possession of client cards did not influence consumers buying from a particular store and that client card does not prevent them from buying from a different store that may have more promotions. Laroche, Kalamas and Huang (2004) concluded that any loyalty card has a positive effect on brand category consumer choice. In general, consumers value and appreciate the rewards given to them since loyalty programs transmit the feeling to consumers that they are being recognised and valued. Following Thaler (1985), Diamond and Johnson (1990) argue that since it is challenging to integrate non-monetary promotions with the cost of the product, consumers regard these promotions as separate gains which encourages consumers to adopt a more loyal behaviour towards

the retailer (Furinto et al., 2009; Leenheer et al., 2007; Morrisson & Huppertz, 2010; Mimouni-Chaabane & Volle, 2010). Therefore, the decision to buy these promotions only entails evaluating gains. Research also has proven that this type of promotions triggers consumer to buy on impulse (Nagadeepa et al., 2015). Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1. d: Client card positively impacts impulse buying.

2.4.6 Expiration Date-Based Pricing

EDBP is a subcategory of the discount tools based on the expiry date of the product; it is "another new, relatively unknown phenomenon" (Grewal, Roggeveen, Compeau, & Levy, 2012, p. 5). Marketing researchers note the importance of expiration dates for retailing and consumer research, in this case, consumers consider this product characteristic when making purchase and consumption decisions about perishables products on promotion (Harcar & Karakaya, 2005; Tsiros & Heilman, 2005). EDBP is defined "as a pricing tactic in which a retailer charges different prices for the same perishable product, according to their respective expiry dates. Retailers often consider "EDBP an effective revenue management tool that increases demand and reduces waste" (Theotokis, Pramatari & Tsiros, 2012, p. 72).

Research shows support that the short and long-run effects of price promotions are more significant for perishable products than for other types (Nijs, Dekimpe & Steenkamp, 2001). It has been shown that consumers consider the price and the quality of the products as the two core features that control their purchasing behaviour (Wong & Yazdanifard, 2015). Marketing managers depend not only on attracting consumers using in-store promotion techniques, but they also need to know how to frame the discount presented. Current promotion research suggests that framing the cut affects consumers' evaluations of the promotions' value, buy decisions, future purchase intentions, and price expectations (DelVecchio, Krishnan, & Smith, 2007). In the circumstance of EDBP, hypermarkets have two main framing options: as a sales promotion practice that holds a price discount for perishables (promotion frame) or as cause-related marketing (CRM) action that offers consumers with the ability to take part in environmental protection by reducing waste.

However, the use of such promotions is still not seen favourably by most marketing managers as they fear it affects the hypermarkets or products 'reputation, but actually, no study has proved or disproved this (Rahamt et al., 2014). In contrast, studies revealed that consumers are ready to take risks at a discounted price (Yeung & Morris, 2001).

According to a study done by Bijlsma (2016), there exists a relationship between EDBP and purchasing behaviour. EDBP can solely be applied to perishable product categories, which are of increasing importance for Hypermarkets. About 50% of the total income of grocery retailers can be accounted for the sale of perishable products (Thron et al., 2007). Also, perishables are mainly accountable for a retailer's image (Tsiros & Heilman, 2005). Laroche and Kim (2003) stated that price encourages IB in two ways; price reductions and cost savings can persuade an unintended purchase. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed: Hypothesis 1. e: EDBP positively impacts impulse buying.

2.5 Emotions

Defining emotions is not an easy task (Fehr & Russell, 1984). The causes of emotions could be understood from the definition proposed by Bagozzi et al. (1999) who have defined emotions as mental states of readiness that arise from cognitive appraisals of events or one's thoughts.

It was suggested that there exist six basic emotions in the human lifetime; sadness, fear, happiness, disgust, anger and surprise (Ekman et al., 1972). This author later expanded this typology to include other primary emotions as well: pride, excitement, contempt, amusement, embarrassment, shame and satisfaction (Ekman, 1999). Emotions also include love, joy, anger, hate, anxiety, sadness, guilt, pride, fear, boredom, shame, and awe (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Emotions also have been divided into positive and negative emotions. Positive emotions include excitement or pleasure whereas negative emotions can be anxiety, anger or guilt (Mesiranta, 2009; Verhagen & Dolen, 2011; Youn & Faber, 2000).

Emotions have been known to be linked to several aspects: the cognition; physiology which is related to heart rate and hormones; expressions which are related to facial expressions; motivation which is related to goals and drives, and, finally, feelings which refers to the conscious awareness of being in an emotional state (Kaklauskas et al., 2011; Peperkorn, Diemer & Muhlberger, 2015; Zachar, 2014). According to Rick (2008), although typical economic models have mostly disregarded emotions, it has acknowledged significant consideration in other disciplines.

Researchers have tried to classify emotions into controllable groups, and some researchers have suggested that three basic dimensions; pleasure, arousal, and dominance (PAD) underlie all emotions (Hawkins & Motherbaugh, 2010; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). This approach began with the Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) theory which holds that PAD are the emotional dimensions that define people's emotions. Emotional responses shape the impact of the circumstances of actions. Therefore, any events

primarily create an emotional reaction that leads to a behavioural response. They suggested that any physical environment will generate an emotional response in the consumer that can be categorised regarding the PAD dimensions. The first one, pleasure-displeasure, is the degree to which the consumer feels pleased, kind, content, or gratified in the situation ranging from extreme pain or unhappiness to extreme happiness. Adjectives such as happy-unhappy, pleased-annoyed, and satisfied-unsatisfied are used to define a person's level of pleasure. The arousal-non-arousal refers to whether the consumer feels aware or energetic in the situation. Arousal is conceived as a mental activity describing the state of feeling along a dimension ranging from sleep to nervous excitement and is linked to adjectives such as stimulated-relaxed, excited-calm, and wide awake-sleepy. The dominance-submissiveness refers to the degree to which the consumer feels free to act in the situation and is related to feelings of control and the extent to which an individual feels restricted in his behaviour. The model of Mehrabian-Russell predicts that in general retailing terms, consumers will enjoy spending more money and time in stores where they feel desirable, and a moderate to a high degree of arousal.

Emotions seem to play a very important role in consumer behaviour, as emotions are a situational variable that has been found to be a critical purchasing behaviour influence (Baumeister et al., 1994; Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). A higher excitement will encourage spending behaviour (Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn, & Nesdale, 1994). Many consumer decisions do not only focus on product characteristics but on the emotions related to buying or using the product or with the situation in which the product is purchased or used.

2.5.1 Emotions and Impulse Buying

Emotions show a very significant part in a full range of marketing situations including products, advertising, and retailing. Emotions show a vital role in IB table 2.6 shows significant contributions on both constructs. Mathai and Haridas (2014) stated that there is a need to take into consideration the emotional aspect of consumers during IB.

Youn and Faber (2000) found that emotions showed a significant effect on the active and reactive purchasing behaviour and pointed out that even though conceptually distinct, affective, or emotional processes, which create impulsivity, and cognitive or rational procedures which enable self-control, were not independent. Researchers proposed that IB takes place when wishes are strong enough to dominate limits (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991; Youn & Faber, 2000).

When Piron proposed the definition of IB (1991, p. 510), he mentioned that there exist four criteria for this behaviour: unplanned purchase, exposure to a stimulus, on-the-spot decision, and emotional and cognitive reactions. In addition, the idea of an emotional and cognitive response coincides with Rook (1987) claiming that IB may stimulate emotional conflict and is hedonically complicated. Rook (1987), also explored the concept of IB behaviour as a hedonic experience rested wholly on consumer emotions, he found the following responses in the IB dimension: a sudden desire to purchase, a feeling of weakness, a sense of right or wrong, buying in response to moods and feeling guilty or happy. In addition, he showed that emotions have a secure connection to IB which helps to explain how consumers feel and justify their IB. The effects of mood and emotions on IB have been studied by Rook and Hoch (1985) who proposed that "psychological disequilibrium" leads to IB and they pointed out that consumers differed in their impulsive tendencies, considering the psychological processes to be the key to understand and interpret IB.

In other words, when the consumer is buying a product, there may be an array of emotions, ranging from upset to happy, guilty or excitement. This was also stated by Jeffrey and Hodge (2007), who pointed out that once entering a store there may be a product that instantly catches the eye, without no pre-purchase thought about it. In this case, some emotional or cognitive feeling about this product is evoked, and very quickly and spontaneously this product is bought. Research on IB (e.g. Verplanken et al., 2005) suggests that people engage in quick buying mostly due to affective reasons.

Hirschman (1992) found that the various stimuli which are self-generated such as consumer's opinions and emotions are also in control of IB. It has been suggested that IB is related to sensory stimulation, and hedonic motivation (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998) that is driven by the achievement of higher order needs loosely grouped around Maslow's hierarchy of needs, in order to satisfy the top needs it always led to different forms of IB (Hausman, 2000). Sharma et al. (2010) categorised IB as hedonic behaviour that is linked to emotions and psychosocial motivations as some consumers seem to be more emotional than others (Bagozzi, Gopinath & Nyer, 1999). It has also been found that emotional intelligence has greater credibility to determining IB (Sofi & Najar, 2018) and that emotion in general influence IB (Silvera et al., 2008). Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed: Hypothesis 2: Emotions positively impact impulse buying.

Table 2.6

Emotions and Impulse Buying

Author (Year)	Contribution
Mehrabian and Russell (1974)	The emotional statuses of consumers were critical factors in their purchasing behaviour.
Donovan and Rossiter (1982)	Supported the Mehrabian-Russell model in a retailing context by studying the relationship between emotional statuses and behavioural aim. They found that desire related to the possibility of overspending in the shopping environment.
Weinberg and Gottwald (1982)	Impulse buyers showed superior emotions of pleasure, passion, amusement, and happiness when compared to planned buyers.
Rook and Hoch (1985)	Conceptualisations of IB rested on the consumer's psychological and emotional reactions.
Rook (1987)	IB takes place when a buyer feels an un-controlling motivation that goes into a desire to buy goods or services instantly. He defined it as an unplanned purchase which happens when a consumer experiences a positive effect when exposed to a stimulus.
Piron (1991)	All purchases, planned, unplanned or made on impulse can be experiential (i.e., accompanied by emotional and cognitive reactions).
Hausman (2000)	Shopping may boost emotions like feelings uplifted or energised.
Youn and Faber (2000)	Both negative and positive emotions are motives for impulse.
Verplanken and Herabadi (2001)	Cognitive aspects such as deliberation and lack of planning, affective elements such as pleasure, excitement, lack of control, and the probable regret influence IB.
Verplanken et al. (2005)	Negative, not positive affect is a driving force behind chronic IB. The IB could further result in curing the negative state of mind.
Silvera et al. (2008)	Emotions influence IB.
Chang et al. (2011)	Consumers' positive emotional responses to the retail environment increase IB.
Amos et al. (2014)	Emotional influences both positive and negative affect influence IB.
Sofi and Najar (2018)	Emotional Intelligence/Stability has more significant reliability in influencing IB tendencies.
Sundström et al. (2019)	Boredom affects online IB for fashion.
Ahmad et al. (2019)	Positive mood significantly affects IB.

Isen (1984) proposed that emotions can be divided into two dimensions, negative and positive. Literature shows contradicting perspectives regarding the question of which types of emotions have more influence on IB. Amos et al. (2014) indicated that negative emotions have little effect on IB. In contrast, according to consumer behaviour theories, emotionally upset people may be more likely to have a smaller amount of self-control in the hope that the act of purchasing will make them feel better. This conclusion fits well with observations by Mick and DeMoss (1990; Mick, 1996) that people sometimes give themselves gifts to make themselves feel better, and they do this mainly when they consciously think to do so. Also, Sharma et al. (2010) have proposed that consumers may be naturally motivated to involve in IB to encourage themselves to change the pace of life or to relieve boredom through sensory and cognitive stimulation.

Thus, in the position when the consumer is worried between saving money or spending it for the aim of feeling good, emotional distress may shift the balance in favour of making the purchase (Baumeister et al., 1994). Sneath et al. (2009) have claimed that IB can also be encouraged because of consumer's sadness and trying to improve their mood or consumers who need to outflow from negative psychological perceptions like low self-esteem, negative emotions, or moods. (Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001). Sundström, Hjelm-Lidholm and Radon (2019) show that boredom affects online IB for fashion, as the feelings of boredom are multi-dimensional in terms of monotony and frustration, and IB can be a remedy for those emotions. Negative emotions are an important activator as they put the consumer in the position of trying to escape the anger, boredom and sadness to reach pleasure through a spending activity. It was found that consumers were also likely to IB during negative mood states, such as sadness, to improve their mood and that negative affect states have a more significant influence on IB (Rook & Gardner, 1993). According to a study done by Sundstrom et al. (2013), consumers do not agree that IB is something negative, but a method to reach fast motivation in a bored state of mind. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2. a: Negative emotions positively impact impulse buying.

Youn and Faber (2000) also suggested that both negative and positive emotions motive IB. Positive emotions are well-defined as effects and moods, which figure out the intensity of consumer decision-making (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Emotions are not necessarily accompanied by cognitive thought (Ruth, Brunel & Otnes, 2002), the types of ideas and our ability to reason vary with the nature and degree of

emotion (Babin, Boles & Darden, 1995). Positive affect 's influence in IB is more robust than negative affect's influence (Amos et al., 2014; Beatty & Ferrell, 1998). Earlier studies showed that respondents only browsed when happy and that positive mood significantly affects IB (Ahmad et al., 2019; Chih & Hsi-Jui, 2012; Piron, 1991). Consumers who are in positive emotional states are inclined to experience less decision complexity and shorter decision times (Isen, 1984), are more willing to spend more time and money in the store and are more likely to make impulsive purchases (Chang et al., 2011; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). Weinberg and Gottwald (1982) initially recognised that impulse buyers showed better feelings of amusement, delight, enthusiasm, and joy. Also, Amos et al. (2014) stress the need for more research to investigate and validate this distinction. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2. b: Positive emotions positively impact impulse buying.

In summary, most of the differences may be since, as opposed to IB, planned purchasers take the decisions to buy before being at the point-of-purchase. IB characterised by a sudden and desire to purchase with the feeling of helplessness that are generated by the emotional reactions experienced during the decision-making process in the store (Rook, 1987; Rook & Hock, 1985).

2.6 The Theory of Cognitive Dissonance

The theory of cognitive dissonance was firstly developed by Leon Festinger (1957). Aronson (1969) called it one of social psychology's most significant theories. Cognitive dissonance describes the feeling of worry that comes from having two conflicting opinions. When there is a disagreement between beliefs and actions, something must be changed to eliminate or reduce the dissonance (Festinger, 1957).

According to Loudon and Della Bitta (2002), cognitive dissonance can arise in three ways: first, any logical inconsistency can generate cognitive dissonance; second, dissonance can be created when a consumer understands a disagreement between his attitude and his behaviour or between two of his actions (Cooper & Stone, 2000); third, cognitive dissonance can happen once a powerfully thought belief is disconfirmed.

In consumer behaviour, consumers have a habit of seeking consistency in their beliefs and behaviours; they usually evaluate the outcome of their decisions in the post-purchase stage; they may either feel satisfaction, dissatisfaction or cognitive dissonance and this happens when the consumer asks himself/herself whether he/she took the right decision.

2.6.1 Cognitive Dissonance and Impulse Buying

Marketing scholars are aware that impulse purchases may have negative outcomes. One of the known negative effects is cognitive dissonance, and its influence on consumer behaviour has been a section of several significant studies (Cooper & Stone, 2000; Cummings & Venkatesan, 1976; Korgaonkar & Moschis, 1982; Loudon & Della Bitta, 2002; Mittal, 1989; Rook & Fisher, 1995; Sweeney, Hausknecht & Soutar, 2000; Venkatraman 2006; Zaichkowsky, 1985).

While it has been found that when a typically non-impulse buyer makes an IB, the cognitive dissonance experienced is significantly higher than when a typical impulse buyer makes such a purchase (George & Yaoyuneyong, 2010), however, Rook (1985) proposed that IB creates more cognitive dissonance than planned purchases (Chih & Hsi-Jui, 2012; Sun & Wo, 2011) as cognitive dissonance usually happens when the decision to purchase is not relevant to the consumer. That is the consumer not invested a significant amount of time in that decision and did not feel free to make a choice. That is, the decision was made on impulse. (Cummings & Venkatesan, 1976; Korgaonkar & Moschis, 1982; Rook & Fisher, 1995).

The impulse to buy is very complicated and may result in some emotional struggle and was significant in predicting cognitive dissonance (Chih & Hsi-Jui, 2012; Diener et al., 1985; Harmon-Jones et al., 2009; Muruganantham & Bhakat, 2013; Rook & Fisher, 1995; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Sun & Wo, 2011; Tinne, 2010). The consumer may have a feeling of regret after making an IB that raises the cognitive pressure between beliefs about pleasure-seeking and beliefs about self-control, and this, in turn, arouses conflicting affective responses. This disappointment is due to the conflicting cognitions / cognitive elements (Rook, 1987). If a cognitive component follows logically from another cognitive feature, then both are said to be consonant with each other. However, those are dissonant to each other if one does not follow logically from others, thereby causing a feeling of “regret” (Festinger, 1957).

The same view is found in a study done by Sweeney, Hausknecht and Soutar (2000), who proposed that once the consumer buys the product, the consumer may feel that the product was not needed and he could have done without buying it (Sweeney et al., 2000). Within the present study, the cognitive dissonance is conceptualised as the consumer ’s recognition that the purchase is inconsistent after the purchase has been made on impulse and feeling a psychological discomfort after taking this purchase decision (Rook and Fisher; 1995).

The power of cognitive dissonance hugely rests on the consumer's behaviours being possessed and the variables triggering it (Harmon-Jones et al., 2009). Some studies have reported that IB could be a lack of reflection (Madhavaram & Laverie, 2004; Muruganantham & Bhakat, 2013; Tinne, 2010). The outcomes of this behaviour cause suffering for consumers as they purchase products beyond their needs or financial limits (Eren, Eroglu & Hacioglu, 2012) and does not only have cognitive elements but emotional elements too specially when they are emotionally attached to the product (Sweeney, Hausknecht & Soutar, 2000) that lead to negative emotions like blame and guilt (Rook, 1987) and unhappiness and anxiety (Zimmerman, 2012). The personal fear of irrationality, negative state of mind, consumer buying behaviours, wish for planned life and subjective-wellbeing have been verified and found to have significant relation with cognitive dissonance (Diener et al., 1985; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). The negative dissonance impulses the consumer to take future behavioural changes to reduce conflict (Harmon-Jones et al., 2009). Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Impulse buying positively impacts cognitive dissonance.

In conclusion to this section, cognitive dissonance has the power to make the consumer not satisfied with the whole purchasing experience. Marketers and scholars argue that it is better to keep existing consumers than to find new ones and in order to retain long term customers, marketing activities usually tend to avoid such marketing strategies which can create dissonance among the consumers after the purchase transaction is being completed (Hasan & Nasreen, 2012). According to the theory of reasoned action, marketers must associate any purchase with a positive post-purchase evaluation to guarantee that consumers will go through the purchase decision several times. Therefore, the primary goal of this research is to explore the experience associated with IB as it is often considered undesirable as a behaviour.

2.7 Research Model and Framework

Based on the previous literature review, a research model is proposed, capturing the previously presented hypotheses. The conceptual model presents the relation of promotions and emotions on consumers IB and cognitive dissonance as an outcome of IB.

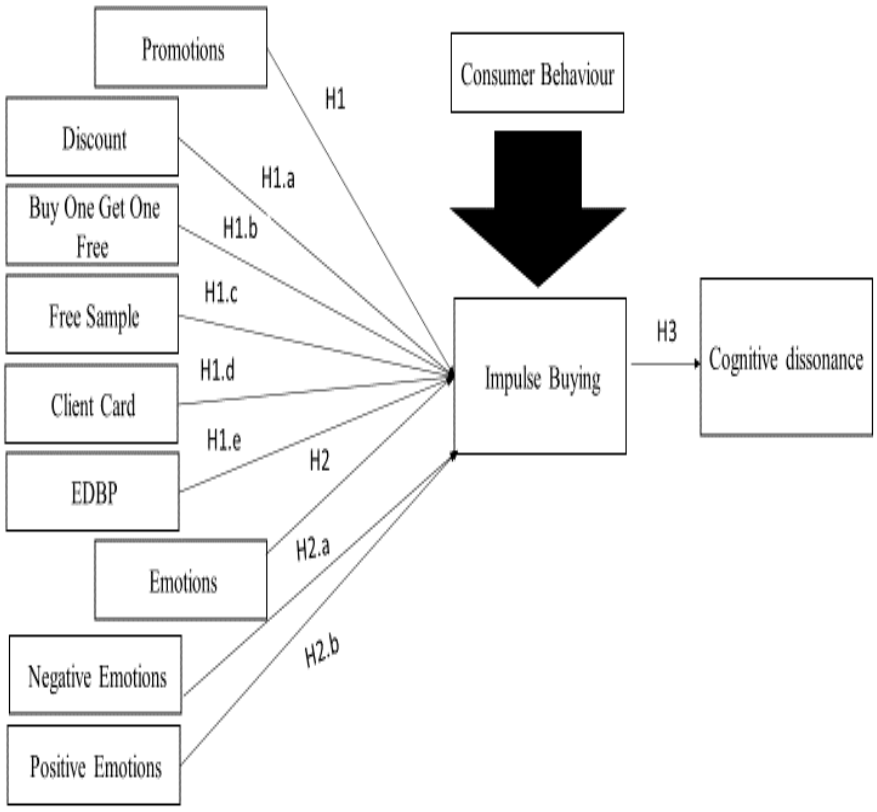

Figure 2.2: Research Model Proposed

Chapter Three - Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In the previous section, the theoretical framework of IB was presented identifying the factors affecting it. Promotions, emotions and cognitive dissonance as an outcome were reviewed, and consequently, the hypotheses were formulated.

This chapter will discuss the research methodology of the study, including the research paradigm, design, data collection method, instrument, population, sample, data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Paradigm

The choice of the philosophical research paradigm is a major question in the field of social sciences as it reflects a set of beliefs about the nature of reality with far-reaching implications for research. Paradigms in consumer studies can be defined as a set of essential expectations that scholars have about what they are researching and how they research it (Kuhn, 1962). A research paradigm is a summary of a whole range of assumptions, research techniques, established results and methodologies (Kuhn, 1962) and refers to mainly ontological and epistemological assumptions and methodology. Ontology refers to the "reality" (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988), epistemology is the connection between that reality and the researcher (Carson et al., 2001), and methodology is the approach used to investigate this reality (Sobh & Perry, 2005).

The traditional approach includes two broad paradigms, the positivist, and the interpretive paradigm (Mai Pham, 2018). In the positivist paradigm, the researcher is seen as objective and disconnected from the objects of research. Positivism refers to a view according to which "knowledge is statistically generalised to a population by statistical analysis of observations about an easily accessible reality" (Sobh & Perry, 2005 p. 1195). It is conceivable to capture 'reality' over the use of research instruments such as experiments and questionnaires. The positivist research aims to offer explanations leading to control and predictability. This assumption leads to one of the main criticisms of this perspective, namely that it assumes that consumers are inactive organisms, and in doing this, it reduces the primacy of consumers in marketing exchanges (Bagozzi, 1980; Runyon & Stewart, 1987). Slife and Williams (1995) criticised the assumptions that the positivists make about methods of obtaining knowledge about consumer behaviour. Overall, the hypothesis associated with this perspective is that consumers are

fundamentally distinct entities and this approach believes that consumer experiences can be broken down and analysed regarding its parts, as reflected in most cognitive and behavioural depictions of the consumer (O'Shaughnessy, 1985).

Interpretivism refers to seeing the social world as culturally derivative and historically situated. Interpretivism is often linked to the work of Weber (1977), who suggested that the social sciences are concerned with understanding reality. Interpretivism research endeavours aim to achieve a better understanding of consumer behaviour with no specific intent to influence consumer processes. Researchers tend to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon and its complexity in its unique context instead of trying to generalise the base of understanding for the whole population (Creswell, 2007). Qualitative methodology is generally related to an interpretive approach which is mostly applied to social sciences (Altheide & Johnson, 1994). This type of research considers that there is an interaction between the investigator and the investigated, so the investigator influences the findings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Unsurprisingly, the two paradigms, positivist and interpretivism, vary in their views on the results derived from consumption and the objectives that underscore consumer research. The consumer experience is researched using various objective analytical techniques such as standardised surveys, experimental techniques, and personality tests (Mostyn, 1977). However, the core criticism of these methods is that they are fundamentally unable to deal with the fruitfulness of the consumer behaviour since, in the way of isolating a single characteristic for detailed analysis; they neglect the complicated and interdependent nature of the system as a whole (Runyon & Stewart, 1987). Braithwaite (1983, p. 19) analyses standardised quantitative methods like questionnaires for being "restrictive in the way respondents can describe and explain themselves".

Consumer behaviour studies can fit in different paradigms (Burell & Morgan, 1979). Having reviewed the literature, the underlying beliefs and enquiry followed in this research is the positivism approach. The outcome of the positivist pursuit is directed towards advancing the overall goals of marketing practice. Therefore, it assumes that a single reality exists; events in the world can be objectively measured; and the causes of behaviour can be found, manipulated, and predicted. From the epistemological point of view, positivism explains and predicts what happens in the social world by searching for regularities and causal relationships. Carson (2001) believed that positivist researchers remain disconnected from the participants of the research by creating a distance which is essential to stay

emotionally neutral to make clear distinctions between reasons and feelings. In the present case, the researcher tries to figure out the relationship between in-store promotions, emotions, cognitive dissonance and impulse buying. Hudson and Ozanne (1988) argued that the goal of positivist researchers is to make time and context-free generalisations and that this is possible as human actions can be explained because of real causes that temporarily precede behaviour and the researcher and his/her research subjects are independent and do not influence each other.

Therefore, the quantitative methodology is generally related to a positivistic approach which is mostly applied in natural sciences (Deshpande, 1983). The assumptions that the investigator investigates the phenomena without influencing it (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). According to Sobh and Perry (2005): "The positivism paradigm underlying most quantitative theory testing will investigate different and more shallow phenomena than the deep structures and mechanisms investigated in realism research. That is, quantitative methods provide answers to different questions than those of qualitative methods" (p. 1206).

In summary, the positivist perspective, therefore, assumes that there is a single real objective for any research regardless of the researcher's belief (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988) and that the world is external. It adopts a quantitative analysis to figure out the relationship between the dependent and independent variable and try to understand the variables of interest. The acceptance of the traditional-positivist approach has proved essential to the creation of applied consumer knowledge and accordingly to the evolution of marketing practice. The positivist perspective takes an efficient approach to the benefits of consumption, and the results of positivist research are directed towards preceding the goals of marketing practice.

3.3 Research Design

The research design is the researcher's overall strategy for finding answers to the research questions guiding the study. There are three main types of research which will be described briefly: exploratory, explanatory and descriptive research (Aaker & Day, 1990; Yin, 1994).

According to Yin (1994), exploratory research is used when the study aims to develop new propositions for future research. According to Saunders et al. (2000), this kind of research is conducted when researchers seek to find out what is happening, to ask questions, and to analyse findings from another perspective. It is undertaken when not much is known about the situation at hand, or no information is available on how similar problems or research issues have been solved in the past. Extensive

interviews with people might have to be undertaken to get a handle on the situation and understand the phenomena.

Explanatory research is researching a problem that is well structured and seeks to determine the effect that a variable has on another (Emory & Cooper, 1991). According to Reynolds (1971), the purpose of explanatory research is to develop a precise theory which will be used to explain empirical generalisations.

While conducting descriptive research, researchers intend to describe the characteristics of a phenomenon or population (Zikmund, 2000). The goal of a descriptive study, hence, is to offer the researcher a profile or to describe related features of the phenomena of interest. Descriptive research involves gathering data that describe events and then organising, tabulating, depicting and describing the data collection (Glass & Hopkins, 1984). The quantitative research methods fall under the broad header of descriptive research.

In this thesis, the typology of study is exploratory research as there is a need to understand the relationship between the variables in the research model.

3.4 Data Collection

During the research process, researchers have to collect data to answer their research question on purpose. Hence a choice concerning the data collection method has to be made. In general, any form of data can be classified into two data sources: secondary and primary data (Emory & Cooper, 1991).

3.4.1 Secondary Data

Secondary data is existent data which can be either from internal or external sources: internal sources including information about consumers, suppliers, competitors and so on available in previous invoices, warranties, brochures, and catalogues. External sources consist of published sources such as printed books, journals articles and data collected by commercial organisations (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005).

The secondary internal data in this research were obtained from the hypermarket management, consumers and analysis of the hypermarket promotions magazine at the time of data collection. The secondary external data was collected from previous researches, published articles and books.

3.4.2 Primary Data

Primary data are original information collected by researchers primarily for the research problem at hand. It can be collected using different methods such as experiment, observation and communication including surveys and interviews (Emory & Cooper, 1991; Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005). The primary data can be more consistent and homogenous with the research objectives due to the fact that they are collected by researchers for a particular project at hand. On the other side, obtaining primary data may take a long time and can be challenging to find and access consumers who are willing to cooperate, as answering questions is not an easy task (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005).

All the primary data used in this research were collected from consumers. The primary data collection method used for this thesis is a questionnaire which was distributed to consumers after they had finished their shopping trip at the hypermarket.

3.4.3 Measurement Scales

The questionnaire was designed to collect information from the respondents specifically about consumers' emotions, knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs regarding IB.

To develop the questionnaire, we have searched for validated scales in the literature for all the constructs of interest. Below, we report all the scales found in the literature for operationalising each concept and the reasons for our choice.

A) Impulse Buying

IB it is the degree in which an individual makes unplanned immediate and unreflective purchases (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Rook & Fisher, 1995). Many scales for measuring IB have been found in the literature. Even though IB has been treated as a situational variable, it was also studied in the consumer literature as a trait-based individual difference (Kacen & Lee, 2002).

Initial attempts to measure IB considered it a one-dimensional trait (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998), and later on, a two-dimensional outlook was developed, and a second dimension was also explored (Puri, 1996; Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001; Youn & Faber, 2002). The most detailed approach in this regard was the scale developed Verplanken and Herabadi (2001) who arrived at a 20-item scale measuring the cognitive aspects (e.g., lack of planning and deliberation) and affective aspects (e.g., feelings of pleasure, excitement, compulsion, lack of control, regret).

Table 3.1 lists all the scales that have been identified in previous studies to capture IB, IB tendency, intentions, buying impulsiveness's and similar concepts well as studies which have used each scale (if any). Studies which have used each scale are also listed under references.

Table 3.1

Previously Validated Scales of Impulse Buying

Author	Items	References
Buying Impulse Scales		
Rook and Fisher (1995)	1. I often buy things spontaneously. 2. "Just do it" describes the way I buy things. 3. I often buy things without thinking. 4. "I see it, I buy it" describes me. 5. "Buy now; think about it later." Describes me. 6. Sometimes I feel like buying things on the spur-of-the-moment. 7. I buy things according to how I feel at the moment. 8. I carefully plan most of my purchases. 9. Sometimes I am a bit reckless about what 1 buy.	Lin and Lin (2005) Kacen and Lee (2002) Ghani and Jan (2010) Taushif and Gupta (2013)
Buying Impulsiveness Scale		
Donthu and Gilliland's (1996)	1. I often make unplanned purchases. 2. I like to purchase things on a whim. 3. I think twice before committing myself. (Reverse-coded) 4. I always stick to my shopping list. (Reverse-coded)	
Impulse Tendency Scale		
Mick (1996)	1. Even when I see something I really like; I do not buy it unless it is a planned purchase. (Reverse-coded) 2. When I go shopping, I buy things I had not intended to purchase. 3. I avoid buying things that are not on my shopping list. (Reverse-coded) 4. It is fun to buy, spontaneously. 5. I do not buy until I can make sure I am getting a real bargain. (Reverse-coded) 6. When I see something new that really interests me, I buy it	

Author	Items	References
	right away just to see what it is like. 7. I buy some things without hesitation if I like them when I first see them. 8. When I see something new, I really want, I would purchase it immediately, even if I had not planned to buy it. 9. I am a person who makes unplanned purchases. 10. When I see something that really interests me, I buy it without considering the consequences.	
Consumer Impulsiveness Scale		
Puri (1996)	1. Self-controlled (Reverse-coded) 2. Farsighted (Reverse-coded) 3. Responsible (Reverse-coded) 4. Restrained (Reverse-coded) 5. Rational (Reverse-coded) 6. Methodical (Reverse-coded) 7. A planner (Reverse-coded) The adjectives for the hedonic subscale are as follows: 1. Impulsive 2. Careless 3. Extravagant 4. Easily tempted 5. Enjoy spending	
Impulse Buying Tendency Scale		
Weun et al. (1997)	1. When I go shopping, I buy things I had not intended to purchase. 2. I am a person who makes unplanned purchases. 3. When I see something that really interests me, I buy it without considering the consequences. 4. It is fun to buy spontaneously. 5. I avoid buying things that are not on my shopping list. (Reverse-coded)	
Impulse Buying Intention		
Arnold and Reynolds (2003)	1. When I am in a down mood; I go shopping to make me feel better.	

Author	Items	References
	2. For the most part, I tend to shop on impulse when there are sales.	
Urge to Buy on Impulse		
Beatty and Ferrell (1998)	1. I experienced many sudden urges to buy unplanned items. 2. I was tempted to buy many items that were not on my list. 3. I experienced no sudden urges to buy unplanned items.	
Impulse Buying Tendency		
Weun, Jones, and Beatty (1998)	1. I avoid buying things that are not on my shopping list. 2. When I go shopping, I buy things that I had not intended buying. 3. I am a person who makes unplanned purchases. 4. When I see something that really interests me, I buy it without considering the consequences. 5. It is fun to buy spontaneously.	
The Impulse Buying Tendency Scale-Cognitive items		
Verplanken and Herabadi (2001)	1. I usually think carefully before I buy something. (Reverse-coded) 2. I usually only buy things that I intend to buy. (Reverse-coded) 3. If I buy something; I usually do that spontaneously. 4. Most of my purchases are planned in advance. (Reverse-coded) 5. I only buy things that I really need. 6. It is not my style to just buy things. 7. I like to compare different brands before I buy one. 8. Before I buy something, I always carefully consider whether I need it. (Reverse-coded) 9. I am used to buying things ´on the spot´. 10. I often buy things without thinking.	Herabadi (2003) Verplanken et al. (2005) Herabadi, Verplanken, and van Knippenberg (2009) Dincer (2010) Badgaiyan, Verma and Dixit (2016) Sofi and Najar (2018)
The Impulse Buying Tendency Scale Affective items		
Verplanken and Herabadi (2001)	1. It is a struggle to leave nice things I see in a shop. 2. I sometimes cannot suppress the feeling of wanting things I see in shops. 3. I sometimes feel guilty after having bought something	Herabadi (2003) Verplanken et al. (2005) Herabadi,

Author	Items	References
	4. I am not the kind of person who ´falls in love at first sight´ with things I see in shops. (Reverse-coded) 5. I can become very excited if I see something I would like to buy. 6. I always see something nice whenever I pass by shops. 7. I find it difficult to pass up a bargain. 8. If I see something new; I want to buy it. 9. I am a bit reckless in buying things. 10. I sometimes buy things because I like buying things, rather than because I need them.	Verplanken and van Knippenberg (2009) Dincer (2010) Badgaiyan, Verma, and Dixit (2016) Sofi and Najar (2018)
Impulsive Buying Tendency Scale		
Badgaiyan, Verma and Dixit (2016)	Cognitive factor 1. Most of my purchases are planned in advance. (Reverse-coded) 2. Before I buy something, I always carefully consider whether I need it. (Reverse-coded) 3. I carefully plan most of my purchases. (Reverse-coded) 4. I often buy without thinking. Affective factor 1. I sometimes buy things because I like buying things, rather than because I need them. 2. I buy what I like without thinking about the consequences. 3. I buy products and services according to how I feel at that moment. 4. It is fun to buy spontaneously.	
Unplanned Purchase Scale		
Lee and Yi (2008)	"Did you purchase the product which you did not plan?" yes and no.	Mishra, Sinha, and Koul (2014)
Unplanned Purchase Scale		
Tinne (2011)	Write down the products name which you bought today as an unplanned purchase.	

The Verplanken and Herabadi (2011) scale has been chosen to measure IB Tendency. This scale assesses two facets, namely cognitive aspects of IB (e.g. lack of planning and deliberation) as well as affective elements of IB (e.g., feeling of pleasure, excitement, compulsion, lack of control and regret). This scale seems to cover the essence of IB (Badgaiyan, Verma & Dixit, 2016; Dincer, 2010; Pradipto, Winata, Murti & Azizah, 2016; Šeinauskienė Maščinskienė& Jucaitytė 2015; Sofi & Najar, 2018). This instrument has been tested and validated in some previous studies in The Netherlands (Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001), Indonesia (Herabadi, 2003) and Norway (Verplanken et al., 2005). The internal reliability of the scale was excellent; according to the last study of the authors in 2009, the cognitive component showed an alpha of .90 and the affective aspects of IB showed an alpha of .91.

B) Promotions

Through the review of the literature, a wide range of scales measuring promotions were identified. Tables 3.2 and 3.3 sum up the different scales, including the types of promotions, the motivations for promotions and EDBP.

Table 3.2

Previously Validated Scales of Promotions

Author	Items	References
Monetary and Non-monetary Promotions		
Mendez et al. (2015)	The purchase of my favourite product is influenced by 1. Coupons 2. Discounts 3. Store special monetary savings among monetary promotions 4. Free prize 5. Free sample 6. A chance to win a free vacation among nonmonetary promotions.	
Promotional Approach		
Janakiraman et al. (2006)	1. I buy clothing if I can get a free product. 2. Free product can be the reason for me to buy clothing impulse. 3. I buy clothing in shops with discount price. 4. If I see the discount price; I tend to buy impulse.	
Promotions and Impulse Buying Behaviour Scale		

Author	Items	References
Tinne (2011)	1. Discount price of a product affects unplanned buying behaviour. 2. Various schemes (like buy one get one free) affect your buying behaviour positively. 3. Various promotional activities motivate you to buy products. 4. Any offer organised by superstores affects your buying behaviour. 5. Display of product in store attracts your attention. 6. The behaviour of salesperson affects your buying behaviour. 7. The popularity of products increases recall value and help in unplanned buying. 8. Comments of reference group influence your buying behaviour. 9. Your income status affects unplanned buying behaviour. 10. Requirements of product in festival seasons prompt you to buy.	
Promotional Scale		
Amara and Kchaou (2014)	1. A promotional purchase allows me to make significant gains. 2. I like to buy under promotion. 3. A promotional purchase allows for making significant savings. 4. The promotion allows me to buy a premium product at the same price. 5. A promotional purchase helps me to deepen my thoughts on new products. 6. A promotional purchase allows me to try new products. 7. The promotion facilitates my decision. 8. The promotion allows me to shop quickly. 9. Promotion can guide my choices of a product category. 10. The promotion allows me to buy the best brand. 11. I would be happy to take advantage of this offer. 12. A promotional purchase is pleasant.	

Author	Items	References
	13. It is an offer I would advise for my entourage. 14. A promotional purchase gives me a feeling of being an accomplished consumer.	
The influence of Promotional Signage		
Beatty and Ferrell (1998)	1. If I see an interesting promotional offer (reduced price, and sales promotion) on in-store signs, I tend to buy. 2. Sale/clearance signs entice me to look through the clothing. 3. When I see a special promotion sign, I go to look at that clothing. 4. I am more likely to make an unintended purchase if the clothing has a sale or clearance sign.	Youn and Faber, (2000) (1) Han (1987); Weun, Jones, and Betty (1997); Youn and Faber, (2000); Rook and Hoch (1985) (4) Kim (2003) (2-3) Mehta and Chugan (2013) Sahni et al. (2014)

Table 3.3

Previously validates scales of Expiration Date-based Pricing

Author	Items	Reference
Holmkvist (2011)	1. Do you look at the best-before date when you shop? 2. Do you buy a product with a short best-before date?	
Tsiros and Heilman (2005)	1. How likely is it that the quality of the following product gets worse as the product approaches its expiration date? 2. How likely is it that the following product will not meet your expectations as it approaches its expiration date? 3. How likely is it that consuming a spoiled product of the following grocery item may lead to health risk? 4. How likely are you to think less of yourself as an experienced shopper if you were to buy the following grocery item and find it did not meet your standards of quality? 5. How likely would guests in your home be to think less of you for serving them a poor-quality product? 6. How likely would you be to feel financial angst from paying for the following product and then having it not perform up to its expectation?	

The Monetary and non-monetary promotions scale by Mendez et al. (2015) has been adopted to measure the five types of promotions considered in this research. In addition, the influence of promotional signage by Beatty and Ferrell (1998) was chosen to measure promotions in general. The scales were chosen due to their validity, shortness, generalizability and ease of translation to Arabic and suitability for the Egyptian culture.

C) Emotions

The researcher explores some of the critical emotions' scales; negative and positive that has been found in the literature related to buying behaviour.

Table 3.4

Previously Validated Scales on Emotions

Author	Items	References
Emotions - Positive Affect		
Watson, et al. (1988)	1. I felt excited on this shopping trip. 2. I felt enthusiastic while shopping today. 3. I felt happy during this shopping trip.	
Emotions - Negative Affect		
Watson, et al. (1988)	1. I felt bored on this shopping trip. 2. I felt lethargic while shopping today. 3. I felt upset during this shopping trip.	
Emotions		
Youn and Faber (2000) (1-3) Rook and Hoch (1985) (4) Beatty and Ferrell (1998) (5)	1-I go shopping to change my mood. 2. I feel a sense of excitement when I make an impulse purchase. 3. After I make an impulse purchase, I feel regret. 4. I have difficulty controlling my urge to buy when I see a good offer. 5. When I see a good deal, I tend to buy more than that I intended to buy.	Han (1987) Weun, Jones, and Beatty (1997) Youn (2000) (5) Mehta and Chugan (2013)
Shopping Enjoyment Tendency		

Author	Items	References
Sproles and Kendall (1986)	1. Shopping is one of my favourite activities. 2. I find shopping an enjoyable experience. 3. Shopping in stores is a waste of time.	

Based on the nature of our topic, two items from the positive emotions (happiness and excitement) and two items from the negative emotions' scales (boredom and upsetting) by Watson et al. (1988) were adopted. Also, an item has been adopted from Youn and Faber (2000) (Go shopping to change the mood) as it has been seen from the literature review that these are the most related emotions to IB.

D) Cognitive Dissonance

Through the literature review, some scales for measuring cognitive dissonance have been found and listed below.

Table 3.5

Previously Validated Scales of Cognitive Dissonance

Author	Items	References
The ease of evaluating the quality, emotions, social of the product and dissonance		
Arnthorsson, Berry, and Urbany (1991)	1. This product has an acceptable standard of quality. 2. This product has a high standard of workmanship. Emotional Examples: 1. This product is one that I enjoy. 2. This product makes me feel good. Social Examples: 1. This product helps me to feel acceptable. 2. This product makes a good impression on other people. The difficulty of evaluating quality: 1. I had considerable difficulty in evaluating the quality of this product.	
Emotional Dissonance Dimension		
Sweeney, Hausknecht, and Soutar (2000)	After I bought this product: 1. I was in despair. 2. I resented it. 3. I felt disappointed with myself.	Soutar and Sweeney (2003) Walsh, Kilian, and Buxel (2008)

Author	Items	References
	4. I felt scared. 5. I felt hollow. 6. I felt angry. 7. I felt uneasy. 8. I felt I would let myself down. 9. I felt annoyed. 10. I felt frustrated. 11. I was in pain. 12. I felt depressed. 13. I felt furious with myself. 14. I felt sick. 15. I was in agony. The wisdom of purchase Dissonance dimension (4 items) 16. I wonder if I really need this product. 17. I wonder whether I should have bought anything at all. 18. I wonder if I have made the right choice. 19. I wonder if I have done the right thing in buying this product. Concern over deal Dissonance dimension (4 items) 20. After I bought this product, I wondered if I had been fooled. 21. After I bought this product, I wondered if they had spun me a line. 22. After I bought this product, I wondered whether there was something wrong with the deal I got.	Salzberger and Koller (2010) Graff, Sophonthummapharn and Parida (2012)

The twenty-two items scale for Emotional Dissonance Dimension by Sweeney, Hausknecht and Soutar (2000) including fifteen items for emotional dissonance, four items for the wisdom of purchase and three items for concern over the deal, was the most used by researchers. We have adopted the wisdom of purchase items from Sweeney et al., (2000) for measuring cognitive dissonance due to the fact that it is a parsimonious scale which suits the context of our research.

3.4.4 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire, using the previously validated scales mentioned before, consisted of seven major sections (see Appendix B – Questionnaire).

Firstly, an introduction about the topic of the research is included to present consumers the purpose of the research followed by a box for consumers to confirm their agreement to participate in the study and an empty box for respondents contact (in case they would like to know the result of the study). Table 3.6 presents the organisation of the questionnaire.

Table 3.6

Questionnaire Content

Section	Content
First Section (A)	Promotional Types
Second Section (B)	Impulse Buying Tendency
Third Section (C)	In-Store Promotional Signage
Fifth Section (D)	Emotions
Sixth Section (E)	Cognitive Dissonance
Seventh Section (F)	Open Questions
Eighth Section (G)	Demographic Questions

A five-point Likert scale from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5) was used to measure each variable (section B–E).

Section F includes some open questions. Singer and Couper (2017) emphasised the importance of the open-ended questions as "Opening up the standardized survey in this way can be of benefit both to respondents (giving them a greater sense of engagement in the interaction) and to researchers (giving us more richly textured data on the topics we are studying and providing methodological insights into the process itself.)" (p. 128). Thus, this section includes a question concerning the last product bought unplanned followed by a question for the reasons of buying it and finally question about the satisfaction after the purchase.

3.4.5 Translating the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was based on the previously validated scales reviewed, as applying existing scales will save time and resources and a questionnaire that measures the construct of interest may not be readily available, in the language required for the targeted respondents. Importing a scale to be used in another language often requires considerable effort by researchers to maintain the quality of the translation (Brislin, 1970; Sechrest, Fay & Zaidi, 1972). However, using previously validated scales can best guarantee the reliability and validity of research and allows the research can be linked to all other studies that have used the same instrument. At the same time, developing a new scale involves complex, and systematic procedures that require theoretical, methodological care and have to be carried out in different necessary steps (Clark & Watson, 1995; DeVellis, 2003; Nunnally, 1967).

As a result, the researcher needed to translate the existing scales into the language of the respondents. After the scales were chosen and the questionnaire was reviewed and finalised in English, it was translated into Arabic.

There are a couple of concerns to address when translating. In particular, a direct translation of the questionnaire from one language to another does not assure content similarity of the translated scale (Brislin, 1970; Sechrest & Fay, 1972). In translating, it is essential to consider the difference between technical and conceptual equivalence, cultural skills and linguistic relevance. Firstly, technical equivalence refers to equivalence in grammar, while conceptual equivalence discusses the absence of differences in meaning and content between two versions of the questionnaire. Consequently, different terms may have a different meaning in different cultures, demanding an assessment of conceptual equivalence in the translation of the questionnaire (Marin & Marin, 1991). Secondly, cultural skills reflect the cultural assumptions, norms, values, and expectations of the target population (Marin & Marin, 1991). Thirdly, linguistic relevance refers to the language readability and understanding of the translated questionnaire.

No single technique can ensure adequately the equivalence of a questionnaire, and only a multi-strategy approach can produce an adequate translation and address the different types of equivalence. Researchers nowadays agree that it is no longer acceptable to use a direct-translation technique or just a one-way translation for translating survey instruments. Therefore, the most convenient approach to translation is to use a variety of techniques (Bullinger et al., 1998; Marin & Marin, 1991). Therefore, the

process of translating the questionnaire included forward-translation, back-translation, independent review, and review by the committee and pilot study.

Forward-translation requires translators that have a familiarity with the target population and with data collection and are experienced in translating similar survey instruments, preferably native speakers of the target language. So firstly, the researcher did the translation and then got the help from a fellow researcher. Before starting the translation, the translator was briefly informed of the objectives of the study. In this stage, only some modifications for some words in the Arabic version were required.

Then, after translating the questionnaire into Arabic, it went through a process of back translation to translate it back to English, to ensure the accuracy and validation of the translation. In this process, the translated questionnaire was given to two translators, native English speakers, who were instructed to translate the questionnaire back into English. Back-translation is a well-known method to maintain equivalence between the original and the translated versions (Behling & Law, 2000). It was essential that those translators did not have any access to the original English version of the questionnaire and that they did not consult with the first translators (Guillemin, Bombardier, & Beaton, 1993). According to previous researchers, any misunderstandings or unclear wording in the initial translations may be revealed in the back-translation (Jones et al., 2001; McDermott & Palchanes, 1992).

The independent review and comparison between the back and the forward translation is the third step in which the back-translated version of the questionnaire and the original ones were given to two bilingual reviewers to identify any discrepancies in the meaning or the equivalence. No differences nor problems were found during the review process. The independent review confirmed the neutralising of the cultural, social, and ethnic bias, and confirmed the ease of reading and the comprehension for respondents.

Finally, the Arabic version of the survey instruments was confirmed after doing a pre-testing (pilot study).

3.4.6 Pre-Testing

A pilot study is a small-scale test of what the study will be, including all activities that will go into the final survey. Also, the pre-testing is usually done to assess the adequacy of the questionnaire's structure and understanding by respondents. In this study, a pre-testing with six-persons was carried out to ensure the ease and understanding of the questionnaire. The English version was applied first to group of

six respondents fluent in both languages followed by the Arabic one, and then the answers of the two versions were compared to see if both surveys 'answers reflect the same meanings.

The primary questions that have been asked in the pilot study were:

1-Does the questionnaire has a logical sequence?

2-Do you understand all questions?

3-Do you feel any difference between the English copy and the Arabic copy?

The pilot study attested that the scale was adequate to the local environment and ensured that the language integrity of the scales. The questionnaire took between ten to fifteen minutes to be completed. The only feedback was about the length of the questionnaire and the structure related to the organisation and the sequence of questions. No deceptive problems were identified during the completion of the surveys, except that some Arabic IB terms were not well known, so an explanation was needed from the researcher.

The comments from the pilot study were taken into consideration. Concerning the length, the questionnaire must cover the main items to measure the construct of interest but cannot be so long to avoid respondents losing motivation in finishing it (Schultz & Whitney, 2005). This comment was solved by doing the mall intercept, allowing to explain the measurement briefly for respondents to make it clear and shorter. The order of questions was also slightly changed, the open-ended questions according to the comments were placed before the demographic data, not at the end of the questionnaire.

3.5 Population and Sampling

The target population in this research are consumers who purchase groceries from the hypermarket and had just finished their shopping trip, including males, females, working, non-working, educated, not-educated and any age group Egyptian consumers. Selecting the subpopulation representing the characteristics of the total population for research purposes is known as sampling. Sampling can be done via different methods under the umbrella of probability and non-probability sampling. Depending on the type of study, a probability or a non-probability approach can be chosen. A non-probability sample is the one that "has not been selected using a random selection method" (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005, p. 147), which means that the likelihood to be selected of some units of the population does not give all the individuals in the population equal chances of being selected. On the other hand, a probability sample is

described as one that has been picked up randomly so that each unit in the population has an equal chance to be selected (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005).

In this research, "a mall intercept is a type of convenience sampling, i.e., potential respondents are not necessarily selected at random and may therefore not be representative of the target population" (Rice & Hancock, 2005, p. 3). Thus, sampling is done through a convenience sampling method which comes under non-probability sampling. In this technique, a sample which is convenient to access is chosen. However, this method was considered the adequate for identifying respondents in this case, the hypermarket' consumers who just completed their shopping trip, who are regular purchasers from the chosen hypermarket and shopped on the weekend as the chance to be exposed to more promotional offers were higher. Consequently, there was no sampling frame from which a sample could be drawn randomly to ensure that every consumer had an equal chance of being included in the sample.

Questionnaires were distributed to consumers who had finished their shopping so that they could recall any unplanned purchase they had just made. It was decided to choose the 5th consumer meeting the eligibility criteria; completing their shopping trip. Following the mall intercept method described below, 310 consumers answered the questionnaire after leaving the cashier's zone of the hypermarket, 265 of which were valid, and 45 were not valid due to incomplete responses from the respondents.

3.6 The Mall Intercept

A mall intercept is a technique used of data collection "In which an interviewer at a shopping mall intercepts a sample of those passing by to ask if they would be willing to participate in a brief research study" (Rice & Hancock, 2005, p. 2). Passersby who accept to participate are either interviewed on the spot or taken to an interviewing facility (Smith & Albaum, 2012). The mall is a brief dialogue between the interviewer and the participant. According to Smith and Albaum (2012), intercepts have the following advantages: they offer an opportunity to obtain an immediate response and potentially provide more depth of response than non-face-to-face interviews. "Using the intercept, interviewing takes place where members of the population of interest are doing something related to what is being studied" (Smith & Albaum, 2012, p. 61). Lastly, with specific sampling methods, the intercept procedure may give a better distribution of respondents.

Intercepts have some limitations as well: Respondent may not reflect the general population. Also, consumers who have a limited time may respond carelessly. “The interview time constraint is more severe with intercepts than with other personal interviewing methods” (Smith & Albaum, 2012, p. 61).

This data collection method was chosen as it allows collecting information from the population of interest on site, right after the purchase decision has been made. Thus, the respondents can recall and discuss their purchase by improving the quality of the collected data.

Two people who are working for a professional marketing company with experience on how to talk with consumers were recruited to assist with the collection of data, one female and one male. They were provided with a detailed description of the research objective and were fully prepared to discuss every element in the questionnaire.

Every targeted consumer who was willing to participate got a brief presentation about the research and the aim of this survey and then got the questionnaire.

3.7 Research Setting

The research setting discusses the location where the data were collected.

The criteria that were important for the research in selecting a data collection venue were identifying a hypermarket that is very popular in Egypt and known for running the best promotions techniques in the city, attracting consumers from different areas. Two Egyptian hypermarkets which run a variety of promotional techniques were identified and contacted to obtain permission for data collection. The management of the first hypermarket did not allow collecting data in order not to disturb their consumers. The second one was Hyper One. Hyper One is one of the biggest hypermarket chains in Egypt and was founded in 2005 by the businessman Mohamed El Hawary; it was chosen for the study because it is known for regularly offering different types of promotions. Although Hyper One has only two main branches, the first one is in Sheikh Zayed City, which is a district of 6th of October City in Giza Governorate in Western Cairo and the second one is in 10th of Ramadan city on the Eastern Cairo, it is a very well-known hypermarket in Egypt. In 2013, Hyper one management stated that they got a record number of five million consumers on that year, with an average of 14 thousand satisfied and served consumers every day.

The management of this hypermarket authorised the application of the questionnaires with the condition to include a question related to the residence in the demographic data as it would help them to

know how far consumers are willing to go to purchase from their hypermarket, and that they would like to receive a copy of the results. They also allowed collecting some photos with the respondents. They asked for a written request (Appendix C– Letter from Supervisor).

Data collection took place during April 2018. The researcher and two extra interviewers, duly identified, were authorised to apply the questionnaire in the cashiers' zone.

3.8 Difficulties During Data Collection

Some difficulties occurred while collecting the data at Hyper One. When we started talking to respondents, we faced some problems, resistance, and figured out that some respondents were not willing to provide the desired information, due to different reasons:

1-Refusal - Some consumers declined to answer the questionnaire, with the justification that they were too busy.

2-Feeling inadequate and not knowing enough to answer the questions - We tried to convince them that some of the people we have already interviewed had the same concern, but once we started, they did not have any difficulty answering the questions and that we could read the questions to you to see if you would be able to answer.

Finally, the most common reason for respondent unwillingness to provide accurate information is the effort and time required to provide answers. In this case, respondents may give incomplete answers and resist completing the open-ended questions. Such behaviour often results in inaccurate or missing information. To address this difficulty, we tried to stop also people who were waiting in the line after finishing their purchases to register for the membership card, so they had time to respond.

3.9 Analytical Strategy

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 24 and the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) software version 24 was used for data analysis, the following statistical techniques were used for data analysis strategy and hypothesis testing:

Examination of data entry and assessment of normality followed by the descriptive statistics including the mean, the standard deviation and the frequency's percentages were used for characterisation of the sample and data entry error check.

The Structural Equation Modelling (SEM): SEM is mostly used in social sciences, especially in testing hypotheses of causal influences (Snoj et al., 2004). Compared with multivariate procedures, SEM is a more powerful alternative that considers the correlated independents, measurement error and multiple latent independents (Byrne, 2000) and makes it possible to analyse a research problem that has been represented as a diagram. A complete SEM model consists of measurement and structural models (Cao, 2012); this means that the two-stage process has to be run before the SEM analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The first stage is the assessment of the measurement model which consists of the measures of the construct reliability (Shook et al., 2004) and validity; assessed by running a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The second stage is the assessment of the structural model. A conceptual model should always be developed based on some underlying theory and is evaluated in terms of measures of fit, the statistical significance of coefficients and its interpretation involves specifying structural relationships between constructs. According to Cao (2012) "Two types of relationships are possible among constructs. The first is a dependence relationship, which is always depicted by a straight arrow and used between an exogenous construct and an endogenous construct. The second is a correlation relationship, which is depicted by a two-headed arrow connection, which can be shared only between exogenous constructs" (p. 49). This model is characterised as an extension of the linear model which permits the analysis of a group of the regression equations at the same time and in an integrated approach to testing relations between the variables underlying causes (unobservable) and the measured variables (observable) through the test of the premises for interpretation.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

Researchers need to take care that the rights of individuals and institutions are always safeguarded. Permission to do the research was granted by the management of Hyper One market as explained above. The researcher agreed to avoid any distraction to the normal function of the hypermarket and provide them with the result of the study.

The consumers' cooperation was required. The respondents were informed about the nature of the study, of the local authority's permission to request consumers to complete questionnaires and the respondents' right to participate or to refuse to participate in the study. Also, the researcher asked for permission to take some photos while interviewing the respondents (see Appendix D- Photos Permission). The laws of beneficence and respect for human dignity were observed during data collection. Respondents could decide individually, without any pressure, whether or not to contribute in the study; they had the right

not to answer any question that causes worry or reveals personal information and to request clarification about any part that causes any doubt (Polit & Hungler, 1999).

Each completed survey was placed in a separate pack. Privacy was preserved because no names were revealed in the research report; only emails were provided by those who wanted to get the result of the study.

3.11 Conclusion

The current chapter discussed the research paradigm and the methodology of the study, describing the research design, population, sample, data-collection instrument and ethical considerations. In short, all options leading to data collection were thoroughly explained in this chapter.

The next chapter is covering data analysis results.

Chapter Four - Data Analysis Results

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the methodology, the research design and the analytical strategy used in the thesis. This chapter aims to present the findings and discuss the collected information through the analysis of data.

This chapter starts by presenting the sample characteristics, assessment of normality, the descriptive statistics of the data using SPSS followed by the structural equation modelling section which includes reliability analysis, validity analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the structural equation modelling (SEM) that finally the modified model.

At the end of this chapter, the research will present all the extra collected information from the respondents during the mall intercept method.

4.2 Sample Characteristics

The demographic data consisted of age, gender, occupation, and neighbourhood which was added based on a request from the manager of the hypermarket.

The majority of the sample was male; the most represented age group was from 30 to 39; most were employees (Table 4.1). People who live near the hypermarket in Zayed city where the hypermarket is located, and in 6th of October, a city near the location of the hypermarket are the majority, see (Appendix E – Frequencies Tables). The maximum distance that consumers come from to shop was about 375,3 Kilometres far, which is a city in Egypt called Asyuit approximately 4 hours and 48 minutes driving followed by Domyat in Damietta governorate which is 304,6 kilometres, 4 hours and 15 minutes driving.

Table 4.1

Descriptive statistics for Demographic variables

Variables	Percentage	Frequencies	Percent
1-Gender	Female	121	45.7%
	Male	144	54.3%
Total		265	100%
2-Age	19 or younger	18	6.8%
	20 to 29	82	30.9%

Variables	Percentage	Frequencies	Percent
	30 to 39	94	35.5%
	40 to 49	45	17%
	50 to 59	20	7.5%
	60 or older	6	2.3%
Total		265	100%
3-Occupation	Business owner	35	13.2%
	Professional	52	19.6%
	Manager	23	8.7%
	Employee	54	20.4%
	Student	49	18.5%
	Housewife	38	14.3%
	Retired	6	2.3%
	Unemployed	5	1.9%
	Others	3	1.1%
Total		265	100%

4.3 Examination of Data Entry and Missing Data

The data analysis proceeded with the examination of data entry. Hair et al. (1998) stated that it is significantly relevant to gain some critical insights into the data characteristics and analysis. Accordingly, in order to gain a high level of accuracy in the data entry process, a double check was performed. According to Hayes (2005), data screening "is the process of examining the data file for errors in the data file itself" (p. 79). Hayes suggests that data screening is necessary to ensure that data are accurate and research conclusions are correct. All entries were verified case by case in the first check, then the descriptive statistics including frequency distribution, mean and standard deviation were conducted and verified. The frequency distribution yielded no mistakes in the data entry (Section 4.4). The accuracy of the data entry into the data set was 100%.

4.4 Assessment of Normality and Outliers

In the preliminary analyses, the individual responses to the items were screened to determine if there was substantial skewness or kurtosis, as well as inspected for outliers. The absolute value for kurtosis -2/2 is considered acceptable to indicate normal univariate distribution (George & Mallery, 2010). The

absolute value of skewness 1.5 or lower indicates the data is normally distributed. An absolute value of more than 1.5 indicates the distribution of that variable has departed from normality. The values of skewness and kurtosis for all items were acceptable. In addition, Hayes (2005) states that the data screening process starts by generating a table of minimum and maximum values to find any errors in the data. The minimum and maximum values in the table (4.2) reports what the lowest number entered for the data is and what the highest number entered for the data is. For this study, every variable was examined by generating a table of minimum and maximum values. The items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5), a minimum and maximum values showed that the data were between the 1 and 5 range, which suggested no errors in the data.

Table 4.2

Assessment of Normality

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
EDBP	1.000	5.000	.356	2.367	-1.293	-4.296
ClientCard	1.000	5.000	-.719	-4.775	-.168	-.559
Freesamples	1.000	5.000	-.736	-4.890	-.293	-.975
Buyonegetone	1.000	5.000	-1.221	-8.115	1.147	3.810
Discount	1.000	5.000	-1.504	-9.994	2.134	7.093
Cognitivedissonance4	1.000	5.000	-.935	-6.214	-.053	-.175
Cognitivedissonance3	1.000	5.000	-.900	-5.980	-.090	-.299
Cognitivedissonance2	1.000	5.000	-.437	-2.905	-1.062	-3.527
Cognitivedissonance	1.000	5.000	-.948	-6.298	-.064	-.213
Promotion4	1.000	5.000	-.349	-2.319	-1.091	-3.627
Promotion3	1.000	5.000	-.869	-5.778	-.038	-.127
Promotion2	1.000	5.000	-.907	-6.026	-.015	-.049
Promotion1	1.000	5.000	-.764	-5.074	-.381	-1.265
Upset	1.000	5.000	.911	6.054	-.051	-.171
Bored	1.000	5.000	.867	5.764	-.185	-.614
Changingmood	1.000	5.000	-.619	-4.112	-.903	-2.999

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
Happy	1.000	5.000	-1.060	-7.043	.458	1.522
Excited	1.000	5.000	-1.063	-7.066	.361	1.201
ImpulseA4	1.000	5.000	-.255	-1.693	-1.287	-4.278
Impulse10	1.000	5.000	-.017	-.111	-1.358	-4.513
Impulse9	1.000	5.000	-.011	-.074	-1.333	-4.431
Impulse8	1.000	5.000	-.923	-6.137	.177	.588
ImpulseA3	1.000	5.000	-.206	-1.369	-1.316	-4.372
ImpulseA5	1.000	5.000	-.661	-4.393	-.725	-2.409
ImpulseA6	1.000	5.000	-.501	-3.330	-1.037	-3.444
ImpulseA7	1.000	5.000	-.139	-.926	-1.358	-4.511
ImpulseA9	1.000	5.000	-.080	-.529	-1.385	-4.603
ImpulseA10	1.000	5.000	.091	.604	-1.401	-4.654
ImpulseA	1.000	5.000	-.068	-.451	-1.219	-4.052
Impulse6	1.000	5.000	-.816	-5.422	-.326	-1.082
Impulse5	1.000	5.000	-.481	-3.197	-.932	-3.096
Impulse4	1.000	5.000	-.818	-5.438	-.291	-.967
Impulse3	1.000	5.000	-.355	-2.357	-1.166	-3.876
Impulse2	1.000	5.000	-.563	-3.743	-.853	-2.834
Impulsebuying	1.000	5.000	-1.243	-8.262	1.243	4.131
ImpulseA8	1.000	5.000	-.192	-1.276	-1.327	-4.411
ImpulseA2	1.000	5.000	-.189	-1.257	-1.310	-4.353
Impulse7	1.000	5.000	-1.247	-8.290	1.246	4.141
Multivariate					128.122	18.914

4.5 Descriptive Statistics

In this section, statistics are divided into three groups for each construct. The first one deals with the central tendency of the variable, presenting the mean (Mazzocchi, 2008). The second group represents

dispersion; this is estimated by using the standard deviation (SD) (Mazzocchi, 2008). The third group deals with the frequency's percentages.

4.5.1 Types of Promotions

The five types of promotions that influence the purchase of the favourite product were the first part of the questionnaire. Respondents were asked to rate to what extent different types of promotions influenced the purchase of their favourite products. As previously presented, five types of promotions were considered: Discount, "buy one get one free", free sample, client card, and EDBP.

All the means are high, which indicates that they are all important items in the in-store promotional favourite types except for "EDBP" which has the lowest mean (2.64). The most important item in this respect concern the types of promotion was "Discount" (4.06).

These results show that 88% of consumers agreed or strongly agreed that the discount is the most influencing promotional technique. Then, "buy one get one free" (83.4%), followed with free samples (69.8 %), client card (67.2%) and finally, EDBP (34.7%) (Table 4.8). SD ranges from 0.9 to 1.4 which means that data are spread out over a wide range of values, and it is a reflection of a significant amount of variation in the group that is being studied.

A special note regarding the client card, which was a new technique to some consumers as it was only adapted around six months ago in Hyper One. While collecting data, we found many people standing in the line to do it after finalising their purchase as it is required to provide a receipt for the last purchase with a minimum fixed price. So, they can apply and get the card immediately which gives them a real discount of 1% for every purchase later. Nevertheless, results show that 46.4% agreed, 20.8% strongly agreed, 15.8% neither, 13.6% disagreed and 3.4% strongly disagreed.

Finally, EDBP has the lowest results: 28.7% disagreed, 27.9% strongly disagreed, 21.1% agreed, 13.6 % strongly agreed and 8.7% neither. These results may be explained based on talking with respondents, as some of the respondents accept the EDBP as an excellent promotional tool for not wasting food which, from their religious view, is Haram, which means forbidden by the Islamic law. It means that it is not permissible to throw any food in dirty or impure places; instead, the blessing should be appreciated and well-maintained, since this blessing could come to people who need it and will eat it, even animals (Shaykh Muhammad Saalih al-Munajjid, 2010). So, In Islam, food waste is Haram. Every Muslim must try to cut and eliminate food waste. Some of them also believe that actually, the producer put a date of expiry

before the actual expiration of the product and, that the mean of storage is the only way that can affect the product's quality.

Table 4.3

Types of Promotions Frequency's Percentages

Promotion	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Discount	3.4%	7.9%	0.8%	55.5%	32.5%	100%
Buy one get on free	2.3%	9.8%	4.5%	52.1%	31.3%	100%
Free samples	2.6%	15.5%	11.7%	46.4%	23.8%	100%
Client card	3.4%	13.6%	15.8%	46.4%	20.8%	100%
EDBP	27.9%	28.7%	8.7%	21.1%	13.6%	100%

4.5.2 Impulse Buying

The second section in the questionnaire concerned the IB tendency adapted from Verplanken and Herabadi (2001) including two sub-dimensions: cognitive and affective. In the original study, the authors used the two facets separately to validate the two components; then they used the 20-items together. They also recommend that future studies should test the possibility of the differential predictive value of the two facets when predicting relevant criteria.

The descriptive statistics for the cognitive dimension show a high SD ranging from 0.980 to 1.335 and a mean ranging from 2.917 to 3.924. The second dimension, affective, has shown a higher SD ranging from 1.269 to 1.388, and a mean ranging from 2.845 to 3.456 (Table 4.8) it can be noted that the group is spread out over the mean.

In the case of the measures of IB tendency (Table 4.8), all twenty items seem not to be of similar importance in the measurement of IB, since they have different mean values. The lowest item "I sometimes buy things because I like buying things, rather than because I need them." (2.84). The most important items are "I like to compare different brands before I buy one." (3.92) and "I usually think carefully before I buy something." (3.90).

The frequency table shows that the item "I like to compare different brands before I buy one" has the highest strongly agree value (27.5%) while the item "I sometimes buy things because I like buying things, rather than because I need them" has the highest strongly disagree value (27.5%) (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4

Impulse Buying Frequency's Percentages

Impulse Buying	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
I usually think carefully before I buy something.	3.8%	9.8%	4.2%	58.1%	24.2%	100%
I usually only buy things that I intend to buy.	6%	27.5%	6.4%	46.4%	13.6%	100%
If I buy something; I usually do that spontaneously.	14.3%	26.4%	9.1%	38.1%	12.1%	100%
Most of my purchases are planned in advance.	6.8%	18.5%	6.8%	49.1%	18.9%	100%
I only buy things that I really need.	8.7%	25.3%	9.1%	40.4%	16.6%	100%
It is not my style to just buy things.	7.5%	15.1%	7.9%	44.9%	24.5%	100%
I like to compare different brands before I buy one.	4.5%	10.2%	5.7%	52.1%	27.5%	100%
Before I buy something, I always carefully consider whether I need it.	4.9%	14%	9.4%	50.2%	21.5%	100%
I am used to buying things ´on the spot´.	17%	32.1%	9.1%	28.3%	13.6%	100%
I often buy things without thinking.	21.9%	29.4%	9.4%	29.1%	10.2%	100%
It is a struggle to leave nice things I see in a shop.	18.5%	28.7%	14.7%	28.3%	9.8%	100%
I sometimes cannot suppress the feeling of wanting things I see in shops.	21.1%	21.9%	12.1%	33.6%	11.3%	100%
I sometimes feel guilty after having bought something.	18.5%	23%	9.8%	34%	14.7%	100%
I am not the kind of person who falls in love at first sight´ with things I see in shops.	18.9%	21.9%	10.9%	33.2%	15.1%	100%
I can become very excited if I see something I would like to buy.	13.6%	13.6%	11.3%	41.5%	20%	100%
I always see something nice whenever I pass by shops.	17.7%	15.8%	11.3%	41.5%	13.6%	100%
I find it difficult to pass up a bargain.	21.9%	26.4%	8.7%	33.2%	9.8%	100%
If I see something new; I want to buy it.	20%	25.3%	9.4%	34.3%	10.9%	100%
I am a bit reckless in buying things.	21.9%	29.4%	7.5%	32.5%	8.7%	100%
I sometimes buy things because I like buying things, rather than because I need them.	27.5%	28.7%	7.5%	25.3%	10.9%	100%

4.5.3 Promotions

The scales of the promotional signage showed an SD ranging from 1.031 to 1.236 and a mean ranging from 3.2 to 3.6. The mean scores for promotional signage (Table 4.8) reveal that the most important measure is "Sale/clearance signs entice me to look through the products." (3.675).

The item "Sale/clearance signs entice me to look through the products." has 17.7% strongly agree answers and the item "I am more likely to make an unintended purchase if the product has a sale or clearance sign." has the highest strongly disagree answers (11.3%) (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5

Promotions Frequency's Percentages

Promotions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
If I see an interesting promotional offer on in-store signs, I tend to buy.	7.2%	18.5%	7.2%	50.2%	17%	100%
Sale/clearance signs entice me to look through the products.	6.4%	16.2%	6.4%	53.2%	17.7%	100%
When I see a special promotion sign, I go to look at that product.	4.9%	17%	7.2%	54.7%	16.2%	100%
I am more likely to make an unintended purchase if the product has a sale or clearance sign.	11.3%	26%	10.6%	39.2%	12.8%	100%

4.5.4 Emotions

This section has been divided into different scales, the first three questions for positive emotions (excited, happy and go shopping for changing the mood) and the last two questions are for negative emotions (bored and upset). The first scale shows a SD ranging from 1.069 to 1.312 and a mean ranging from 3.743 to 3.788. The second scale that measures the bored and upset feeling shows an SD ranging from 1.14 to 1.16 and a mean ranging from 2.275 to 2.407 (Table 4.8). It is evident from Table 4.6 that all the mean scores for negative emotions are low, which suggests that, on average, customers felt happy and excited during their shopping trip. The frequencies analysis shows that 23% of consumers strongly agreed they were happy during their shopping trip and that 24.5% strongly disagreed they were upset during their shopping trip (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6

Emotions Frequency's Percentages

Emotions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
I felt excited on this shopping trip	20.4%	56.2%	4.2%	14.3%	4.9%	100%
I felt happy during this shopping trip	4.5%	12.1%	6.4%	54%	23%	100%
I go shopping to change my mood	8.7%	19.2%	6.4%	37.4%	28.3%	100%
I felt bored on this shopping trip	18.9%	50.6%	9.4%	13.2%	7.9%	100%
I felt upset during this shopping trip	24.5%	48.5%	7.9%	13.6%	5.7%	100%

4.5.5 Cognitive Dissonance

This scale has a SD ranging from 1.12 to 1.29 and a mean ranging from 3.32 to 3.76 (Table 4.8). In the case of cognitive dissonance, all the means seem to be similarly high, which suggests that these are important items. The most important measure was "I wonder if I have done the right thing in buying this product" (3.76).

The item "I wonder If I have done the right thing in buying this product." has 24.2% strongly agree on answers and the item "I wonder whether I should have bought anything at all." has the highest strongly disagree answers 11.7% (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7

Cognitive Dissonance Frequency's Percentages

Cognitive Dissonance	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
I wonder if I really need this product.	8.7%	2.1%	7.5%	50.21%	21.5%	100%
I wonder whether I should have bought anything at all.	11.7%	21.9%	9.1%	39.6%	17.7%	100%
I wonder if I have made the right choice.	5.3%	16.2%	6%	50.6%	21.9%	100%
I wonder If I have done the right thing in buying this product.	5.7%	16.2%	4.9%	49.1%	24.2%	100%

4.5.6 Summary of the Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.8

The Descriptive Statistics for Variables

Variables	Items	SD	Mean
1-Types of Promotions Scale	Discount	0.977	4.06
	Buy one get one free	0.979	4
	Free Samples	1.07	3.73
	Discount Card	1.055	3.68
	EDBP	1.427	2.64
Total Scale Statistics		3.91125	18.0943
2- Impulse Buying Tendency Scale	Q1	0.980	3.909
Cognitive IB	Q2	1.156	3.441
	Q3	1.286	3.177
	Q4	1.131	3.626
	Q5	1.198	3.437
	Q6	1.174	3.671
	Q7	1.008	3.924
	Q8	1.056	3.743
	Q9	1.335	3.011
	Q10	1.345	2.917
Total Scale Statistics		6.45756	34.0264
Affective IB	Q1	1.269	2.947
	Q2	1.351	3.007
	Q3	1.368	3.094
	Q4	1.375	3.117
	Q5	1.287	3.456
	Q6	1.322	3.252
	Q7	1.348	3.000
	Q8	1.346	3.049

Variables	Items	SD	Mean
	Q9	1.338	2.939
	Q10	1.388	2.845
Total Scale Statistics		7.90904	29.5321
3-Promotions Scale	Q1	1.116	3.611
	Q2	1.087	3.675
	Q3	1.031	3.664
	Q4	1.236	3.279
Total Scale Statistics		3.66644	13.8755
4-Emotions Scale	Q1	1.081	3.743
Positive Emotions	Q2	1.069	3.788
	Q3	1.312	3.573
Total Scale Statistics		2.93535	11.0340
Negative Emotions	Q4	1.167	2.407
	Q5	1.142	2.275
Total Scale Statistics		2.15323	4.8264
5-Cognitive Dissonance Scale	Q1	1.186	3.656
	Q2	1.291	3.328
	Q3	1.112	3.701
	Q4	1.128	3.762
Total Scale Statistics		4.01542	14.3094

4.5.7 The Open-ended Questions

The open-ended questions were used to give the respondents the opportunity within the limitations of a structured questionnaire to tell us what was on their mind and to express their views in their own words concerning the topic of the research.

4.5.7.1 "What is the last product you bought on impulse?"

The analysis of the answers shows that 18.1% did not answer, 8.3% mentioned clothes, 7.5% mentioned "I do not remember" followed by 4.5% foodstuffs, 4.5% Herrings (which is the most public food eaten in the Egyptian Easter), 3.4% meats, 3.4% mobile phones. Then 3% shoes, 3% chocolates, 2.6%

electronics, 1.9% LCD, 1.5% juice and 1.1% Ramadan foods and different stuff moreover, see (Appendix E – Frequencies Tables).

4.5.7.2 "Why did you buy it unplanned?"

The reasons pointed were: promotional offers (12.1%), 10.9% "I need it", 6.8% "I do not remember", 6.8% "I liked it". 6.4% "I do not know". 4.2% discount, 3.8% "because of Easter", 2.6% "I love it", followed by 2.3% quality, and 1.9% good price. Other answers include: "Attracted me", "Beautiful colour", "for my children", "for tasting it", "I trust their quality", "Preparing for the holy month of Ramadan" and "Rapid decision" all got the same percentage of 0.8%, and other reasons (Appendix E).

4.5.7.3 "Are you satisfied with this purchase?"

The results indicated that 51.3% of the respondents wrote "yes", 23% mentioned "I do not know", 17.7% "no", 2.3% "I did not try", 1.1% "yes, strongly", followed by "mediocre", and "somehow sure" represent 0.8 % for each one. It was noted that "I regret buying it"; "I think so", "no bad taste", "no ruined my diet", "unfortunately", and "yes, to make them (others) happy" got 0.4% for all items equally.

Figure 4.1 Are you satisfied with this purchase

4.5.8 Additional Information: The Respondents' Point of View

Many consumers were willing to talk with the interviewers. We collected additional information from the consumers during the interview process about the topics of the study.

One of the female consumers that accepted to respond to the questionnaire gave us the following information while answering the questions related to the Expire Date-based Pricing.

"When I bought a product from Hyper One, which only had two months to be expired, I bought it while I am fully satisfied because I know that Hyper One took the product directly from the factory and exposed it to people. The hyper has good lights conditions and good temperature that enable me to trust it more than the small supermarkets, which put some of the items outside their supermarket, on the street. Then they are exposed to the sun and become unhealthy more than the products which approach their expiry date but are well reserved."

She also said that according to her study in the faculty of agriculture most of the industries put the expiration date product from four to six month before the product's real expiry date. The researcher asked her whether she trusted buying a product approaching expiry date from Hyper One, and does it influence the quality of the product, she said: "yes I trust, and the quality only differs according to the storage."

Another respondent said: "I can easily know that the product is not good to buy, or it expired like the fruits, vegetables and yoghurt if I found the yoghurt pack is exploded, so I will not buy it." Female.

Some respondents commented about the promotions of the Hypermarket. For example, "I like the environment of Hyper One, but I think other hypermarkets provide more promotions" (Male respondent). Other respondents claimed not to be influenced by promotions at all. For example, when approaching a family of a woman, her husband and a little child, when the researcher started to explain the study, the woman showed the researcher a small notebook that she was carrying in her bag stating that "I never bought anything that is not listed in my notebook".

Similar to this, another male respondent stated: "I did not get influenced by promotions, I only buy what I need" when the researcher asked him, even if you see a good promotion on a hot chocolate bar you would not buy it? He said "why should I buy it? I do not like chocolates." Then when we tried to ask people about the most attractive promotions, they answered, "The ones on the grocery items" and other people found that the most attractive promotions are on electronic devices. Many people said that they were

planning to buy something, and they ended up buying another thing. Some of them stated that they bought Ramadan's products because of a good promotion on them while we still have one month and a half for this holy month occasion. Also, many consumers said that they buy the two traditional dishes for the Easter holiday in Egypt which is Herring called Renga and Fesikh because they were under good promotions.

The most comments were about the hypermarket prices. For examples, a respondent said that "I like the Hyper One's products, but the prices are not good for me" Male and "Whenever I enter Hyper One, I feel like I would sell myself" Male.

When the interviewers tried to ask respondents whether they are enjoying going to shopping the researcher found that an answer from a male respondent was as follow "I do not like going shopping, but I have to". However, according to some comments found when inserting the questionnaire data, three females had written words like "yes so much", "it is my problem" and "yes" in front of the item "I go shopping to change my mood", which means that females seem to enjoy going to shopping to change their moods rather than males.

4.6 The Reliability Analysis of the Instrument

Reliability is an indicator of the degree to which a set of indicators of a latent construct is internally consistent based on how highly interrelated the indicators are; It represents the extent to which they all measure the same thing (Hair et al., 2006). The researcher should verify the reliability of the chosen scales. The assessment for reliability can be made using the following criteria.

a. Internal Reliability –Internal Reliability indicates how strong the measuring items are holding together in measuring the specific construct. There are two methods used to assess internal consistency: these are split-half reliability and Cronbach's alpha, also known as the coefficient alpha. *Split-half* is a simple measure of internal consistency, which means the items on the scale are divided into two halves, and the resulting half scores are correlated: the higher the correlation between the two halves, the higher the internal consistency (Awang, 2014). *Cronbach's alpha* (coefficient alpha) is the average of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different techniques of splitting the scale items (Hair et al., 2003, p. 397). In this thesis, a reliability analysis was conducted using Cronbach's alpha, value of 0.700 or higher are considered good (Simon, 2006). The results are summarised in Table 4.9.

b. Composite Reliability – The Composite Reliability shows the reliability and internal consistency of a latent construct (Cao, 2012). A value of CR > 0.6 is mandatory in order to achieve composite reliability for a construct, and the results will be shown later in section (4.7).

The internal reliability test for the types of in-store promotions scales including five types of promotions showed a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.741 which is good. The impulse buying tendency scale adopted from Verplanken and Herabadi (2001) showed for the 20 items 0.802 and 0.795 for the cognitive components, and 0.853 for the affective components scale. The promotions scale showed 0.832, and the emotions scale has been divided into two scales; the positive emotion showed 0.796. If the last item (changing mood) is removed, it will give a higher Cronbach alpha of 0.909. Later, we decided to remove this item based on the validity analysis see (Appendix F – Confirmatory Factor Analysis), and the negative emotions showed 0.836. Finally, the cognitive dissonance scales show a high Cronbach alpha by 0.877 (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9

Reliability of Instruments

Scale	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Five Types of Promotions	5	0.741
Impulse buying Tendency	20	0.802
Promotions	4	0.832
Positive Emotions	3	0.796
Negative Emotions	2	0.836
Cognitive Dissonance	4	0.877

In summary, the reliability coefficients for the six constructs employed in the study exceed the minimum threshold value of .7 suggested by Nunally (1978) and Simon (2006).

4.7 Validity Analysis of The Measurement Model under the CFA

Validity means "measure what is intended to be measured" (Field, 2005, p. 11); it explains how well the collected data covers the actual area of investigation (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). In order to assess the validity, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed for all latent constructs before modelling their inter-relationship in a structural model (SEM), the CFA method can assess the

unidimensional for measurement model of each construct. With CFA, any item that did not fit the measurement model due to low factor loading was removed from the model; for an established item, the factor loading for every item should be 0.5 or higher, the unidimensional also requires all factor loadings to be positive (Awang, 2014).

According to Awang (2014), three types of validity are required for each measurement model.

a. Convergent Validity: is the degree to which two measures of constructs that theoretically must be related, are in fact related (Taherdoost, 2016). The convergent validity will be computed by the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for every construct. The variance extracted (VE) should have a lower threshold, which is equal to .5 (Jőreskog & Sőrbom, 1983; Hair et al., 2006).

b. Construct Validity: is achieved when the *Fitness Indexes* for a construct achieve the required level; Historically, the *Goodness-of-Fit* (GFI) has been used as a measure of good model fit; however, researchers have found that this index is sensitive to sample size and consequently is no longer used as model fit index (Mulaik et al., 1989; Bentler, 1990; Hooper et al., 2008). The fitness indexes used in the study were:

- The absolute fit by *Root Mean Square of Error Approximation* (RMSEA), which tests how well the model fits the population's covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998). This index is considered "one of the most informative fit indices to consult due to its sensitivity to the number of estimated parameters in the model" (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p. 85) with a level of acceptance <0.08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugaware, 1996).

-The incremental fit by using *Comparative Fit Index* (CFI), *Tucker-Lewis Index* (TLI) and *Normed Fit Index* (NFI) with a level of acceptance >0.90 for all three indexes (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Bentler, 1990).

-The parsimonious fit by using *Chi-Square/Degrees of Freedom* (Chisq/df) which reduces the impact of sample size on the Model Chi-Square (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin, & Summers, 1977) with the level of acceptance <3.0 (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985).

c. Discriminant Validity: indicates if the measurement model of a construct is free from redundant items; meaning constructs that should have no relationship do not, in fact, have any relationship (Taherdoost, 2016). AMOS could identify the items redundancy in the model through a discrepancy measure called Modification Indices (MI). A high value of MI indicates that the items are redundant

(Hooper et al., 2008). The researcher could delete one of the identified items and run the measurement model. The researcher could also constraint the redundant pair as "free parameter estimates". Another requirement for discriminant validity is that the correlation between exogenous constructs should not exceed 0.85. The correlation value more than 0.85 shows the two exogenous constructs are redundant or having serious multicollinearity problem (Awang, 2014). A squared multiple correlation coefficient (SMCC) is used to identify the proportion of variance of a construct explained by antecedent constructs or measures. The researcher must approximate the value to the nearest whole percentage. SMCC should be at least .3 (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1983; Hair et al., 2006).

In summary, the analysis included all of the above measures, also, the factor loading in which communalities are sometimes defined as the squared factor loadings, where loadings are well-defined as the standardised regression weights. The critical ratio (C.R) and significance of path coefficients were used, the critical ratio for a regression weight, with large samples, can be referred to as the standard normal distribution. Thus, a value for the C.R. of 1.96 or higher (and –1.96 and lower), the symbol *** indicates that the null hypothesis is rejected at the .001 level of significance and its estimated path parameter is significant. It means if the probability of a *t* value equal to or greater than actual *t* value in a two-tailed test for significance of coefficient under the null hypothesis that the true value is zero. Composite reliability (CR) should have a lower threshold, which is equal to .7 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1983; Hair et al., 2006).

Table 4.10 presents the statistical analysis methods used in this section for each construct analysed under the CFA.

Table 4.10

Measures Reported in Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFA	Construct Validity			Convergent Validity	Composite Reliability	Standardised Regression Weight	Critical Ratio	Squared Multiple Correlation Coefficient
Measures	RMSEA	CFI TLI NFI	Chisq/df	AVE	CR	Standardised Factor Loading	C. R	SMCC
Level of Acceptance	<0.08	>0.90	<3.0	>0.5	>0.6	>0.5	> 1.96 <–1.96	> 0.3
	Model Fit Indices						The significance of Path Coefficients	

Considering the five types of promotions used in the study were already observed variables, each construct reflects itself, so there was no need to test them in a primary confirmatory factor analysis; they will be tested later in the CFA for the whole model.

4.7.1 Impulse Buying Construct's Validation

The IB construct uses 20 items for assessing the affective and cognitive facets of IB. Verplanken and Herabadi (2001) stated the 20 items are correlated and can be measured together, but they pointed the need to test if the 20 items can be used together in other studies. According to our CFA, the 20 items did not belong to one construct in this population sample, and indeed they must be used separately, 13 items must be removed from the construct. Firstly, applying CFA, it results that the 10 items from the affective IB facet have to be removed as they all have negative signs and 3 items from the cognitive IB have to be removed because they all have factor loading below 0.5. In addition, this was also confirmed by the EFA, that was done to verify if the low-loading items are not suitable for the measurement in the sample; by generating two factors excluding factors that are below 0.6. For the cognitive IB factor, there are only 7 items remains, and they are the same items generated from the CFA. The results of the factors derived

from the structure of the IB was identical between EFA see (Appendix G – Exploratory Factor Analysis) and CFA (see Appendix F – Confirmatory Factor Analysis). Following the CFA with factor loadings and model fit, thirteen items were removed; specifically, the ten items reflecting the affective facet of IB which have negative factor loading and three factors from the cognitive facet due to a low factor loading. The seven remained items fully measured the construct of IB in the population sample of the study. Later in our analysis, we re-evaluated this construct (see Section 4.8 The Structural Equation Model Analysis for the Conceptual Model).

Through the conclusion of the CFA, the IB construct was valid by seven items showing a good model fit which presents that the information about the theoretical model is acceptable and showed a high factor loading. The measures of fit for IB were summarised by Chisq/df (.964), RMSEA (.000) the TLI (1.000), NFI (1.000) the CFI (1.000); the last three measures exceeded the minimum threshold value of .9. Consequently, the model is judged to have an ideal fit. All measures associated with the construct were statistically significant. For each measure, the null hypothesis that the true value of the coefficient is zero was rejected at the .001 level of significance (identified by the symbol ***). All measures have the right positive signs. Concerning the factor loading, all measures for IB have an acceptable ranging from .5 to .7. Composite reliability (0.458) below the .7 while the AVE (.438) approaches to the minimum acceptable threshold value of .5. From the results, an overall assessment is that the measurement model for IB after removing the low items and separating the two factors is acceptable (Table 4.11).

4.7.2 The Promotions Construct's Validation

The promotions construct was based on four items. The construct has a good model fit with all factors have a good loading factor value. Concerning the constructs of promotions, the TLI (1.013), CFI (1.000), and NFI (1.000) measures of fit greater than 1, RMSEA (.000), Chisq/df (.121). Hence, the measurement model was evaluated as a very good model. All measures associated with the construct were statistically significant. For each measure, the null hypothesis that the true value of the coefficient is zero was rejected at the .001 level of significance (identified by the symbol ***). Thus, all observed variables were strongly significantly associated with promotions. Concerning the factor loading, all measures for satisfaction have an acceptable factor loading ranging from .5 to .8. Composite reliability (0.600) approximated to the minimum threshold of .7 while the AVE of (.545) exceeded the minimum threshold of .5. From the results, an overall assessment is that the model is acceptable (Table 4.11).

4.7.3 The Emotions Construct's Validation

The construct was based on two types of emotions, positive and negative emotions. After running the CFA, it was seen that the model of the positive construct was not fit due to the third item "I go shopping for changing my mood" as it has a low value of factor loading in the construct in comparison to the other items (happy and excited) (Appendix F). This item has been removed. Hence, the model has a good fit based on the RMSEA (.00), CFI (1.00), TLI (1.008), NFI (1.00) and Chisq/df (.263) measures for both positive and negative constructs. All measures associated with the construct were statistically significant. For each measure, the null hypothesis that the true value of the coefficient is zero was rejected at the .001 level of significance (identified by the symbol ***). All measures have the correct positive signs. Concerning the factor loading, all measures for emotions have an acceptable factor loading ranging from .8 to .9. Composite reliability for positive emotions (0.711) and negative emotions (0.675) approximates to the .7 while the AVE (.674) exceeds the minimum acceptable threshold of .5. From the results, an overall assessment is that the measurement model for emotions is judged to have an ideal fit (Table 4.11).

4.7.4 The Cognitive Dissonance Construct's Validation

The CFA for cognitive dissonance construct showed a very good model fit, measures of fit according to the TLI (.986), NFI (.996) and the CFI (.998) exceeded the minimum threshold of .9. Hence the model is judged to be acceptable in terms of fit. RMSEA (.086) came near the maximum acceptable of .08, Chisq/df 2.931. All measures associated with the construct are statistically significant. For each measure, the null hypothesis that the true value of the coefficient is zero was rejected at the .001 level of significance (identified by the symbol ***). All measures have the correct positive signs. Concerning the factor loading, all measures for cognitive dissonance have an acceptable factor loading ranging from .6 to .9. Composite reliability (0.794) exceeded the minimum threshold of .7 while the AVE of (.674) was higher than the minimum acceptable threshold of .5. From the results, an overall assessment is that the measurement model is good (Table 4.11).

4.7.5 The CFA for the Model

Table 4.11 presents the results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for the measurement model of all constructs including of IB (IMPULSE), promotions (PRO), negative emotions (NEG), positive emotions (POS), cognitive dissonance (COGNITIVE), EDBP, Discount, "buy one get one free" , Client card, and Free samples. The SMCC and C.R (t) for all variables were in the acceptable range. Convergent validity, according to Bagozzi (1981), is the extent to which multiple measurements of a construct are in

agreement. The convergent validity of the scales was supported (Table 4.11). In addition, the t values, the estimated standardised factor loadings from the measurement model for the indicators measuring the same constructs were statistically significant at $p < .01$ (i.e., all t values exceeded the critical t value of 1.98 for $p = .01$).

For each measure, the null hypothesis that the true value of the coefficient is zero was rejected at the .001 level of significance (identified by the symbol ***). The CFA for the model showed a good fit. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the measurement model for the entire sample (see Appendix H- Figure H. 5) was a good fit for the data with RMSEA (.05), NFI (.900), CFI (.957), TLI (.941) and Chisq/df (1.661).

Table 4.11

Measurement of the Total Constructs

Question items	Construct	Factor Loading	C.R (t)	Probability	SMCC
Impulsebuying	<— IMPULSE	.693	N/A	N/A	.523
Impulse2	<— IMPULSE	.669	9.072	***	.409
Impulse4	<—IMPULSE	.690	9.592	***	.410
Impulse5	<—IMPULSE	.544	8.052	***	.296
Impulse6	<—IMPULSE	.640	9.592	***	.410
Impulse7	<—IMPULSE	.766	10.854	***	.586
Impulse8	<—IMPULSE	.660	9.880	***	.435
Measures	RMSEA: .000 Chisq/df: .964 NFI: 1.000 TLI: 1.000 CFI: 1.000 AVE: 0.438 CR: 0.458				
Promotion1	<—PRO	.805	N/A	N/A	.648
Promotion2	<—PRO	.827	12.599	***	.684
Promotion3	<—PRO	.728	11.378	***	.516
Promotion4	<—PRO	.588	8.877	***	.335
	RMSEA: .000 Chisq/df: .121 NFI: 1.000 TLI: 1.000 CFI: 1.000 AVE: .545 CR: 0.600				
Cognitivedissonance	<—COGNITIVE	.611	N/A	N/A	.361
cognitivedissonance2	<—COGNITIVE	.607	12.053	***	.368
cognitivedisoonce3	<—COGNITIVE	.991	31.084	***	.982

Question items	Construct	Factor Loading	C.R (t)	Probability	SMCC
cognitivedisonce4	<—COGNITIVE	.994	31.171	***	.891
	RMSEA: .086 Chisq/df: 2.931 NFI: .996 TLI: .986 CFI: .998 AVE: .674 CR: 0.711				
Excited	<—POS	.871	N/A	N/A	.758
Happy	<—POS	.968	16.871	***	.918
Bored	<—NEG	.869	N/A	N/A	.737
Upset	<—NEG	.843	15.374	***	.701
	RMSEA: .000 Chisq/df: .263 NFI: 1.000 TLI: 1.008 CFI: 1.000 AVE: .794 CR: 0.794				
	Mean	S. E	C.R	Probability	SMCC
Discount	4.057	.060	67.571	***	N/A
Buyonegetone	4.004	.060	66.579	***	N/A
Freesamples	3.732	.066	56.805	***	N/A
ClientCard	3.675	.065	56.689	***	N/A
EDBP	2.638	.088	30.101	***	N/A
Whole Model Measures				AVE>0.5	
RMSEA .050	CFI .957	Chisq/df 1.661	CR >0.6		
	TLI .941				
	NFI .900				

Notes: The first λ path for each construct was set to 1; therefore, no P or t-values are provided.

In order to interpret the tested measurement model, factor correlations were also taken into consideration. The results revealed that 32 out of 45 correlations were statistically significant. Most of the significant correlations were low or moderate. Statistically low and moderate as well as non-significant associations suggested discriminant validity. That is, the latent variables in the model were empirically distinguishable.

Table 4.12

Correlation among Variables

Scales	Negative	Positive	Promotions	IB	Discount	BOGO	Card	Sample	EDBP	CD
Negative	1.000									
Positive	-.587***	1.000								
Promotions	.744	.141**	1.000							
IB	-.24**	-.267*	.162**	1.000						
Discount	-.185**	.210**	.152**	.128**	1.000					
BOGO	-.261***	.299***	.180**	.096	.665***	1.000				
Card	-.156**	.272***	.095**	.094	.474	.532***	1.000			
sample	-.105	.620**	.208**	.155**	.521***	.549	.534***	1.000		
EDBP	-.022	-.022	-.003	-.074**	.198**	.183**	.261***	.213***	1.000	
CD	.165**	.086	.218**	.240***	.202***	.113	-.137**	.053	.045	1.000

4.8 The Structural Equation Model Analysis for the Conceptual Model

The conceptual model was developed from the literature and is explained in Chapter 2. SEM is particularly useful when one dependent variable like impulse buying becomes an independent variable in a subsequent dependence relationship, and it gives rise to the interdependent nature of the structural model (Hair et al., 2006). This study aimed to develop a structural model of consumers' IB and explain the interrelationships between constructs in the Hypermarket.

SEM has two types of variables: the observed variables which the researcher got from the questionnaire and the unobserved variables, which are the percentage of errors in response to the questions in the measurement model. Also, another error for the result of the relation between the independent variables (exogenous) has on the dependent variable, and it is only used on the dependent variables (endogenous). Similarly, the latent variable is an unobserved variable which reflects the scales for what the researcher measured. Even though there are several available options for an SEM solution, maximum likelihood (ML) estimation is one of the most commonly used SEM estimation procedures (Davcik, 2014; Green, 2015). Researchers should consider the complexity of their model, sample size, and distribution of their data to decide which estimation method is the most suitable. Research showed that under some assumptions (i.e., n > 50) ML estimation method produces valid results (Holbert & Stephenson, 2002).

So, a structural equation model was established with the promotions, discount, free sample, client card, and "buy one get one free", negative and positive emotions were serving as exogenous variables (independent variable). Impulse buying and cognitive dissonance were serving as endogenous variables with residual error variables as the dependent variable, and the modification indexes were examined to eliminate or add path as necessary.

The estimated structural equation model for the Conceptual Model is presented in Table 4.13. The measures of fit for the model were summarised by TLI (1.005), CFI (1.000), NFI (.952) and RMSEA (.000). Chisq/df (.948). Both TLI and CFI are higher than the recommended minimum threshold of .9. Also, the RMSEA reflects a fit greater than the maximum threshold of .08. Consideration of the significance of the paths in the structural model showed that, of the nine estimated coefficients, five measures associated with the constructs were statistically significant.

For two measures, the null hypothesis that the true value of the coefficient is zero was rejected at the .001 level of significance (identified by the symbol ***) for the path from promotion to IB and from IB to cognitive dissonance. Furthermore, the estimated coefficient for the path from discount to impulse was significant at the 5% level of significance (.035). Furthermore, the estimated coefficient for the path from free samples to impulse was significant at the 5% level of significance (.048) and client card to IB (.040). In the case of the paths from positive emotions to IB (.737), negative emotions to IB (.856), EDBP to IB (.158), and buy one get one to IB (.178) the null hypothesis is at the 5% level of significance.

Table 4.13

Structural Equation Model for Conceptual Model

Construct		Construct	Estimate	S. E	C. R	Probability
IB	⬅	Promotion	.323	.129	2.501	***
IB	⬅	Discount	.166	.079	2.106	.035
IB	⬅	Buy one get one	.119	.088	1.346	.178
IB	⬅	Free samples	.391	.198	3.974	.048
IB	⬅	Client card	.170	.071	2.156	.040
IB	⬅	EDBP	-.044	.031	-.410	.158
IB	⬅	Negative emotions	-.024	.076	-.318	.750
IB	⬅	Positive emotions	-.024	.072	-.336	.737
Cognitive Dissonance	⬅	IB	.436	.129	4.130	***

The further problem is that, from the perspective of interpretation, the paths from positive emotions to IB, negative emotions to IB were statistically non-significant with opposite signs, whereas, based on a priori knowledge from the theory and the existing literature, they are expected to be significant. Though the structural equation model for the proposed conceptual model indicates that there is no impact from emotions on IB, it can be due to the removal of all the factors of the affective facet of IB. We did not include the two factors in testing the model from the beginning as following the steps for the CFA indicates that those items must be deleted and testing the "IB" as a whole construct having a good fit model. Subsequently, further consideration of the model and its constructs was undertaken to resolve the apparent anomaly as the results of the SEM showed that those missing items which are "the affective IB" are important for testing the other hypotheses. A series of factor analyses were conducted to confirm discriminant validity. Special attention was given to the constructs of IB (Appendix F & G). Consequently, it was confirmed that the IB scale is bi-dimensional. So, it was decided to modify the model by adding affective IB as a separate construct after running a CFA that indicated all 10 factors have a good loading in the construct of affective IB and good model fit (Table 4.14).

In summary, the first model only contained items from the cognitive IB. Results indicated that there is no relationship between emotions and IB, which was unexpected in light of the literature review. Thus, the revised model was developed based on including the affective dimension IB. According to the CFA of affective IB, the lowest factor loading was 0.523 (this item was the only excluded item from the EFA because we omitted factors below 0.6, but we decided to keep it as 0.5 is not very low according to the CFA).

Table 4.14

Measurement of the Affective Impulse Buying

Question items	Construct	Factor Loading	C.R	Probability	SMCC
ImpulseA	<— Affective IB	.628	7.262	N/A	.395
ImpulseA2	<— Affective IB	.626	7.246	***	.392
ImpulseA3	<— Affective IB	.568	6.830	***	.323
ImpulseA4	<— Affective IB	.535	6.571	***	.287
ImpulseA5	<— Affective IB	.650	7.405	***	.423
ImpulseA6	<— Affective IB	.629	7.266	***	.396
ImpulseA7	<— Affective IB	.719	7.812	***	.516
ImpulseA8	<— Affective IB	.578	6.903	***	.334
ImpulseA9	<— Affective IB	.613	7.151	***	.376
ImpulseA10	<— Affective IB	.523	N/A	N/A	.273
Measures	RMSEA: .085 Chisq/df: .964 NFI: .915 TLI: .894 CFI: .936 AVE: 0.339 CR: 0.371				

Following the evaluation of the Conceptual Model, a modified model (the Modified Conceptual Model) was developed for subsequent analysis. The Modified Conceptual Model is evaluated in terms of measures of fit, statistical significance of coefficients and interpretation.

4.9 Structural Equation Model for the Modified Conceptual Model

As previously explained, a revision of the research model was needed based on the first results of the structural equation model. Thus, the original proposed research model of IB was revised (Figure 4.2). Based on this, the hypotheses proposed for this study that involved IB were split in order to capture

separately the two facets of affective and cognitive IB. (e.g., H 1: Promotions positively impact cognitive impulse buying, H 1.1: Promotions positively impact affective impulse buying, H 2: Emotions positively impact cognitive impulse buying, H 2.1: Emotions positively impact affective impulse buying, etc.).

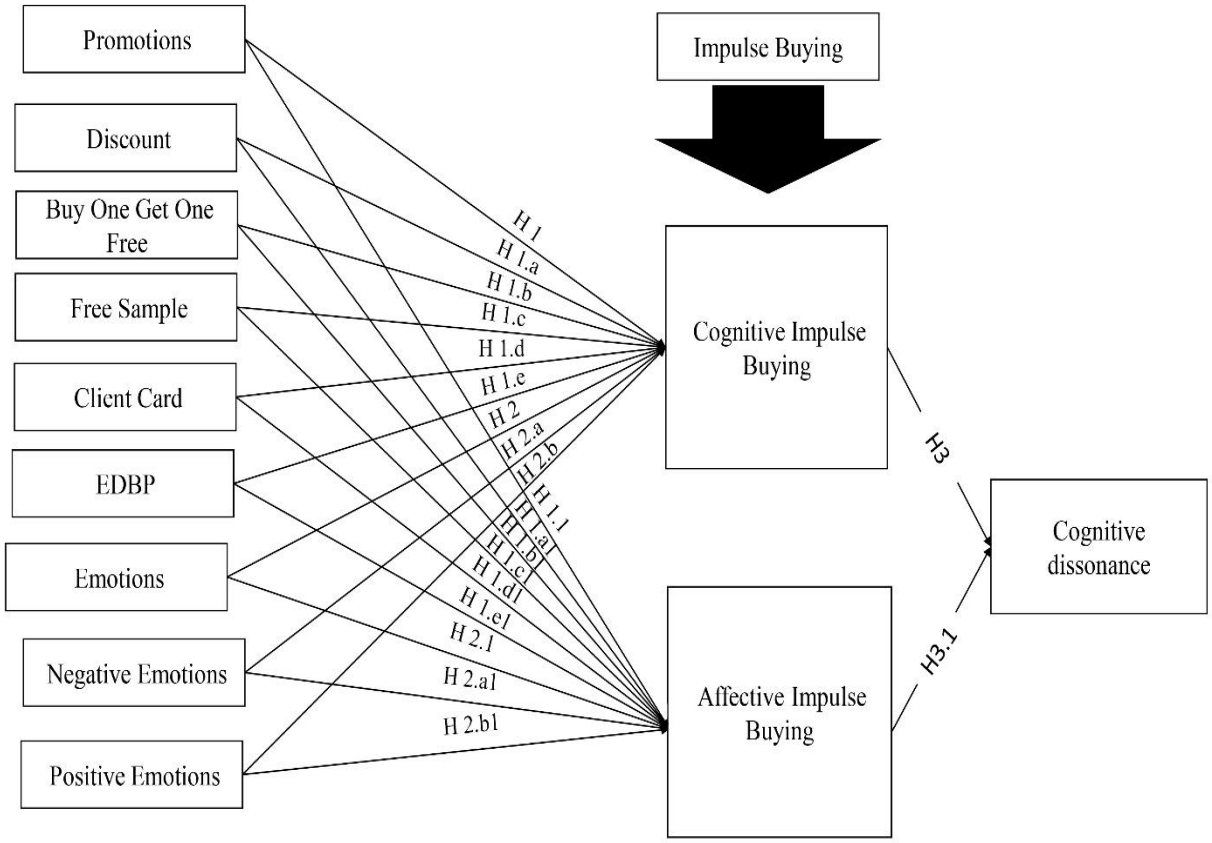

Figure 4.2 Revised Research Model with Modified Hypotheses

The next phase in the data analysis was to estimate the revised research model. The structural model was analysed to test all of the proposed relationships concurrently in the revised research model. The structural model, based on the revised research model (Appendix H- Figure H. 6), was estimated by including the paths specified in the revised research model. The model was rerun; the estimated structural equation model for the Conceptual Model is presented in Table 4.15. The measures of fit for the model are summarised by TLI (1.004), CFI (1.000) NFI (.926) and RMSEA (.000) Chisq/df (.972). Both TLI and CFI were higher than the recommended minimum threshold of .9. However, the RMSEA has a good value. Consideration of the significance of the paths in the modified structural model indicates that of the 18 estimated coefficients, 7 measures associated with the construct were statistically significant.

For three measures, the null hypothesis that the real value of the coefficient is zero was rejected at the .001 level of significance (identified by the symbol ***) for the path from negative emotion to affective IB and from cognitive dissonance to cognitive IB and the path from promotion to cognitive IB. Furthermore, the estimated coefficient for the path from positive emotions to affective IB was significant at the 5% level of significance (.015). In the case of the path from discount to cognitive IB (.040), the paths from free samples to cognitive IB (.048) and from client card to cognitive IB (.029) were also significant.

Table 4.15

Model Fit Index of the Modified Measurement Model

Construct		Construct	Estimate	S. E	C.R	Probability
Affective IB	←	Promotion	.661	.351	1.884	.180
Affective IB	←	Discount	.018	.068	.269	.788
Affective IB	←	Buy one get one	-.071	.080	-.893	.372
Affective IB	←	Free samples	-.163	.130	-1.251	.211
Affective IB	←	Client card	.121	.070	2.178	.983
Affective IB	←	EDBP	.004	.034	.097	.922
Affective IB	←	Negative Emotions	.261	.051	2.837	***
Affective IB	←	Positive Emotions	.142	.059	1.712	.015
Cognitive IB	←	Promotions	.243	.132	1.834	***
Cognitive IB	←	Discount	.170	.080	2.250	.040
Cognitive IB	←	Buy one get one	.118	.075	1.320	.287
Cognitive IB	←	Free samples	.391	.198	3.974	.048
Cognitive IB	←	Client card	.175	.056	2.178	.029
Cognitive IB	←	EDBP	-.044	.030	-.410	.224
Cognitive IB	←	Negative Emotions	-.024	.076	-.318	.750
Cognitive IB	←	Positive Emotions	-.024	.072	-.336	.737
Cognitive Dissonance	←	Cognitive IB	.326	.095	3.423	***
Cognitive Dissonance	←	Affective IB	-.249	.182	-1.370	.171

4.10 Summary and Interpreting Results of Hypotheses

The model indicated a good fit; according to the revised model emotions significantly impact affective impulse buying and promotions significantly impact cognitive impulse buying which significantly impacts cognitive dissonance. Hence the revised conceptual model is confirmed with the results of hypotheses (Table 4.16) and with this list of the significant relations:

The path between negative emotions and affective IB was significant at $\rho<.001$.

The path between promotions and cognitive IB was significant at $\rho< .001$.

The path between cognitive IB and cognitive dissonance was significant at $\rho< .001$.

The path between positive emotions and affective IB was significant at $\rho< .015$.

The path between the client card and cognitive IB was significant at $\rho< .029$.

The path between discount and cognitive IB was significant at $\rho< .040$.

The path between free samples and cognitive IB was significant at $\rho< .048$.

Table 4.16

Results of the Hypothesis

P-value	Interpretation	Hypotheses	Path	Result
P< 0.01	Very strong evidence against H 0	H 2. a 1: Negative emotions impact affective IB.	When negative emotions go up by 1, Affective Impulse Buying goes up by .261.	Supported
		H 1: Promotions impact cognitive IB.	When promotions go up by 1 cognitive IB goes up by .243.	Supported
		H 3: Cognitive IB impacts cognitive dissonance.	When cognitive IB goes up by 1 cognitive dissonance goes up by .326.	Supported
P < 0.05	Moderate evidence against H 0	H 2. b 1: Positive emotions impact affective IB.	When positive emotions go up by 1, affective IB goes up by .142.	Supported
		H 1. d: Client card impacts cognitive IB.	When a client card goes up by 1, cognitive IB goes up by .175.	Supported
		H 1. a: Price discount impacts cognitive IB.	When the discount goes up by 1, cognitive IB goes up by .170.	Supported

P-value	Interpretation	Hypotheses	Path	Result
		H 1. c: Free Samples impact cognitive IB.	When free samples go up by 1, cognitive IB goes up by .391.	Supported
P > 0.10	No real evidence against H 0	H 1.1: Promotions impact affective IB.	When promotions go up by 1, affective IB goes up .661.	Not supported
		H 1. a1: Discount impacts affective IB.	When discount goes up by 1, affective IB goes up by .018.	Not supported
		H 1. b: "buy one get one free" impacts cognitive IB.	When "buy one get one free" go up by 1, cognitive IB goes up by.118.	Not supported
		H 1. b1: "buy one get one free" impacts affective IB.	When buy one get one goes up by 1, affective IB goes down by .071.	Not supported
		H 1. c1: Free sample impacts affective IB.	When free sample goes up by 1, affective IB goes down by .163.	Not supported
		H 1. d1: Client card impacts affective IB.	When client card goes up by 1, affective IB goes up by .121.	Not supported
		H 1. e: EDBP impacts cognitive IB.	When EDBP goes up by 1, cognitive IB goes down by -.044.	Not supported
		H 1. e1: EDBP impacts affective IB.	When EDBP goes up by 1, affective IB goes up by .004.	Not supported
		H 2. a: Negative emotions impact cognitive IB.	When negative emotions go up by 1, cognitive IB goes down by -.024.	Not supported
		H 2. b: Positive emotions impact cognitive IB.	When positive emotions go up by 1, cognitive IB goes down by -.024.	Not supported
		H 3. 1: Affective IB impacts cognitive dissonance.	When affective IB goes up by 1 cognitive dissonance goes down by -.249.	Not supported

Note: The distribution of P-Value was done according to Simon, 2006.

4.11 Conclusion

In this chapter, a revised conceptual model was developed followed by a structural equation model of the relationships between promotions, discount, “buy one get one free”, free sample, client card, EDBP, emotions, cognitive and affective impulse buying and cognitive dissonance. The results identified significant relationships between cognitive IB, promotions, cognitive dissonance and between affective IB and emotions.

Chapter Five - Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

This final chapter summarises and discusses the findings, contributions, considers the limitations, and outlines directions for future research.

Impulse buying has been a challenge for market researchers due to its complex nature. Hausman (2000) stated that IB is a complicated and multifaceted phenomenon which accounts for a massive volume of the products sold every year. This thesis aims to understand the impulse buying phenomena, and its relationship with emotions, promotions and cognitive dissonance as marketers should think critically about how to delight the consumer with the purchase. It was completed using a survey through a mall intercept, to get a better insight of IB, shortly after the moment of purchasing.

This study provides evidence of the most effective types of promotions that push the consumers to take a rapid decision while in the hypermarket, considering five types of in-store promotions and two types of emotions and helps future researchers in identifying the different facets of IB. In addition, the findings from the thesis can help the hypermarket managers effectively enhance their marketing plans by understanding their consumers and improving the promotional methods used to attract them, and it will also leverage the knowledge of such consumer behaviours.

5.2 Discussion of Findings

This section is dedicated to discussing the main findings of the study. The hypotheses generated from the literature review in Chapter two are evaluated in the context of the revised conceptual model. For operationalising IB, we used the impulse buying tendency scales adapted from Verplanken and Herabadi (2001). In this regard, Rook and Hoch (1985) suggested that "psychological disequilibrium" led to IB of products and pointed out that individuals differed in impulsive tendencies as some people were found to have a higher tendency to buy on impulse than others. Thus, considering the psychological processes to be the key for understanding and interpreting IB, the primary purpose from the study was to identify the different effects of variables on IB by using an IB construct that fully considers all the antecedents that can lead consumers to impulse buy.

Verplanken and Herabadi (2001) stated that their scale captures the two dimensions of IB, which are correlated: the first one, the cognitive facet, represents the lack of planning and deliberation when

making a purchase as cognition is referring to thinking and understanding (Youn, 2000). The second one, the affective facet, concerns the feeling of pleasure and excitement, the urge to buy, the difficulty to leave nice things as affect refers to feelings, mood, emotions, and possibly regret after the purchase. According to Coley and Burgess (2003, p. 283) "the Affective components include irresistible urge to buy, positive buying emotions and mood management, the cognitive components are cognitive deliberation, unplanned buying and disregard for the future." The two aspects are needed to measure the impulse buying tendency of the consumer as they are differently rooted in the personality. They recommend the use of both facets together to assess IB, and results show that each facet is affected by different variables. Consequently, this study provides further evidence that there are two types of IB: cognitive and affective. The difference between affective and cognitive impulse buying in what concerns both their antecedents and their outcomes is an important contribution from this thesis.

Below are the summarised results of the hypotheses tests.

5.2.1 Promotions and Impulse buying

Promotions, as seen in Chapter two, have been studied as a main external factor influencing IB. Analysis of the first proposed model shows that there is an impact from promotions on IB, to be clear this impact was only on cognitive IB.

Hypothesis 1 (Promotions positively impact cognitive impulse buying) is supported both in the conceptual model and the revised model. The path coefficient is statistically significant ($p = .001$), and it has the expected positive sign. There is a strong significant positive impact from promotions on cognitive IB. This result is aligned with previous studies which found that sales promotions are one of the essential techniques influencing IB (Clover, 1950; Kang, 2013; Muruganantham & Bhakat, 2013; Nagadeepa et al., 2015; Peck & Childers, 2006; Piron, 1991; Rook, 1987; Stern, 1962). However, previous research did not specify which facets of IB can be affected by promotions; only Stern (1962) found that promotions mainly impact planned IB. Then, a major contribution of this study is the finding that promotions only impact cognitive IB. In fact, results do not support the second hypotheses H 1. 1: (Promotions positively impact affective impulse buying) suggesting that promotions generally impact the traits related to the lack of planning and deliberation not the difficulty to leave nice things, and the urge to buy. Therefore, promotions can be seen as an easy decision rule, which are effective in case of lack of planning as they function as an incentive leading to impulse purchase. This finding thus helps to reconcile previous studies which found

that promotional material inside shops had little influence on IB (Mathai & Haridas, 2014; Verplanken et al., 2005) as it suggests that promotions only affect certain facets of IB, specifically cognitive IB, but not effective IB.

The framing of promotions is an essential topic which was firstly introduced by Tversky and Kahneman (1981). In what refers to the five types of promotions considered in the study, under the monetary and non-monetary promotions, it was found that there were only three types of in-store promotions that show an impact on the cognitive IB: discount, client card and free samples. These may be considered, in fact, one non-monetary promotion (free samples) and two monetary promotions, as the client card used in the chosen hypermarket is also a form of discount on the total purchase. All have a significant positive impact in cognitive IB, characterised by lack of planning and deliberation.

The results are aligned with past research findings that indicate low prices, including price reductions, sales promotions, and discounts have direct effects on consumers' buying decisions (Abratt & Goodey, 1990; Dittmar & Drury, 2000; Grewal et al., 1998; Hulten & Vanyushyn, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003; Ruswanti, 2013; Stern, 1962; Shapiro and Krishnan, 2001; Tendai & Crispen, 2009; Thaler, 1985; 1999; Virvilaite et al., 2009; Youn & Faber, 2000). Below, the results for each of the in-store promotion types studied are highlighted:

Hypothesis 1. a (Price discounts positively impact cognitive impulse buying) is supported because the path coefficient is statistically significant. This result is aligned with Dholakia (2000), Ruswanti (2013) and Sundstrom et al. (2013) who stated that discounted price influenced consumers to buy on impulse.

Hypothesis 1. a1 (Price discounts positively impact affective impulse buying) is not supported because the path coefficient is statistically insignificant. This result is aligned with Mathai and Haridas (2014) who found that discounts did not influence IB.

Hypothesis 1. b ("Buy one get one free" positively impacts cognitive impulse buying) and Hypothesis 1. b1 ("Buy one get one free" positively impacts affective impulse buying) are not supported because the paths coefficients are statistically not significant.

Hypothesis 1. c (Free samples positively impact cognitive impulse buying) is supported because the path coefficient is statistically significant. This result is aligned with past studies that found that free samples increase purchasing (Bawa & Shoemaker, 2004; Schlereth et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2014; Yao et

al., 2016) and with Pawar, Shastri and Raut (2016) who found that approximately 74% of the respondents to their study were observed making IB of the product being sampled. However, Hypothesis 1. c1 (Free sample positively impacts affective impulse buying) is not supported because the path coefficient is statistically not significant.

Hypothesis 1. d (Client card positively impacts cognitive impulse buying) is supported because the path coefficient is statistically significant. The finding is aligned with past studies that found that the client card increases sales (Diamond & Johnson, 1990; Lacey, 2009; Meyer & Waarden, 2008; Nagadeepa et al., 2015; Osuna, Gonzalez & Capizzani, 2016; Su, Zheng & Sun, 2013; Thaler, 1985). Hypothesis 1. d1 (Client card positively impacts affective impulse buying) is not supported because the path coefficient is statistically not significant.

Finally, Hypothesis 1. e (EDBP positively impacts cognitive impulse buying) and Hypothesis 1. e1 (EDBP positively impacts affective impulse buying) are not supported because the paths coefficients are statistically not significant. These findings are aligned with Wong and Yazdanifard (2015) according to which consumers consider the price and the quality of the products as the two core features that determine their purchasing behaviour.

The overall conclusion is that there is a significant positive relationship between promotions, discount, client card (Asim & Saf, 2011; Schultz & Block, 2014), free samples and cognitive impulse buying.

5.2.2 Impulse buying and emotions

Previous research showed that Emotions play a very important role in affecting IB as discussed in Chapter two. Past research discussed the effect of emotions on IB extensively. However, which facet(s) of IB are affected by emotions was not previously addressed. We think that this is why the results of the first proposed model including only the cognitive facet of IB showed that there was no impact of positive and negative emotions on IB.

Hypothesis H 2. a (Negative emotions positively impact cognitive impulse buying) and hypothesis H 2. b (Positive emotions positively impact cognitive IB) are not supported because the paths coefficient are not statistically significant in the first proposed model and the revised model which indicate that emotions have no impact on the lack of planning and deliberation. Hence, there is no significant evidence that there is any effect from positive and negative emotions on cognitive IB. This finding may be explained

by the fact that the impulse to buy is complex. Feelings are not necessarily accompanied by cognitive thought (Ruth, Brunel & Otnes, 2002), this can explain why there was no significant impact on cognitive IB of the two types of emotions used in the study. The model was revised to include the affective facet of IB, and in fact, the modified model indicates that there is an impact from both types of emotions on affective IB. These results support that there is a significant positive affect of negative and positive emotions on affective IB. It means that both the positive and negative emotions considered in this study influence the feeling of pleasure and excitement, the urge to buy, the difficulty to leave nice things and the possibility of a regret feeling after the purchase. Hirschman (1992) found that the various autistic stimuli which are self-generated such as consumer's opinions and emotions influence IB. This was also found by Sofi and Najar (2018) who point that Emotional Intelligence/Stability influence the IB tendencies.

Hypothesis 2. a1 (Negative emotions positively impact affective impulse buying) is supported because the path coefficient is statistically significant. This is in line with previous studies. Sneath et al. (2009) have claimed that IB can also be encouraged because of consumers sadness and trying to improve their mood or when consumers need to outflow from negative psychological perceptions like low self-esteem, negative emotions, or moods (Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001). According to a study done by Sundstrom et al. (2013), consumers do not consider that IB is something negative, but a method to reach fast motivation in a bored state of mind. Similarly, a recent study done by Sundström et al. (2019) found that boredom affects IB.

Hypothesis 2. b1 (Positive emotions positively impact affective impulse buying) is also supported. Thus, positive emotions like happy and excitement have been found to impact affective IB. Positive affect ‘s influence IB is more robust than negative affect (Amos et al., 2014; Beatty & Ferrell, 1998). Earlier studies showed that respondents only browsed when happy (Chih & Hsi-Jui, 2012; Piron, 1991; Sundström et al., 2019). Amos et al. (2014) stressed the need for more research to investigate and validate this distinction; the findings of the present research provide evidence that both negative and positive emotions have a positive impact on affective IB.

In conclusion, Hypothesis 2.1 (Emotions positively impact affective impulse buying) is supported as both types of emotions impact affective IB.

5.2.3 Impulse buying and cognitive dissonance

Sweeney, Hausknecht and Soutar (2000) proposed that after buying the product, the consumer might feel that it was not needed and he could have done without buying it (Sweeney et al., 2000). This thought arises once the consumer starts questioning his understanding of whether he had made the right decision by purchasing the product. Hence, we proposed that cognitive impulse buying positively impacts cognitive dissonance (H 3). This hypothesis is supported because the path coefficient is statistically significant.

Our results show that the cognitive impulse buying related to the lack of planning and deliberation when making a purchase significantly impacts the cognitive dissonance feeling after the purchase. This supports Cummings and Venkatesan's (1976) finding that, if a purchase transaction gets completed, most consumers feel that their choice was affected by the sales interruptions made by the seller or promotional stimuli and therefore their cognitive consistency had been compromised (Chih & Hsi-Jui, 2012; Sun & Wo, 2011).

However, H 3. 1 (Affective impulse buying positively impacts cognitive dissonance) is not supported, thus indicating that the affective facet of IB does not impact the cognitive dissonance feeling after the purchase. This suggests that purchasing by impulse due to positive or negative emotions, to feel pleasure and excitement and to fulfil the urge to buy, has no impact on cognitive dissonance. This finding is similar to George and Yaoyuneyong (2010) who proposed that IB tendency is a managing strategy to decrease worry and carry consistency in contradictory feelings, thus being inversely related to cognitive dissonance. The power of cognitive dissonance hugely rests on the consumer's behaviours and the variables triggering it (Harmon-Jones et al., 2009). Even though the impulse buying process is immediate and done without prior information search, and alternative evaluation, customers perceive high value and satisfaction when they benefit from the product or fulfil an internal desire, which significantly outweighs the negative consequences (Hoch & Bradlow, 1999) and may explain why there is no impact from affective IB derived from emotions on cognitive dissonance.

The conclusion is that there is a significant positive relationship between cognitive IB and cognitive dissonance and no significant positive relationship between affective IB and cognitive dissonance.

5.3 Theoretical Implications

The results of this study offer both theoretical and practical implications. In many consumer behaviour studies, researchers have made an effort to understand IB (Lim & Yazdanifard, 2015), which is a psychologically complex phenomenon (Rook, 1987). However, this thesis added further insights to the external and internal factors that influence IB. In an attempt to examine these relationships, this study primarily aimed at explaining the relationship between various types of promotions and emotions and consumer's IB and between IB and cognitive dissonance.

In this research, impulse buying was conceptualised as defined by Beatty and Ferrell (1998): "A sudden and immediate purchase with no pre-shopping intentions either to buy the specific product category or to fulfil a specific buying task" (p. 170). The study aimed to refine the definition of IB as an attempt to align the industry and academic definitions of the construct. The definition is enhanced from previous conceptualisations by scholars and practitioners alike by providing additional support for the affective and cognitive dimensions of IB. This represents a contribution to both the academic literature as well as the industry (Table 2.1). By supporting the bidimensional nature of the construct, we further clarify IB's concept as a sudden and immediate cognitive or affective unplanned purchase with no pre-shopping intentions.

Thus, six main theoretical implications are derived from the present research. Babin et al. (1994) asserted the hedonic value of shopping suggesting that it reflects shopping's potential entertainment and emotional worth. A first critical contribution of the present study is the clarification of the difference between affective and cognitive impulse buying in what concerns their antecedents (promotions and emotions) and cognitive dissonance.

Secondly, cognitive impulse buying in hypermarkets is strongly and directly influenced by promotions, and it is not influenced by emotions. This means that the promotional techniques impact the lack of planning dimension of IB; mainly consumers who do not have a shopping list before entering the hypermarket will impulse buy promotional products, while those same consumers are not impacted by their emotions to impulse buying.

Thirdly, affective impulse buying in hypermarkets is directly influenced by positive and negative emotions, and it is not influenced by the promotions. This means that consumers who buy on impulse based on the difficulty to leave nice things and on an urgent feeling to buy are impacted by their emotions,

both positive and negative. This study also provided insights to some confusions in past studies about the impact of positive and negative emotions on IB as both emotions have a positive impact on affective IB but no impact on cognitive IB.

Fourthly, cognitive impulse buying in hypermarkets is strongly influenced by discounts, client card and free samples but it is not influenced by "buy one get one free" and EDBP. Consumers are often attracted by the price reduction, even if they were not planning to buy the product; they will buy it because it is discounted. In addition, possession of the client card impacts IB. This result also further emphasises the importance of loyalty programs in the retail industry. Accordingly, free samples were found to impact the cognitive IB as consumers who have lack of planning will be influenced to buy the sampled products on impulse. The results indicate that monetary promotions, like discounts and client card, and non-monetary promotions, like free samples, impact IB for consumers who have lack of planning and shop without a list of items they plan to buy.

Fifthly, cognitive dissonance is strongly influenced by cognitive impulse buying, but it is not influenced by affective impulse buying. When consumers impulse buy as a reflection of making a purchase based on promotions, they feel dissonance as the cognitive component which refers to lack of thinking and understanding (Youn, 2000) exist so they will end up thinking about this purchase and regret it. While consumers who impulse buy based on their struggle to leave the nice things they saw at the store will not feel any dissonance as their needs and feelings to buy this product even on impulse are already fulfilled, so they will not start to think about the purchase and regret it.

Lastly, this study provides insights about the monetary and non-monetary types of in-store promotions that can influence consumers' impulse buying, suggesting that consumers who have their shopping list will be attracted more to "buy one get one free" and EDBP kinds of offers. Although "buy one get one free" does not impact IB, it can impact planned buying as this promotion technique had a high-frequency percentage for buying the product. While, in contrast, consumers who do not plan what to buy will be more attracted by discounts, free samples and the usage of the client card to purchase on impulse.

5.4 Managerial implications

The implications for practice, specifically retailers, are summarising in seven main managerial implications derived from the present research. Firstly, the hypermarkets must always put into consideration the competitive environment they exist in, as it was clearly shown from the result of the

insights about the types of in-store promotions that influence consumers' impulse buying that customers always look for promotions, they tend to visit the hypermarkets that have a variety of promotional techniques. Promotions affect the consumers' lack of planning and deliberation positively, and in turn, have no impact on consumers' feeling of pleasure and excitement and difficulty to leave nice things. The findings indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between promotions and IB, specifically discounts, client card and free samples. Since promotions significantly influence customers' IB, retailers should continuously reinforce the use of those kinds of in-store promotions and try to enhance the quality of the promoted items to influence consumers' both in-store responses and future store choice decisions.

Moreover, it has been found that discounts are the most influential promotional technique and that, consumers agreed that even if the promotions do not influence them to buy on impulse, it is a great feeling to buy what they need at a discounted price. According to the analysis of the promotion magazine of the hypermarket at the time when data was collected, many of the last products consumers bought were under the promotions frame (see Appendix I). The findings of this study showed strong evidence that retailers can utilise regarding in-store promotion techniques to increase the desirability of products, to help customers become aware of the products and to create favourable attitudes and enhance the quality of promoted products and put more effort into creating attractive and eye-catching promotions.

Secondly, grocery items and electronic devices appear to be the most purchased products under the promotion even if the hypermarket was not the perfect place to buy electronics, but those products were on the top of the most purchased items' list from the hypermarket under promotions. Also, it has been shown through the open-ended question that peers influence consumers purchasing behaviour even if they are not accompanied by them on the shopping trip (see Appendix E- Frequencies Tables).

Thirdly, the retailer's management should take into consideration the influence of the EDBP as a promotional tool. They must consider how to promote products approaching their expiry date to enhance the after-purchase feeling. Some consumers appear to understand that EDBP does not mean that the products have bad quality, but there is a need to inform other consumers about that and about the different method of storage that could be done to reserve the product. At the stages of the impulse buying process, retailers can try to attract the consumers' wish for the products, and increase awareness about products quality, which can satisfy the desire and affect the impulse purchase. How promoted products will

eventually be displayed and informed at the store level is an essential consideration in the strategic marketing/merchandising plan.

Fourthly, regarding emotions, making consumers feeling good while in the hypermarket is a critical outcome as seen. Females tend to go shopping for changing their mood, and positive emotions also lead to increasing affective impulse buying. Therefore, emotions play an important part and are strongly affecting consumers decision to buy on impulse. Dincer (2010) recommended the use of affective components such as fun, fantasy, and social or emotional gratification in-store signage and advertisements to trigger IB emotions.

Fifthly, the cognitive dissonance feeling is an important concern which hypermarkets managers have to put into consideration, the researcher suggests that promoted items must be aligned with a good value for money to minimise this feeling, so that, when consumers evaluate the purchase after it is done, they do not feel regret but in contrast gain.

Sixthly, consumer researchers have mostly focused on finding the different factors that induce IB in various developed countries (Bayley & Nancarrow, 1998). In the emerging economies, there is a need to study IB due to recent development in retailing and substantial cultural differences when compared to developed economies (Kacen & Lee, 2002). Dramatic increases in personal disposable income, lifestyle and credit availability in these economies, are reinforcing the attractiveness of these markets. Creating an appealing physical shopping environment and in-store stimuli are essential to enhance sales through unplanned buying (Abratt & Goodey, 1990). Our findings can help hypermarkets to understand their consumers and delight them during and after their shopping trip.

Lastly, marketing managers should begin to realise the difference between affective IB and cognitive IB and focus more on the one they can generate profit from without any cognitive dissonance feeling. It was found that the affective impulse buying does not affect the cognitive dissonance which suggests the use of affective components such as fun, fantasy, and social or emotional gratification in the hypermarket to trigger affective IB as also recommended by Dincer (2010).

5.5 Limitations of the Current Work

The limitations of the study are those characteristics of research design and methodology that influenced the interpretation of the findings in the thesis, and they are out of the researcher control. To begin with, the fact that we used a convenience sample is not without limitations. Convenience sampling is

a type of nonprobability sampling in which people are sampled because they are "convenient" sources of data for researchers (Battaglia, 2008, p. 7). According to Fink (2003), one of the limitations of non-probability sampling is its susceptibility to selection biases, since all suitable respondents may not stand an equal chance of being selected as part of a sample. The study recruited a sample of participants immediately after finishing their shopping trip in the chosen hypermarket for the study in Egypt which we believe was an important feature for selecting our unit of analysis. In what concern the number of valid questionnaires, although we attempted to collect as many surveys as we can, this was not always possible as some consumers did not have enough time to fill out our mall intercept survey. The study was conducted in Egypt; thus, the results of this study cannot be generalised to a larger population.

Another limitation is time; the data was collected over a certain interval of time (weekends) in which the applications of promotional techniques are at their peak point in the hypermarket. Therefore, the snapshot is dependent on conditions occurring during the data collection time. However, in order to test the effect of the different promotional techniques chosen for the study, we had to make sure that consumers had experienced these techniques during the shopping trip.

Furthermore, considering the hypermarket environment in which the study was conducted, it was hard to measure cognition and affect components together as recommended by Verplanken and Herabadi (2001) who developed the scale used in this study for capturing IB. There are several reasons why this may have occurred. First, the ten items that loaded for affective IB, originally from the affect scale, were based on the respondents' emotions and difficulty to leave nice things while in the store, while the items loaded for the cognitive IB, originally from the cognitive scale were based on the lack of planning and deliberation. Hypermarkets include a variety of stimulus including different types of promotions, emotions that can be generated during the shopping trip. Due to the nature of all of these stimuli, respondents are mentally and emotionally involved, making impulse decisions and assessing if they are pleased and satisfied with their purchase. Thus, having all of the information and visual elements alongside each other can make the experience very engaging both cognitively and affectively, which may contribute to the difficulty of separating consumers' thoughts as well as their feelings about the triggers that lead to an impulse purchase.

Furthermore, another limitation refers to the choice of specific types of promotions and specific kinds of emotions out of all the existing variables that have been identified in the literature review. Some

promotional techniques like coupons were found to have a relationship with IB (Shimp & Kavas, 1984; Stern, 1962) but the researcher could not include it in the study as it is rarely applied in the population of the study.

Lastly, there was a lack of prior research studies on the area of expiration date-based pricing as a tool of in-store promotion which also serves as an essential opportunity to identify new gaps in the literature and to describe the need for further research.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

A number of directions for future studies can be given.

Further research could investigate more on the different facets of IB, and explore the impact of the different variables that have been found to have a relationship with IB on every facet, in order to have an adequate understanding of the conceptual framework of IB. In addition, replicating the study in different countries, both emerging and developed countries, would be important to determine the generalizability of our findings.

Understanding affective and cognitive impulse buying through a qualitative study is also recommended. The mall intercept gives some insights; however, interviewing customers is essential to get an in-depth understanding. In addition, the mall intercept gave some insights about the influence of gender on going shopping to change the mood, and the importance of consumers' peers in shopping behaviour, those areas need more investigation, specifically, their relationship with IB in both facets.

EDBP as a promotional tool and its relationship with planned buying behaviour, green marketing and consumer behaviour, in addition to the study the best ways to educate consumers about the products approaching its expiry date are very important to consider in future studies.

Further, additional research to be conducted on the impulse buying tendency and its relationship with promotions and emotions on service providers is recommended. Development of new reliable measurement scales and other measurement possibilities is also a future research direction. In addition, a comparison study between more countries will give more understanding of the phenomena in different cross-cultural contexts to assess the generalisability of our findings.

Appendices

Appendix A

Consumer Behaviour Theories

A. 1 Consumer Behaviour - An overview

Marketing concerns satisfying buyer needs and behind each marketing strategy are theories aground firmly in economics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, and studies in human behaviour.

Marketing strategies cannot be successfully implemented without a good understanding of consumer behaviour. Consumer behaviour grew after the Second World War (Applebaum, 1951; Clover, 1950; West, 1951). A significant change occurred in the marketplace after the Second World War leading to a new paradigm aiming at concentrating more on what consumers want instead of what to produce. A significant catalytic influence in this emergency was the formation of the Association for Consumer Research in 1969 which contributed to the growth of the literature.

More recently, the growth of consumerism and consumer regulations stresses a critical position that is given to the consumer, so this shifting in the markets has to fulfil the needs by focusing more on the consumer behaviour and consumer's desires. The transformation of marketing concept from the selling concept to consumer-oriented marketing lead to the development of buyer behaviour as an independent discipline in marketing science.

Consumer behaviour is interdisciplinary and is based on concepts and theories developed by scientists, philosophers, and researchers in many fields. Consumer behaviour according to Solomon (1995) is:" The processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy needs and desires"(p. 7).

Solomon et al. (1995) describe consumer behaviour as the process through which consumers either individual or in groups get, use, and dispose of products or services. It includes all the factors that influence directly or indirectly the process of making consumer decisions. It is also essential to clarify the difference between consumer buying behaviour and group or organisational buying behaviour, as there are significant variances between the two. Also, Schiffman and Kanuk (2007) take a similar line to define

consumer behaviour as the actions of consumers involved in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs. It has been known that the theories of consumer behaviour address critical and significant topics, like how customers are buying as individuals as opposed to how they are buying in groups and how they use or dispose of products. For example, business consumers who are responsible for buying goods and services for their organisation tend to work with colleagues to make a collective decision following formal procedures so, in general, those decisions will be more complex. While these types of differences are essential to bear in mind, this thesis focuses on consumer behaviour and the purchasing processes of individual consumers.

Reviewing consumer behaviour allows marketing researchers to expand their knowledge in many areas. In fact, according to Ramachander (1988) consumer behaviour "is a confluence of at least three streams of social science; individual psychology, social psychology and cultural anthropology" (p. 2).

Marketers understand that the more they know about the consumers and about their decision making, the more they can design better marketing strategies and create innovative and new promotional ideas that will influence consumers more efficiently and effectively. The importance of consumer behaviour leads marketers to think of a separate branch of marketing research which is the Consumer Research, to deal exclusively with consumer-related issues.

Previous researchers proposed that there exist comprehensive models for consumer decision making, they tried to suggest the psychology of individual consumers from the point at which they become conscious of a need to satisfying it by purchasing and consuming a product to their final evaluation of the consequences of having done so (Engel et al., 1968; Howard & Sheth, 1969; Nicosia, 1966).

A. 2 Consumer Behaviour Theories

Throughout years, several theories of consumer behaviour have been proposed; in this work, we will explore the most critical approaches in the consumer behaviour literature related to a better understanding of cognitive and affective impulse buying behaviour.

The first theory comes under the prescriptive cognitive models, firstly established when marketing researchers start focusing more on attitudes and beliefs in the 1960s as determinants of consumer buying behaviour (Ahtola, 1975). Fishbein (1967) created the most critical theory, the Theory of Reasoned Action, which holds that behavioural intention is a function of attitudes on and normative factors dealing with external referents (Figure A. 1).

In the Fishbein theory, the normative factor is defined to be the sum of products of two measures for each referent; firstly, the respondent's belief about what the specific referent expects the consumers to do. Secondly, the motivation to comply or the consumer's desire to adhere to the referent (Weddle & Bettman, 1974). It means that consumers are acting rationally based on the analysis of the pre-existing attitudes in the decision-making process and that consumers act based on their intentions and beliefs to obtain a specific result or outcome.

The term belief has been defined by Kotler and Keller (2006) as a clear thought that a person holds about something, and it can be a result of experience or just an opinion about something, and it does not necessarily reflect the reality. Attitude is the consumer favourable or unfavourable estimations, moods, and tendencies towards a product (Kotler & Keller, 2006, p. 152). Therefore, attitude is a complex cognitive concept posing difficulties for marketers in the mission of changing consumer's attitudes. Attitudes predict behaviour and also explain it by providing one reason for the action, whereas an intention is an outcome of many beliefs and only predicts behaviour (East, 1997, p. 131-132).

According to this theory, marketers must associate a purchase with a positive post-purchase evaluation to guarantee that customers will go through the purchase decisions several times obtaining the excellent result, and it is also essential to understand what makes customers buy specific products. The Theory of Reasoned Action holds that consumers act rationally to attain favourable outcomes and to evade disappointing ones as the beliefs about the consequences of behaviour and its evaluation contribute to the actual behaviour. Through this theory, the beliefs, attitudes and intentions predict customer behaviour. In conclusion, the intention of the consumer to behave in a specific way is determined by the attitude toward that behaviour and by the subjective norms (Hale et al., 2013).

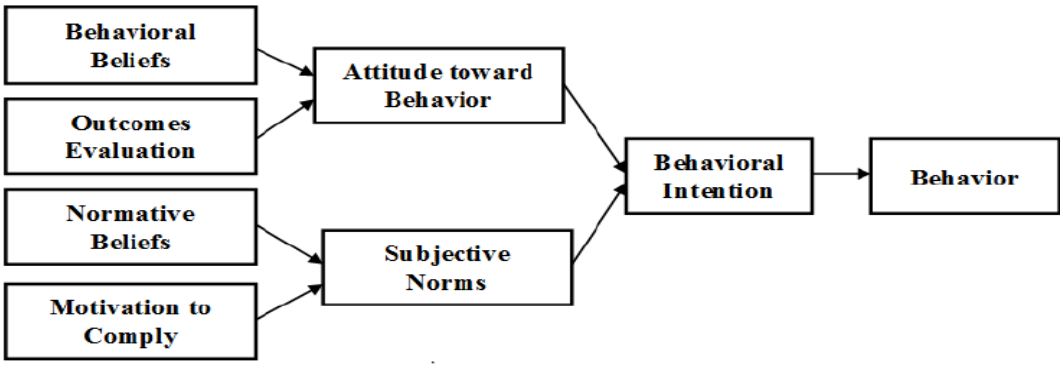

Figure A. 1: Theory of Reasoned Action

Source: (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975)

Later, an extension of this theory was proposed, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Figure A. 2), which seeks out to address the seeming over-dependence on intentions to predict behaviours (Ajzen, 2006). It added a new variable called "perceived behavioural control" to the Theory of Reasoned Action. It improved in explaining human's behaviour in particular circumstances where the consumer has no control over his behaviour (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991).

In this approach, the behavioural plan is measured by a dynamic combination of the attitude, the subjective norm and the perceived behavioural control variables. Actual behaviour is again derived mainly from behavioural intention but is mediated to some degree by perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 2006).

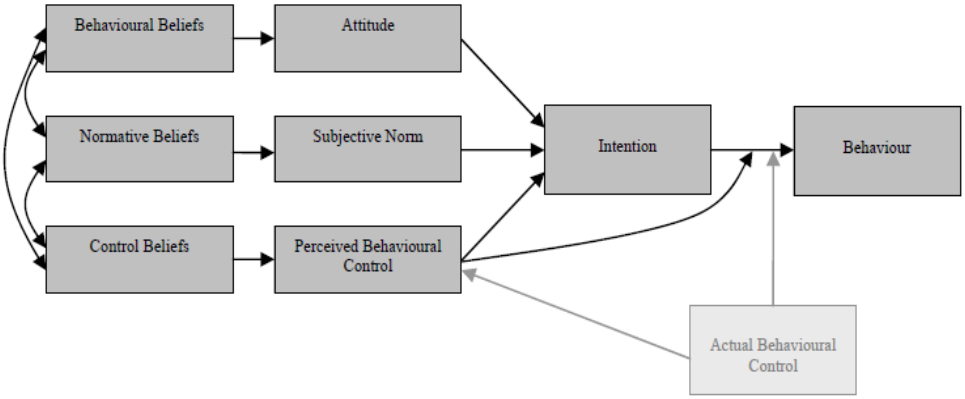

Figure A. 2: Theory of Planned Behaviour

Source: (Ajzen, 2006, cited in Bray 2008 p. 22)

Later on, researchers recognised that decision maker possesses a list of plans. The customer evaluates the effort required to make a particular choice, and then he or she selects a method best suited to the level of energy needed. The system of events is known as the constructive processing in which lets the consumer fit the level of his or her cognitive effort to the task at hand (Bettman & Zins, 1977). This third theory is the Motivation-Need Theory from Abraham Maslow (1965).

Maslow (1965) assumes that people act to fulfil their needs in a hierarchically organised form and that needs should be satisfied before the requirements in the top of the hierarchy. According to Maslow, the physiological needs to survive like hunger and thirst come first, then safety needs, social and love

needs, self-esteem needs, and finally self-actualisation needs. The aesthetic needs were added later to the list (Maslow, 1970). Marketing practitioners adapted Maslow's Theory to describe the needs of consumers to tailor marketing messages. Indeed, marketing campaigns try to set up and introduce the product or the service in its place somewhere on the hierarchy of needs so consumers will be motivated to arrange their purchases toward the base of the pyramid.

Subsequently, a different perspective appears in the next two models which are the Theory of Buyer Behaviour (Howard & Sheth, 1969) and the Consumer Decision (Blackwell, Miniard et al., 2001) which are the most widely cited analytical models (Bray, 2008). Those models are often called the Grand Models due to their extensive scope (Kassarjian, 1982).

The Theory of Buyer Behaviour became firstly known as the first consumer decision model developed by Howard in 1963. Later this model was revised by Howard and Sheth in 1969 to become the theory of buyer behaviour. This model integrates the different influences, social, psychological and marketing of consumer choice into a sequence of information processing (Foxall, 1990, p. 10) (Figure A. 3).

Howard and Sheth propose in their model that attitude influences purchase only through intention, what mean that the variables are combined using specific development linkages, and this was a notable contribution from the model. Thus, the model was known for its coherent integration of the different influences on the consumers and the fact that in the discussion of the model, Howard and Sheth acknowledge different types of decision making (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993).

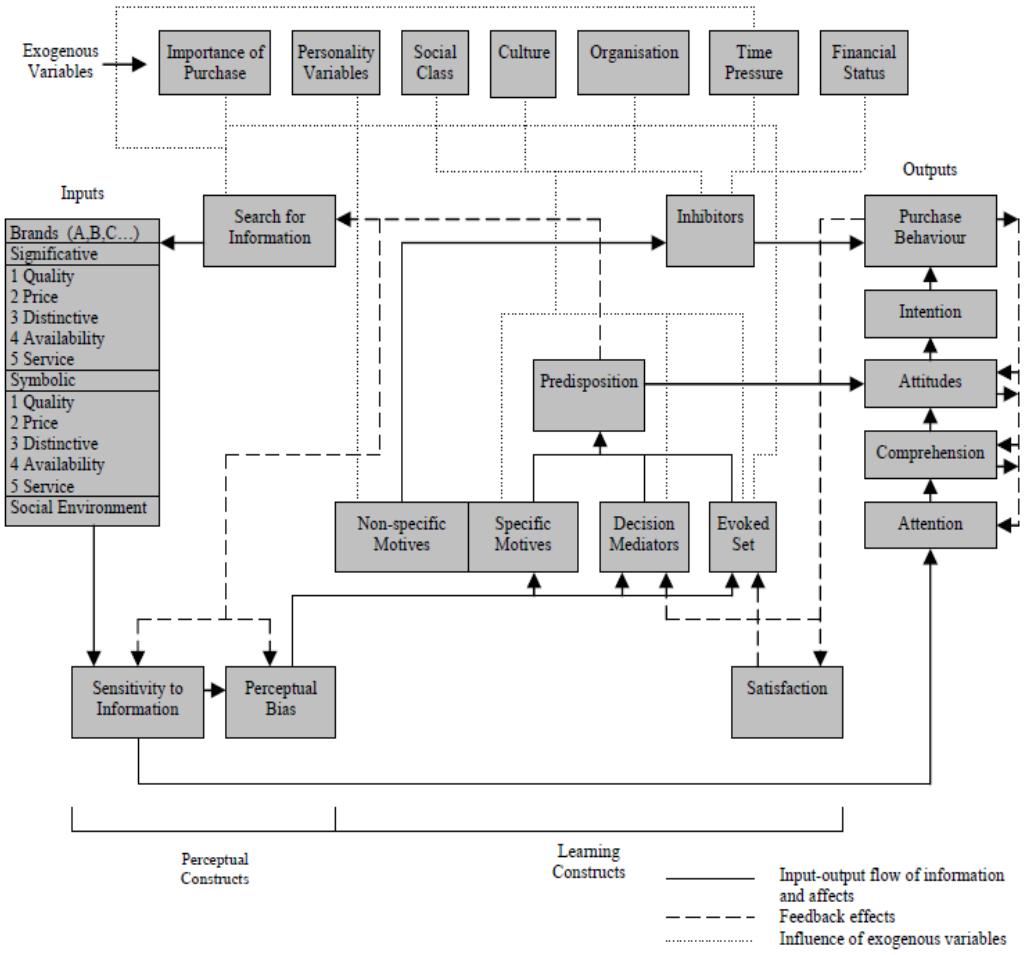

Figure A. 3: The Theory of Buyer Behaviour

Source: (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993 cited in Bray, 2008 p. 12)

The fifth theory has its origins in the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (EKB) Consumer Decision-Making Model (1968) and it is one of the most cited theories of consumer behaviour (Figure A. 4).

Engel et al., (1986) propose that high involvement with a product results in an extended problem-solving process. Therefore, the EKB model suggests a five-step process that consumers go through when making a decision comprising problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase, and post-purchase assessment (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995).

This process is aided by the assistance of active information involving exposure, attention, comprehension, reception, and retention (Engel et al., 1986). The decision determined by the result of the information process-aided decision sequence may have satisfying or dissonant consequences. Festinger

(1957) was the first to introduce the theory of cognitive dissonance for the consumer, which influence future purchasing, and which will be discussed more in details in this thesis.

Engel and Blackwell (1982) correspondingly point out that environmental stimuli may affect the decision sequence acting on the consumer's motivation and intention, and that unpredictable factors like the non-availability of the desired brand, or insufficient funds may affect the actual choice of the consumer. This model considers that observed consumer behaviour is preceded by intrapersonal psychological states, events, attitude and intention-purchase. Moreover, the model depicts these mental events as outputs of the processing of information, considering that consumers search for and use information as part of their logical problem solving and decision-making processes. Thus, one of the leading criticisms of the extended problem-solving models is that they assume that consumers are sophisticated and consistent decision makers (Olshavsky & Granbois, 1979).

This consumer decision model presenting (Figure A. 4) built on the theory of reasoned action deliberated in the previous section and became a reference for the stages that consumers go through when making a purchase.

The first stage is activated by internal or external stimuli. When the buyer finds a need or problem to be solved, he will start immediately searching and looking for information from internal or external sources. As soon as the consumers collect the data, they process all the collected data, where the consumer compares the input to past experiences and expectations, so here, marketers should provide consumers with enough and information to motivate them to buy. At this stage, the customer will analyse all the information available in the pre-purchase evaluation stage then evaluate it, and take the buying process to the next step, which is the purchase decision.

The next stage is the decision-making step; it usually comes after a period of thinking, choosing to make a purchase based on a stable base. Finally, consumers will assess their satisfaction or dissonance towards the acquisition of the product or service after the consumption. This last stage is vital for the sellers because a satisfied customer may develop loyalty towards the point of sale where he or she bought the item. At that point, the process will start over, as the consumer needs another product or service (Kotler & Keller, 2009, p. 207-214).

There exist many factors which make a consumer behave in a certain way. The factors that come while finding the answers to the what to buy, where to buy, why to buy, when to buy, how to buy, to buy or

not to buy questions are the ones who influence buyer behaviour. These factors knowingly or unknowingly affect the consumer. These influences can be classified into external (cultural, social, and marketing) and internal (personal, psychological, and situational) factors. The Consumer behaviour model considers that the buying decision process is affected by external and internal variables including marketing, situational and social influences. Firstly, the marketing influences, known as the 4P's: product, price, place and promotion. Lately, three more variables have been added by Booms and Bitner's insight in 1981 for services leading to an extension of the traditional marketing mix, which are people, process, and physical evidence.

Secondly, the situational influences which refer to the situation and circumstances: environment, work, school, university, and the people surrounding the shopping trip. Usually outside of the control of marketers, manufacturers and, sometimes even retailers. In general, the situation affects how consumers interact with a product, informing their opinion at that moment in time.

Thirdly, the social factor which is culture, subculture, social class, and family that affect the consumer behaviour through direct and indirect messages and reference groups also affect consumers' thoughts, feelings, and actions (Churchill & Peter, 1998). Consequently, social factors play a significant role in the segmentation process.

A consumers' need may start one or more stages of the decision process. More recently, it has been noted that consumers do not follow the logical steps in most purchases but follow their emotions and feelings as they often have more effect on the conclusion as to evidence and product features (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010).

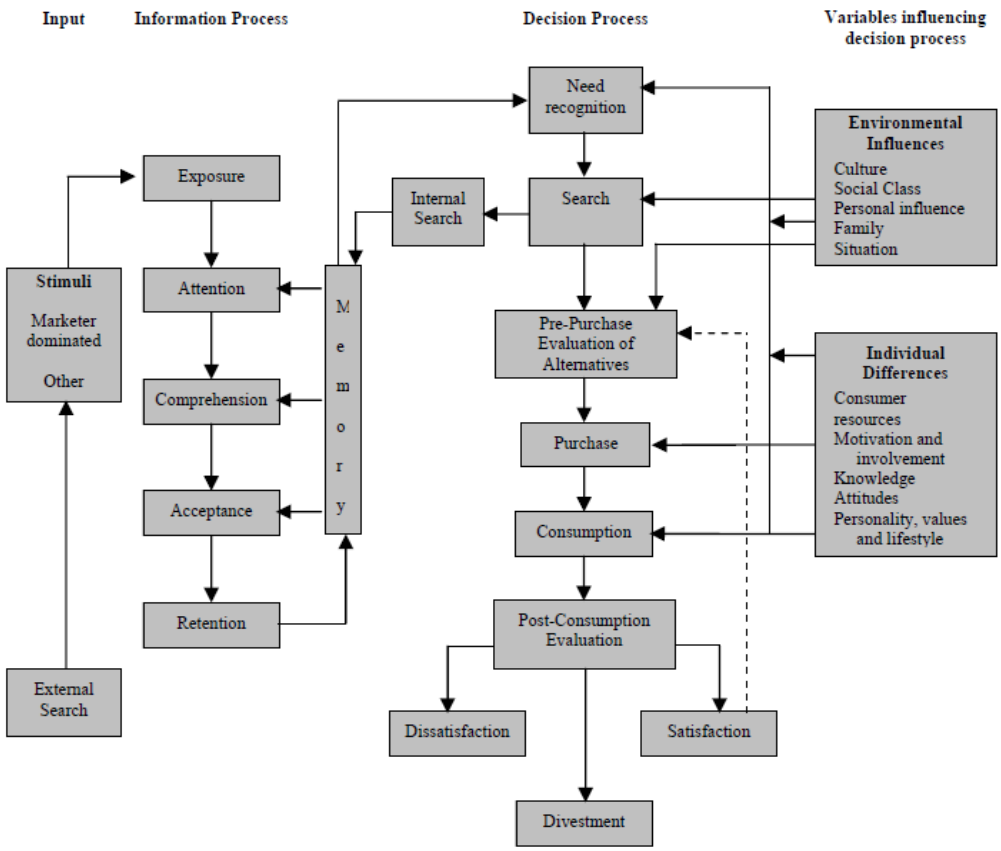

Figure A. 4: Consumer Decision Model

Source :(Blackwell, Miniard, et al., 2001 cited in Bray 2008 p. 16)

According to Bray (2008), decision-making models point out the complexity of consumer choices and classify the main factors that lead to behaviour. A wide range of factors have been posited across the models, and each has evidence to justify its inclusion in attempts to explain behaviour.

Through the theories that have been seen in the previous section, it can be concluded that the body of knowledge underlying consumers' decisions has been mostly studied from a rational view. The choice is made after fully considering the various options from alternatives (Tversky & Kahneman, 2000, p. 1) or from finding the most critical needs need to be fulfilled first. However, in some cases, consumers violate these rules of rationality. In this case, customers take decisions without careful consideration of the available alternatives, with insufficient information about the product of interest, or without the prior intent of purchase (Tversky & Kahneman, 2000, p.1). One such example is impulse buying behaviour.

The economists were the first to build a model for buying behaviour. The early economic view considered consumer behaviour regarding a single act of purchase itself and post-purchase reactions. Economic theory holds that buying decisions are the result of rational and conscious financial calculations. The individual buyer seeks to spend his/her income on the products that will offer them the best reimbursements according to his/her perceptions and prices available (Pachauri, 2002). The antecedents of this view traced back to Adam Smith (1776).

Alfred Marshall (1890) merged the classical and neoclassical traditions in economics, into a refined theoretical framework, which documented as the theory of marginal utility is designed to make more straightforward assumptions and thus study the effects of variations in each variable like price, when all other variables remain land constant. Although economic models such as the Marshallian theory of "marginal-utility" are respected to the extent that they provide hypotheses in a behavioural area like the lower the price of a product the higher the sales, the validity of these theories does not keep on if all consumers perform as calculating machines in making their buying decisions.

The Marshallian model neglects the critical question of how product and brand preferences are formed, while pure economics alone cannot clarify all variations in sales by Westing and Albaum (1975), several sub-perspectives within the discipline set-out to give rational clarifications for psychological, behavioural, and combined demand variations in behaviour, to name just a few.

In conclusion, Consumer behaviour theories forecast how customers make purchasing decisions and show marketers what the best way to obtain predictable behaviours. As through years, the rational choice making was dominating consumer behaviour; however, this perspective does not capture impulse purchases which are a significant part of a consumer's buying patterns.

Appendix B

Questionnaire - English Version

Impulse Buying Behaviour Questionnaire

Dear Customer,

I am conducting a thesis on impulse buying. The drive is to find out the effects of promotions, Emotions and Cognitive dissonance on impulse buying decisions in the hypermarkets in Egypt. Your contribution is voluntary, and any information provided by you during the research will not be attributed to you as an individual.

If you have read the above information and agreed to participate in this study, please mark right and proceed to fill in this questi

We will be happy to inform you about the result of this study. If you wish, please write your e-mail:

Thank you very much for your help.

The Researcher.

1. **To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements according to the scale below?**

The purchase of my favourite product is influenced by:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
Discounts					
Buy one get one free					
Free samples					
Client card					
Expiration date-based pricing (items approaching expiration date on discount)					

2. **To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements according to the scale below?**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
I usually think carefully before I buy something.					
I usually only buy things that I intend to buy.					
If I buy something; I usually do that spontaneously.					
Most of my purchases are planned in advance.					
I only buy things that I really need.					
It is not my style to just buy things.					
I like to compare different brands before I buy one.					
Before I buy something, I always carefully consider whether I need it.					
I am used to buying things ´on the spot´.					
I often buy things without thinking.					

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
It is a struggle to leave nice things I see in a shop.					
I sometimes cannot suppress the feeling of wanting things I see in shops.					
I sometimes feel guilty after having bought something.					
I am not the kind of person who falls in love at first sight ´ with things I see in shops.					
I can become very excited if I see something I would like to buy.					
I always see something nice whenever I pass by shops.					
I find it difficult to pass up a bargain.					
If I see something new; I want to buy it.					
I am a bit reckless in buying things.					
I sometimes buy things because I like buying things, rather than because I need them.					

3. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
If I see an interesting promotional offer on in-store signs, I tend to buy.					
Sale/clearance signs entice me to look through the products.					
When I see a special promotion sign, I go to look at that product.					
I am more likely to make an unintended purchase if the product has a sale or clearance sign.					

4. Based on your last shopping experience, please answer the following questions. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
I felt excited on this shopping trip					
I felt happy during this shopping trip					
I go shopping to change my mood					
I felt bored on this shopping trip					
I felt upset during this shopping trip					

5. Based on your impulse purchase, please answer the following questions. To what extent do you agree and disagree with each of the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
I wonder if I really need this product.					
I wonder whether I should have bought anything at all.					
I wonder if I have made the right choice.					
I wonder If I have done the right thing in buying this product.					

6. what is the last product you bought on impulse?

7. Why did you buy it unplanned?

8. Are you satisfied with this purchase?

9. Your age

- ☐ 19 years or younger
- ☐ 20 to 29 years
- ☐ 30 to 39 years
- ☐ 40 to 49 years
- ☐ 50 to 59 years
- ☐ 60 years or older

10. Gender

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

11. Your occupation

- ☐ Business owner
- ☐ Professional (e.g. doctor, engineer, accountant, lawyer)
- ☐ Manager
- ☐ Employee
- ☐ Student
- ☐ Housewife
- ☐ Retired
- ☐ Unemployed

Others (please specify)

12. Please determine your neighbourhood

Thank you for your time & effort.

Questionnaire - Arabic Version

عزيزي المستهلك،

في أطار البحث العلمي أقوم حاليا بأعداد دراسه عن سلوك الشراء المندفع و المفاجئ الغير مخطط له التي تهدف الي تحديد تأثير العروض والعواطف المختلفه على قرارات الشراء المفاجئ بالهايبر ماركت في مصر. يسعدنا مشاركتك التطوعيه علما بأن أي معلومات تقدمها لنا اثناء البحث تكون سريه و تستخدم لاغراض البحث العلمي و لن تكون منسوبا اليك شخصيا.

اذا قرأت هذه المعلومات الوارده اعلاه ووافقت علي المشاركه في هذه الدراسه يرجي وضع علامه صح و ملء هذا الاستبيان.

ويسعدنا أن نوافيك بنتيجه هذه الدراسه فأذا رغبت بذلك برجاء كتابه بريدك الألكتروني

شكرا جدا لمساعدتكم وحسن تعاونكم .

الباحثه.

السؤال الاول : إلى أي مدى توافق أو لا توافق على كل عبارة من العبارات التالية وفقًا للمقياس الموضح أدناه؟

يتأثر شراء منتجي المفضل بما يلي:	غيرموافق جدا	غيرموافق	لا أعلم	موافق	موافق جدا
خصومات					
اشتري واحدة واحصل على واحدة مجانا					
عينة مجانية					
بطاقة العميل					
التسعير القائم على تاريخ انتهاء الصلاحية (المنتجات المخفضه التي تقترب من تاريخ انتهاء الصلاحية)					

السؤال الثاني : إلى أي مدى توافق أو لا توافق على كل من العبارات التالية وفقًا للمقياس أدناه؟

	غيرموافق جدا	غير موافق	لا أعلم	موافق	موافق جدا
أفكر عادة بعناية قبل شراء شيء ما.					
عادة ما أشتري فقط الأشياء التي أنوي شراءها.					
إذا اشتريت شيئًا ، عادة ما أفعل ذلك بشكل عفوي.					
يتم تخطيط معظم مشترياتي مقدمًا.					
أنا فقط أشتري الأشياء التي أحتاج إليها حقًا.					
ليس أسلوبي مجرد شراء الأشياء.					
أحب مقارنة مختلف العلامات التجارية قبل شراء واحدة.					
قبل أن أشتري شيئًا ، أراعي بعناية ما إذا كنت بحاجة إليه.					
أنا معتاد على شراء الأشياء "على الفور".					
كثيرا ما أشتري الأشياء دون تفكير.					
أنا أقاوم لترك الأشياء اللطيفة التي أراها في المتجر.					
في بعض الأحيان لا أستطيع السيطره علي شعوري بالرغبة في الأشياء التي أريدها في المتاجر.					
أشعر أحيانًا بالذنب بعد شرائي بعض الاشياء.					
أنا لست من النوع الذي يقع في الحب لأول وهلة					

	غيرموافق جدا	غير موافق	لا أعلم	موافق	موافق جدا
بالأشياء التي أراها في المتاجر.					
يمكنني أن أشعر بالحماس الشديد إذا رأيت شيئًا أرغب في شرائه.					
أنا دائما أرى شيئا جميلا كلما مررت بالمتاجر.					
أجد صعوبة في التخلي عن شراء منتج .					
إذا رأيت شيئًا جديدًا ؛ أريد شرائه.					
أنا متهور قليلا في شراء الأشياء.					
أحيانا أشتري أشياء لأني أحب شراء الأشياء ليس لاني احتاجها.					

السؤال الثالث: أستنادًا إلى آخر تجربة تسوق ، يرجى الإجابة على الأسئلة التالية. إلى أي مدى توافق أو لا توافق على كل عبارة من العبارات التالية؟

	غيرموافق جدا	غير موافق	لا أعلم	موافق	موافق جدا
أميل لشراء المنتجات أذا كان عليها لافته عرض مغري.					
عندما أرى لافتات تخفيضات كبيره او تصفيات على منتج ، أذهب للبحث عن هذا المنتج.					
لافتات العروض الخاصه تغريني للنظر على المنتج.					
من المرجح أن أقوم بعملية شراء غير مقصودة إذا كان المنتج يحتوي على خصومات.					

السؤال الرابع : استنادًا إلى آخر تجربة تسوق ، يرجى الإجابة على الأسئلة التالية. إلى أي مدى توافق أو لا توافق على كل عبارة من العبارات التالية؟

	غيرموافق جدا	غير موافق	لا أعلم	موافق	موافق جدا
تحمست في رحله التسوق.					
شعرت بالسعادة خلال رحلة التسوق.					
أتسوق لتغيير حالتي المذاجيه.					
شعرت بالملل في رحلة التسوق .					
شعرت بالضيق خلال رحلة التسوق .					

السؤال الخامس : استنادًا إلى عملية أندفاعك في الشراء ، يرجى الإجابة على الأسئلة التالية. إلى أي مدى توافق وتختلف مع كل من العبارات التالية؟

	غيرموافق جدا	غير موافق	لا أعلم	موافق	موافق جدا
أتساءل عما إذا كنت حقا بحاجة إلى هذا المنتج.					
أتساءل عما إذا كان يجب علي عدم شراء أي شيء على الإطلاق.					
أتساءل عما إذا كنت قد اتخذت القرار الصحيح.					
أتساءل عما إذا كنت قد أتخذت القرار الصحيح بشرائي لهذا المنتج.					

السؤال السادس : ما هو آخر منتج أندفعت في شرائه ؟

السؤال السابع : ولماذا اشتريته بدون تخطيط؟

السؤال الثامن : وهل أنت راضي عن شراء هذا المنتج؟

السؤال التاسع :عمرك

- □ 19 سنة أو أقل
- □ من 20 إلى 29 سنة
- □ 30 إلى 39 سنة
- □ 40 إلى 49 سنة
- □ 50 إلى 59 سنة
- □ 60 سنة أو أكثر

السؤال العاشر :جنسك

- □ ذكر
- □ أنثى

السؤال الحادي عشر: وظيفتك

- □ صاحب عمل
- □ مهني (مثل طبيب ، مهندس ، محاسب ، محام)
- □ مدير
- □ موظف
- □ طالب علم
- □ ربه منزل
- □ متقاعد
- □ عاطل عن العمل
- □ غير ذلك (يرجى التحديد)

السؤال الثاني عشر: برجاء تحديد المنطقه السكنيه

نشكركم لحسن تعاونكم

Appendix C

Letter from Supervisor

(Letter of Permission)

Campus de Gualtar
4710-057 Braga - P

Universidade do Minho
Escola de Economia e Gestão
Departamento de Gestão

Cherouk Amr is a Doctoral student in the Doctoral Program in Business Administration in the University of Minho, Portugal. She is conducting a thesis on impulse buying behaviour. The drive is to find out the effects of In-store promotions, emotions and cognitive dissonance on impulse buying decisions in the hypermarkets in Egypt.

For this academic research, it is important to conduct an empirical study by applying a survey in your hypermarket, by approaching customers when they finish their purchases and leave the store.

Customers will be asked whether they agree to participate and the questionnaire will take about 10 min. Answers are confidential and will be used solely in an aggregate form for academic and research proposes.

This will be an important contribution to enrich our knowledge in this important area of consumer behavior and we deeply appreciate your contribution.

Braga, 27th March, 2018

UNIVERSIDADE DO MINHO
Escola de Economia e Gestão
BRAGA

Ana Maria Soares

Assistant Professor

School of Economics and Management

University of Minho

https://www.eeg.uminho.pt/en/_layouts/15/UMinho.PortaisUOEI.UI/Pages/userinfo.aspx?p=1890

Appendix D

Photos permission

Appendix E

Frequencies Tables

Table D. 1

Occupation Frequencies

Occupation					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Business Owner	35	13.2	13.2	13.2
	Professional (e.g. doctor, engineer, accountant, lawyer)	52	19.6	19.6	32.8
	Manager	23	8.7	8.7	41.5
	Employee	54	20.4	20.4	61.9
	Student	49	18.5	18.5	80.4
	Housewife	38	14.3	14.3	94.7
	Retired	6	2.3	2.3	97.0
	Unemployed	5	1.9	1.9	98.9
	others	3	1.1	1.1	100.0
	Total	265	100.0	100.0	

Others please specify					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		262	98.9	98.9	98.9
	Mechanical	1	.4	.4	99.2
	Teacher	1	.4	.4	99.6
	Translator	1	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	265	100.0	100.0	

Table D. 2

Neighbourhood Frequencies

Neighbourhood					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	6th of October	59	22.3	22.3	22.3
	Ain shams	1	.4	.4	22.6
	Asyit	1	.4	.4	23.0
	Banha	1	.4	.4	23.4
	Bolak el dakror	1	.4	.4	23.8
	Dumyat	1	.4	.4	24.2
	Down town	2	.8	.8	24.9
	El dokki	6	2.3	2.3	27.2
	El fayom	1	.4	.4	27.5
	El haram	20	7.5	7.5	35.1
	El maadi	9	3.4	3.4	38.5
	El mansora	2	.8	.8	39.2
	El manyal	6	2.3	2.3	41.5
	El moktam	2	.8	.8	42.3
	El qalyobya	1	.4	.4	42.6
	El rehab	1	.4	.4	43.0
	El sayeda zinab	1	.4	.4	43.4
	El tagmo El Khames	3	1.1	1.1	44.5
	Embaba	3	1.1	1.1	45.7
	Fisel	12	4.5	4.5	50.2
	Gesr El swis	2	.8	.8	50.9
	Giza	14	5.3	5.3	56.2
	Hadabt El Ahram	1	.4	.4	56.6

Neighbourhood					
	Hadayk El Ahram	6	2.3	2.3	58.9
	Hadyek El Koba	2	.8	.8	59.6
	Helwan	4	1.5	1.5	61.1
	Madinet Nasr	3	1.1	1.1	62.3
	Masr el adima	2	.8	.8	63.0
	Masr el gedida	4	1.5	1.5	64.5
	Mohndsin	10	3.8	3.8	68.3
	Ouwsim	3	1.1	1.1	69.4
	Qalyob	1	.4	.4	69.8
	Shobra	10	3.8	3.8	73.6
	Zagaziz	1	.4	.4	74.0
	Zamalek	2	.8	.8	74.7
	Zayed	67	25.3	25.3	100.0
	Total	265	100.0	100.0	

Table D. 3

The last Product Bought on Impulse Frequencies

What is the last product you bought on impulse?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	A candle with a smell	1	.4	.4	.4
	A large quantity of fruits	1	.4	.4	.8
	A necklace	1	.4	.4	1.1
	A new kind of coffee	1	.4	.4	1.5
	A piece of chocolate cake	1	.4	.4	1.9
	Air filter	1	.4	.4	2.3
	Apples	1	.4	.4	2.6
	Bag	3	1.1	1.1	3.8

What is the last product you bought on impulse?					
	Battery cable	1	.4	.4	4.2
	Beans	1	.4	.4	4.5
	Biscuit	1	.4	.4	4.9
	Blanket	1	.4	.4	5.3
	Blue cheese	1	.4	.4	5.7
	Body splash	1	.4	.4	6.0
	Body spray	2	.8	.8	6.8
	Brush	1	.4	.4	7.2
	Charger	1	.4	.4	7.5
	Chewing gum	1	.4	.4	7.9
	Chicken	3	1.1	1.1	9.1
	Chips	1	.4	.4	9.4
	Chocolate	8	3.0	3.0	12.5
	Clothes	22	8.3	8.3	20.8
	Coffee	1	.4	.4	21.1
	Coffee, Water and juice	1	.4	.4	21.5
	Corn flakes	1	.4	.4	21.9
	Deep Freezer	1	.4	.4	22.3
	Detergents	2	.8	.8	23.0
	Dairy products	1	.4	.4	23.4
	Diet Food	1	.4	.4	23.8
	Dress	2	.8	.8	24.5
	Dried dates	1	.4	.4	24.9
	Electronics	7	2.6	2.6	27.5
	Foodstuff	12	4.5	4.5	32.1
	Hair cream	1	.4	.4	32.5
	Halvah	1	.4	.4	32.8
	Hand mixer	1	.4	.4	33.2
	Headphone	1	.4	.4	33.6

What is the last product you bought on impulse?					
	Herring	12	4.5	4.5	38.1
	Herring and Tuna	1	.4	.4	38.5
	I do not know	3	1.1	1.1	39.6
	I don't remember	20	7.5	7.5	47.2
	Ice cream	2	.8	.8	47.9
	Juice	4	1.5	1.5	49.4
	Laptop	3	1.1	1.1	50.6
	LCD	5	1.9	1.9	52.5
	Make up	2	.8	.8	53.2
	Mayonnaise	1	.4	.4	53.6
	Meats	9	3.4	3.4	57.0
	Milk	1	.4	.4	57.4
	Mobile	9	3.4	3.4	60.8
	Mortadella	1	.4	.4	61.1
	Mouse pad	2	.8	.8	61.9
	My usual needs	1	.4	.4	62.3
	New kind of coffee	1	.4	.4	62.6
	Nothing	48	18.1	18.1	80.8
	Nutella jar	1	.4	.4	81.1
	Oats	2	.8	.8	81.9
	Pants	3	1.1	1.1	83.0
	Qamar Aldiyn (sheets of dried apricots)	1	.4	.4	83.4
	Ramadan Food	1	.4	.4	83.8
	Ramdan food	3	1.1	1.1	84.9
	Razor blade	1	.4	.4	85.3
	Redbull	1	.4	.4	85.7
	Refrigerator	3	1.1	1.1	86.8
	Rice	3	1.1	1.1	87.9

What is the last product you bought on impulse?					
	Sewing machine for clothes	1	.4	.4	88.3
	Shampoo	3	1.1	1.1	89.4
	Shoes	8	3.0	3.0	92.5
	Shower gel	1	.4	.4	92.8
	Skin care	1	.4	.4	93.2
	Sports equipment	2	.8	.8	94.0
	Sports shoes	2	.8	.8	94.7
	Surface Cleaner	1	.4	.4	95.1
	Takeaway Food	1	.4	.4	95.5
	Tea	1	.4	.4	95.8
	Tissue	1	.4	.4	96.2
	Tobacco	1	.4	.4	96.6
	Tomato sauce	1	.4	.4	97.0
	Toothbrush	1	.4	.4	97.4
	Vegetables	2	.8	.8	98.1
	Video game	2	.8	.8	98.9
	Water cooler	1	.4	.4	99.2
	Wipes	1	.4	.4	99.6
	Yogurt	1	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	265	100.0	100.0	

Table D. 4

Why Buy it Unplanned Frequencies

Why did you buy it unplanned?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	50% discount	1	.4	.4	.4

Why did you buy it unplanned?					
	Attracted me	2	.8	.8	1.1
	Because I always use it	1	.4	.4	1.5
	Beautiful	2	.8	.8	2.3
	Because I was hungry	1	.4	.4	2.6
	Because it is distinctive	1	.4	.4	3.0
	Because it was banned from importing	1	.4	.4	3.4
	Colour	2	.8	.8	4.2
	Discount	11	4.2	4.2	8.3
	Discount 25%	1	.4	.4	8.7
	Discount and Promotional offer	1	.4	.4	9.1
	Easter	10	3.8	3.8	12.8
	Easter promotion	1	.4	.4	13.2
	Expiration date of validity	1	.4	.4	13.6
	For its true reduction rate	1	.4	.4	14.0
	For my baby	1	.4	.4	14.3
	For my children	2	.8	.8	15.1
	For my daughter	1	.4	.4	15.5
	For my diet	1	.4	.4	15.8
	For my home	1	.4	.4	16.2
	For my husband and my son	1	.4	.4	16.6
	For my sister	1	.4	.4	17.0
	For my son	1	.4	.4	17.4
	For tasting it	2	.8	.8	18.1
	For travelling	1	.4	.4	18.5
	Good price	5	1.9	1.9	20.4
	Home needs	1	.4	.4	20.8
	I always plan for my shopping	1	.4	.4	21.1

Why did you buy it unplanned?					
	I always plan my purchases	1	.4	.4	21.5
	I always use it	1	.4	.4	21.9
	I do not know	17	6.4	6.4	28.3
	I don't plan	1	.4	.4	28.7
	I don't remember	18	6.8	6.8	35.5
	I found a good offer on it	1	.4	.4	35.8
	I liked it	18	6.8	6.8	42.6
	I liked the pack	3	1.1	1.1	43.8
	I lost my Mobile	1	.4	.4	44.2
	I love clothes so much	1	.4	.4	44.5
	I love coffee	2	.8	.8	45.3
	I love it	7	2.6	2.6	47.9
	I love technology	1	.4	.4	48.3
	I needed it	29	10.9	10.9	59.2
	I trust their quality	2	.8	.8	60.0
	I used to	1	.4	.4	60.4
	I was bored	1	.4	.4	60.8
	I was happy	1	.4	.4	61.1
	I was hungry	1	.4	.4	61.5
	I was tempted by the offer	1	.4	.4	61.9
	Most of my purchases are unplanned	1	.4	.4	62.3
	My favourite colour	1	.4	.4	62.6
	My usual purchases	1	.4	.4	63.0
	My wife insisted	1	.4	.4	63.4
	Nice	1	.4	.4	63.8
	Nothing	48	18.1	18.1	81.9
	Offer 3+1	1	.4	.4	82.3

Why did you buy it unplanned?					
	Offer instalment 6 months without interest	1	.4	.4	82.6
	Preparing for the holy month of Ramadan	1	.4	.4	83.0
	Preparing for the holy month of Ramdan	2	.8	.8	83.8
	Promotional offer	32	12.1	12.1	95.8
	Quality	6	2.3	2.3	98.1
	Rapid decision	2	.8	.8	98.9
	The scent attracted me	1	.4	.4	99.2
	To its advantages	1	.4	.4	99.6
	Well-known brand	1	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	265	100.0	100.0	

Table D. 5

Satisfaction of the Purchase Frequencies

Are you satisfied with this purchase?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	I didn't try	6	2.3	2.3	2.3
	I don't know	61	23.0	23.0	25.3
	I regret bought it	1	.4	.4	25.7
	I think so	1	.4	.4	26.0
	Mediocre	2	.8	.8	26.8
	No	47	17.7	17.7	44.5
	No Bad taste	1	.4	.4	44.9
	No, ruined my diet	1	.4	.4	45.3

Are you satisfied with this purchase?					
	Some how	2	.8	.8	46.0
	Sure	2	.8	.8	46.8
	Unfortunately	1	.4	.4	47.2
	Yes	136	51.3	51.3	98.5
	Yes strongly	3	1.1	1.1	99.6
	Yes, to make them happy	1	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	265	100.0	100.0	

Appendix F

Tables of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

F. 1 CFA for Impulse Buying Construct step by step

Table F. 1

Factor Loadings for IB First Step

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.641
impulseA2	<—	IBT	-.149
ImpulseA8	<—	IBT	-.219
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.653
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.663
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.259
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.573
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.710
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.681
impulseA	<—	IBT	-.010
ImpulseA10	<—	IBT	-.166
ImpulseA9	<—	IBT	-.263
ImpulseA7	<—	IBT	-.291
ImpulseA6	<—	IBT	-.247
ImpulseA5	<—	IBT	-.248
ImpulseA3	<—	IBT	-.056
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.622
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.117
Impulse10	<—	IBT	.017
ImpulseA4	<—	IBT	-.099

Table F. 2

Factor Loadings for IB Second Step

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.670
impulseA2	<—	IBT	-.079
ImpulseA8	<—	IBT	-.163

			Estimate
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.681
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.667
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.290
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.596
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.691
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.671
impulseA	<—	IBT	.067
ImpulseA10	<—	IBT	-.106
ImpulseA9	<—	IBT	-.192
ImpulseA6	<—	IBT	-.176
ImpulseA5	<—	IBT	-.174
ImpulseA3	<—	IBT	.012
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.645
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.167
Impulse10	<—	IBT	.070
ImpulseA4	<—	IBT	-.039

Table F. 3

Factor Loadings for IB Step Three

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.677
impulseA2	<—	IBT	-.048
ImpulseA8	<—	IBT	-.129
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.687
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.665
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.306
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.600
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.683
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.665
impulseA	<—	IBT	.095
ImpulseA10	<—	IBT	-.070
ImpulseA6	<—	IBT	-.150
ImpulseA5	<—	IBT	-.147
ImpulseA3	<—	IBT	.038
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.652
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.192

			Estimate
Impulse10	<—	IBT	.097
ImpulseA4	<—	IBT	-.020

Table F. 4

Factor Loadings for IB Step Four

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.683
impulseA2	<—	IBT	-.029
ImpulseA8	<—	IBT	-.112
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.691
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.660
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.310
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.605
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.674
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.658
impulseA	<—	IBT	.116
ImpulseA10	<—	IBT	-.059
ImpulseA5	<—	IBT	-.120
ImpulseA3	<—	IBT	.057
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.657
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.204
Impulse10	<—	IBT	.109
ImpulseA4	<—	IBT	-.001

Table F .5

Factor Loadings for IB Step Five

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.690
impulseA2	<—	IBT	-.013
ImpulseA8	<—	IBT	-.104
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.696
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.651
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.313

			Estimate
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.609
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.662
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.651
impulseA	<—	IBT	.135
ImpulseA10	<—	IBT	-.052
ImpulseA3	<—	IBT	.074
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.665
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.214
Impulse10	<—	IBT	.117
ImpulseA4	<—	IBT	.018

Table F. 6

Factor Loadings for IB Step Sixth

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.687
impulseA2	<—	IBT	-.004
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.695
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.653
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.315
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.608
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.663
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.651
impulseA	<—	IBT	.142
ImpulseA10	<—	IBT	-.039
ImpulseA3	<—	IBT	.079
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.664
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.219
Impulse10	<—	IBT	.123
ImpulseA4	<—	IBT	.023

Table F. 7

Factor Loadings for IB Step Seven

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.686
impulseA2	<—	IBT	-.001
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.694
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.653
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.317
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.607
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.662
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.651
impulseA	<—	IBT	.145
ImpulseA3	<—	IBT	.082
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.664
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.222
Impulse10	<—	IBT	.127
ImpulseA4	<—	IBT	.024

Table F. 8

Factor Loadings for IB Step Eight

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.686
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.694
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.653
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.318
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.607
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.662
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.651
impulseA	<—	IBT	.145
ImpulseA3	<—	IBT	.082
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.664
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.222
Impulse10	<—	IBT	.127
ImpulseA4	<—	IBT	.024

Table F. 9

Factor Loadings for IB Step Nine

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.686
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.694
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.654
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.318
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.607
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.663
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.651
impulseA	<—	IBT	.142
ImpulseA3	<—	IBT	.079
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.663
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.222
Impulse10	<—	IBT	.126

Table F.10

Factor Loadings for IB Step Ten

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.684
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.693
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.656
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.317
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.607
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.667
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.654
impulseA	<—	IBT	.135
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.662
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.217
Impulse10	<—	IBT	.122

Table F.11

Factor Loadings for IB Step Eleven

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.684
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.696
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.657
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.307
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.609
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.667
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.656
impulseA	<—	IBT	.128
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.661
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.201

Table F.12

Factor Loadings for IB Step Twelve

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.680
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.694
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.659
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.305
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.607
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.673
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.661
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.657
Impulse9	<—	IBT	.195

Table F.13

Factor Loadings for IB Step Thirteen

			Estimate
Impulse7	<—	IBT	.676
Impulsebuying	<—	IBT	.697
Impulse2	<—	IBT	.663
Impulse3	<—	IBT	.291
Impulse4	<—	IBT	.608
Impulse5	<—	IBT	.678
Impulse6	<—	IBT	.668
Impulse8	<—	IBT	.647

F. 2 CFA for Emotions Construct

Table F. 14

Factor Loadings for Emotions That led to the Item Removal

			Estimate
Excited	<—	Positiveemo	.885
Happy	<—	Positiveemo	.941
Changingmood	<—	Positiveemo	.498
Bored	<—	Negativeemo	.841
Upset	<—	Negativeemo	.855

Appendix G

Exploratory Factor Analysis

G. 1 Impulse Buying Tendency Scale

Conducting the EFA, by generating two factors and excluded factors below 0.6 to make sure that the items are significantly correlated to the factor itself. It has been found that the first one includes seven items from the cognitive impulse buying, and the second one includes nine factors from the affective impulse buying. With Eigenvalues 4.775 for the first factor and 3.872 for the second factor.

Table G. 1

The Rotated Component Matrix for The Impulse Buying Tendency Scales

Rotated Component Matrix[a]		
	Component	
	1	2
I usually think carefully before I buy something.		.725
I usually only buy things that I intend to buy.		.705
If I buy something; I usually do that spontaneously		
Most of my purchases are planned in advance.		.655
I only buy things that I really need.		.714
It is not my style to just buy things.		.691
I like to compare different brands before I buy one.		.726
Before I buy something, I always carefully consider whether I need it.		.717
I am used to buying things ´on the spot´.		
I often buy things without thinking.		
It is a struggle to leave nice things I see in a shop.	.667	
I sometimes cannot suppress the feeling of wanting things I see in shops.	.682	
I sometimes feel guilty after having bought something.	.614	
I am not the kind of person who falls in love at first sight´ with things I see in shops.		
I can become very excited if I see something I would like to buy.	.651	
I always see something nice whenever I pass by shops.	.623	
I find it difficult to pass up a bargain.	.735	

Rotated Component Matrix[a]		
If I see something new; I want to buy it.	.604	
I am a bit reckless in buying things.	.691	
I sometimes buy things because I like buying things, rather than because I need them.	.602	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

G.2 The Remaining Scales

The EFA has been done to the remaining scales also by using principal component and varimax with a fixed eigenvalue of 5 factors to extract. The eigenvalue is as follows: 4.635 followed by 3.781,2.993,2.288 and 1.673 for five factors.

Table G. 2

The EFA for the Remaining Scales

Rotated Component Matrix[a]					
	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
The purchase of my favourite product is influenced by Discounts				.770	
The purchase of my favourite product is influenced by “buy one get one free”				.816	
The purchase of my favourite product is influenced by Free Samples				.787	
The purchase of my favourite product is influenced by Discount card				.762	
The purchase of my favourite product is influenced by EDBP					
Sale/clearance signs entice me to look through the products.					.822
When I see a special promotion sign, I go to look at that product.					.833
I am more likely to make an unintended purchase if the product has a sale or clearance sign.					.771
If I see an interesting promotional offer on in-store signs, I tend to buy.					.810

Rotated Component Matrix[a]					
The quality of the products gets worse as the product approaches its expiration date.	.770				
The consuming of a spoiled product of the grocery, the item may lead to health risk	.821				
The product will not meet your expectations as it approaches its expiration date.	.804				
I would think less of myself as an experienced shopper if I were to buy the grocery item and find it did not meet my standards of quality.	.766				
Guests in my home think less of me for serving them a poor-quality product.	.804				
I feel financial angst from paying for the product and then having it not perform up to its expectation.	.685				
I felt excited on this shopping trip		.813			
I felt happy during this shopping trip		.835			
I go shopping to change my mood		.658			
I felt bored on this shopping trip		-.766			
I felt upset during this shopping trip		-.774			
I wonder if I really need this product.			.782		
I wonder whether I should have bought anything at all.			.775		
I wonder if I have made the right choice.			.907		
I wonder If I have done the right thing in buying this product.			.892		
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.					
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.					

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.765
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3467.978
	df	276
	Sig.	.000

Appendix H

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Models

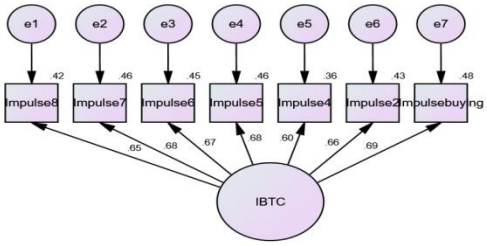

Figure H. 1 The measurement model for measuring impulse buying consists of seven items

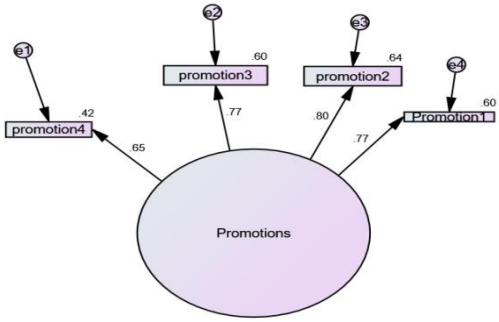

Figure H. 2 The measurement model for measuring promotions consists of four items

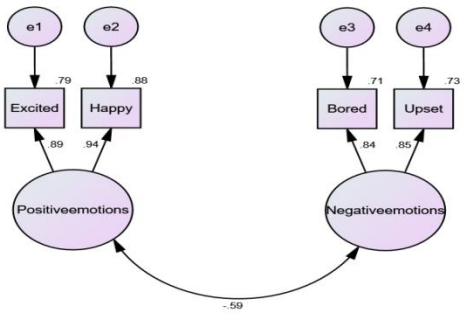

Figure H. 3 The measurement model for measuring emotions consists of four items

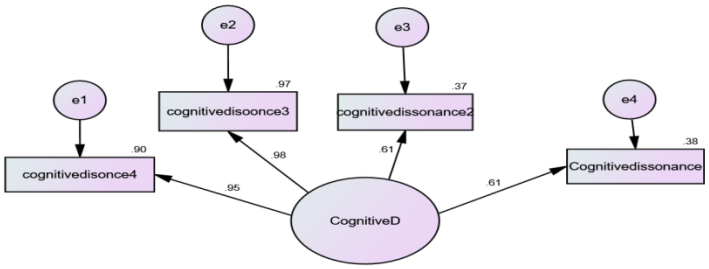

Figure H. 4 The measurement model for measuring cognitive dissonance consists of four items

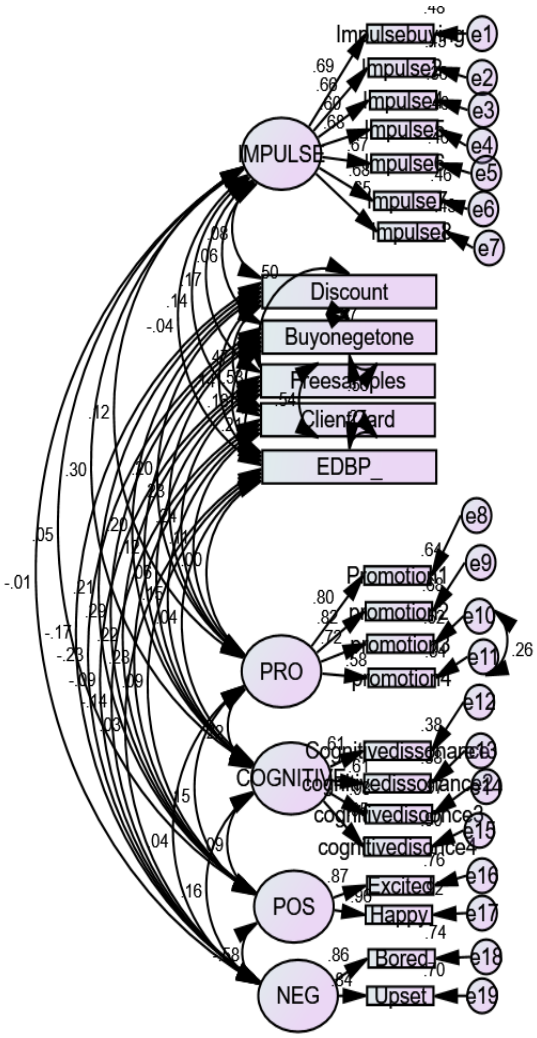

Figure H. 5 The Measurement Model combining all constructs involved in the study

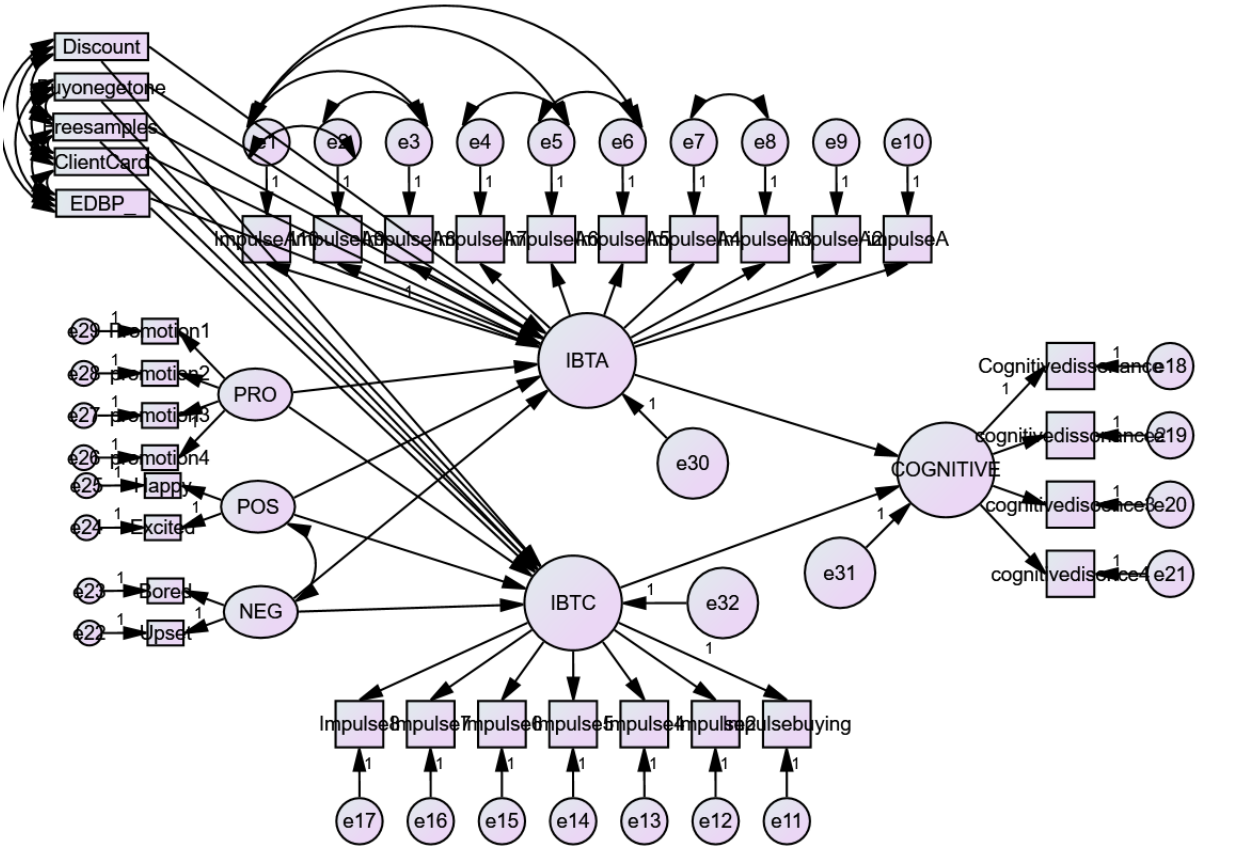

Figure H. 6 The Modified Structural Equation Modelling

Appendix I

Promotions on the Hypermarket at the time of Data Collection

The promotion magazine of the hypermarket at the time the data were collected, was connected to some of the items that respondents stated they bought on impulse see above figures.

The herring was found to be one of the most purchased items on impulse based on the season of Easter and promotions.

Foodstuff also has been purchased on impulse.


مكرونه ريجينا -٤٠ جرام
7,25
8,95
Regina
٢ مكرونه مصرية -٣٥٠ جرام
أنواع
9,95
12,50
MASREYA
مصرية
مكرونه مصرية
١ كيلو
13,45
16,45
MASREYA
مصرية
٢ مكرونه ستار أنواع -٤٠ جرام
6,95
8,60
STAR


38,25
45,45
جبنه لاماش كيري
مصبوحة ٣٢ ق
20,95
32,50
جبنه موزاريلا مبشورة باندا ٣٢٥جم
12,95
15,50
حليب لامار التر
كامل الدسم

Coffe & Tea


Instant Coffee
39,95
71,95
قهوة كلاسيك مصر كافية
٢٠٠جم
12,95
20,95
اعشاب روبال ١٢ فلتر
٢ بنسون +٢ نعناع هدية
ربيع
الأقوى
32,95
59,95
شاي الربيع الاقوي
١٠٠فتلة
NESCAFE
37,95
41,25
نسكافيه نستلة
٣ × ٢٤ ظرف + مج هدية

Clothes & Shoes

Cakes


100,00
تورته زبادى بالتوت
100,00
تورته زبادى
بالفراوله
100,00
تورته شيكولاته
بالفراوله

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