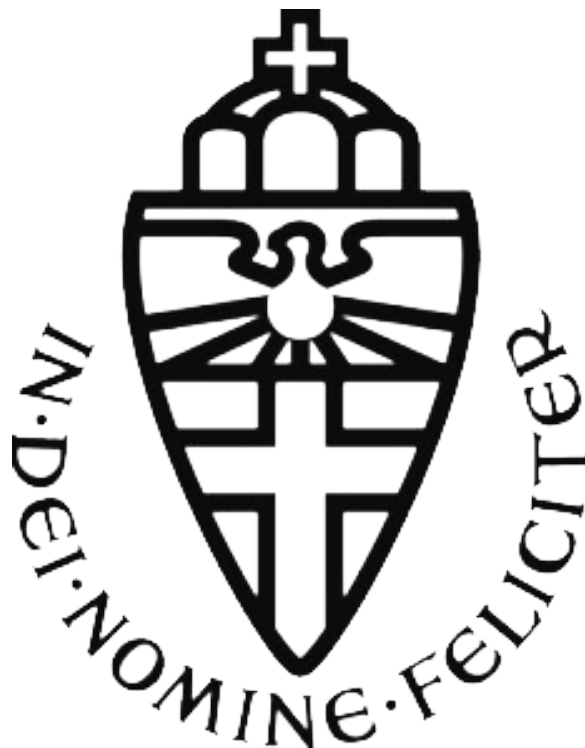


Master Thesis - Radboud University

“How does the degree of compulsive buying tendencies influence the way brands play a role in consumer purchase decisions; a quantitative study”



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Research Integrity Form - Master Thesis

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Thesis title: How does the degree of compulsive buying tendencies influence the way brands play a role in consumer purchase decisions; a quantitative study
Brief description of the study: This study researched in what way consumer with different degrees of compulsive buying tendencies differ with regard to motivations for buying branded products, brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behaviour. Dr. Csilla Horvath and Dr. Marcel van Birgelen have conducted a qualitative research about this subject and their main results are taken as basis for this Master Thesis study. Their main results are tested whether they are robust in a larger scale study.

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Abstract

Marketing activities are one of the reasons for compulsive buying behavior (CBB). The persuading communications messages encourage the urge of compulsive buyers to buy. However, there is a lack of knowledge of the differences between consumers with a different degree of CBB tendencies and the way brands play a role in their purchase decisions. Since this behavior has harmful effects and the number of people showing this behavior is still increasing, it is important to research this relationship.

The objective of this study is to examine the role of brands in purchase decisions for consumers with low, medium or high degrees of CBB tendencies. This led to the following research question: *In what way do consumers with different degrees of compulsive buying behavior tendencies differ with regard to (a) motivations for buying branded products, (b) brand trust, (c) brand attachment and (d) brand-switching behavior?* The motivations to buy branded products include functional, emotional and social motivations.

The hypotheses were tested with a questionnaire including 167 respondents. These respondents were assigned to the group with low, medium or high CBB tendencies, according to their score on the CBB Screening Tool by Maccarrone-Eaglen & Schofield (2017).

The results were analyzed through an Ordinary Least Squares regression analysis. For the motivations to buy branded products it appeared that the higher the CBB tendencies the more the emotional and social motivations are of importance. This is in contrast to the consumers with fewer tendencies who focus more on the functional motivations of a brand. Consumers with higher CBB tendencies develop a lower level of brand trust and tend to switch more between brands. For brand attachment, no significant differences were found. Overall, the higher the degree of CBB tendencies the fewer brands plays a role in consumer purchase decisions.

On this basis, to build long-term relationships with customers, it is better to target noncompulsive buyers. However, for societal relevance, introducing a 'Shop Responsibly' campaign is a socially responsible option, in order to help compulsive buyers avoid or reduce their buying behavior. Future research could focus on the role of online shopping channels for compulsive buyers, as the online environment is an essential part of consumers' lives nowadays. Analyzing the customer journey of compulsive buyers could also be relevant for marketing activities.

1. Introduction

The relative ease of getting a loan, the quickly growing credit facilities and the possibility to pay afterwards for an online order makes it easy for people to spend too much money they do not have. Even though the Dutch economy is growing and inhabitants are able to buy more (Centraal Planbureau, 2017), this does not imply that the amount of debts is decreasing. According to *Nationaal Instituut voor Budgetvoorlichting (NIBUD)* the height of a person's income does not directly influence debts. How people stand in their life and how they manage their money are of direct influence and can cause debts. In their research "Kans op financiële problemen" (NIBUD, 2016) they found two important characteristics that raise the chances for debts: a short-term focus and impulsive behavior. The possibilities and easiness of borrowing money increases the problem for people whose buying behavior is compulsive. These people cannot control their purchase actions that are caused by a strong inner urge to keep buying. A problem is that this behavior continues even though it harms their financial well-being, mental health and personal relationships (Rose, 2007; Maccarrone-Eaglen & Schofield, 2017).

1.1 Compulsive buying and marketing influences

The decision making process of consumers is influenced by internal triggers such as positive or negative emotional conditions and by external triggers such as marketing activities (Lee & Workman, 2015). Chinomona (2013) defines compulsive buying as "an uncontrollable and emotional addiction that is socially and externally induced, for instance, through brand advertisements" (p. 1690). Furthermore, Roberts & Manolis (2000) state that the persuading communications of marketing are one of the reasons for compulsive buying because they encourage materialism and urge to buy. This indicates that the marketing field does play a facilitating role for compulsive buyers. However, little research has been conducted regarding the differentiating role of brands in the behavior and purchase decisions of compulsive buyers and noncompulsive buyers. Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) conducted a qualitative study, and found a difference between compulsive buyers and noncompulsive buyers regarding the way they approach brands. With regard to the fact that the group of compulsive buyers is increasing (Neuner *et al.*, 2005), it is important to the field of marketing to further investigate this issue, as marketing strategies might not hold completely for both compulsive and noncompulsive buyers. If companies are aware of the differences, they are able to develop new marketing strategies and/or adjust their current marketing strategies.

1.2 Definition of compulsive consumption in the literature

In the literature much theoretical background about the concept of compulsive buying has been produced. Compulsive buying is part of the broader term compulsive consumption. The definition for compulsive consumption from O'Guinn & Faber (1989, p.148) is as follows: "a response to an uncontrollable drive or desire to obtain, use, or experience a feeling, substance, or activity that leads an individual to repetitively engage in a behavior that will ultimately cause harm to the individual and/or to others." For compulsive buying this implies that a person purchases in a chronic and repetitive way out of a negative event or feeling (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). Anticipating on the easiness of borrowing money, mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, this means that these compulsive buyers are substantially more capable of buying and as a consequence of this are more able to harm themselves and/or others. The majority of previous research states that mainly women are having this kind of behavior (Dittmar, 2005a). This is in line with the increased spending on women's fashion and jewelry (INretail & Panteia, 2017), which can furthermore confirm the fact that compulsive buying behavior (CBB) is increasing. Another characteristic of compulsive buyers is that they mainly have a lower income (Koran *et al.*, 2006). Also younger people tend to be more sensitive to compulsive buying (Dittmar, 2005a).

1.3 Previous studies

Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) conducted a study about the role of brands in the behavior and purchase decisions of compulsive versus noncompulsive buyers. Another study by Lee & Workman (2015) was focused on the relationship between CBB and branding variables including brand awareness, brand loyalty, brand attachment and perceived brand quality. Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) investigated the differences in motivations for buying branded products, brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior. The emotional and social motivations of branded products are of greater importance for compulsive buyers, whereas noncompulsive buyers concentrate more on the functional benefits. Furthermore, compulsive buyers are less likely to develop brand trust and are therefore less brand loyal and tend to switch more between brands. Because of developing less brand loyalty, they do not accomplish the benefits that a loyal customer has for a company like, for example, being less price sensitive. However, these are qualitative results, and Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) mention in their section of directions for future research, a larger-scale quantitative research is necessary to conduct. Through quantitative research their propositions will be transformed into hypotheses, which will then be empirically tested. This quantitative approach will be the

objective of this Master Thesis research. Therefore the goal of this research is whether the main results of Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) are robust in a larger-scale study with at least 150 respondents, including both compulsive and noncompulsive buyers.

1.4 Problem statement, objective and research question

In the last 20 years there has been an increase in the number of people showing CBB within the adult population in Europe, and this group is still growing (Raab, Reisch, Gwozdz, *et al.*, 2012). This is a serious issue since this behavior has harmful effects on a person's well-being and also might harm others (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). Currently there is a lack of knowledge and empirical evidence of how the different degrees of compulsiveness among consumers influence the way they approach brands. The problem caused by this lack of knowledge is that companies are not aware of how to communicate with this group. Acquiring this knowledge enables companies to adapt or change their communication strategy in order to either persuade compulsive buyers (however the question is if persuading this group is ethical), or to help compulsive buyers to avoid such behavior. The last strategy benefits a company for establishing a good public image because they will act in a socially responsible manner. Furthermore, gaining this knowledge has societal relevance as brands can play a role in decreasing CBB by their communication strategy. In order to gain this knowledge, the qualitative results presented in Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) are used as the basis for this research. Therefore, the objective for the Master Thesis research is to empirically test how consumers with different degrees of compulsive buying tendencies differ in their motivations to buy branded products, brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior from noncompulsive buyers. This leads to the following research question: *In what way do consumers with different degrees of compulsive buying behavior tendencies differ with regard to (a) motivations for buying branded products, (b) brand trust, (c) brand attachment and (d) brand-switching behavior?*

1.5 Questionnaire

In order to empirically investigate the research question, a self-administered questionnaire (SAQ) will be employed. According to Paul Lavrakas (2008) "a SAQ refers to a questionnaire that has been designed specifically to be completed by a respondent without intervention of the researchers collecting the data" (p. 803). The preferable sample size is at least 150. This sample consists of three groups of similar size, respondents with a high level of compulsive buying tendencies, respondents with a medium level of compulsive tendencies

and respondents with low compulsive tendencies. Different studies measured the prevalence of CBB, which for Western countries varies from 2 percent to 16 percent for adults (Dittmar, 2005a). This implies that the group of compulsive buyers is relatively small and therefore it is harder to reach the required sample size. Concerning this fact snowball sampling will be used during the data collection phase. This sampling method is applicable when traits of a sample are rare and difficult to find (Dudovskiy, 2018). In the methodology chapter the method, the content of the questionnaire and data analysis is further explained.

1.6 Outline of the Master Thesis

This Master Thesis is structured in the following way: the next chapter focuses on the theoretical background of the subject by doing a literature review. Chapter 3 presents the research methodology that was used, a description of the sample of the research and some research ethics. The obtained results from the questionnaire are provided in Chapter 4. In Chapter 5 the conclusions are drawn and the results are discussed. The thesis finishes with practical implications, reflection of the research and recommendations for further research in Chapter 6.

2. Literature review

As there is much theoretical background about CBB this chapter will provide a broad description of this subject based on existing literature. First CBB is generally described, followed by its characteristics, motives and consequences. Third, a more detailed view of the role of brands for compulsive buyers is provided. Finally, the conceptual model for this research is presented.

2.1 Compulsive buying behavior in general

Compulsive consumption is a broad term and considered as “a response to an uncontrollable drive or desire to obtain, use, or experience a feeling, substance, or activity that leads an individual to repetitively engage in a behavior that will ultimately cause harm to the individual and/or to others” according to O’Guinn & Faber (1989, p.148). Compulsive consumption includes addictive and extreme behavior amongst other things; gambling, drug use, eating disorders and also compulsive buying (O’Guinn & Faber, 1989).

In the consumer behavior literature much research is provided about CBB, however no agreed specific definition is given for compulsive buying (Dittmar, 2005a). CBB is often described as chronic and repetitive purchasing (O’Guinn & Faber, 1989), uncontrolled and excessive buying (Dittmar, 2005a), frequently buying unneeded items or more than can be afforded (McElroy *et al.*, 1994), out of negative events or feelings (O’Guinn & Faber, 1989) and inner deficiencies as the inability to control an overpowering impulse (O’Guinn & Faber, 1989). In order to provide relief from mental disquiet (Maccarrone-Eaglen & Schofiel, 2013), experience positive feelings, like relief and pleasure, to escape from negative feelings (Horváth & van Birgelen, 2015; Müller, Mitchell & de Zwaan, 2013) and as a compensation for stress, disappointment and frustration (Neuner, Raab & Reisch, 2005). This behavior is caused by some particular mental states such as depression, anxiety, low self-esteem and frustration (Roberts, 1998; Scherhorn, 1990) and influenced by television advertisements (Roberts, 1998; Lee & Workman, 2015). Credit card use plays a facilitating factor because it is easy for persons with such behavior to spend money they do not have (Roberts, 1998). However this buying behavior causes negative consequences such as financial problems and negative emotions. Financial consequences mainly turn out in extreme debts and bankruptcy (Koran *et al.*, 2006) and the emotional consequences often consist of feeling guilty about the behavior (O’Guinn & Faber, 1989) but it also has effect on personal relationships such as family conflict and divorce (Koran *et al.*, 2006).

A consistent finding in the literature is that mainly women are affected by this behavior. The prevalence of women among compulsive buyers varies, however the majority of studies state the average around 90 percent (Dittmar, 2005a). This is explained by the fact that women enjoy shopping more than men (Black, 2007), because it has more emotional and psychological meaning for them (Dittmar & Drury, 2000). They tend to associate buying as a *leisure frame* whereas men associate it as a *work frame*. Furthermore, in general men want to accomplish the buying task fast and without much effort (Campbell, 2000).

The younger population is more likely to be exposed to CBB, as they are more vulnerable. Neuner, Raab & Reisch (2005) researched this fact and found that younger consumers show stronger compulsive buying tendencies than older consumers. Again this is confirmed in a more recent study by Achtziger *et al.* (2015). The prevalence of the younger population among compulsive buyers is 11 percent according to Roberts & Manolis (2000). The literature does not provide exact age figures, however compulsive buying begins around the late teens or early twenties (Lee & Workman, 2015; Black, 2007). A project that the European Union conducted found that 46 percent of Scottish teens (16 – 18 years old) show early tendencies of uncontrolled buying. This is because they cannot withstand stimuli of advertising and are unable to control their spending routines (Dittmar, 2005a).

2.2 Compulsive buyers; characteristics, motives and consequences

Having other psychological disorders, which is called comorbidity, is one of the characteristics of a compulsive buyer. Müller, Mitchell & Black (2010) found that anxiety and depression are the most common disorders. Summarizing their literature review they reported that eating disorders, substance abuse, personality disorders, pathological internet use and gambling, and compulsive hoarding are other disorders which are associated with CBB.

Another characteristic of compulsive buyers is a lack of strategy to resist an uncontrollable drive. O'Guinn & Faber (1989, p. 148) describe it as an “uncontrollable drive or desire.” It has also been defined as an “overpowering urges to buy that are experienced as irresistible and senseless,” (McElroy, 1994 as cited in Müller, Mitchell & de Zwaan, 2015, p. 132). Maccarrone-Eaglen & Schofield (2017, p. 463) define it as “inability to resist a strong inner urge.” Another explanation is given “irresistible urges to buy, with unsuccessful attempts to control themselves or their willpower” (Christenson *et al.*, 1994 as cited in Workman & Paper, 2010, p. 93). These control difficulties lead to impulsive and unplanned purchases such as buying unnecessary products, buying more than an individual can afford

and shopping longer than planned (McElroy *et al.*, 1994).

Furthermore, compulsive buyers have some specific personality traits. One of the most consistent finding in the literature is that compulsive buyers have a low self-esteem (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Roberts, 1998; Ertelt, 2009). This is in line with a higher frequency of specific products categories bought by compulsive buyers. Mainly clothing, jewelry, makeup, electronic equipment and collectibles are bought (Black, 2007; Faber *et al.*, 1987). These kinds of products positive affect one's self-esteem by influencing how a person looks or how a person thinks of oneself (Faber *et al.*, 1987). Due to the lower levels of self-esteem, persons with this behavior often experience negative affective states like depression, anxiety and stress (Miltenberger *et al.*, 2002; Marlatt *et al.*, 1988; Scherhorn, 1990; Black, 2007). Next to experiencing negative affective states and having a low self-esteem, another personality trait is that they tend to fantasize. This gives them the opportunity to repress negative affective states and low levels of self-esteem by fantasizing about personal success and social acceptance (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Roberts, 1998). It is a way to avoid their problems (Orford, 1985). During the shopping process compulsive buyers experience feelings of euphoria, relief, calm and happiness (Miltenberger *et al.*, 2002). As they want to experience these feelings over and over again the buying behavior becomes an obsession (Scherhorn, Reisch & Raab, 1990).

Many studies have researched the relation between materialism and compulsive buyers, however the results are different. Dittmar (2005a) found that materialistic value endorsement is an underlying predictor of this behavior. Buying products helps individuals to reach their ideal identity, thus it is the symbolic meaning of products that is important for them. Also they want to suppress their negative feeling by a positive feeling through the acquisition of products. Furthermore, persons with a desire for material goods have a lower well being because they think goods will make them happier. This statement is further confirmed by Rose (2007) and Müller *et al.*, (2014). However d'Astous *et al.* (1989) mention that compulsive buyers do not have materialistic motivations and the actual possession of goods is not of interest. Thus, it is not the desire to have a specific product but the process of buying a product is a strategy to move closer to the ideal self identity and is key to happiness (Sneath, Russell & Kennett-Hensel, 2009; Dittmar, 2005b). Furthermore, compulsive buyers do not feel emotionally attached to goods, which implies that the possession of it is not important, as they buy to achieve interpersonal and self-esteem goals (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). These results indicate that the materialistic value is not an underlying factor of CBB.

Besides these characteristics compulsive buyers do have some motives for their uncontrolled and repetitive purchase behavior. O'Guinn & Faber (1989) state in their definition that it is a response to a negative event or feeling. They buy out of a motivation to regulate their emotions in order to repair their mood (Dittmar, 2005). They want to alleviate themselves from negative tensions such as anxiety, stress and a depressive mood (Roberts *et al.*, 1998; Sneath, Lacey & Kennett-Hensel, 2008). A goal is to undermine these negative feelings, and the only way to accomplish this is through their buying behavior (Faber & Christenson, 1996). Since compulsive buyers have a low self-esteem another motive to buy repetitively is to empower their self-esteem (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). This is in line with other findings from Dittmar (2004) who states that compulsive buyers try to reach their ideal self through buying products. It is a way of expressing and creating an identity (Neuner, Raab & Reisch, 2005). In conclusion the motives for compulsive buyers to buy are relief from tensions and depression, as compensation for their negative feelings, and to empower their self-esteem in order to create an identity. Besides all these motives compulsive buyers do not think of the consequences (Korean *et al.*, 2006) that are described next.

Workman & Paper (2010) conducted an extensive review of the consequences of this behavior and divided them in short-term and long-term consequences. Short-term consequences of CBB are positive, however they only last for a short while. Purchasing provides a compulsive buyer an emotional lift which includes less stress, a boost for their self-esteem, and feeling of self worth, escape from negative feelings and a more positive emotional state. The short-term positive outcomes reinforce the behavior as they want to sustain them, thus driving the repetitive and compulsive processes (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). In the long run the behavior becomes a conditioned response when a negative feeling occurs (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989) and will have negative effects. Over a longer period of time these temporary positive consequences turn into harmful effects. Despite the lack of money (McElroy *et al.*, 1994) their buying behavior continues and ends in financial debt, which forms the basis for legal problems. Both debt and legal problems have negative influence on a person's well being in the sense of a depression. This has an effect on the self-esteem in a negative way, enhances a feeling of guilt and it may be the cause of relationship problems. All these consequences are gathered and analyzed by Workman & Paper (2010) from sixteen scientific articles, which investigated the subject of compulsive buyers.

2.3 *The role of brands*

Brands play an important role in the decision-making process of a consumer (Lee &

Workman, 2015). However, how and to what extent brands influence a consumer's purchase decision can differ according to the degree of compulsive tendencies a consumer has. Therefore the relationship between CBB and brand behavior variables is investigated. The brand behavior variables include brand trust, brand attachment, and brand-switching behavior. The variable, motivations to buy branded products, is treated as a mediator in the research.

2.3.1 Motivations to buy branded products

Consumers can have diverse motives when they purchase a product. According to Sheth (1975) there are five motives to buy. Functional motives are based on the performance of a product, that is the functional benefits it offers. The emotional motives are the non-functional aspects. These motives are focused on the design, luxury, style and comfort of the product in order to satisfy emotional feelings such as social concern. Social motives are defined as the impact that the purchase has on relevant others. Factors such as status and self-esteem are important in terms of buying the product. Situational motives are not focused on a goal to obtain but are caused by situational sources such as price discounts, availability and accessibility. The last motives are the curiosity motives, which are characterized as trying new and innovative products. However, motives may differ when buying a branded product or an unbranded product. Branded products have the benefit that consumers can attach personal value and meaning to it (Keller, 2012). Furthermore brands play a role in the search for a consumer's self identity, especially brands help to reach one's ideal identity (Elliott & Wattanasuwan, 1998). Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) concluded that the preference of compulsive buyers for branded products is based on the emotional and social motives, whereas for noncompulsive buyers it is based on the functional benefits. A motivation to buy branded products for noncompulsive buyers is that they perceive a higher quality. The motivation for compulsive buyers is that brands make them feel good, it gives them status or make them feel fashionable. If consumers have diverse motivations to buy a specific product, their behavior towards a brand may differ. Therefore this variable is seen as a mediator in the relationship between the degree of compulsive buying tendencies and the three brand behavior variables. This leads to the first hypotheses for this research:

- H1a. The functional, emotional and social motivations to buy branded products mediate the relationship between the degree of compulsive buying tendencies and brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior.
- H1b. The higher the degree of compulsive buying tendencies, the less important the functional motivations for buying branded products become.

- H1c. The higher the degree of compulsive buying tendencies, the more important the emotional motivations for buying branded products become.
- H1d. The higher the degree of compulsive buying tendencies, the more important social motivations for buying branded products become.

Next to its mediating function, the variable ‘motivations to buy branded products’ is expected to have a direct effect on the brand variables without the influence of the compulsive buying behavior variable. Whereas the expectation is that functional, emotional and social motivations have a positive effect on brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior. This leads to the following hypotheses:

- H2a. Functional motivations have a positive effect on brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior.
- H2b. Emotional motivations have a positive effect on brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior.
- H2c. Social motivations have a positive effect on brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior.

2.3.2 Brand trust

Another important factor to consider is whether the levels of brand trust differs among the degree of compulsive buying tendencies. Brand trust is a crucial variable in order to build brand loyalty (Lau & Lee, 1999). Nowadays, marketing is focused on building long-term relationships with customers and brand trust has been identified as an essential determinant for this (Alhaddad, 2015). Multiple definitions of brand trust are given in the literature. Brand trust is defined as “the willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function” by Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2001, p 82). Another definition is given by Moorman *et al.* (1992, p. 315) as “a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence.” An indicator of trust is the experience with the product or service itself, as this determines the level of trust a consumer has in a brand. Trust is often developed by repeatedly kept quality guarantee, thus consistency is key (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2000; Horváth & van Birgelen, 2015). The qualitative results from Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) show that compulsive buyers show lower levels of brand trust than non-compulsive buyers do. Non-compulsive buyers create brand trust mainly because of a good experience of quality. Compulsive buyers are not focused on quality but value the appearance of the product and how the product makes them feel. Therefore they do not experience the

brand itself and are not able to establish trust in them. In order to test this qualitative proposition the second hypothesis is stated:

- H3. Consumers with both a high and medium degree of compulsive buying tendencies show lower levels of brand trust than consumers with low compulsive buying tendencies.

2.3.3 Brand attachment

Whereas brand trust relies more on the confidence a consumer has in a brand, brand attachment is more focused on the connection or bond between the brand and the consumer. Park *et al.* (2010, p.2) describe it as “the strength of the bond connecting the consumer with the brand,” whereas Kleine *et al.* (1995, p. 329) define it as “a strong connection between the brand and the customer’s self.” If a consumer feels a stronger self-brand relationship, they feel a stronger attachment (Lee & Workman, 2015). Brand attachment influences the behavior of consumers, they are willing to spread positive word of mouth, they are willing to pay more, they are brand loyal and therefore it is less likely for them to switch to another brand (Thompson *et al.*, 2005). These behavioral elements contribute to important financial benefits such as profitability and customer lifetime value (Park *et al.*, 2010). The results from Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) imply that noncompulsive buyers feel stronger attached to brands than compulsive buyers do. They found that noncompulsive buyers felt attached to their favorite brands because they match their personal image. Furthermore, they are willing to pay more and perceive buying other brands instead of their favorite brand as a risk. The reason they state for lower levels of brand attachment for compulsive buyers is that they have an unstable self-image and varying personal styles. They are only willing to pay more when a product is special or luxurious, the brand itself does not come into play. Their results are linked to literature from Park *et al.* (2010) and Thompson *et al.* (2005) who substantiate their findings. Lee & Workman (2015) also researched the relation between compulsive buyers and brand attachment. They conducted quantitative research and looked at the differences between high vs. medium or low compulsive buying tendencies and their levels of brand attachment. Interesting enough, their results differ from the qualitative results from Horváth & van Birgelen (2015). They conclude that consumers with higher level of compulsive buying tendencies have higher levels of brand attachment. They refer to Sacramento & Fliher (2015) in order to explain this positive relationship, which says that consumers feel more attached to a brand when a brand meets their ideal self. One of the reasons of compulsive

buyers is to purchase products in order to achieve their ideal self. Concerning both results, the third hypothesis to test these contrasting studies is stated:

- H4. Consumers with both a high and medium degree of compulsive buying tendencies show lower levels of brand attachment than consumers with low compulsive buying tendencies.

2.3.4 Brand-switching behavior

The last brand variable that plays a role in the behavior and purchase intentions is brand-switching behavior. Brand-switching behavior can be seen as a behavioral indicator of brand loyalty; if consumers tend to switch a lot between brands they show the opposite behavior of being brand loyal. Oliver (1997, p. 392) defines brand loyalty as “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or re-patronize a preferred product or service consistently in the future, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having potential to cause switching behavior.” Compulsive buyers tend to switch more easily between brands, particularly if price discounts come into play. Their attitudes towards brands are weaker than for noncompulsive buyers (Kukar-Kinnet *et al.*, 2012). Mentioned earlier in this literature review is that the purchase process is the most important element for compulsive buyers instead of the possession of the products or brands (Dittmar, 2005b; Sneath *et al.*, 2009). Lee & Workman (2010) investigated brand loyalty and how this variable is related to consumers with compulsive buying tendencies. Their research concluded that brand loyalty may be linked to compulsive buying tendencies. Again the results from Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) are taken into consideration. They argue that compulsive buyers switch more between brands than noncompulsive buyers. This is in line with their previous finding about brand attachment, as brand attachment is an antecedent of loyalty. The lower levels of brand attachment will cause lower levels of loyalty and therefore more brand-switching behavior. Situational influences play an important role in the selection of branded goods, moreover compulsive buyers value this purchase process instead of the product possession (d’Astous *et al.*, 1989; Dittmar, 2005b). This also implies that brands are not that important for compulsive buyers. This leads to the final hypotheses for this research:

- H5. Consumers with both a high and a medium degree of compulsive buying tendencies switch more between brands than consumers with low compulsive buying tendencies.

2.4 Conceptual model

This review analyzed the previous findings in the literature about compulsive buyers. This research looks in-depth at the relationship between the degree of compulsive buying tendencies among consumers and the role brands play into their brand behavior and purchase intentions. The way brands play a role is measured by the following three dependent variables; brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior. In this relationship the independent variables are the high degree of compulsive buying tendencies, the medium degree of compulsive buying tendencies and the low degree of compulsive buying tendencies or noncompulsive buyers. The direct relationship between the dependent and independent variables is measured. However, the variable ‘motivations to buy branded products’ is expected to have a mediating effect in the relationship. The expected effect is that this variable explains the relationship between the independent and dependent. The brand behavior differs depending on the motivation a consumers has. Based on the qualitative results from Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) consumers with a higher degree of compulsive buying tendencies have stronger emotional and social motivations than functional motivations. Consumers with a low degree of compulsive buying tendencies have stronger functional motivations than emotional and social motivations. The conceptual model is presented below.

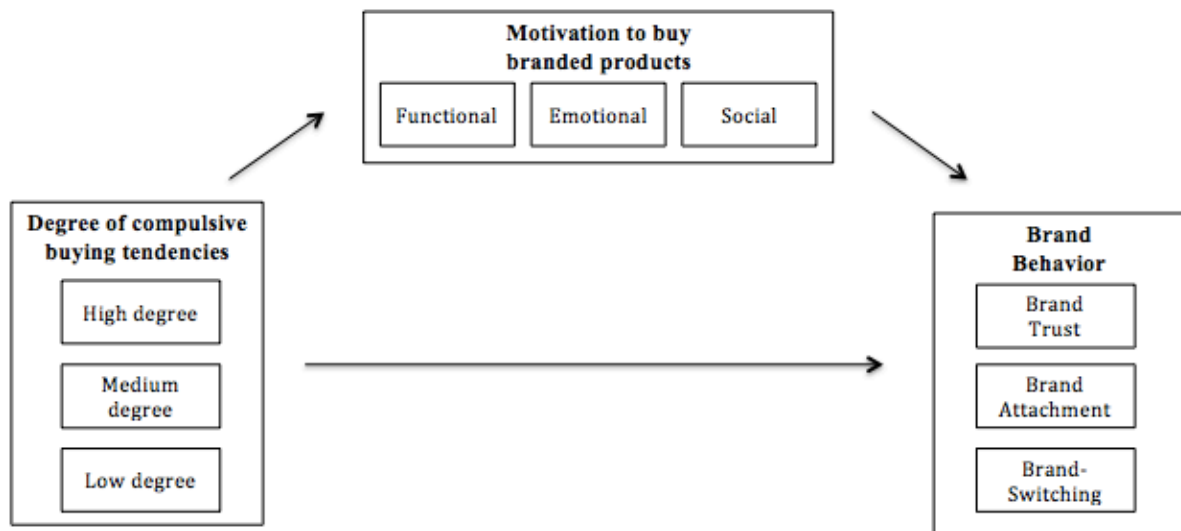


Figure 1. Conceptual Model

3. Methodology

In this chapter the methodology of this research is explained. First, the method is explained. Next, the sample size, data sources and measures are described, followed by the data analysis procedure. Finally, the research ethics are addressed.

3.1 Method

The objective of this research is to empirically test whether qualitative results with regard to the subject are robust in a larger sample quantitative research. Therefore the instrument that was used for this research was a self-administered questionnaire (SAQ). According to Paul Lavrakas (2008) “a SAQ refers to a questionnaire that has been designed specifically to be completed by a respondent without intervention of the researchers collecting the data” (p. 803). SAQs are often used for online surveys, which was the case for this research. There are two main criteria in order to design a good SAQ: proper wording, and a suitable format and lay-out. In order to meet the first criterion the questionnaire was conducted such that all the respondents interpreted the statements in the same way, were able to answer accurately and were willing to respond to all the statements. To avoid item nonresponse due to misunderstanding or an incorrect response based on confusion, all possible alternative interpretations were looked at (Dillman, 2000). The second criterion was covered by the use of the standard format of Qualtrics. This research platform is offered and recommended by the Radboud University; as it has a clear lay-out and consistent navigation and it is easy to use for respondents (Qualtrics, n.d.). To check if both criteria were met a pre-test of the questionnaire was conducted. The pre-test analyzed potential problems such as a lack of clarity in the items that threaten the validity and reliability of the research. Vannette (2015) recommends a small sample of the target population for the pre-test. He advises to add some evaluative questions, such as how respondents perceive the difficulty of the questionnaire and the length (Vannette, 2015). These evaluative questions were not added to the questionnaire but asked in person. This way the respondent could evaluate more directly and explain elements more in detail. As some elements seemed to be unclear or confusing according to the respondents, these elements were improved.

The SAQ for this research contained several items. Items related to compulsive buying behavior tendencies, motivations to buy branded products, brand trust, brand attachment, brand-switching behavior and demographic items. The demographic items included gender, age, education and income. The language of the questionnaire was Dutch, for that reason the

original English scales were translated. The researcher translated the scales into Dutch. However, in order to ensure translation equivalence an independent, advanced English speaking, person back-translated the scales into English. Then the original scales and back-translated scales were compared and some inequalities were resolved. The final questionnaire is presented in Appendix I. The third section of this chapter provides the scales used for all these items.

3.2 Data sources

Respondents were drawn from multiple sources. The group of consumers with low compulsive buying tendencies was the easiest to reach; only the network of the researcher was used. As the Dutch population consists of a relatively small group of medium and high compulsive buyers, it was harder to reach the required sample size. Concerning this fact snowball sampling was used during the data collection phase. This sampling method is applicable when traits of a sample are rare and difficult to find (Dudovskiy, 2018). The method is based on respondents who guide the researcher to other respondents with similar characteristics.

The exponential non-discriminative snowball sampling was used for the data collection, which means that the first respondent of the sample provided one or more possible respondent(s). Each new respondent was investigated until enough data was collected. On the right side the structure of the method is shown (Dudovskiy, 2018). Since this method acquires starting points with sufficient variation in the traits to be measured, respondents

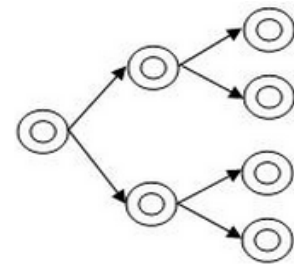


Figure 2. Structure snowball sampling

were collected through several channels. In order to collect the respondents for the group with medium buying tendencies, also the network of the researcher was used. However, it appeared that only using this channel did not reach the required sample size. Therefore respondents were also gathered by approaching people in the city center of Arnhem. The respondents with high compulsive buying tendencies were collected through experts who help people to rehab from a shopping addiction. They sent the questionnaire around in their own network (snowball sampling). One expert wrote a blog about this subject and shared the link of the questionnaire in that blog. Furthermore associates of the researcher who are known to really like shopping were contacted, however this turned out in only a few respondents.

3.3 Sample and measurement scales

Since statistically significant results were aimed, the goal for the required sample size was at least 150 respondents, equally divided over three groups. The obtained sample size was

164 respondents. However, the three groups were not equally divided. The group with low tendencies consisted 79 respondents, the group with medium tendencies 51 and the group with high tendencies 34. This unequal division did not have any consequences on the significance of the results since Hair *et al.* (2010) states that the minimum sample size per group is 30 in order to get significant results. Furthermore this division represents the Dutch population as about two percent has a form of CBB (Mens & Gezondheid, 2008). It is important that the demographics within the three groups do not extremely differ. Otherwise the possibility exists that the differences in the results between the groups could be caused by the differences in age or gender for example. The demographics that were measured are: age, gender, highest level of education and income. The literature review provides information about the dispersion in gender for compulsive buyers, around 90 percent of compulsive buyers are women and around 10 percent are men. Regarding the age of the sample, the respondents were gathered between the ages of 18 till 60. The literature review states that compulsive buyers tend to be younger; therefore this was taken into account during data collection. However, there is no clear definition of the exact age range of this younger population of compulsive buyers. Therefore, the younger population in this research is defined as; ages between 18 and 30. This is based on several age ranges used in the literature. The literature does not provide specific information about compulsive buyers and their highest level of education; however it should be as equally distributed as possible across the three groups.

The questionnaire contained several items. For each item a specific scale from the literature was used. The first item is the degree of compulsive buying tendencies a respondent has. In order to assign a respondent to a group, they answered the statements of the scale constructed by Maccarrone-Eaglen & Schofield (2017). This recently introduced seven-item compulsive buyer behavior screening tool indicates to what extent a person has tendencies of CBB. The scale has two dimensions, Self-control Impaired Spending (SIS) and Compulsive Purchasing (CP). Other scales regarding this measurement are from Faber & O'Guinn (1992), Valence *et al.* (1988) and Ridgway *et al.* (2008). However this new screening tool distinguishes more effectively between compulsive and noncompulsive buyers, and between low, medium and high levels of tendencies of CBB. Furthermore, the authors of this tool evaluated the many already existing screening tools and constructed a new tool including the best measurement statements from the evaluated tools. The benefit of this new screening tool is the possibility to identify both low, medium and high levels of compulsivity. Respondents

had to score seven statements on a seven-point agreement scale. Scores in the 7 – 29 range had low-level tendencies, scores between 30 to 39 had medium-level tendencies and scores between 40 – 49 had high-level tendencies. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) produced a good fit for the screening tool: RMR = .04, CFI = .98, AGFI = .96, RMSEA = .05 (Maccarrone-Eaglen & Schofield, 2017). This shows that the scale has convergent and discriminant validity. The composite reliability (CR) was 0.85 for SIS and 0.83 for CP, showing its reliability. Appendix II shows the items of the screening tool from Maccarrone-Eaglen & Schofield (2017). To check the accuracy of the score a respondent obtains on this scale, a control question was included. The control question was about the frequency of a respondent's shopping trips per month, not counting groceries. The trips for the respondents with high degrees of compulsive buying should be higher than those with medium and low degrees.

The mediating variable is the motivation to buy branded products. In this research three kinds of motivations were measured: functional, emotional and social. To measure these, the meaning of branded products scale from Strizhakova, Coulter & Price (2008) was used. They measure six dimensions, however only the three relevant dimensions for our research were used for this research including quality, self-identity and status. Quality refers to the quality signals offered by the branded product. Self-identity is defined as the idea of the branded product as symbols to the self. Status corresponds to the meanings that imply social class and condition. The quality dimension corresponds with the functional motivation in this research, the self-identity with the emotional motivation and the status dimension with the social motivation (Zarantonello & Pauwels-Delassus, 2016). A CFA reports an acceptable fit for the scale, CFI = 0.90, TLI = 0.89 and RMSEA <0.03. Regarding the reliability of the scale, the coefficient alpha estimates a range from 0.78 to 0.94 for a sample in the US (Strizhakova, Coulter & Price, 2008). All measurement items were evaluated on a 7-point Likert scale, where (1) stands for “strongly disagree” and (7) for “strongly agree”. The content of the scale can be found in Appendix III.

The next variables that were measured are related to brand behavior. In order to be able to answer the statements, the respondents reflected on their favorite brand regarding brand trust and brand attachment. The reason for this is that a favorite brand is a useful point of reference for reflecting on behaviors towards the brand instead of brand preferences in general (Horváth & van Birgelen, 2015). The first brand behavior variable measurement is brand trust. The 5-item 7-point agreement brand trust scale by Koschate-Fischer & Gärtner

(2015) was used. Koschate-Fischer & Gärtner (2015) found strong support (80.12% explained variance) for only one dimension of brand trust, which is the same as the performance dimension in Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2001). However, in comparison with Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2001) this scale is based on a formal scale development process, which was not the case in the scale from Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2001). This scale fits the definition of brand trust analyzed in the literature review, since it concentrates on the willingness of a consumer to rely on the product performance of a brand. The reliability of the scale for all items is 0.92 (Cronbach's alpha), which implies that it is a reliable scale to use. The results of a CFA resulted in an almost perfect fit for the five-item scale: CFI = 0.998, AGFI = 0.994, RMR = 0.0260 and RMSEA = 0.0446 (Koschate-Fischer & Gärtner, 2015). Appendix IV presents the content of the 5-item scale.

Brand attachment was measured with the scale developed by Park *et al.* (2010). This scale focuses on cognitive and emotional bonds between the brand and the consumer. They used two dimensions; brand-self connection and brand prominence (Bruner, 2013). Compared to other scales measuring brand attachment, this scale is in line with the definition used in this research. Since the definition of brand attachment in this research focuses on the connecting or bond between the brand and the consumer, only the scale items regarding the brand-self connection were used as measurement items. The authors constructed a short scale and therefore the scale is manageable and practical to use. The scale consists five items on a 10-point agreement scale, with a range from "not at all" (0) and "completely" (10). The reliability of the scale is good, with Alphas of .94 and .95 (Park *et al.* 2010). Appendix V provides the measurement statements of the scale.

In order to measure brand-switching behavior, the 5-item scale by Steenkamp & Maydeu-Olivares (2015) was used. This scale measures the tendency to purchase the same brand over time and not switch to others brands (Bruner, 2017). As there was no scale available for measuring the specific construct of brand-switching behavior, the best fit of a brand loyalty scale was chosen. The reason to choose a brand loyalty scale was because loyalty is related to brand-switching behavior. Furthermore, many statements in this scale are focusing on the intention to switch to another brand in order to measure a respondent's loyalty. The items were measured with a 5-point Likert scale. The reliability of this scale has been evaluated over a period of 12 years and the results were consistent, ranging from alphas between .85 to .89 (Bruner, 2017). In Appendix VI the five items are fully described.

3.4 Data analysis procedure

Once all the data was gathered, the data analysis phase started. In order to analyze the data in a proper way, the PROCESS tool designed by Andrew F. Hayes was used. PROCESS is a tool that observes variable path analysis as moderations and mediations and can easily be integrated in a SPSS program (Hayes, 2017). The Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression analysis looks at how the effect of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) could be divided in two routes of influence, the direct and indirect routes. For this analysis the simple mediation model was applied, as there is only one mediator in the conceptual model. This model is a causal system that contains one predictor variable (X) that influences the outcome variable (Y) through a single mediating variable (M). To empirically test the mediation model, the estimation and interpretation of the direct and indirect effects were analyzed. This analysis was performed with the OLS regression analysis, the objective of this analysis is to estimate and interpret the regression coefficients individually but also to look at the effect when they are put together (Hayes, 2017).

The mediation was tested through three different paths; the direct effect, the indirect effect and the total effect. The direct effect is equated by c' in Figure 3. The regression coefficient for

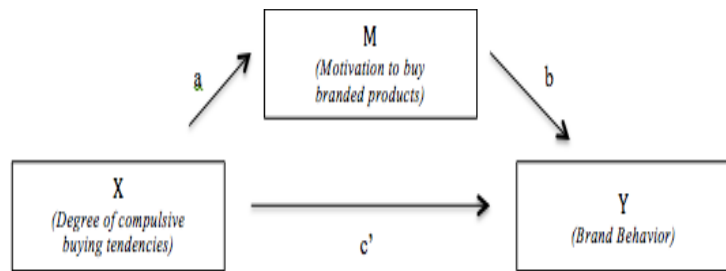


Figure 3. Mediation model

variable X provides the value of c' . The indirect effect is divided into two regression coefficients, the effect of X on M (a) and the effect of M on Y (b). The regression coefficient for variable X provides the value of a when predicting the mediating variable. The value of b is given by the regression coefficient for the mediating variable when predicting the outcome variable. The total effect, equated by c , was measured by the following calculation: $c = c' + ab$. The total effect looks at the total effect of X on Y including the direct effect and the effect of X on Y controlling for M. Mediation occurs when the direct effect was significant ($p < .05$) but not significant ($p > .05$) when the mediating variable is included (Hayes, 2017; Field, 2014).

However, the significance does not show the importance of the effect. Therefore the size of the effect has to be measured, in this research the strength of the relationship between the variables was measured. An effect size is an objective measure of the magnitude of the observed effect (Field, 2014). The measures used to determine the size of the effect were the

regression coefficient and the confidence interval. In particular, it is important to analyze the indirect effect as this research focusing on a mediating model. Field (2014) advises kappa-squared (κ^2) as most useful effect size measure. “Kappa-squared expresses the indirect effect as a ratio to the maximum possible indirect effect that could have been found given the design of a study” (Field, 2014, p. 413). When it is close to 0 it has a small effect relative to the maximum possible and closer to the value of 1, the effect becomes larger. Unfortunately, kappa-squared is not available in the PROCESS procedure. It is also important to generate a confidence interval of 95% around the indirect effect, which is done by using the bootstrapping function in SPSS. This is because the researcher wanted to be sure that the variable ‘motivation the buy branded products’ is a mediator of the relationship between degree of compulsive buying tendencies and brand behavior. If the range of the regression coefficient does not include zero, the indirect effect is likely to be genuine. This suggests that the mediating variable does play a role in the relationship. However, if it does include zero that would mean no effect at all (Field, 2014; Hayes, 2017).

3.5 Research ethics

During the research some elements had to be ethically addressed. First, the conduct of the researcher in the field had to be considered. One of the characteristics of a SAQ is that during the data collection the researcher cannot interrupt the respondent. Therefore, the respondent is not influenced when completing the questionnaire. Second, the treatment of respondents during the research is of importance. The questionnaire started with an introduction including a general explanation of the subject and transparency is given of the research goals. Furthermore, the respondents were informed about the fact that their participation was completely voluntary, that they were free to withdraw from the research at any time and that their answers were treated confidentially and were totally anonymous. The results were not shared with the respondents since compulsive buying can be a sensitive subject for the respondents and can cause negative emotional feelings. Moreover, the respondents were promised that their answers are treated confidentially, because of these reasons the researcher had chosen to not share the results with all the respondents.

4. Results

In this chapter the results regarding the analyzed data are discussed. First, the reliability of the measurement items per construct is investigated. Next the descriptive statistics of the overall sample are given, followed up by a description of the statistics per group. Finally, the hypotheses are tested by an Ordinary Least Squares regression analysis.

4.1 Reliability Analysis

In this research the following constructs were measured; compulsive buying tendencies, functional, emotional and social motivations of a brand, brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior. As described in Chapter 3 for each construct a specific scale from the literature was used, each construct was measured through several items. Since the scales are derived from the literature and the Alphas for all scales are above .80, conducting an entire factor analysis was not necessary. However, to check if the items consistently reflect the construct that it is measuring, a reliability analysis for each construct was conducted. Field (2014) states that a Cronbach's α value of 0.7 to 0.8 or above is sufficient. All the constructs had a Cronbach's $\alpha > .80$, which implies a good reliability, see Appendix VII.

4.2 Descriptive statistics

The questionnaire was filled in by 181 respondents, however eleven respondents did not complete the questionnaire entirely. Therefore these respondents were removed from the sample. Furthermore, another six respondents were removed as they were characterized as outliers by SPSS. SPSS characterizes a respondent as an outlier when its Z-score is bigger than 3 or smaller than -3, these persons belong to the extreme 5 percent of the scores. An outlier is displayed as a little circle or star within a boxplot. An important element to check is non-differentiation in ratings or straightlining, this includes that a respondent gives the same answer to each question. Such respondents might harm the quality of the data (Vannette, 2015). In order to discover straightlining, all ratings from each respondent were checked. There were no extreme cases of straightlining, for that reason no respondents were removed. After implementing the results of these three analyses, a total of 164 respondents remained for the analysis. Since the differences between the three groups were investigated, each respondent is assigned to a group based on their score on the Compulsive Buyer Behavior Screening Tool. However, as stated in the methodology chapter, an important assumption for the research was that the demographic distribution of the respondents across the three groups

was almost equal. In order to statistically check this, an ANOVA was conducted. The test of homogeneity of variances showed a significant score (0.010) for Levene's test. This implies that the variances in the groups are significantly different and therefore the output of the Welch tests should be interpreted (Field, 2014). The output of the ANOVA shows that there are no significant differences between the groups for income $F(2, 78.599) = 1.978, p > .05$. For age the test of homogeneity of variances showed again a significant score (0.000). The output indicates a significant difference between the groups $F(2, 102.533) = 8.430, p < .05$. Since it is a significant effect the Post Hoc tests were analyzed to identify the differences. There is a significant difference in age between groups 1 (low tendencies) and 2 (medium tendencies) ($p = .040$) and between groups 1 and 3 (high tendencies) ($p = .004$). The mean difference shows that group 1 has a significant higher age compared to group 2 and 3. The reason for this is that the younger population has stronger compulsive buying tendencies compared to older consumers (Neuner, Raab & Reisch, 2005; Achtziger *et al.*, 2015). On account of this reason these significant differences between the groups is not considered as an issue for further data analysis. Instead, age will be included as a covariate in the regression analysis. The output of the ANOVA's is presented in Appendix XIII and IX. As the variables gender and education are categorical variables and not continuous, a non-parametric test was conducted as these tests are 'assumption-free' and therefore run the analysis for categorical variables (Field, 2014). No differences were found between the three groups for education level ($H(2) = 3.308, p = .191$). For gender the results show significant differences between the three groups ($H(2) = 14.636, p = .001$). Out of the follow-up analysis (Mann-Whitney Test) turned out that groups 1 and 2 significantly differ from each other ($U = 1470, Z = -3.6, p = 0.000$) and also groups 1 and 3 ($U = 1098, Z = -1.98, p = 0.048$). These differences are caused through the higher proportion of men in the group with low tendencies. This can be explained by the fact that men tend to have less compulsive buyer tendencies compared to women (Dittmar, 2005a). In *Table 2* the frequencies of the demographic variables are presented per group. The output of the non-parametric tests is shown in Appendix X and XI.

4.2.1 Control question

In order to check the group division a control question was asked. The control question was stated as follows: 'How many times do you shop on average a month (excluding groceries)?' In Appendix XII the output of the analysis from SPSS is presented. The results show that the group with low compulsive buying tendencies has an average of 1.8 shopping trips per month. Consumers within the medium tendencies group tend to shop 4.7 times a

month on average. Finally, consumers with high tendencies of compulsive buying shop on average 7.9 times a month. This implies that the respondents are correctly divided across the groups.

4.2.2 Favorite brand

As the qualitative research from Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) concluded that compulsive buyers do not have a favorite brand, this was tested again within this quantitative research. The table showed in Appendix XIII gives the following results; 62 percent of the people with low tendencies do not prefer a certain brand, 38 percent does prefer a certain brand. In the group of medium tendencies 53 percent does not have a favorite brand, 47 does. The majority (69 percent) of respondents with high tendencies state that they do not have a favorite brand, 31 percent do have a favorite brand.

4.2.3 Low tendencies of CBB

In total this group consists of 79 respondents, 33 percent are men and 66 percent women. More than half are younger than 35 years old (57 percent) and a large proportion, 63 percent, has an education level of HBO or WO. About 40 percent has an income between €2001 – €4000 and another 30 percent between €0 – €2000. The mean scores of the perceived functional, emotional and social motivations of a brand are presented next. The functional motivations ($M=4.25$, $SD=1.27$) are more important for this group as the emotional ($M=2.90$, $SD=1.39$) and social motivations ($M=2.39$, $SD=1.27$). These mean scores imply that they disagree with the fact that a brand has emotional and social benefits for them. For the functional motivations this group slightly agrees or neither agrees or disagrees that a brand stands for a certain quality. Looking at brand trust, the mean for this group is 5.21 ($SD=1.06$) on a seven-point scale. Thus, to some extent they create trust in a brand. Brand attachment was measured with a 10-point scale, the scores show that they do not feel that attached to a brand ($M=4.08$, $SD=2.2$). A 5-point scale was used to measure brand-switching behavior, the mean score is 2.87 ($SD=0.81$) implying that they are neither loyal nor disloyal to brands. The output can be found in Appendix XIV and XV.

4.2.4 Medium tendencies of CBB

This group consists of 51 respondents, the majority (94 percent) are women. Most of them, 80 percent, are between the ages of 18 – 35. Their education level is mostly HBO or WO (57 percent), but 23 percent has a MBO degree. Almost half of the respondents earn between €0 – €2000 a month and around a third between the €2001 – €4000. For this group

the functional motivations are still the most important (M=4.31, SD=1.15), the emotional motivations are less of importance (M=3.87, SD=1.24) and social motivations are the least important (M=2.94, SD=1.31). This group slightly trusts a brand (M=4.71, SD=0.93) and they do not feel that attached to a brand (M=4.64, SD=2.12). Their score on brand-switching behavior to a brand is neutral (M=2.88, SD=0.65). The output can be found in Appendix XIV and XV.

4.2.5 High tendencies

This group consists of 34 respondents, a large proportion are women (85 percent) and 15 percent are men. Almost all respondents, 91 percent, is younger than 35 years old. About a third, 35 percent, has an MBO education level and more than a half HBO or WO. The lowest income level between €0 – €2000 is represented by 41 percent of the respondents, 32 percent did not want to provide this information. Analyzing the motivations of a brand, this group finds the emotional motivations the most important (M=4.68, SD=1.08) followed by the functional motivations (M=3.78, SD=1.35). The importance of the social motivations (M=3.65, SD=1.51) is almost perceived the same as the functional. They do not have that much trust in a brand (M=4.11, SD=1.26). The attachment to a brand is quite low (M=4.26, SD=2.43) and their brand-switching behavior tends to be quite high with a mean score of 2.38 (SD=0.79). The output can be found in Appendix XIV and XV.

For a clear overview *Table 1* shows the means per group for the motivations to buy branded products and the means for the brand behavior variables and *Table 2* presents the frequencies of the demographic variables per group.

Table 1. Means per group

	Low Tendencies	Medium Tendencies	High Tendencies
Motivations to buy			
- Functional	4.2	4.3	3.8
- Emotional	3.0	3.9	4.7
- Social	2.4	2.9	3.7
Brand Behavior Variables			
- Brand Trust	5.2	4.7	4.1
- Brand Attachment	4.1	4.6	4.3
- Brand-Switching behavior	2.9	2.9	2.4

Note: Functional Emotional, Social and Brand Trust are measured on a 7-point scale, Brand Attachment on a 10-point scale and Brand Loyalty on a 5-point scale

Table 2. Demographic frequencies per group

	Low Tendencies	Medium Tendencies	High Tendencies
Sample Size	79	51	34
Gender			
- Male	33%	6%	15%
- Female	66%	94%	85%
Age			
- 18 – 25	35%	41%	41%
- 26 - 35	22%	39%	50%
- 36 – 45	11%	4%	6%
- 46 – 55	13%	10%	3%
- 55 +	19%	6%	0%
Education			
- None	0%	0%	0%
- VMBO, HAVO, VWO	8%	10%	3%
- MBO	15%	23%	35%
- HBO, WO	63%	57%	56%
- Master, Doctoraat	14%	10%	6%
Income per month			
- €0 – €2000	29%	47%	41%
- €2001 – €4000	39%	29%	9%
- €4001 – €6000	8%	6%	12%
- €6000 +	6%	2%	6%
- No information*	18%	16%	32%
Mean scores: CBB Tool	16.0	34.5	41.9
Average shopping trips per month	1.8	4.7	7.9

Note: * The respondent did not want to provide this information.

4.3 Ordinary Least Squares regression analysis

As described in the data analysis procedure part in Chapter 3, the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) was used to analyze the data. Before starting the analysis, four assumptions had to be met; normality of the residuals, linearity, homoscedasticity and the absence of multicollinearity (StatisticSolutions, n.d.; Field, 2014). The residuals should have a normal distribution in order to make valid conclusions. Residuals are the error terms, it is the difference between the observed and predicted value of the dependent variables. This assumption is tested for each dependent variable with a normal P-P plot in SPSS. The plots, presented in Appendix XVI and XVII, show that all the relationships are normally distributed because the residuals follow the normality line. The assumption of homoscedasticity examines whether the residuals are equally distributed or the equality of variances. As there

are multiple dependent variables this assumption was checked for each possible relationship. The scatterplots in Appendix XVIII show that for each relationship the residuals are equally distributed. As a result of this, this assumption is met. Linearity refers to a linear relationship (straight-line) between the independent and dependent variables. As the distribution of the residuals is normal and their variance is equal, it can be assumed that there is a linear relationship. The last assumption is multicollinearity, this means that the independent variables should not be correlated with each other. However, in this research the only independent variable is CBB tendencies. Therefore this assumption is not relevant for the analysis.

This research contains three groups and the results provide a comparison between them. The function ‘multicategorical’ within the PROCESS function in SPSS was used to make this comparison, it allows an independent variable to have multiple levels. This function took the group with low compulsive buying tendencies as reference group. Therefore the group with low tendencies was compared with the group with medium and high tendencies. Thus, the regression coefficients (b) show the difference between low vs. medium and low vs. high. However, the medium group should also be compared to the high group. Therefore, a new variable was constructed, where the group with high compulsive buying tendencies was taken as the reference group. *Table 3* and *4* provide the comparisons between the groups with regard to the observed variables.

4.3.1 Indirect (mediating) effects

Since all the assumptions were met, the analysis was conducted. First the motivation to buy branded products was tested. This variable is expected to have a mediating effect on the three brand behavior variables. In order to check this expectation, the *indirect effect of X on Y* part in the output were analyzed (path $a + b$). If the true b -value falls in a range that does not include zero, then an effect is established. However, if this range does include zero, which implies $b=0$, then there is no effect whatsoever (Field, 2014). The first brand behavior variable that is investigated is brand trust. All the lower limits and upper limits of the confidence interval contain a zero, which refers to an insignificant effect. This means that for all the three motivations to buy branded products (functional, emotional and social), there is no indirect, thus mediating effect for brand trust.

For brand attachment, the results do show some mediating effects. The emotional and social benefits do mediate the relationship between compulsive buying tendencies and brand

attachment. For the emotional motivation, the low, medium and high groups show a significant mediation effect. As there are three groups, the analysis takes the low tendencies group as reference group and compares it to the other two. The results are as follows for the medium group compared to the low tendencies group, $b = 0.4231$, 95% CI [0.0954, 0.8774], and for the high tendencies group $b = 0.7307$, 95% CI [0.2044, 1.3462]. In order to check whether the low tendencies group also shows a significant effect, the reference group is changed to the high tendencies group. This results in also a significant mediating effect, $b = -0.7307$, 95% CI [-1.3642, -0.1943]. For the social motivation, the analysis was conducted in the same way. The results for the medium group compared to the low group are as follows, $b = 0.2744$, 95% CI [0.0219, 0.6096]. Comparing the high group to the low group the results show the following results, $b = 0.5002$, 95% CI [0.0412, 1.0208]. The low group in comparison to the group with high tendencies shows, $b = -0.5002$, 95% CI [-1.0153, -0.0408]. The functional motivation does not have a mediating effect, as the range of the regression coefficient does include zero.

The last brand behavior variable is brand-switching behavior. Only the social motivation has a mediating effect for this variable, the functional and emotional motivations do not. This significant mediating effect is concluded out of the following results; for the medium group, $b = 0.0822$, 95% CI [0.0002, 0.1933], the high group, $b = 0.1499$, 95% CI [0.0000, 0.3307] and the low group compared to the high group, $b = -0.1499$, 95% CI [-0.3340, -0.0060]. All the output of the indirect effects is presented in Appendix XIX.

4.3.2 Direct effects

In order to identify whether there are differences between the groups for the three brand behavior variables, the direct effects were analyzed (path c). In *Table 3* the results of the direct effects are presented. These show that the differences for brand attachment are not significant, even as the total model summary. For brand trust some differences are significant and show that the group with high tendencies has less trust in brands compared to the medium group ($b = -0.60$) and the low group ($b = -0.89$). However, the difference between the low tendencies group and the medium tendencies group is not significant. The R -squared tells that the model explains 24 percent of the variance in brand trust together with the covariates. For brand-switching behavior the differences between the medium and low group are not significant. The differences between medium and high, and high and low are significant. The respondents in the low group tend to switch less ($b = -0.39$) between brands compared to the high group. The medium group also tends to switch less ($b = 0.54$) than the high group. The R -

squared tells that the model explains 17 percent of the variance in brand-switching behavior together with the covariates. The output of the data is presented in Appendix XX.

Table 3. Differences in brand behavior

	<i>Y1 Trust</i>	<i>Y2 Attachment</i>	<i>Y3 Switching behavior</i>
Medium to Low	$b = -0.29, t = -1.48$ $p = 0.14$	$b = 0.74, t = 1.77$ $p = 0.08$	$b = 0.15, t = 1.07$ $p = 0.29$
Medium to High	$b = 0.60, t = 2.59$ $p = 0.01$	$b = 0.45, t = 0.89$ $p = 0.37$	$b = 0.54, t = 3.26$ $p = 0.00$
High to Low	$b = -0.89, t = -3.97$ $p = 0.00$	$b = 0.29, t = 0.60$ $p = 0.55$	$b = -0.39, t = -2.46$ $p = 0.02$
Model Summary	$R^2 = 0.24$ $p = <.05$	$R^2 = 0.7$ $p = >.05$	$R^2 = 0.17$ $p = <.05$

The results in *Table 4* show the differences in the three motivations to buy branded products. There is one significant difference between the groups for the functional motivations, this is the medium tendencies group compared to the high tendencies group. The results show that the medium group has more ($b=0.610$) functional motivations to buy a certain brand. For the emotional motivations the differences are significant, the medium group finds these more ($b=0.95$) important than the group with low tendencies and less important ($b= -0.69$) than the high tendencies group. The group with high tendencies finds the emotional motivations the most important ($b=1.63$). The differences in social motivations are also significant; the medium tendencies group finds these more important ($b=0.76$) than the group with low tendencies and less important ($b= -0.63$) than the group with high tendencies. The high tendencies group compared to the low tendencies group shows the biggest difference ($b=1.39$) in importance of the social motivations. The output is presented in Appendix XXI.

Table 4. Differences in motivations to buy

	<i>M1 Functional</i>	<i>M2 Emotional</i>	<i>M3 Social</i>
Medium to Low	$b = 0.25, t = 1.12$ $p = 0.26$	$b = 0.95, t = 4.04$ $p = 0.00$	$b = 0.76, t = 3.1$ $p = 0.00$
Medium to High	$b = 0.61, t = 2.24$ $p = 0.02$	$b = -0.69, t = -2.45$ $p = 0.02$	$b = -0.63, t = -2.16$ $p = 0.03$
High to Low	$b = -0.35, t = -1.35$ $p = 0.18$	$b = 1.63, t = 6.05,$ $p = 0.00$	$b = 1.39, t = 4.97$ $p = 0.00$

4.3.3 Covariates

In the analyses the four demographic characteristics were treated as covariates. “A covariate is a variable that has a relationship with or has the potential to be related to, the

outcome variable that is measured” (Field, 2014, p. 873). Thus, a covariate can influence the relationship between the independent and dependent variable. Therefore it is important to analyze them. For the motivations to buy branded products the level of education has a significant influence. When the level of education increases, the functional ($b=.51, t = 3.95, p =0.000$), emotional ($b= 0.42 t = 3.09, p =0.024$) and social motivations ($b= 0.42 t = 3.01, p =0.003$) become more important. For emotional motivations also age has a significant influence, when people are younger they tend to have more emotional motivations ($b= -0.19 t = -2.21, p =0.029$). These results are shown in Appendix XXII.

For the brand behavior variables, only the level of education has a significant direct influence on brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior. The higher the level of education the more brand trust ($b= 0.42 t = 3.76, p =0.000$), brand attachment ($b= 0.62 t = 2.60, p =0.010$) and they switch less between brands ($b= 0.28, t = 3.54, p =0.000$). See Appendix XXIII for the output.

4.3.4 Motivations to buy and brand behavior variables

Another interesting element to analyze is whether functional, emotional and social motivations have a positive effect on brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior without the influence of the compulsive buying tendencies variable. However, brand trust and brand attachment were measured with a favorite brand as reference point, brand-switching behavior was measured in general. Furthermore, the functional, emotional and social motivations were also measured in general. Therefore, it is only possible to regress the motivations on brand-switching behavior since these measurement forms are the same. For brand trust and brand attachment the results of the regression are not applicable as they were measured from a different point of reference. Appendix XXIV shows that functional motivations lead to less switching between brands ($b= 0.18 t = 3.82, p =0.000$). The emotional and social motivations do not have a significant effect.

5. Conclusions and discussion

In this chapter the research question is answered and the hypotheses are addressed. Next the results are discussed and compared with other relevant literature. Furthermore managerial and theoretical implications are given. Finally, the limitations of the research are presented together with possibilities for future research.

5.1 Conclusion

The qualitative research by Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) was used as basis for this study. With this study the main qualitative results of Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) were tested whether they were robust within a large-scale study. This study investigated how the degree of compulsive buying tendencies influence the way brands play a role in consumer purchase decisions. The research question was as follows: *'In what way do consumers with different degrees of compulsive buying behavior tendencies differ with regard to (a) motivations for buying branded products, (b) brand trust, (c) brand attachment and (d) brand-switching behavior?'* In order to answer this question, five hypotheses were created and tested with a questionnaire among the Dutch population. Several analyses were performed to test whether the hypotheses could be confirmed. Hypothesis 1a discussed that motivations to buy branded products have a mediating effect for the brand behavior variables. The three motivations do not mediate the relationship for brand trust. For brand attachment the emotional and social motivations do significantly mediate the relationship. Only the social motivations do mediate the relationship for brand-switching behavior. Concluding that hypothesis 1a is not fully confirmed. Hypothesis 1b states that the functional motivations become less important when consumers with higher compulsive buying tendencies. The only significant conclusion that can be drawn is that consumers with a medium degree have more functional motivations to buy a brand compared to the consumers with a high degree. Hypothesis 1c and 1d are confirmed since it can be concluded that consumers with a medium degree find the emotional as well as the social motivations more important than the group with a low degree and less important than consumers with a high degree.

The second hypothesis looks at the relationship between the motivations to buy branded products and the brand variables. Only the functional motivations have a significant positive effect on brand-switching behavior, indicating that consumer switch less between brands when they search for functional motivations.

The third hypothesis stated that consumers with both a high and medium degree of compulsive buying tendencies show lower levels of brand trust than consumers with low compulsive buying tendencies. Consumers with a high degree of compulsive buying tendencies have less trust in brands compared to the medium and low degrees. Where consumers with low degrees have the most trust in brands. Brand trust evolves out of a good product performance. However, the functional benefits are of less importance for compulsive buyers and they tend to switch between brands, which results in less trust. It is not confirmed that consumers with a medium degree show lower levels of brand trust than consumers with a low degree.

Hypothesis four asserted that consumers with both a high and medium degree of compulsive buying tendencies show lower levels of brand attachment than consumers with low compulsive buying tendencies. The OLS regression analysis disconfirms this hypothesis, as all differences between the groups are insignificant for brand attachment. However, the analysis shows that a higher level of education leads to more brand attachment.

The last hypothesis was based on the idea that consumers with both a high and a medium degree of compulsive buying tendencies switch more between brands than consumers with low compulsive buying tendencies. The results of the direct effects from the OLS regression analysis confirm that consumers with a high degree of compulsive buying tendencies switch more between brands than consumer with a low degree. Furthermore the differences between consumers with a high degree and a medium degree are also significant, where consumers with a medium degree tend to switch less between brands. However, the differences between the medium and low group are not significant. Therefore, this hypothesis is partial confirmed.

Overall, the higher the degree of compulsive buying tendencies the fewer brands plays a role in consumer purchase decisions. Compulsive buyers are less able to develop a long-term relationship with a brand in terms of brand trust and loyalty.

5.2 Discussion

The results of this study showed that with regard to motivations to buy branded products that the higher the degree of compulsivity the more the emotional and social motivations are of importance. This is in line with the qualitative findings from Horváth & van Birgelen (2015). The literature states that one of the motivations of compulsive buyers for

their shopping habits is their self-concept. This self-concept is based on who they are and how others think about them (Flight & Sacramento, 2015). Kukar-Kinnet *et al.* (2012) state in their research that compulsive buyers buy things in order to move closer to the ideal self, express themselves and boost their social appearance. In addition, a low self-esteem is a characteristic of compulsive buyers and by purchasing they experience an emotional lift, which boosts their self-esteem (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Roberts, 1998; Ertelt, 2009). This explains the results why compulsive buyers focus more on the emotional and social motivations of branded products. The qualitative results from Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) for the functional motivations cannot be completely confirmed within this quantitative study. However, when comparing these results with the literature it does confirm their qualitative results. Dittmar, Beattie & Friese (1996) confirm that consumer with high compulsive shopping tendencies have more psychological (emotional and social) reasons to buy instead of functional. Dittmar (2005a, b) had again significant results in 2005 for this, as she states that compulsive buyers buy to enhance their emotions and identity instead of the quality of a product. Obtaining goods has psychological benefits for compulsive buyers (Kasser & Kanner, 2004). Much literature emphasizes the emotional and social benefits of buying products, the functional motivations do not come into play.

With respect to brand trust, consumers with high compulsive tendencies tend to have less brand trust (vs. medium and low). This is in line with the findings of Horváth & van Birgelen (2015). There are no other studies that researched the relationship between brand trust and compulsive buyers. Nevertheless, the results can be substantiated with previous research. Compulsive buyers tend to have an insecure attachment style as they have a low-self esteem and have problems in their relationship (Collins & Read, 1990). An insecure attachment style means that persons find it harder to develop trust in a relationship because they feel unconfident and more afraid (Swaminathan *et al.*, 2009). For a marketer this implies that consumers with such a style form less brand trust. Furthermore, trust is created through a good experience of quality but compulsive buyers do not focus on the quality of a product but on the appearance of it and how it makes them feel (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2000). Therefore they do not experience the brand itself and are not able to establish trust in them. These findings in previous research affirm the fact that compulsive buyers develop less brand trust.

In the research sample, there were no significant results for the differences between the groups for brand attachment. For that reason the results of Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) cannot be confirmed. Nevertheless, previous findings in the literature show that there are differences. Flight & Sacramento (2015) found a positively related relationship between brand attachment and CBB as they associate these brands with their ideal self. This is again confirmed by Lee & Workman (2015), who describe that compulsive buyers are more likely to have a higher level of brand attachment. Furthermore, attachment enhances consumption and future buying (Bell, 2010; Park *et al.*, 2006; Malär *et al.*, 2010). These findings disconfirm the proposition of Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) who declare that compulsive buyers have a lower degree of brand attachment. Literature explains this finding by the fact that compulsive buyers often do not even use purchases or leave them unopened (Ridway *et al.*, 2008). This implies that they do not feel attached to their purchases. However, there is not a quantitative study that confirms the fact that compulsive buyers do feel less attached to brands.

With regard to brand-switching behavior, the results in this study confirm the proposition of Horváth & van Birgelen (2015) such that compulsive buyers switch more between brands. In other words, they are less loyal to brands. Lee & Workman (2015) have found opposite results, their results support that high compulsive buying tendencies show higher levels of brand loyalty. However, considering what the literature states about compulsive buyers, it is more likely that they are less loyal. First of all, compulsive buyers value the shopping experience more than the actual possession of goods (Dittmar, 2005b; Sneath *et al.*, 2009). Also compulsive buyers are more vulnerable for situational influences, like price discounts (Kukar-Kinney *et al.*, 2012). Because of their variety-seeking nature they prefer a diverse range of different brands (Horváth & van Birgelen, 2015). Fantasizing is another factor that plays a role in their switching behavior. As they fantasize about their own success and acceptance from others their choice for branded goods might change depending on their fantasies (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Roberts, 1998). These factors imply that it is more acceptable that compulsive buyers are less loyal.

5.3 Managerial implications

Since marketing strategies and messages play a facilitating role in triggering CBB (Roberts & Manolis, 2000), this study provides new insights for managers to use in practice. First of all it can be concluded that marketing strategies do not hold completely for both compulsive and noncompulsive buyers. The higher the tendencies of compulsive buying, the

less brand relationships become important for customers. Therefore managers should not pay a lot of attention on developing a long-term relationship with these types of customers. This is because of brand trust, attachment and loyalty are some of the drivers that build a long-term relationship (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). The group with low compulsive buying tendencies are the best to target since they develop these three drivers the most. Nevertheless, in terms of societal relevance managers can play a role in educating customers with their communication strategy. Such a strategy is called a “Shop Responsibly” campaign; it makes customers aware of their shopping motivations and bad buying habits (Lee & Workman, 2015). Not only will this campaign help compulsive buyers but it will also have a positive affect on the image of a brand (Yoon, Gürhan-Canli & Schwarz, 2006). A campaign like this shows that a company finds the well-being of their customers important and therefore acts in a socially responsible manner. Furthermore, corporate social responsibility positively affects brand loyalty (Chung *et al.*, 2015). A practical implication to implement such a strategy is placing ‘Shop Responsibly’ signs in retail stores. These shopping warnings help customers remind their buying behavior. As mentioned in the literature review, an emotional consequence of their behavior is feeling guilty about it (O’Guinn & Faber, 1989). A moment this feeling might arise is when a customer receives a bill or pays at the cashier. These are crucial moments to inform compulsive buyers. For instance by creating a website and specific phone number where they can get help and put this information on the receipt and on the billing form or add an information folder within the purchasing bags.

5.4 Theoretical implications

Much theoretical knowledge is known about the concept of CBB. However, this research is focusing on the personal antecedents and consequences, there is not much research that examines this behavior from a marketing perspective. In 2015, Horváth & van Birgelen were one of the first authors who qualitatively investigated the relationship between compulsive buyers and brand related elements more in depth. Some other quantitative studies researched some particular parts of this relationship, for example brand attachment (Flight & Sacramento, 2015) or brand awareness and loyalty (Lee & Workman, 2015). This study is the first study that uses the scale by Maccarrone-Eaglen & Schofield (2017) that provides the opportunity to separate the level of compulsive buying tendencies into three levels for brand trust, brand attachment and brand-switching behavior. Therefore this study presents new insights in terms of the comparison between people with low, medium and high compulsive buying tendencies and the way brands relationships play a role for them.

5.5 Limitations

As in every research, this study has some limitations that will be discussed next. First, the results are not generalizable since the sample sizes of the three different groups are not equal. A small proportion were consumers with high compulsive buying tendencies. Furthermore, respondents in the age range of 18 and 35, females and an education level of HBO or WO were overrepresented. This unequal distribution could have been caused by the access of the researcher to reach consumers with high tendencies of CBB, which is also a limitation of this study. The access was limited because psychological centers were not willing to send the questionnaire around because of the privacy of their clients. Many experts did not reply to the request of sending the questionnaire to their network. Eventually, two experts were willing to help. The unequal distribution of the groups' sample sizes may have affected the results. Second, possibly socially desirable answers might affected the results, especially for respondents who know their shopping behavior is extreme. In order to minimize this, a few preventing elements were established within the questionnaire. First of all the purpose of the questionnaire was not mentioned, such that respondents could not prepare themselves for what is socially more acceptable. Furthermore, the respondents were told that there are no false or good answers, which helps them to assume that every answer is completely acceptable. However, there still might be respondents who answered in a socially desirable way. Third, the tendencies of CBB were measured, this means that respondents with high tendencies do not necessarily have a medical indication for their CBB. There might be differences between the high tendencies group within this research and consumers who have a medical indication and are treated for their shopping addiction.

5.6 Future research

Since CBB is increasing (Neuner *et al.*, 2005), it is important to further investigate this topic. It would be particularly meaningful, for future research, to investigate to relationship between CBB and other brand variables (for example brand image, brand engagement and brand satisfaction), as there is not much scientific research done. Over the last years there is an enormous increase in the online presence of brands. E-commerce and mobile-commerce are relative new ways through which consumers can buy their products. These channels are easily accessible and could be a stimulant for compulsive buyers to shop even more (Sun & Wu, 2011). Verhagen & van Dolen (2011) state in their research that 40 percent of the total online purchases are impulse based. Therefore investigating the role of these channels and compulsive buying could be useful. Türkyilmaz, Kocamaz & Uslu (2016) conducted a study

where they investigated the influences of online CBB. However, the process and experience they have while purchasing online is not yet examined and is a potential objective for future research. As the managerial implications of this study are more focused on a strategy level than on a tactical or operational level, future research might examine more specific brand communication elements such as a website or advertisements in order to gather practical implications. Furthermore, for more practical implications, it would be purposeful to investigate the customer journey of compulsive buyers compared to noncompulsive buyers. The customer journey locates each touch point a customer has with a company from the orientation moment until the post-purchase moment. Within this journey also some psychological traits such as attitudes, feelings and emotions should be discovered. Analyzing this process might give essential insights for a brand in order to help them understand how compulsive buyers act while buying products.

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7. Appendixes

Appendix I – Questionnaire

Introduction

Beste respondent,

Wat fijn dat je mee wilt werken aan dit onderzoek! Dit onderzoek is onderdeel van mijn master Marketing aan de Radboud Universiteit. Met de 6 minuten die je kwijt bent aan het invullen, help je mij een stap dichterbij te komen met het behalen van mijn diploma.

De vragenlijst bestaat uit verschillende stellingen over je koopgedrag en de manier hoe je tegen merken aankijkt. Geef bij elke stelling aan in hoeverre dit betrekking heeft op jou als persoon. Het gaat dus om je eigen mening, er zijn geen goede of foute antwoorden.

Er zal betrouwbaar met je gegevens worden omgegaan en de resultaten worden geheel anoniem verwerkt. Verder is je deelname vrijwillig en kan je op ieder moment stoppen met het invullen.

Nogmaals bedankt!

Vriendelijke groet, Eva de Ruiter

Compulsive Buying Tendencies (1)

In hoeverre ben je het eens met de volgende stellingen:

	Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Neu- traal	Enigszins mee eens	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
Ik koop vaak een product dat ik niet nodig heb, terwijl ik weet dat ik weinig geld te besteden heb.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik geef roekeloos geld uit.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik koop vaak dingen die ik mij niet kan veroorloven.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Als ik geld tot mijn beschikking heb, kan ik het niet laten om gelijk een deel of zelfs alles ervan uit te geven.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Een groot deel van mijn leven is gericht op het kopen van dingen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Compulsive Buying Tendencies (2)

In hoeverre ben je het eens met de volgende stellingen:

	Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Noch eens noch oneens	Enigszin s mee eens	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
Voor mij is winkelen een manier om om te gaan met stress in mijn dagelijkse leven en om te ontspannen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Soms voel ik dat iets in mij, mij aandrijft om te gaan winkelen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Control Question

Hoe vaak winkel je gemiddeld per maand (boodschappen tellen hier NIET bij mee)?

Functional Motivations

Geef aan in hoeverre je het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

	Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Noch eens noch oneens	Enigszins mee eens	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
Een merknaam is een belangrijke informatiebron voor de duurzaamheid en betrouwbaarheid van een product.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik kan een goede inschatting maken van de kwaliteit van een product door een merknaam.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik gebruik merknamen als een teken van kwaliteit voor het kopen van producten.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik kies merken omdat ze voor kwaliteit staan.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Een merknaam vertelt mij veel over de kwaliteit van een product.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Emotional Motivations

Geef aan in hoeverre je het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

	Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Noch eens noch oneens	Enigszins mee eens	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
Ik kies merken die helpen mijn identiteit uit te drukken naar anderen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
De merken die ik gebruik uiteten belangrijke informatie over het type persoon dat ik ben.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik gebruik verschillende merken om diverse aspecten van mijn persoonlijkheid uit te drukken.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mijn keuze voor een merk zegt iets over mij als persoon	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Social Motivations

Geef aan in hoeverre je het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

	Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Noch eens noch oneens	Enigszins mee eens	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
Als een merk mijn sociale status niet weerspiegelt, kies ik niet voor dit merk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik gebruik merken om mijn sociale status uit te drukken..	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik kies merken die geassocieerd worden met de sociale klasse waar ik tot behoor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
De merken die ik gebruik weerspiegelen mijn sociale status.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Door de merken die ik bezit en gebruik druk ik mijn successen uit.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Favorite Brand

Het volgende deel van de vragen gaan over je favoriete merk. Vul hieronder de naam van je favoriete merk in. **Mocht je geen favoriet merk hebben laat het tekstveld dan leeg.*

Je hebt aangegeven dat je geen favoriet merk hebt. Voor de volgende vragen is het belangrijk om een merk als referentiekader te hebben. Vul daarom hieronder een merk in dat je vaak koopt en fijn vindt om te gebruiken.

Brand Trust

Geef aan in hoeverre je het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

	Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Noch eens noch oneens	Enigszins mee eens	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
Ik heb vertrouwen in het vermogen van ... om goed te presteren.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik vertrouw	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik kan rekenen op	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
...is veilig.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik verwacht dat ...haar belofte nakomt.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Brand Attachment (1)

Geef aan in hoeverre je het eens bent met de volgende stellingen op een schaal van 0 (Totaal niet) tot 10 (Volledig)

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
In hoeverre is ... onderdeel van wie je bent?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In hoeverre voel je je persoonlijk verbonden met ...?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Brand Attachment (2)

Geef aan in hoeverre je het eens bent met de volgende stellingen op een schaal van 0 (Totaal niet) tot 10 (Volledig)

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
In hoeverre voel je je emotioneel verbonden met ...?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In hoeverre is ... onderdeel van jou?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In hoeverre zegt ... iets over wie je bent tegenover andere mensen?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Brand Switching-behavior

Je bent er bijna, nog maar vijf stellingen om te beoordelen!

	Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Neutraal	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
Als ik gewend raak aan een merk, hou ik er niet van om over te stappen naar een ander merk.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik zie mezelf als een loyaal persoon naar een merk toe.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik voel mij erg betrokken bij de merken die ik koop.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ondanks dat er van bepaalde producten verschillende merken verkrijgbaar zijn, koop ik toch altijd hetzelfde merk.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik koop liever het merk dat ik altijd gebruik in plaats van dat ik iets nieuws koop waar ik niet zeker van ben.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Demographic characteristics

Ik ben een

- Man
- Vrouw

Mijn leeftijd is

- 18 – 25
- 26 – 35
- 36 – 45
- 46 – 55
- 55+

Mijn hoogst genoten opleiding is

- Geen
- Middelbare school (vmbo, havo, vwo)
- Middelbaarberoepsonderwijs (MBO)
- Bachelor (HBO / WO)
- WO Master, Doctoraat

Mijn bruto inkomen per maand bedraagt

- €0 - €2000
- €2001 - €4000
- €4001 - €6000
- €6000+
- Deze informatie geef ik liever niet

Appendix II - Compulsive buying behavior screening tool by Maccarrone-Eaglen & Schofield

Self-control Impaired Spending (SIS)

- I have often bought a product that I did not need, while knowing that I have very little money left (Valence et al., 1988)
- I am a reckless spender (Valence et al., 1988)
- I often buy things even though I can't afford them (Faber & O'Guinn, 1989)
- When I have money, I cannot help but spend part or the whole of it (Valence et al., 1988)

Compulsive Purchasing (CP)

- Much of my life centers around buying things (Ridway et al., 2008)
- For me, shopping is a way of facing the stress of my daily life and relaxing (Valence et al., 1988)
- I sometimes feel that something inside pushes me to go shopping (Valence et al., 1988)

Appendix III - Meaning of branded products by Strizhakova, Coulter & Price

Quality (Functional motivations)

- A brand name is an important source of information about the durability and reliability of the product.
- I can tell a lot about a product's quality from the brand name.
- I use brand names as a sign of quality for purchasing products.
- I chose brands because of the quality they represent.
- A brand name tells me great deal about the quality of a product.

Self-identity (Emotional motivations)

- I choose brands that help to express my identity to others.
- The brands I use communicate important information about the type of person I am.
- I use different brands to express different aspects of my personality.
- My choice of a brand says something about me as a person.

Status (Social motivations)

- I avoid choosing brands that do not reflect my social status.
- I use brands to communicate my social status.
- I choose brands that are associated with the social class I belong to.
- The brands I use reflect my social status.
- I communicate my achievements through the brands I own and use.

Appendix IV – Brand Trust Scale by Koschate-Fischer & Gärtner

Items

- I am confident in ___ ability to perform well.
- I trust ___.
- I rely on ___.
- ___ is safe.
- I expect ___ to deliver on its promise.

Appendix V – Attachment to the Brand by Park *et al.*

Brand-Self Connection

- To what extent is ___ part of you and who you are?
- To what extent do you feel personally connected to ___?
- To what extent do you feel emotionally bonded to ___?
- To what extent is ___ part of you?
- To what extent does ___ say something to other people about who you are?

Appendix VI – Brand Loyalty by Steenkamp & Maydeu-Olivares

Items

- After I get used to a brand, I don't like to switch.
- I see myself as a brand loyal person.
- I feel really committed to the brands I buy.
- Even though certain products are available in a number of different brands, I always tend to buy the same brand.
- I prefer the brand I always buy instead of trying something new I am not sure about.

Appendix VII – Reliability Analysis (1)

Scale Compulsive Buying Tendencies – Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.945	7

Scale Functiona. Motivations – Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.902	5

Appendix VII – Reliability Analysis (2)

Scale Emotional Motivations – Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.903	4

Scale Social Motivations – Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.945	5

Scale Brand Trust – Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.908	5

Scale Brand Attachment – Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.928	5

Scale Brand-Switching Behavior – Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.844	5

Appendix VIII – Output ANOVA for income (1)

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
Q7 Mijn bruto inkomen per maand bedraagt			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4.770	2	161	.010

ANOVA					
Q7 Mijn bruto inkomen per maand bedraagt					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10.066	2	5.033	2.217	.112
Within Groups	365.562	161	2.271		
Total	375.628	163			

Appendix VIII – Output ANOVA for income (2)

Robust Tests of Equality of Means				
Q7 Mijn bruto inkomen per maand bedraagt				
	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1.978	2	78.599	.145
Brown-Forsythe	2.029	2	101.733	.137

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Appendix IX – Output ANOVA for age

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
Q5 Mijn leeftijd is				
Levene	Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
	18.983	2	161	.000

ANOVA					
Q5 Mijn leeftijd is					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	21.824	2	10.912	6.452	.002
Within Groups	272.274	161	1.691		
Total	294.098	163			

Multiple Comparisons					
Hochberg	1,00 low	2,00 medium	,582*	,234	,040
		3,00 high	,876*	,267	,004
	2,00 medium	1,00 low	-,582*	,234	,040
		3,00 high	,294	,288	,668
	3,00 high	1,00 low	-,876*	,267	,004
		2,00 medium	-,294	,288	,668

Appendix X – Output Non-Parametric Test for education

Test Statistics^{a,b}	
Q6 Mijn hoogst genoten opleiding is	
Chi-Square	3.308
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.191
a. Kruskal Wallis Test	
b. Grouping Variable: Groups	

Appendix XI – Output Non-Parametric Test for gender

Test Statistics^{a,b}	
Q4 Ik ben een	
Chi-Square	14.636
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.001
a. Kruskal Wallis Test	
b. Grouping Variable: Groups	

Test Statistics^a	
Q4 Ik ben een	
Mann-Whitney U	1098.500
Wilcoxon W	4258.500
Z	-1.981
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.048
a. Grouping Variable: Groups	

Test Statistics^a	
Q4 Ik ben een	
Mann-Whitney U	1470.000
Wilcoxon W	4630.000
Z	-3.601
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
a. Grouping Variable: Groups	

Appendix XII – Output Control Question

Report			
Trips			
Groups	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
1.00 low	1.8148	81	1.13039
2.00 medium	4.6981	53	2.75670
3.00 high	7.8611	36	2.49746
Total	3.9941	170	3.13880

Appendix XIII – Output Favorite Brand

		FAVO		
			0 geen	1 wel
Groups	1.00 low	Count	50	31
		% within Groups	61.7%	38.3%
		% within FAVO	48.5%	46.3%
	2.00 medium	Count	28	25
		% within Groups	52.8%	47.2%
		% within FAVO	27.2%	37.3%
	3.00 high	Count	25	11
		% within Groups	69.4%	30.6%
		% within FAVO	24.3%	16.4%

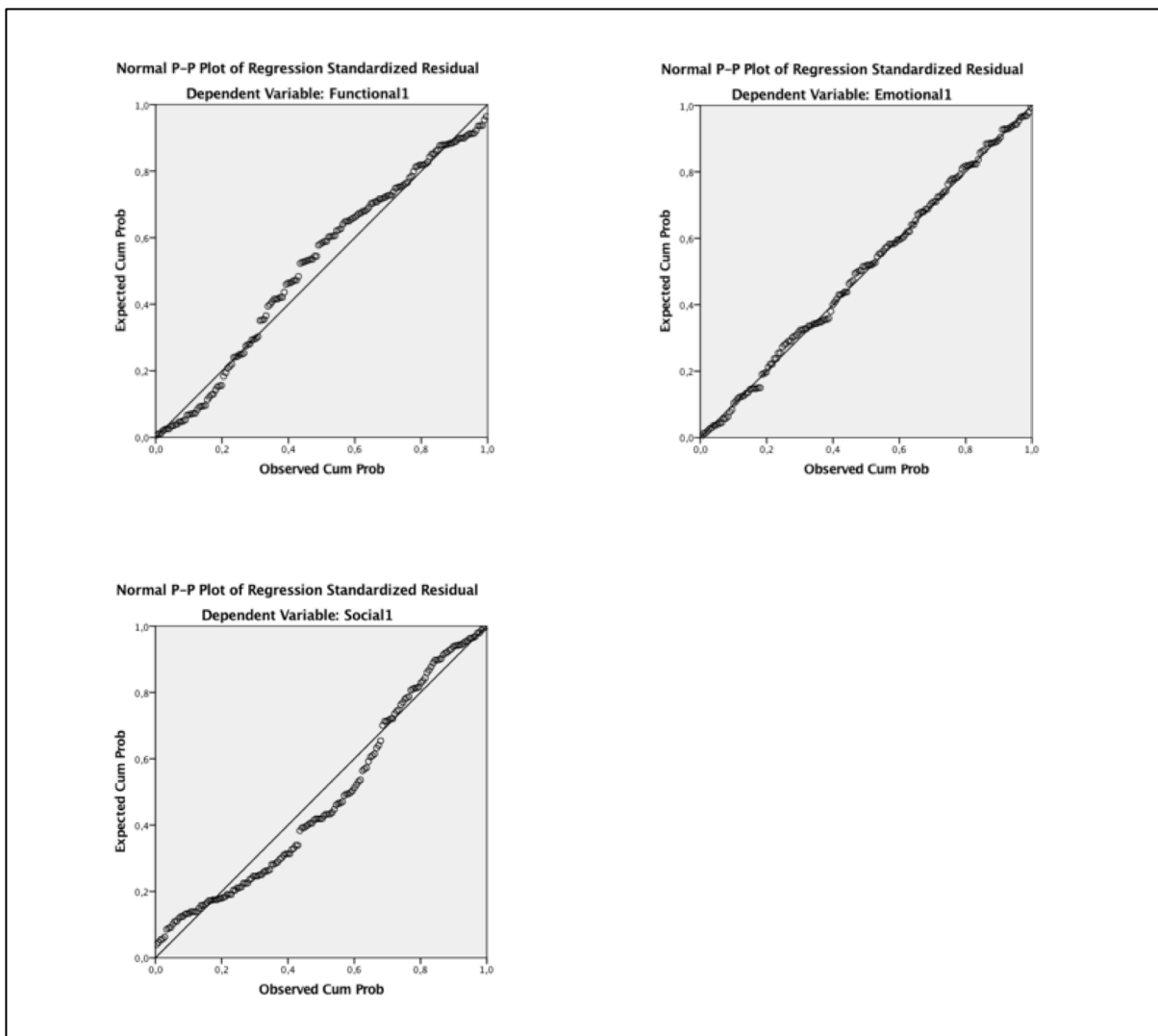
Appendix XIV – Output Means per group for Motivations to buy branded products

Report				
Groups		Functiona1	Emotiona1	Social1
1.00 low	Mean	4.2456	2.9747	2.3924
	N	79	79	79
	Std. Deviation	1.27458	1.39631	1.27075
	Variance	1.625	1.950	1.615
2.00 medium	Mean	4.3137	3.8676	2.9412
	N	51	51	51
	Std. Deviation	1.14839	1.24334	1.30800
	Variance	1.319	1.546	1.711
3.00 high	Mean	3.7824	4.6765	3.6529
	N	34	34	34
	Std. Deviation	1.35411	1.08105	1.51382
	Variance	1.834	1.169	2.292

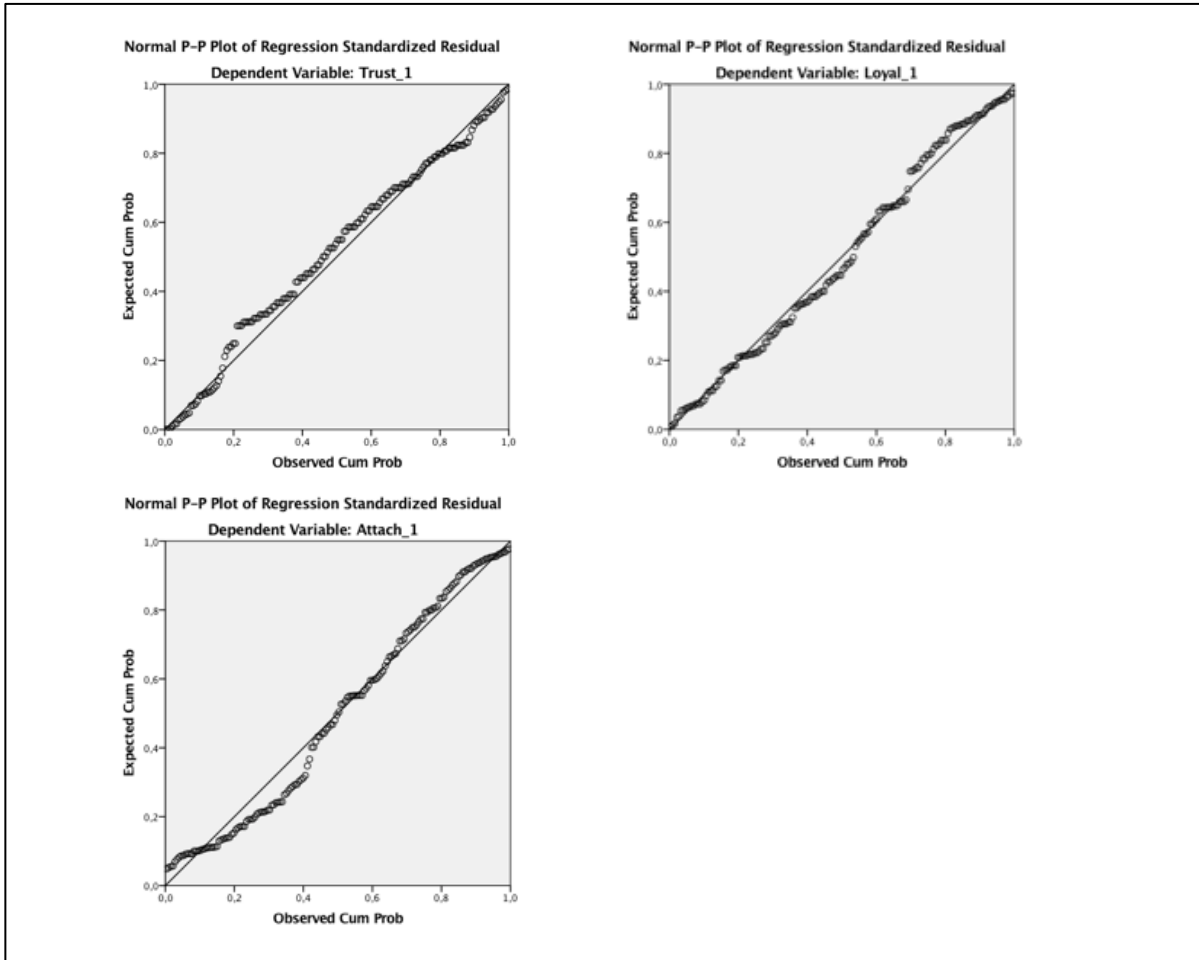
Appendix XV – Output Means per group for Brand Behavior Variables

		Report		
Groups		Trust 1	Attach 1	Loyal 1
1.00 low	Mean	5.2152	4.0810	2.8709
	N	79	79	79
	Std. Deviation	1.06592	2.20082	.81085
	Variance	1.136	4.844	.657
2.00 medium	Mean	4.7098	4.6392	2.8784
	N	51	51	51
	Std. Deviation	.92979	2.12415	.65002
	Variance	.865	4.512	.423
3.00 high	Mean	4.1059	4.2588	2.3765
	N	34	34	34
	Std. Deviation	1.25745	2.43187	.78742
	Variance	1.581	5.914	.620

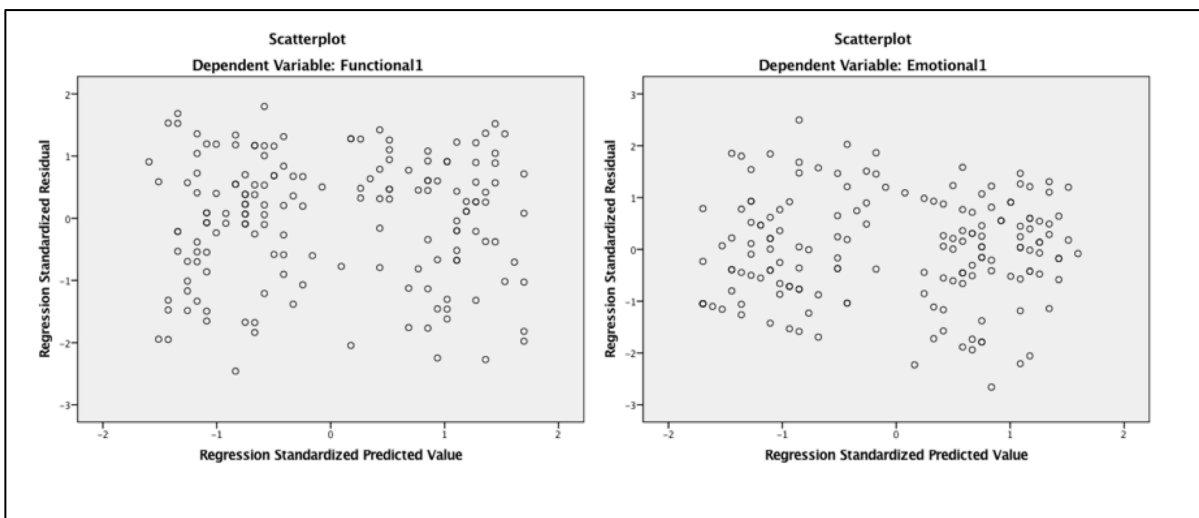
Appendix XVI – P-P plots Motivations to buy branded products



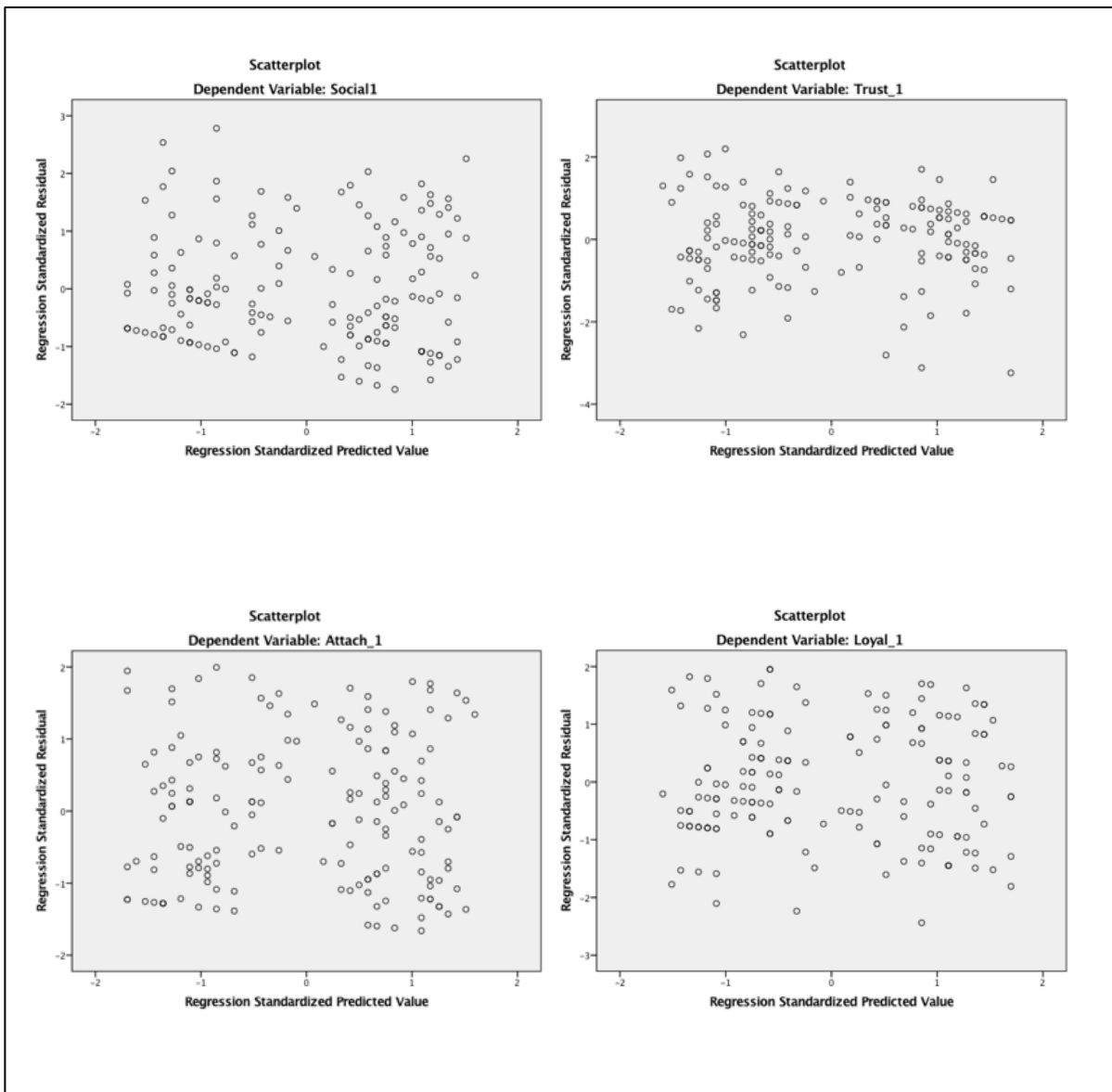
Appendix XVII – P-P plots Brand Behavior Variables



Appendix XVIII – Scatterplots (1)



Appendix XVIII – Scatterplots (2)



Appendix XIX – Output Indirect effects

Brand Trust -Relative indirect effects of X on Y

Groups -> Function -> Trust_1

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	.0542	.0483	-.0341	.1587
X2	-.0756	.0656	-.2279	.0338

Groups -> Emotional -> Trust_1

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	.0988	.0845	-.0494	.2836
X2	.1706	.1341	-.0895	.4428

Groups -> Social -> Trust_1

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	-.0146	.0602	-.1369	.1084
X2	-.0265	.1085	-.2472	.1864

Brand Attachment -Relative indirect effects of X on Y

Groups -> Function -> Attach_1

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	.1071	.0955	-.0619	.3192
X2	-.1491	.1330	-.4633	.0603

Groups -> Emotiona -> Attach_1

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	.4231	.1997	.0954	.8774
X2	.7307	.2915	.2044	1.3462

Groups -> Social1 -> Attach_1

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	.2744	.1515	.0219	.6096
X2	.5002	.2465	.0412	1.0208

Brand-Switching Behavior -Relative indirect effects of X on Y

Groups -> Function -> Loyal_1

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	.0460	.0414	-.0234	.1401
X2	-.0640	.0568	-.1972	.0281

Groups -> Emotiona -> Loyal_1

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	-.0006	.0596	-.1240	.1166
X2	-.0011	.1005	-.2078	.1930

Groups -> Social1 -> Loyal_1

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	.0822	.0487	.0002	.1933
X2	.1499	.0826	.0000	.3307

Appendix XX – Output Differences in Brand Behavior Variables

Brand Trust - Relative total effects of X on Y:							
	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
X1	-.2866	.1942	-1.4760	.1419	-.6701	.0969	-.2500
X2	-.8885	.2240	-3.9663	.0001	-1.3309	-.4460	-.7748
X3	.6019	.2328	2.5855	.0106	.1421	1.0616	.5249

Brand Attachment - Relative total effects of X on Y:							
	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
X1	.7370	.4172	1.7663	.0793	-.0872	1.5611	.3310
X2	.2900	.4813	.6024	.5477	-.6608	1.2407	.1302
X3	.4470	.5002	.8936	.3729	-.5410	1.4350	.2007

Brand-switching Behavior - Relative total effects of X on Y:							
	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
X1	.1485	.1386	1.0721	.2853	-.1251	.4222	.1901
X2	-.3929	.1598	-2.4578	.0151	-.7086	-.0771	-.5027
X3	.5414	.1661	3.2594	.0014	.2133	.8695	.6928

Note: X1 is the comparison between the medium and low group. X2 is the comparison between the high and low group and X3 is the comparison between the medium and high group.

Appendix XXI – Output Differences in Motivations to buy

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Function							
Model Summary							
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.3745	.1402	1.4226	4.2681	6.0000	157.0000	.0005
Model							
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
constant	2.6654	.7765	3.4327	.0008	1.1317	4.1991	
X1	.2546	.2274	1.1199	.2644	-.1945	.7038	
X2	-.3547	.2623	-1.3523	.1782	-.8728	.1634	
X3	.6094	.2726	2.2355	.0268	.0710	1.1478	
Q4	-.3154	.2469	-1.2774	.2034	-.8030	.1723	
Q5	-.0211	.0821	-.2576	.7971	-.1832	.1410	
Q6	.5142	.1300	3.9542	.0001	.2573	.7710	
Q7	.0776	.0679	1.1426	.2550	-.0566	.2118	

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Emotional							
Model Summary							
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.5508	.3034	1.5168	11.3982	6.0000	157.0000	.0000
Model							
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
constant	2.1351	.8018	2.6630	.0086	.5514	3.7187	
X1	.9492	.2348	4.0430	.0001	.4855	1.4130	
X2	1.6392	.2708	6.0522	.0000	1.1042	2.1742	
X3	-.6900	.2815	-2.4515	.0153	-1.2459	-.1341	
Q4	-.2631	.2549	-1.0319	.3037	-.7666	.2405	
Q5	-.1872	.0847	-2.2095	.0286	-.3546	-.0199	
Q6	.4150	.1343	3.0910	.0024	.1498	.6802	
Q7	.0699	.0701	.9971	.3202	-.0686	.2085	

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Social

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.4749	.2255	1.6077	7.6192	6.0000	157.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.2815	.8254	2.7640	.0064	.6511	3.9119
X1	.7600	.2417	3.1442	.0020	.2826	1.2374
X2	1.3855	.2788	4.9687	.0000	.8347	1.9363
X3	-.6255	.2898	-2.158	.0324	-1.1979	-.0532
Q4	-.7360	.2625	-2.8041	.0057	-1.2544	-.2175
Q5	-.0998	.0872	-1.1435	.2546	-.2721	.0726
Q6	.4166	.1382	3.0134	.0030	.1435	.6896
Q7	.0002	.0722	.0029	.9977	-.1424	.1428

Note: X1 is the comparison between the medium and low group. X2 is the comparison between the high and low group and X3 is the comparison between the medium and high group.

Appendix XXII – Covariates for Motivations to buy**OUTCOME VARIABLE: Function**

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.3745	.1402	1.4226	4.2681	6.0000	157.0000	.0005

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.6654	.7765	3.4327	.0008	1.1317	4.1991
X1	.2546	.2274	1.1199	.2644	-.1945	.7038
X2	-.3547	.2623	-1.3523	.1782	-.8728	.1634
Q4	-.3154	.2469	-1.2774	.2034	-.8030	.1723
Q5	-.0211	.0821	-.2576	.7971	-.1832	.1410
Q6	.5142	.1300	3.9542	.0001	.2573	.7710
Q7	.0776	.0679	1.1426	.2550	-.0566	.2118

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Emotional

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.5508	.3034	1.5168	11.3982	6.0000	157.0000	.0000

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.1351	.8018	2.6630	.0086	.5514	3.7187
X1	.9492	.2348	4.0430	.0001	.4855	1.4130
X2	1.6392	.2708	6.0522	.0000	1.1042	2.1742
Q4	-.2631	.2549	-1.0319	.3037	-.7666	.2405
Q5	-.1872	.0847	-2.2095	.0286	-.3546	-.0199
Q6	.4150	.1343	3.0910	.0024	.1498	.6802
Q7	.0699	.0701	.9971	.3202	-.0686	.2085

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Social

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.4749	.2255	1.6077	7.6192	6.0000	157.0000	.0000

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.2815	.8254	2.7640	.0064	.6511	3.9119
X1	.7600	.2417	3.1442	.0020	.2826	1.2374
X2	1.3855	.2788	4.9687	.0000	.8347	1.9363
Q4	-.7360	.2625	-2.8041	.0570	-1.2544	-.2175
Q5	-.0998	.0872	-1.1435	.2546	-.2721	.0726
Q6	.4166	.1382	3.0134	.0030	.1435	.6896
Q7	.0002	.0722	.0029	.9977	-.1424	.1428

Note: Q4 = Gender. Q5 = Age. Q6 = Education level and Q7 = Income Level.

Appendix XXIII – Covariates for Brand Behavior variables

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

Trust_1

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4899	.2400	1.0375	8.2611	6.0000	157.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.1140	.6631	6.2042	.0000	2.8042	5.4237
X1	-.2866	.1942	-1.4760	.1419	-.6701	.0969
X2	-.8885	.2240	-3.9663	.0001	-1.3309	-.4460
Q4	-.4001	.2108	-1.8978	.0596	-.8166	.0163
Q5	.0751	.0701	1.0709	.2858	-.0634	.2135
Q6	.4174	.1110	3.7588	.0002	.1981	.6367
Q7	-.0102	.0580	-.1763	.8603	-.1248	.1043

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

Attach_1

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2636	.0695	4.7905	1.9537	6.0000	157.0000	.0755

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.6469	1.4249	1.8576	.0651	-.1675	5.4613
X1	.7370	.4172	1.7663	.0793	-.0872	1.5611
X2	.2900	.4813	.6024	.5477	-.6608	1.2407
Q4	-.4498	.4531	-.9928	.3223	-1.3447	.4451
Q5	-.0920	.1506	-.6107	.5423	-.3894	.2055
Q6	.6208	.2386	2.6016	.0102	.1495	1.0921
Q7	.0173	.1246	.1386	.8899	-.2289	.2635

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

Loyal_1

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4084	.1668	.5283	5.2385	6.0000	157.0000	.0001

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.8895	.4732	3.9935	.0001	.9550	2.8241
X1	.1485	.1386	1.0721	.2853	-.1251	.4222
X2	-.3929	.1598	-2.4578	.0151	-.7086	-.0771
Q4	-.1954	.1504	-1.2986	.1960	-.4925	.1018
Q5	.0373	.0500	.7449	.4574	-.0615	.1360
Q6	.2805	.0792	3.5401	.0005	.1240	.4370
Q7	.0555	.0414	1.3418	.1816	-.0262	.1373

Note: Q4 = Gender. Q5 = Age. Q6 = Education level and Q7 = Income Level.

Appendix XXIV – Output Motivations to buy and Brand Behavior variables

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Brand Trust

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Function	,2130	,0686	3,1066	,0023	,0776	,3485
Emotiona	,1041	,0884	1,1779	,2406	-,0705	,2787
Social1	-,0192	,0852	-,2250	,8223	-,1874	,1491

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Brand Attachment

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Function	,4204	,1304	3,2243	,0015	,1628	,6780
Emotiona	,4457	,1681	2,6523	,0088	,1137	,7777
Social1	,3610	,1620	2,2288	,0273	,0410	,6810

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Brand-switching behavior

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Function	,1806	,0472	3,8225	,0002	,0872	,2739
Emotiona	-,0006	,0609	-,0106	,9916	-,1209	,1196
Social1	,1082	,0587	1,8438	,0671	-,0077	,2241