
Compulsive Buying: The Motivations for Buying Branded Products and The Consumer-Brand Relationship

Daniek Willems

Nijmegen School of Management, Marketing (19-06-2017)

Abstract

Purpose – This research examines the role of brands for compulsive buyers by focusing on their motivations for buying branded products and their relationship with brands.

Method – A large-scale survey has been used to examine the compulsive buying behavior, the motivations for buying branded products and the brand-relationship constructs. Study 1 is conducted to gather more knowledge on the motivations for buying branded products, which are determined by the perceived value of emotional, social and functional benefits. Study 2 investigates the relationship between compulsive buying and the brand relationship constructs (i.e. brand trust, brand attachment and brand switching behavior).

Findings – The findings of the first study show that the emotional and social benefits are the primary motivations for compulsive buyers for buying branded products. No relationship has been found between compulsive buying and the perceived value of the functional benefits. Regarding the findings of the second study, compulsive buying seems to positively influence an individual's attachment towards a brand. Based on the findings on brand trust and brand switching behavior, no conclusions can be made.

Practical implications – The results suggest that emotional and social benefits are the primary motivations for buying branded products for compulsive buyers. Thus managers should stress the fashionable design and social status of a brand when targeting compulsive buyers. However, manager should always keep in mind the ethical issues that arise with this. A better decision may be to help compulsive buyers with their excessive buying behavior and improve the public image of the brand.

Keywords: Compulsive buying; emotional benefits; social benefits; functional benefits; brand trust; brand attachment; brand switching behavior

Student Number: 4237870
Address: Van Trieststraat 8, 6512 CX, Nijmegen
Phone: +31647559531
E-mail: daniekwillems@live.nl
Supervisor: Dr. B. Hillebrand
2nd Supervisor: Dr. C. Horváth

Content	Page
1. Introduction	2
2. Theory and Conceptual Model	4
2.1 Origins of Compulsive Buying Behavior	6
2.2 Consequences of Compulsive Buying Behavior	7
2.3 Conceptual Model and Hypotheses	8
2.3.1 Compulsive Buyers and Their Motivations for Buying Branded Products	8
2.3.2 Compulsive Buyers and Their Relationship with Brands	11
3. Study 1 – The Motivations for Buying Branded Products	17
3.1 Method	17
3.1.1 Data Collection	17
3.1.2 Questionnaire Design	18
3.1.3 Measurements	19
3.1.4 Control Variables	20
3.1.5 Pre-Test	20
3.1.6 Sample	21
3.1.7 Construct Reliability and Validity	21
3.2 Results	23
3.2.1 Descriptive Analysis	23
3.2.2 Hypotheses Testing	23
3.2.3 Control Variables	26
3.2.4 Additional Analysis: Comparing Low versus High Compulsive Buying	28
3.3 Discussion	29
4. Study 2 – The Consumer-Brand Relationship	29
4.1 Method	29
4.1.1 Questionnaire Design	29
4.1.2 Measurements	30
4.1.3 Control Variables	30
4.1.4 Pre-Test	31
4.1.5 Sample	31
4.1.6 Construct Reliability and Validity	32
4.2 Results	34
4.2.1 Descriptive Analysis	34
4.2.2 Hypotheses Testing	35
4.2.3 Control Variables	38
4.2.4 Additional Analyses	40
4.3 Discussion	44
5. General Discussion	45
5.1 Theoretical Implications	47
5.2 Managerial Implications	48
5.3 Limitations and Further Research	48
6. Conclusion	50
References	51
Appendix	59

1. Introduction

Compulsive buying behavior is defined as “an abnormal form of shopping and spending in which the afflicted consumer has an overpowering, uncontrollable, chronic and repetitive urge to shop and spend as a means of alleviating negative feelings of stress and anxiety” (Edwards, 1992, p. 7). Compulsive buyers are characterized by their drive to engage in this particular behavior. They often deny the problematic outcomes and they repeatedly fail in trying to control their behavior (Faber, O’Guinn and Krych, 1987). Literature on compulsive buying behavior, often also referred to as compulsive consumption, compulsive shopping, oniomania, buying mania or pathological buying (Kraepelin, 1915; Bleuler, 1924; Workman and Paper, 2010; Maraz, Griffiths and Demetrovics, 2016), discusses several characteristics of compulsive buying. It is acknowledged that “compulsive buyers have lower self-esteem, score higher on a general measure of compulsivity, and have a higher propensity for fantasy than members of the general population do” (O’Guinn and Faber, 1989, p. 155; Kyrios, Frost and Steketee, 2004). Furthermore, compulsive buying is mood-related (Hanley and Wilhelm, 1992; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Kyrios et al., 2004), as it often occurs when people are in a depression state (Schlosser, Black, Repertinger and Freet, 1994; Ertelt, Marino, Mitchell and Lancaster, 2009). Lastly, an often discussed characteristic of compulsive buying is the desire for recognition and approval from others (Faber and O’Guinn, 1992; O’Guinn and Faber, 1989; Faber and Christenson, 1996).

Although compulsive buying behavior has been discussed extensively in the psychology literature, in the marketing literature it is just emerging. Especially, the role of brands for compulsive buyers has not been studied extensively yet. To my knowledge, only Horváth and Van Birgelen (2015) have recently studied this. Their findings suggest that brands play a different role for compulsive buyers than for noncompulsive buyers. Compulsive buyers (1) mainly focus on emotional and social benefits, rather than functional benefits, (2) are less likely to develop brand trust, (3) are less attached to their favourite brands, and (4) engage in more brand switching behavior (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). With their study, they contribute to the marketing literature, since they are the first to discuss this important topic. However, Horváth and Van Birgelen (2015) only examined the subject in a qualitative manner. This research will further contribute to the marketing literature through providing a large-scale quantitative research, which will test the results of Horváth and Van Birgelen (2015) statistically. This should increase the generalizability of the results, and with this, provide more affirmation for academics and managers.

In order to do so, this research will conduct two studies with regard to compulsive buying. The first study looks into the motivations of consumers for buying branded products and if this differs with respect to the compulsivity of the buying behavior. It will provide an answer to the following research question: *To what extent does compulsive buying influence the motivations for buying branded products?* Earlier research has suggested that compulsive buyers seek different benefits in products, and are thus differently motivated for the purchase of branded products (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). This may influence the brand communication strategy of the brands. Whereas it is suggested that compulsive buyers are more motivated by the emotional and social benefits of brand, noncompulsive buyers are expected to be more motivated by the functional benefits. In their brand communication strategy, “brand managers could segment customers according to levels of compulsivity in buying behavior” (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015, p. 16). When targeting the segment containing noncompulsive buyers, managers should focus on their functional brand benefits. In comparison, when compulsive buyers are the target of your brand, the focus should be on emotional and social benefits. However, managers should carefully think about this decision as targeting and attracting compulsive buyers can be seen as unethical (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015).

The second study will examine the brand relationship of compulsive and noncompulsive buyers. It addresses the brand trust, brand attachment and brand switching behavior of these consumers and will provide an answer to the following research question: *To what extent does compulsive buying influence the relationship of consumers with brands?* It is practically relevant for the same reasons as appointed by Horváth and Van Birgelen (2015). Since compulsive buyers are less likely to develop brand trust, are less likely to become attached to a brand and show more switching behavior, this could harm the brand equity of the brand (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). In order to prevent this from happening, it is suggested that managers should try to influence this behavior and help compulsive buyers with their problem. In addition, by helping compulsive buyers overcome their problematic behavior the firm takes social responsibility which can improve their public image (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015).

The remainder of this study is organized as follows. Hereafter, an overview about the existing literature on compulsive buying is provided. Based on this, a conceptual model and corresponding hypotheses are developed for the two studies. In section 3, the research methodology and results of the first study will be discussed, followed by a chapter which

discusses the second study. Finally an overall discussion will be provided, consisting the implications, limitations and directions for further research.

2. Theory and Conceptual Model

“Compulsive buying behavior is an abnormal form of shopping and spending in which the afflicted consumer has an overpowering, uncontrollable, chronic and repetitive urge to shop and spend as a means of alleviating negative feelings of stress and anxiety” (Edwards, 1992, p. 7). It can be seen as a general compulsive personality trait, as well as an addictive personality (O’Guinn and Faber, 1989; Natarajan and Goff, 1991), indicating that some individuals are more prone than others to the development of compulsive or addictive behaviors (Jacobs, 1986). These individuals are more susceptible of negative feelings and are less able to deal with it in an ‘appropriate way’. Compulsive individuals are therefore, just like addicts, more likely to seek for a distraction from their life (Hirschmann, 1992). This distraction is often not ‘healthy’ and generally results in excessive and abnormal behavior (O’Guinn and Faber, 1989).

Before discussing compulsive buying more elaborately, it is important to mention the regularly made association with impulsive buying in the literature (O’Guinn and Faber, 1989; Workman and Paper, 2010; Sneath, Lacey and Kennett-Hensel, 2009; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996). As a result, compulsive behavior is often confused with impulsive behavior. However, impulsive and compulsive behaviors are not the same. While impulsiveness is often related to compulsive buying behavior, it is different from compulsive behavior in its motivations, consequences, and addictive behavior (O’Guinn and Faber, 1989; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996). Where compulsive buyers are mostly motivated from internal factors, such as negative feelings, external factors are most often the motivation for impulsive buyers (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996). In addition, it is suggested that both types of buying behavior result in negative consequences. Impulsive buyers frequently experience financial problems, disappointment and guilt as a consequence of their impulse buying (Rook, 1987). The difference with compulsive buying is that the consequences are not as relentless and excessive for impulsive buyers (O’Guinn and Faber, 1989). Moreover, the addicted behavior is far more extreme for compulsive buyers compared to impulsive buyers (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996).

Lots of research has focused on compulsive buying behavior as a dichotomous construct, meaning that someone is buying either compulsively or non compulsively (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996). As a result, most research has only studied extreme forms of compulsive buying behavior. Nowadays, it is increasingly acknowledged that compulsive buying can

occur in different forms (ranging from least extreme to most extreme) and can evolve progressively (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996). Where one individual may be in an earlier, less extreme state of compulsive buying, another individual's compulsive buying behavior has been more developed and therefore is more extreme. Compulsive buying can thus be seen as a continuum, ranging from low to high forms of compulsiveness (d'Astous, 1990; Nataraajan and Goff, 1991; Hirschman, 1992; Edwards, 1992)

Compulsive buying can be referred to as a coping mechanism, where people deal with their problems and stress by escaping in a buying binge. Compulsive buyers often experience negative feelings or negative mood states (Schlosser et al., 1994; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Workman and paper, 2010; Faber and Christenson, 1996; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989), which results in them being unhappy. In order for them to escape from this sadness, they are going on a buying binge. The act of buying takes them to a different world in which they feel better, and in turn, reduces their negative feelings (Workman and Paper, 2010; Faber and Christenson, 1996). During this moment, compulsive buyers let go of their daily life and do not feel the stress, depression and anxiety associated with it. However, this is only a short-term positive consequence of their buying behavior. After a while, the compulsive buyer returns to its daily life, which also makes the negative feelings like low self-esteem and depression come back (Schlosser et al., 1994; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Workman and Paper, 2010; Faber and Christenson, 1996). Since compulsive buyers want to retrieve the positive feelings they felt for a moment, they are again going on a buying binge. This repeated behavior results in compulsive buying behavior, which can be seen as an addiction.

In order for this compulsive buying behavior to exist, it is important for compulsive buyers to be able to fantasize (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Otero-Lopez and Pol, 2013; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Roberts, 1998; Workman and Paper, 2010). Without this ability to fantasize, compulsive buying behavior cease to exist (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Roberts, 1998). Compulsive buying can be seen as an escape from negative feelings like low self-esteem and depression. In order to really escape these feelings, compulsive buyers fantasize that their buying behavior results in personal success and social acceptance (Jacobs, 1986; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989). The ability to fantasize is also an important condition for the reinforcement of compulsive buying behavior. By fantasizing the positive consequences of their compulsive behavior, one often will behave the same in a later, similar situation (Bergler, 1958; Feldman and MacCulloch, 1971; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989).

2.1 Origins of compulsive buying behavior

Now we know learned more about the construct ‘compulsive buying’ and how the mechanism works. The remaining question is, where does compulsive buying come from? and, What causes consumers to buy compulsively? This section will provide an answer to this by discussing the origins of compulsive buying behavior. Some of these already have been mentioned and will be explained in more detail here.

First, the most frequently observed characteristic of compulsive buyers is low self-esteem (Marlatt, Baer, Donovan and Kivlahan, 1988; O’Guinn and Faber, 1989; Kyrios et al., 2004; Workman and Paper, 2010), which is defined as the evaluation an individual makes about him or herself, and the extent to which that person believes he or she is worthwhile (Coopersmith, 1990). Compulsive buyers often lack an evident identity, characterize themselves as having little self-confidence, and find themselves unattractive (O’Guinn and Faber, 1989; Elliot, 1994). This in turn creates negative feelings which people try to avoid or overcome by escaping in compulsive buying behavior (Jacobs, 1986; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Dittmar, 2005). Compulsive buyers try to enhance their self-esteem by either just performing the act of purchasing or by buying certain goods or services that are comparable to their ideal self-image (Hanley and Wilhelm, 1992; Malär, Krohmer, Hoyer and Nyffenegger, 2011).

Second, negative affective states like depression, anxiety and boredom may also result in compulsive buying behavior (Faber and Christenson, 1996; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Sneath et al., 2009; Goldenson 1984; Workman and Paper, 2010). The fact that compulsive buyers have a higher tendency toward low self-esteem resulting in negative feelings, makes them more likely to end up in a depression state (Marlatt et al., 1988; Nathan, 1988; Workman and Paper, 2010). Being in a depressive state provokes people to buy compulsively in the hope it releases them from their depression (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Duhachek, 2005). Compulsive buying behavior is also linked to an anxiety disorder, where compulsions arise because of distress (Goldenson, 1984). The primary cause of an anxiety overload is the stress one experiences, which results in an escape in compulsive buying (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Edwards, 1992; Valence, d’Astous and Fortier, 1988). It is often described as trait anxiety, which is “a person’s general inclination to respond to stress or stressful situations with high levels of anxiety” (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996, p. 236; Spielberger, Gorsuch and Lushene, 1970). Since compulsive buying can exist in several levels and forms, different levels of arousal can result in compulsive buying behavior. For instance, anxiety mostly results in the extreme form of compulsive behavior. A lower level of arousal, like boredom,

can result in a less extreme form of compulsive buying (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Workman and Paper, 2010; Faber and Christenson, 1996).

More frequently made associations with compulsive behavior are perfectionism (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Kyrios et al., 2004), excitement seeking (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Faber, O'Guinn and Krych, 1987), loneliness (Schlosser et al., 1994; Faber and Christenson, 1996), approval seeking (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Faber, 1992) and dependence (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996). Compulsive buyers aim for the approval of people in their environment and are therefore more dependent on others in determining their behavior. They continuously think about if their behavior would be approved by their surroundings (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989).

2.2 Consequences of compulsive buying behavior

Existing literature acknowledges that compulsive buying behavior can result in both positive and negative outcomes, due to the difference between short-term and long-term consequences (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Workman and Paper, 2010). In the short term, consumers do not perceive their behavior as problematic as they experience positive outcomes such as a reduction of stress (Salzman, 1981; Schmitz, 2005; Rindfleisch, Burroughs and Denton, 1997; Workman and Paper, 2010), less anxiety (Salzman, 1981; Workman and Paper, 2010), an increased self-esteem (Hirschman, 1992; Workman and Paper, 2010) and a positive affective state (Faber and Christenson, 1996; Workman and Paper, 2010). As can be seen, self-esteem is not only a cause of compulsive buying, but also a consequence. Compulsive buyers, characterized by low self-esteem, try to improve their self-esteem by behaving in a certain way leading to an enhanced self-esteem in the short-term (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Hanley and Wilhelm, 1992; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Roberts, 1998).

However, in the long term, compulsive buying behavior certainly leads to several negative consequences (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Workman and Paper, 2010). Where compulsive buying in the short-term results in an improved self-esteem, this effect is only temporary, reproducing a low self-esteem in the long-term (DeSarbo and Edwards 1996; Faber and Christenson, 1996; Workman and Paper, 2010). Compulsive buyers are in fact reflected in their daily routine in the long run and start feeling like their old selves again, after which the negative feelings will return. Other long-term consequences of compulsive buying are excessive financial debts (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Edwards, 1993; Schlosser et al, 1994; Workman and Paper, 2010), remorse (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Faber and Christenson, 1996), guilt (Schlosser et al., 1994; Faber and Christenson, 1996; Workman and Paper, 2010)

and loss of control (Schlosser et al., 1994; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989). When these negative consequences occur, compulsive buyers want to retrieve the positive feelings they had for a moment, leading to a reinforcement of their compulsive buying behavior. This is also called operant conditioned behavior (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Workman and Paper, 2010).

2.3 Conceptual model and hypotheses

Although compulsive buying behavior has received a lot of attention from researchers in the academic field, the role of brands for compulsive buyers has not been studied that extensively. As demonstrated in table 1, many researchers have studied the origins and consequences for the consumer of compulsive buying behavior both qualitatively and quantitatively. However, the consequences of this buying behavior for brands have not been studied that extensively yet. Only recently, Horváth and Van Birgelen (2015) studied the role of brands for compulsive buyers qualitatively, where they focused on the brand benefits, brand trust, brand attachment and the brand switching behavior. In this research, these constructs are divided into two studies. The first study will examine the relationship of compulsive buying behavior and the motivations for buying branded products. This will be determined by measuring the perceived values of three brand benefits. These relationships are depicted in the conceptual model of the first study (figure 1). The second study will focus on the consumer-brand relationship and therefore examines the brand trust, brand attachment and brand switching behavior. These relationships can be seen in the conceptual model of the second study (figure 2). Both models will be explained in further detail in the following paragraphs.

2.3.1 Compulsive buyers and their motivations for buying branded products

Research has suggested that consumers differ in their motivations for buying branded products (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). Some consumers are more motivated by emotional benefits and others are more motivated by the functional benefits. One way to determine these motivations is by focusing on the perceived value of these benefits. Whereas some may place more value on the enjoyment they get out of it, others value the quality of a brand more (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). These perceived values explain why consumers are more motivated to buy a certain branded product. So, it can be of interest to gather more insights in the difference in the perceived value of brand benefits for compulsive and noncompulsive buyers. There are three types of brand benefits that are distinguished: emotional, social and functional benefits (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). The focus will be on the perceived values of these benefits, where perceived values is defined as a “consumer’s

overall assessment of the utility of a brand based on perceptions of what is received and what is given” (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 14).

Table 1: Existing literature on compulsive buying behavior

	Origins	Consequences	
		<i>for the consumer</i>	<i>for the brand</i>
Qualitative and/or Descriptive Research	DeSarbo and Edwards (1996); Schlosser et al. (1994); Nataraajan and Goff (1991); Jacobs (1986); O’Guinn and Faber (1989); Roberts (1998); Workman and Paper (2010); Faber et al. (1987); Elliot (1994); Faber (1992); Hirschmann (1992); Miltenberger et al. (2003);	O’Guinn and Faber (1989); DeSarbo and Edwards (1996); Workman and Paper (2010); Schlosser et al. (1994); Miltenberger et al. (2003); Schmitz (2005); Roberts (1998); Hirschmann (1992);	Horvath and Van Birgelen (2015)
Quantitative Research	Kyrios et al. (2004); Hanley and Wilhelm (1992); Sneath et al. (2009); Faber and Christenson (1996); Dittmar (2005); Valence et al. (1988); d’Astous (1990); Maraz et al. (2016); Ertelt et al. (2009); Black (2007); Dittmar et al. (1996); Williams (2012); Mueller et al. (2010); Black et al. (2012); Otero-Lopez and Pol (2013); Carter et al. (2016); Faber and O’Guinn (1992); Shoham and Brencic (2003); Yurchisin and Johnson (2004); Ridgway et al. (2008); d’Astous et al. (1990); Scherhorn et al. (1990)	Hanley and Wilhelm (1992); Faber and Christenson (1996); Edwards (1993); Maraz et al. (2016); Black (2007); Carter et al. (2016); Faber and O’Guinn (1992); Ridgway et al. (2008)	-

Emotional benefits, also referred to as experiential benefits, “relate to what it feels like to use the product or service, and satisfy needs such as sensory pleasure, variety and cognitive stimulation” (Keller, 1993, p. 4). Examples of emotional benefits derived from a product are a nice look or a fashionable design (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). These emotional benefits are especially important for compulsive buyers, since they are characterized by excitement and variety seeking (Olsen, Tudoran, Honkanen and Verplanken, 2016; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996). Compulsive buyers also try to escape from their boredom by shopping (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Workman and Paper, 2010). It is not ruled out that noncompulsive buyers are not motivated by emotional benefits in a product, but it is expected that this will be to a lesser extent than is the case for compulsive buyers. Noncompulsive

buyers appreciate the quality and durability of a product more (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015), and since the needs of compulsive buyers are expected to be satisfied by emotional benefits, it is anticipated that compulsive buyers value emotional benefits in a product more than noncompulsive buyers.

H1a: The more compulsive a consumer is, the higher the perceived value of the emotional benefits of brands

Social benefits, often also called symbolic benefits, are advantages extrinsic to the product or service (Keller, 1993). “They usually relate to underlying needs for social approval or personal expression and outer-directed self-esteem” (Keller, 1993, p. 4). Seeing that compulsive buyers are characterized by approval seeking and low self-esteem (O’Guinn and Faber, 1989; Faber and Christenson, 1996; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996), social benefits are of particularly importance for them. These benefits help them achieve higher self-esteem and social approval by others. Moreover, Elliot (1994) already found that compulsive buyers motivations to purchase products are related to the social status. This finding is supported by Scherhorn et al. (1990), who suggested that compulsive buyers are influenced by symbolic benefits. Furthermore, “compulsive buyers prefer the brand name or logo to be visible, so others can easily notice that they have a prestigious brand that grants them a feeling of status” (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015, p. 9). Compared to compulsive buyers, noncompulsive buyers are not likely to need the brand logo to be visible. Again, quality and durability are more important for the noncompulsive buyer than the name of brand. Based on this, it is expected that compulsive buyers value social benefits in branded products more than noncompulsive buyers.

H1b: The more compulsive a consumer is, the higher the perceived value of the social benefits of brands

“Functional benefits are the more intrinsic advantages of product or service consumption and usually correspond to the product-related attributes” (Keller, 1993, p. 4). Noncompulsive buyers are expected to buy branded products because of the functional benefits of these products (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). As already mentioned, noncompulsive buyers are more motivated by the quality and durability of a product. It is suggested that these functional benefits are not that important for compulsive buyers (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). Therefore, it is expected that compulsive buyers attach less value to functional benefits than

noncompulsive buyers. Based on the aforementioned arguments, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H1c: The more compulsive a consumer is, the lower the perceived value of the functional benefits of brands

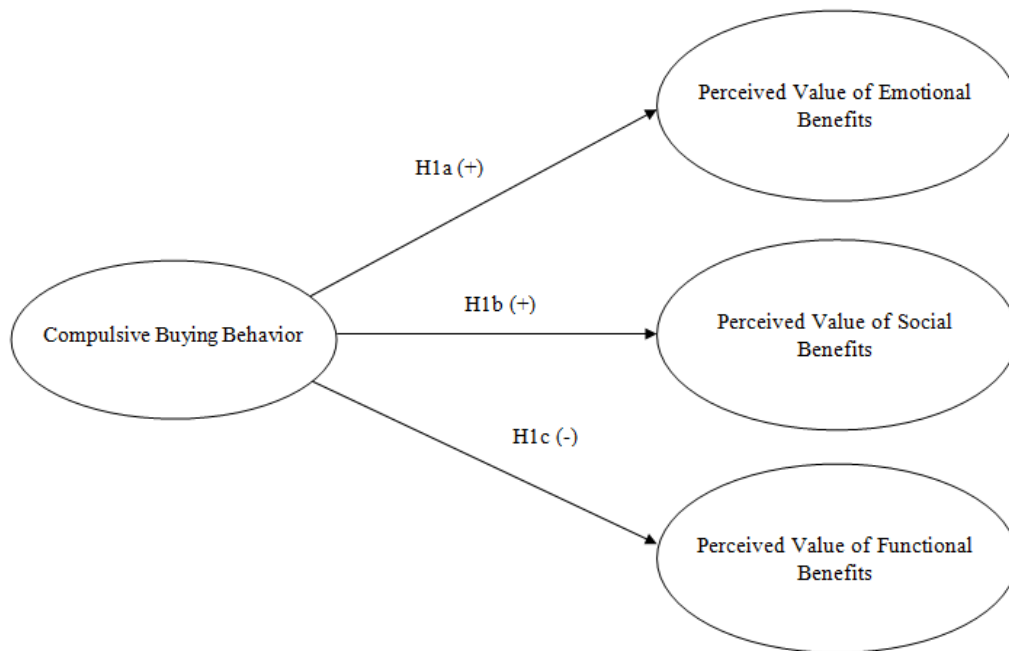


Figure 1: Conceptual model – study 1

2.3.2 Compulsive buyers and their relationship with brands

Since the effect of compulsive buying on the brand relationship constructs represents a gap in the scientific literature, no overarching theory about these specific relationships is available. Therefore, the reasoning of the hypotheses will partially be based on associated constructs like addiction, personality traits and narcissism.

First, compulsive buying behavior is often seen as an addictive form of behavior (Elliot, 1994; Jacobs, 1986; Scherhorn, Reisch and Raab, 1990; Hirschmann, 1992; Faber, Christenson, De Zwaan and Mitchell, 1995), which makes it possible to use understandings about addicts and their relationships as argumentation for the hypotheses. Overall, someone with an addictive personality has a higher chance of encountering problems in his or her relationship (Nakken, 2009). This already suggests that it may be harder for compulsive buyers to build brand relationships.

Second, literature has linked compulsive buying behavior with the Big Five Personality Traits, which is a widely used model representing the higher order factors of personality (Qureshi, Zeb and Saifullah, 2012; Otero-Lopez and Pol, 2013). The five personality traits are

openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (McCrae and Costa, 1987; Goldberg, 1990). Openness literally means that people are open for new adventures and it is associated with imagination/fantasy (Qureshi et al., 2012). Conscientiousness is a higher order factor of responsibility, dependability, persistency and achievement orientation (Qureshi et al., 2012). People high on this dimension are likely to be organized and experience good impulse controls (Goldberg, 1981; McCrae and Costa, 1987; Goldberg, 1990). As expected, compulsive buyers score low on conscientiousness, which is in line with their lack of impulse control (Otero-Lopez and Pol, 2013). Extraversion, as the opposite of introversion, is characterized by sociable, talkative and assertive (Qureshi et al., 2012). Extravert people enjoy their interrelationships, whereas introvert people are more focused on themselves. Compulsive buyers score lower on extraversion than noncompulsive buyers, which is already an indication for poorer relationship building on their side (Otero-Lopez and Pol, 2013). Associations made with agreeableness are good-natured, cooperative and trusting (Qureshi et al., 2012). It is expected that people low on this dimension are less cooperative and keep more distance (Goldberg, 1981; McCrae and Costa, 1987). The last personality trait, neuroticism, is often referred to as emotional instability (Goldberg, 1990). It is characterized by negative feelings such as insecurity, anxiety and depression (Qureshi et al., 2012; Otero-Lopez and Pol, 2013). Not surprisingly, compulsive buyers show high levels of neuroticism which makes them emotionally unstable (Otero-Lopez and Pol, 2013). These five personality traits linked to compulsive buying behavior provide good insights in the relationship building of compulsive buyers and are therefore used for the argumentation of the hypotheses.

Third, compulsive buying can be related to narcissistic personality traits (Rose, 2007; Kim, Namkoong, Ku and Kim, 2008). Just like compulsive buyers, narcissists are more likely to fantasize (Raskin and Novacek, 1991; Campbell and Foster, 2002), have lower self-esteem (Masterson, 1988; Campbell and Foster, 2002), and want to impress others and seek approval from them (Buss and Chiodo, 1991; Campbell and Foster, 2002). Important to note is that not all compulsive buyers necessarily are narcissistic. The two constructs are correlated in the literature because of some common roots like low self-esteem, but it does not mean the two construct always accompany each other. Yet, because of the equivalence between the two constructs, the possibility arises to rely on literature concerning narcissism for the reasoning of the hypotheses. The approval seeking characteristic of narcissists is only present since it makes themselves feel better if others worship them, which makes narcissists actually egocentric (Morf and Rhodewalt, 2001; Campbell and Foster, 2002). This selfishness together with the lack in empathy (Watson, Grisham, Trotter and Biderman, 1984; Campbell and

Foster) and low intimacy (Carroll, 1987; Campbell and Foster, 2002) makes it already more difficult for people with narcissistic personality traits to build healthy relationships. Hence, compulsive buyers may also be less likely to build a healthy relationship with a brand.

Brand trust

Based on literature on trust in general, brand trust can be defined as “the extent that a person believes a brand to be benevolent and honest” (Larzelere and Huston, 1980, p. 596). Honesty is about the brand’s reliability and whether the brand is able and willing to keep its promises towards the individual (Ganesan, 1994; Delgado-Ballester, 2003; Kim, Lee and Lee, 2005). When consumers have trust in a certain brand, they are willing to rely on that brand and expect the brand to carry out certain duties (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). The benevolence of a brand concerns its non-opportunistic behavior. A brand can generate trust by genuinely care for their consumers and serve them in such a way, without having a secret agenda (Rempel, Holmes and Zanna, 1985; Crosby, Evans and Cowles, 1990). In other words, when the consumer believes a brand behaves in a certain manner because it is beneficial for the consumer, and not because the brand itself benefits from the act, the consumer will build up brand trust.

Research about brand trust to date is based on noncompulsive buyers, whereas brand trust among compulsive buyers was not taken into account. Hence, literature about addictive consumers and their ability to trust is analyzed to offer an explanation with regard to the relationship between compulsive buying and brand trust. Addictive personality traits are often developed during childhood and go hand in hand with trust issues and the concern for abandonment (Jampolsky, 2008). Negative experiences from childhood have led to this personality in which people think they can only trust and rely on themselves. As a result they continuously try to take grip on their life and stay in control. Since the possibility to control the behavior of others is nearly impossible it is hard for an addict to build trust in their relationships as they feel like they will be betrayed or abandoned in the end (Jampolsky, 2008; Peele and Brodsky, 1975).

In order for trust to develop, “the brand needs to be able (i.e. competent) and willing to deliver a product or service at the expected quality” (Sichtmann, 2007, p. 1002). However, it is suggested that the quality of a product or service is not that important for compulsive buyers (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). Therefore, brands are not able to profit from their competence and willingness, and it will not help them build brand trust. Compulsive buyers also like variety and want to try out different brands (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). Since

brand trust is dependent on frequent experiences the consumer has with the brand (Sichtmann, 2007; Wang and Emurian, 2005; Chinomona, 2013), compulsive buyers are less likely to develop long-term brand trust. In addition, research about the personality characteristics of compulsives found that the more compulsive an individual is, the less trusting he or she is (Otero-López and Pol, 2013). Therefore, it is expected that:

H2: The more compulsive a consumer is, the less likely he/she is to develop trust in his/her relationship with a brand.

Brand attachment

Brand attachment is defined as “the strength of the bond connecting the brand with the self” (Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich and Iacobucci, 2010, p. 2). This can also be referred to as the brand-self connection. The brand can be linked to either the actual or ideal self of a consumer, where the actual self represents how a person really is and the ideal self is about who the person wants to be (Malär, Krohmer, Hoyer and Nyffenegger, 2011). In order for brand attachment to exist there should be a congruence between the consumer’s actual or ideal self and the brand (Kleine, Kleine and Allen, 1995; Fournier, 1998; Whang, Allen, Sahoury and Zhang, 2004; Park, MacInnis and Priester, 2006; Malär et al., 2011). Whether a consumer connects with a brand that comes close to the actual or ideal self may depend on the self-esteem of the consumer. “People with low self-esteem perceive their actual self as more negative, and they are less likely to make an emotional connection with brands that come close to their actual self, because linking a brand to a self that is perceived negative generates negative feelings” (Malär et al., 2011, p. 39). Since compulsive buyers are characterized by low self-esteem it is hard for brands to build brand attachment with them based on the actual self. In other words, for brands close to the actual self of compulsive buyers, the chance of attachment to develop is relatively low. However, this does not necessarily hold for brands that represent the ideal self. Besides the brand-self connection is brand prominence an indicator of brand attachment. “It is the extent to which positive feelings and memories about the attachment object are perceived as top of mind” (Park et al., 2010, p. 2).

The personality of addicts and compulsives also form reasons for their attachment problems. As already mentioned, compulsive behavior often originates from a problematic childhood which brought an emotional burden with them. This has resulted in the fact that compulsives experience feelings of emotional detachment (Leon, 1984; Hirschman, 1992). Moreover, addictive behavior is repeatedly linked to emotional detachment in the literature (Chein, 1969; Flores, 2004). According to Bell (2010), brand attachment goes together with

brand dependence. Since compulsive buyers are characterized by low conscientiousness and therefore do not have a dependable character, the chance of them getting attached to a brand is probably lower (Otero-Lopez and Pol, 2013). Also the personality trait ‘extraversion’ can be an indicator for brand attachment. Compulsive buyers score low on this dimension, are therefore more introvert people and thus less likely to engage in brand relationships and develop brand attachment (Otero-Lopez and Pol, 2013).

For brand attachment to exist, the brand-consumer relationship should show signs of reciprocity instead of selfishness (Park et al., 2010). However, as compulsive buying can be related to narcissism, it may be put down as egocentric and brand attachment is less likely to exist (Morf and Rhodewalt, 2001). Another indicator of brand attachment is wanting to be involved in brand communities and being able to share the brand-self connection (Park et al., 2006; Park et al., 2010). Since narcissists are lacking in their feelings for communion (Bradlee and Emmons, 1992), it can be expected that compulsive buyers are also less likely to engage in brand communities and are less attached to brands.

Other indications of brand attachment are the willingness to pay more (Thomson, MacInnis and Park, 2005), and the negative feeling that arises when the brand is removed from the market (Park et al., 2006; Chinomona, 2013). It is suggested that compulsive buyers are not willing to pay more for certain brands, and do not carry negative feelings in the absence of the brand (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). A mentioned reason for this is the fact that compulsive buyers are less trusting, therefore have less trust in the quality of the brand, and thus do not want to pay more. Moreover, compulsive buyers argued to be willing to pay more for a specific product when it is special to them, but this was not because of the brand associated with (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). In other words, compulsive buyers were willing to pay more for some products because of its speciality to them, but this did not depend on the brand. This indicates that compulsive buyers are less likely to create brand attachment than noncompulsive buyers. Lastly, “the primary motivation of compulsive behaviors appears to be the psychological benefits derived from the buying process itself, rather than from the possession of purchased objects” (O’Guinn and Faber, 1989, p. 147). This could mean that they are feeling attached to the experience of shopping, but not to the product or brand they bought (Peele and Brodsky, 1975; Qureshi et al., 2012). Based on these argumentations, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H3: The more compulsive a consumer is, the less likely he/she is to become attached to a brand.

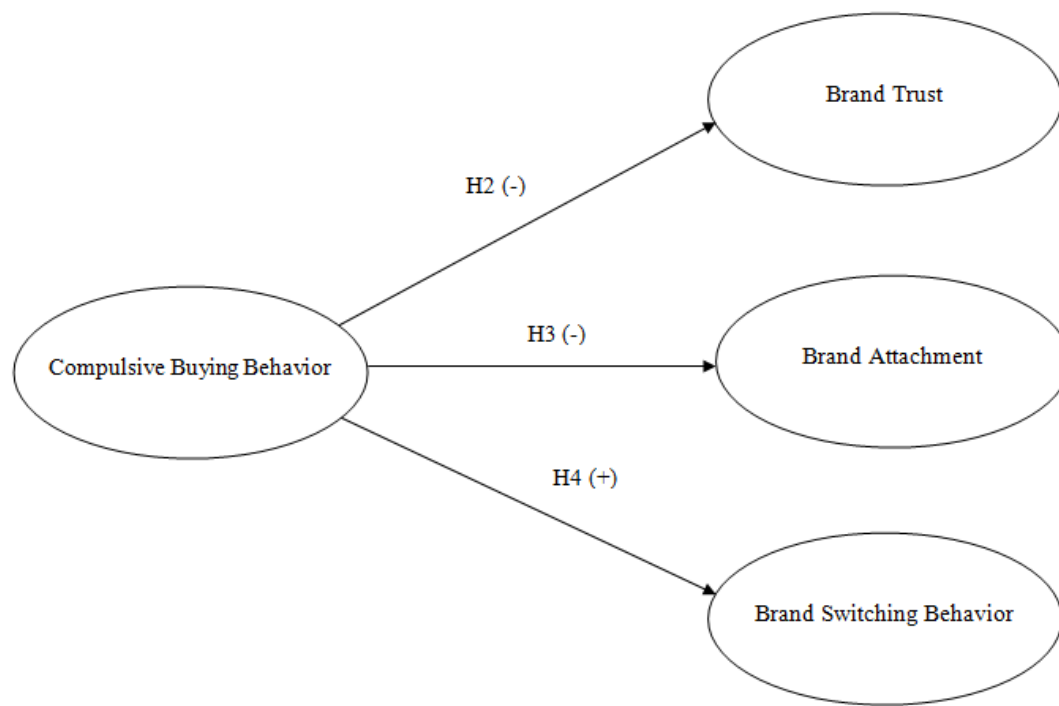


Figure 2: Conceptual model – study 2

Brand switching behavior

Brand switching behavior can be seen as the opposite of brand loyalty, which is defined 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” (Oliver, 1997, p. 392). Brand switching is the urge of consumers to switch from one brand to another brand (Yang, 2010) and it can arise because of both extrinsic and intrinsic incentives (Mazursky, LaBarbera and Aiello, 1987). Extrinsic motivations refer to incentives outside of the individual, and intrinsic motivations occur internally. It is expected that compulsive buyers are most sensitive to the intrinsic motivations (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996). An internal motivation for switching behavior can be the willingness (i.e. desire) to try new brands (Mazursky et al., 1987). As compulsive buyers are characterized by variety seeking (Olsen et al., 2016) and are more willing to try new brands, they are more likely to switch between brands. Moreover, the willingness to try new brands may origin from the desire to change one’s current situation (Van Trijp, Hoyer and Inman, 1996). For example, because people want to escape from states like boredom (Leuba, 1955; Zuckerman, 1979). As compulsive buyers are often accompanied by negative affective states like boredom, they are more likely to switch between brands.

Another related construct of brand switching behavior is (behavioral) commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Kim et al., 2005). Commitment can be defined “as a decision or pledge to

maintain a long-term relationship with a brand into the future” (Park et al., 2005, p. 8). Research has shown that narcissists have a general tendency of being attracted to options outside their own relationships and are therefore expected to be less committed (Foster, Shrira and Campbell, 2006). As a result, they can be identified as poor relationships builders. Since compulsive buyers may hold some personality traits of narcissists, it can be argued that it is unlikely for compulsive buyers to develop strong commitment relative to a brand (Campbell and Foster, 2002). Thus, compulsive buyers are less loyal to the current brand and thus switch to those other brands. Therefore, it is expected that:

H4: The more compulsive a consumer is, the more likely he/she will switch between brands.

3. Study 1 – The Motivations for Buying Branded Products

3.1 Method

Since the aim of this research is testing the theory provided by the qualitative study of Horváth and Van Birgelen (2015), a testing research is necessary. In order to test the formulated hypotheses, a large-scale survey is conducted. The survey is used for this study, as well as for the second study. The aim of this first study is to gather more insights in the motivations of noncompulsive and compulsive buyers for buying branded products. This is done by asking the respondents about their compulsive buying behavior and their perceived value in the brand benefits.

3.1.1 Data collection

In order to obtain as much completed surveys as possible, the survey was distributed through various channels. It was shared with friends, family and connections through email and social media channels (Facebook, LinkedIn, WhatsApp). They were asked to fill in the survey and share it with people from their own environment, also referred to as snowball sampling. To prevent people from filling in the survey more than once, a cookie was placed on the respondent's browser after submitting the response.

To increase the chance of collecting responses from compulsive buyers, several precautions have been taken. People in my surroundings were asked if they know compulsive buyers and/or psychologists who are possibly working with compulsive buyers. In addition, a Google search has been executed searching for psychologists or organizations specialised in compulsive or addictive behaviors. An e-mail has been send to these psychologists and organizations, asking them for their co-operation in this research by sharing the survey with

relevant respondents in their client database. Moreover, the psychologists and organizations were asked, based on their experience in the field, if they know fellow colleagues who are working with compulsive buyers, who in turn also were contacted. This procedure is also referred to as pyramid networking. In the e-mail, the anonymity of their clients and the voluntary nature of the research is stressed. When these psychologists or organizations provided help with the research, they were offered to receive the results at the end. In total, an email was sent to 32 psychologists/organizations, of which two have distributed the survey throughout their organization. Of the emailed organizations, 18 responded that they were not able to help with regard to this research due to the privacy of their clients or because they did not have compulsive buyers in their database. The remaining 12 were contacted a second time, through a phone call or email, but were also not able to help.

The survey was also posted on forums where compulsive buyers come together. An e-mail was sent to four forums, asking them for permission to share the survey on their forum. Again, the anonymity of the respondents and the voluntary nature of the research is stressed. The OCD forum (i.e. a forum for people with an obsessive compulsive disorder) and www.psycholoog.net/forum (i.e. a platform for people with obsessive and/or addictive behaviors) granted their permission. These forums contain 5000 and 1177 registered members, respectively. Unfortunately it was not possible to post the survey on the other forums that were e-mailed.

3.1.2 Questionnaire design

The survey starts with a short explanation about the research. There is no definition on compulsive buying given in this introduction, since it is possible that respondents will develop judgements about this construct and will answer in a social desirable manner. In this preface it is stressed to the respondents that their answers are completely anonymous and will not be shared with others. By participating in this research and filling in the survey, respondents have a chance to win a gift card of GiftForYou worth €25,- hoping this serves as an incentive and increases the sample size. This gift card can be used in a restaurant of the respondents choice. When respondents want to have this opportunity, they should complete the survey and fill in their e-mail address at the end of the questionnaire

Following this introduction, the rights of the respondent are pointed out clearly. Participants have the chance to be kept up to date and ask questions about the research at any point in time. They are informed that filling in the questionnaire is on voluntarily basis, and they are able to quit whenever they want without negative consequences. In addition, they are

told that the data is dealt with confidentially, their responses are anonymized and it is not possible to identify the participant in this final report. When the respondent has filled in an e-mail address, it will not be linked to the responses in any situation. In the end, participants are told that by filling in the survey they indicate to understand their rights and are giving permission to use their anonymized responses in this study.

When continuing with the survey, respondents are first asked about their perceived values on brand benefits. These items are based on brands in general. Afterwards, respondents are asked about their buying behavior in order to determine how compulsive this is. The questions within the survey are rated according to the 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (e.g. 1) to strongly agree (e.g. 7). At the end of the survey, questions are asked about the demographic variables (gender, age and monthly income).

3.1.3 Measurements

The variables used in this first study are compulsive buying and functional, emotional and social benefits. The scales used to measure these constructs can be found in appendix A. Compulsive buying is widely measured in the literature by using the clinical screener of Faber and O'Guinn (1992). However, this measurement scale has its limitations. It is "only a dichotomous categorization of compulsive versus non-compulsive buyers and does not discriminate between highly compulsive buyers and persons who may be somewhat compulsive" (Manolis and Roberts, 2008, p. 561). The measurement scale of Edwards (1993) introduces a continuum from noncompulsive to compulsive behavior, which measures various levels of compulsiveness. Since the interest of this study is to include several levels of compulsive behavior, in order to provide more detailed findings, the 13-item scale of Edwards (1993) is used. This measurement scale consists of five dimensions, each measuring characteristics of compulsive buying behavior. The first dimension contains the tendency to spend, which measures if the respondent goes on buying binges and buys things just because of the buying process. The second dimension measures the drive to spend, where the third addresses the feelings of the respondent with regard to shopping. The fourth dimension is about the dysfunctional spending of the buyer measuring whether the buying behavior is an abnormal or excessive form of buying. The fifth and last dimension of the measurement scale of Edwards (1993) measures the post-purchase guilt of the buying behavior. It addresses the long-term negative consequences of compulsive buying behavior. This measurement scale does not include items that establish the escape from a negative mood, which was established as an important origin of compulsive buying behavior. As a result, two items are added to the

measurement scale. These items are from the measurement scales of Faber and O'Guinn (1992) and Valence et al. (1988). These items together form a sixth dimension containing the escape from a negative mood.

The brand benefits are measured by a 14-item scale based on Sweeney and Soutar (2001), where for both emotional benefits and social benefits 4 items are used, and 6 items for the functional benefits. The original scale consists of four more items that represent the value of the price. These items do not match the definition of the three benefits and are therefore excluded here. The survey questions are formulated based on these measurement scales and are translated into Dutch by a bilingual person.

3.1.4 Control variables

Literature has found that, in general, compulsive buyers are mostly woman (Workman and Paper, 2010; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; d'Astous, 1990, Scherhorn et al., 1990; Christenson, Faber, de Zwaan, Raymond, Specker and Eckern, 1994; McElroy, Satlin, Pope and Keck, 1991; Black, 1996). Furthermore, other demographic variables (income level and age) are also examined with respect to compulsive buying (Faber et al., 1987; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Dittmar, 2005; Scherhorn et al., 1990; Christenson et al., 1994; Schlosser et al., 1994; McElroy et al., 1994). However, the results on these demographics are inconclusive across the various studies (Workman and Paper, 2010). This research will take into these demographics as control variables hoping it contributes to existing literature and eliminates some of the inconclusiveness. These demographic control variables will also be examined with regard to the variance in the dependent variables.

3.1.5 Pre-test

A pre-test is conducted among 12 participants with a mean age of 33. The respondents contain for 50 percent of males and 50 percent of females. They were asked to indicate any mistakes or ambiguities with regard to the questionnaire. The relevant remarks have been taken into account and are adjusted properly. The measurement scales of compulsive buying emotional benefits, social benefits and functional benefits all have a favorable reliability (α of 0.821, 0.713, 0.876 and 0.805 respectively), which already is an indication for a working measurement scale. Looking at the distribution of the various items may already show if there is enough variation within the items. The items of compulsive buying behavior and the brand benefits show some more outliers, but these are not problematic. Since the pre-test does not

consists of extreme compulsive buyers yet, a normal distribution on every item is not possible. The items do show enough variation to be included in the final survey.

3.1.6 Sample

The total amount of responses obtained from the survey was 348 ($N = 348$). However, after a missing data analysis which deleted responses with a percentage of missing data higher than 10% (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, 2014), the final sample consists of 311 respondents ($N = 311$). Of these respondents most are female (82.6%), are 18-25 years old (55.6%) and have a net monthly income of €500-€1,000 euros (23.2%). For a more detailed overview on the demographic variables see table 2. Within this sample, 19% of the respondents has a tendency to buy compulsively (mean score above 4) and only 1% (4 respondents) suffer from extreme compulsive buying behavior (mean score of 6 or higher).

Table 2: Demographics study 1

	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
Gender		
Male	54	17.4
Female	257	82.6
Age		
Younger than 18	6	1.9
18-25 years	173	55.6
26-35 years	35	11.3
36-45 years	23	7.4
46-55-years	41	13.2
56-65 years	29	9.3
66 years and older	4	1.3
Income		
€0-€500	70	22.5
€500 - €1.000	72	23.2
€1.000 - €1.500	46	14.8
€1.500 - €2.000	42	13.5
€2.000 - €2.500	32	10.3
€2.500 - €3.000	9	2.9
€3.000 or more	12	3.9
Private	28	9.0

3.1.7 Construct reliability and validity

The internal consistencies of the constructs have been assessed and are shown in table 3. Although the construct of compulsive buying already had a favorable reliability (α of 0.890), the elimination of both item 8 and 9 resulted in a higher reliability. Those items also had a relatively low factor loading (<0.3) and a high cross loading. In addition, from a theoretical

point of view the decision for the deletion of those items can be supported. Both items belong to the same dimension which addresses the feelings of the respondent towards shopping. The items indicate an individual's hatred towards shopping. It can be argued that also noncompulsive buyers disagree with these statements as the average person probably does not hate the act of shopping. Therefore, these items may not really measure compulsive buying behavior. The other two items that are deleted for this construct are item 12 and 13. Due to a low factor loading (<0.3) and a high cross loading (resulting in a fifth construct) those items are eliminated. Although the dimension which concerns the post-purchase guilt of compulsive buying behavior is gone with the removal of these items, keeping the items was not an option as it did not correlate highly enough with the other items. Moreover, where the other dimensions address the act of buying itself, this dimension is the only one that includes the consequences. This may be a reason for the relatively low correlation with the rest of the items. Thus, four items with regard to the compulsive buying behavior construct were deleted, leaving 11 items which will be used for the analyses.

Concerning the construct of functional benefits, item 3 and 6 were deleted. The elimination of both items resulted in an increase in the reliability, due to which it became more favorable. The low factor loadings (<0.3) and high cross loadings supported this decision. Moreover, both items are reversed items and highlighted the bad quality of the brand. This could have caused a more negative interpretation and therefore does not correlate well with the other items.

Table 3: Internal consistency and convergent validity

Construct	Original # items	Cronbach's alpha	# of items deleted	Cronbach's alpha	Percentage explained variance
Compulsive Buying	15	0.890	4	0.906	52%
Emotional Benefits	4	0.903	0		78%
Social Benefits	4	0.903	0		76%
Functional Benefits	6	0.577	2	0.638	50%

A factor analysis was conducted with the final items to determine discriminant and convergent validity. As the purpose is to find a minimum number of constructs that will account for as much variance as possible, the principal component analysis is used (Hair et al., 2014). The analysis showed a KMO value of 0.878 and a significant Barlett's test of sphericity. In order to examine the discriminant validity a rotation method (Varimax) was conducted. The factor matrix showed four constructs and discriminant validity between the

items (Appendix C). The explained variance of the four constructs together is 66.2%. To assess the convergent validity, four factor analysis for the constructs were conducted separately. Within all analyses, the items formed one construct, which confirms the convergent validity (Appendix C).

3.2 Results

3.2.1 Descriptive analysis

Table 4 provides an overview of the descriptive statistics of the independent variable (compulsive buying) and the dependent variables (perceived value of emotional, social and functional benefits). The correlations already provide an indication regarding the hypothesized relationships. Whereas compulsive buying correlates positively and significantly with the perceived value of emotional and social benefits, it does not correlate significantly with the perceived value of functional benefits. When looking at the correlations between the brand benefits they all correlate significantly and positively with each other. For the perceived value of functional benefits this is a quite surprising result. It was expected that compulsive buyers especially value the emotional and social benefits, but not the functional benefits. Therefore, the positive correlation between the perceived value of emotional and social benefits is understandable, but the positive correlations of the perceived value of emotional and social benefits with the perceived value of functional benefits is unexpected. This, together with the non significant correlation between compulsive buying and the perceived value of functional benefits, may already be an indication for the outcome of that hypothesis.

Table 4: Correlation matrix and descriptive statistics

	1	2	3	4
1. Compulsive buying				
2. Emotional benefits	0.226*			
3. Social benefits	0.360*	0.347*		
4. Functional benefits	0.064	0.466*	0.208*	
Mean	3.05	5.28	3.58	5.42
Standard deviation	1.18	1.12	1.49	0.80

n = 311, *p<.01

3.2.2 Hypothesis testing

Three multiple regression analysis were conducted to test if compulsive buying has a significant effect on the perceived value of emotional, social and functional benefits. The first model contains only the control variables gender, age and income, after which the compulsive

buying construct is included in the second model. These control variables were included in the regression analysis as dummy variables, with the categories 'female', '18-25 years' and '€500-€1,000' as reference categories. Before making any conclusions based on these analyses, several assumptions were checked. In order to test if the residuals are independent, the Durbin-Watson statistic can be used. According to Field (2009) this value should be between 1 and 3 for the residuals to be independent. For all three regression analysis (emotional benefits, social benefits and functional benefits) this assumption is met. The values of the Durbin-Watson statistic are 1.968, 1.883 and 1.912, respectively. Another assumption that has to be met is the normal distribution of the variables. For this, the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis have to be between -3 and 3 (Hair et al., 2014), which is the case for the independent variable and all the dependent variables. Since we are dealing with multiple independent variables, the possibility of multicollinearity arises. For multicollinearity not to be an issue the variance inflation factor (VIF) should be below 10 (Hair et al., 2014). This is the case within all three multiple regression analysis, and thus the assumption with regard to multicollinearity is met. Lastly, the assumptions of linearity, constant variance of the residuals and normality of the residuals' distribution are met (see Appendix D).

Table 5: Effect of control variables and compulsive buying on emotional benefits

	Model 1: Control Variables				Model 2: Inclusion Compulsive Buying			
	B	β	SE	p	B	β	SE	p
Gender								
Male	-.041	-.014	.172	.810	.174	.059	.178	.329
Age								
Younger than 18	.212	.026	.135	.649	.316	.039	.457	.490
26-35 years	-.399	-.112	.466	.080	-.406	-.114	.222	.068
36-45 years	-.619*	-.144*	.227	.017	-.477	-.111	.256	.063
46-55 years	-.736**	-.222**	.259	.001	-.569*	-.171*	.223	.011
56-65 years	-.610	-.158	.224	.014	-.464	-.120	.245	.059
66 years or older	-.045	-.005	.247	.939	.111	.011	.581	.849
Income								
0-500	-.224	-.083	.188	.234	-.187	-.070	.184	.309
1000-1500	-.312	-.099	.219	.154	-.280	-.089	.214	.192
1500-2000	.056	.017	.229	.807	.235	.071	.229	.306
2000-2500	.299	.081	.260	.251	.387	.105	.256	.131
2500-3000	.092	.014	.413	.824	.152	.023	.404	.708
3000 or more	-.146	-.008	.374	.903	.021	.004	.367	.954
Compulsive Buying					.232***	.243***	.062	.000
R ² (Adjusted R ²)		.079* (.035)				.121*** (.076)		

n = 311, ***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05

The first regression analysis conducted was used to test the effect of compulsive buying on the perceived value of emotional benefits. The control variables together explain a significant proportion of the variance in the dependent variable ‘perceived value of emotional benefits’ ($R^2 = .079$, $F(14,296) = 1.806$, $p = .037$). After adding compulsive buying behavior as an independent variable, the model significantly improved ($R^2 = .121$, $F(1,295) = 14.177$, $p = .000$). As shown in table 5, compulsive buying behavior has a significant, positive effect on the perceived value of emotional benefits. Thus, an increase in compulsive buying behavior results in a higher perceived value of the emotional benefits, which is in support of H1a.

The effect of compulsive buying on the perceived value of social benefits was examined in a second regression analysis (table 6). The results showed that the first model explains a significant proportion of the variance ($R^2 = .134$, $F(14,296) = 3.281$, $p = .000$). The inclusion of the compulsive buying variable results in a significant improvement of the model ($R^2 = .221$, $F(1,295) = 32.982$, $p = .000$). Moreover, compulsive buying behavior does have significant, positive effect on the perceived value of social benefits. This means that the more compulsive a consumer is, the higher his or her perceived value of the social benefits of a brand. This finding is in support of H1b.

Table 6: Effect of control variables and compulsive buying on social benefits

	Model 1: Control Variables				Model 2: Inclusion Compulsive Buying			
	B	β	SE	p	B	β	SE	P
Gender								
Male	.180	.046	.220	.415	.588*	.150*	.221	.008
Age								
Younger than 18	-.282	-.026	.597	.637	-.085	-.008	.569	.881
26-35 years	-.897**	-.191**	.290	.002	-.910**	-.194**	.276	.001
36-45 years	-.629	-.111	.332	.059	-.360	-.063	.319	.260
46-55 years	-1.175***	-.268***	.287	.000	-.858**	-.196**	.278	.002
56-65 years	-.722*	-.142*	.316	.023	-.446	-.087	.304	.144
66 years or older	-.471	-.036	.758	.535	-.175	-.013	.722	.809
Income								
0-500	-.022	-.006	.240	.927	.047	-.010	.299	.837
1000-1500	-.101	-.024	.280	.720	-.040	.051	.266	.881
1500-2000	-.116	-.027	.294	.694	.223	-.046	.285	.434
2000-2500	-.390	-.080	.333	.242	-.223	-.042	.318	.483
2500-3000	-.489	-.055	.528	.355	-.375	-.043	.502	.456
3000 or more	-.458	-.059	.479	.341	-.332	.033	.456	.468
Compulsive Buying					.441***	.349***	.077	.000
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)		.134*** (.093)				.221*** (.182)		

n = 311, ***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05

Lastly, a third regression analysis was used to test if compulsive buying has a significant effect on the perceived value of functional benefits (table 7). The control variables explain a proportion of the variance in this variable which is not significant ($R^2 = .056$, $F(14,296) = 1.250$, $p = .238$). Although the model does improve after the inclusion of the compulsive buying variable, it is not a significant improvement ($R^2 = .065$, $F(1,295) = 2.845$, $p = .093$). Furthermore, the results did not show a significant effect of compulsive buying on the perceived value of functional benefits. Therefore, H1c is not supported.

Table 7: Effect of control variables and compulsive buying on functional benefits

	Model 1: Control Variables				Model 2: Inclusion Compulsive Buying			
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>P</i>
Gender								
Male	.196	.093	.123	.113	.266*	.127*	.130	.041
Age								
Younger than 18	.048	.008	.335	.885	.082	.014	.334	.805
26-35 years	-.262	-.104	.163	.109	-.264	-.105	.162	.104
36-45 years	-.378*	-.124*	.186	.043	-.332	-.109	.187	.078
46-55 years	-.332*	-.141*	.160	.040	-.277	-.118	.163	.091
56-65 years	-.219	-.080	.177	.217	-.172	-.063	.179	.338
66 years or older	-.024	-.003	.425	.955	.027	.004	.424	.949
Income								
0-500	-.104	-.055	.135	.441	-.092	-.048	.134	.494
1000-1500	-.202	-.090	.157	.200	-.191	-.085	.156	.223
1500-2000	.049	.021	.164	.764	.108	.046	.167	.520
2000-2500	.300	.115	.186	.109	.329	.126	.187	.079
2500-3000	.155	.033	.296	.602	.174	.037	.295	.556
3000 or more	.142	.034	.268	.598	.163	.040	.268	.542
Compulsive Buying					.076	.112	.045	.093
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.056 (.011)				.065 (.017)			

$n = 311$, *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

3.2.3 Control variables

The control variables age and gender seem to have an influence on the perceived value of the brand benefits. Looking at the perceived value of emotional benefits, only one category of the control variable ‘age’ is significant. This makes it rather difficult to state whether age is a predictor of the perceived value of emotional benefits. When comparing the beta of this category (-.171) to the beta of the compulsive buying variable (.243), it can be concluded that compulsive buying behavior has the strongest effect. With regard to the perceived value of social benefits, the results show that the control variable ‘gender’ is statistically significant

and therefore influences the perceived value of social benefits. Within the control variable ‘age’, two categories also have a significant impact. Again, the beta of compulsive buying behavior has the biggest impact. When examining the perceived value of functional benefits, it seems that only the control variable ‘gender’ has a significant effect. The other control variables, as well as the compulsive buying variable, do not have a significant effect. Further research might examine the role of the variables gender and age in-depth, as they seem to have an influence on the perceived value of the brand benefits.

Table 8: Effect of control variables on compulsive buying behavior

	Effect on compulsive buying			
	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>P</i>
Gender				
Male	-.926***	-.298***	.159	.000
Age				
Younger than 18	-.447	-.052	.430	.300
26-35 years	.030	.008	.209	.887
36-45 years	-.611*	-.136*	.239	.011
46-55 years	-.719**	-.207**	.206	.001
56-65 years	-.628**	-.155**	.228	.006
66 years or older	-.673	-.064	.546	.219
Income				
0-500	-.157	-.056	.173	.365
1000-1500	-.138	-.042	.202	.494
1500-2000	-.769***	-.224***	.211	.000
2000-2500	-.380	-.098	.240	.114
2500-3000	-.258	-.037	.380	.498
3000 or more	-.286	-.047	.345	.408
Private	-.818**	-.199**	.253	.001
R ² (Adjusted R ²)	.285*** (.251)			
n = 311, ***p<.001; **p < .01; *p < .05				

As discussed in the methodology chapter, it suggested that the control variables also have an effect on the compulsive buying behavior of an individual, which will be examined here. An overview of these results is provided in table 8. The analysis shows that the control variables explain a significant proportion of the variance in the compulsive buying variable ($R^2 = .285$, $F(14,296) = 8.435$, $p = .000$). The category ‘male’ has a negative and significant impact on compulsive buying, indicating that males are less compulsive in their buying behavior than females. This finding supports earlier discoveries made by Workman and Paper (2010) and O’Guinn and Faber (1989). When comparing the different age categories with respect to the reference category, there are three significant outcomes (i.e. 36-45 years, 46-55 years and 56-65 years). All three coefficients are negative and therefore compulsive buyers

are less likely to be in one of these age categories compared to the reference category (i.e. 18-25 years). No significant effect was found in comparison to the other age categories, which may be due to the small amount of respondents in these remaining categories. Whereas other research remained inconclusive with regard to the effect of age (Workman and Paper, 2010), these findings suggest that compulsive buyers are the most within the age category '18-25' years. Within the income variable, one category (i.e. €1,500 - €2,000) has a significant, negative effect. Thus, individuals with an income between €1,500 and €2,000 are less likely to become compulsive in their buying behavior than individuals with an income between €500 and €1,000.

3.2.4 Additional analysis: comparing low versus high compulsive buying

For the hypothesis testing a regression analysis was conducted in which compulsive buying was measured on a continuum ranging from low to high levels of compulsiveness. In addition, a MANOVA is conducted in order check if the same outcomes hold when compulsive buying is measured as a dichotomous variable (i.e. low versus high). In order to divide the sample into groups of low and high compulsive buying behavior, the sample was first divided into three equal groups, each representing 33% of the sample. The first group, consisting of 102 respondents, was labeled as low on compulsive buying behavior. The third group, consisting of 101 respondents, contains high compulsive buyers. The second (i.e. middle) group is not taken into account as it does not discriminate enough between low and high compulsive buyers.

Table 9: Effect of low versus high compulsive buying on the perceived value of brand benefits

	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>η</i>	<i>p</i>
Emotional benefits	1	9.387*	.045	.002
Social benefits	1	38.195**	.160	.000
Functional benefits	1	.447	.002	.505

n = 203, **p<.001; *p < .01

The results of the MANOVA are in accordance with the findings of the multiple regression analyses (table 9). A significant effect for the perceived value of emotional benefits is found ($F(1,201) = 9.387, p = .002, \eta = .045$). High compulsive buying ($M = 5.51, SD = .94$) results in a higher perceived value of the emotional benefits than low compulsive buying ($M = 5.02, SD = 1.30$). There is also a significant effect found for the perceived value of social benefits ($F(1,201) = 38.195, p = .000, \eta = .160$). The results suggest that buyers high on

compulsiveness ($M = 4.26$, $SD = 1.36$) value social benefits more than buyers low on compulsiveness ($M = 3.04$, $SD = 1.43$). For the perceived value of functional benefits, the effect is again not significant.

3.3 Discussion

The primary goal of this study was to gather more insights into the motivations of noncompulsive and compulsive buyers for buying branded products. The results indicate that compulsive buying is positively related to both the perceived value of emotional and social benefits. Meaning that an increase in the compulsive buying tendency leads to an increase in the perceived value of these emotional and social benefits. These findings are in support of earlier statements made by DeSarbo and Edwards (1996) and Horváth and van Birgelen (2015), who suggested that compulsive buyers try to escape from their negative feelings by shopping and are trying to achieve higher-self esteem and social approval from others.

Contradictory to what was expected, there is no significant relationship found between compulsive buying and the perceived value of functional benefits. In addition, the non significant relationship showed a positive sign, which is also in contrast to what was expected. The qualitative study of Horváth and van Birgelen (2015) suggested that noncompulsive buyers in particular highly valued the functional benefits (e.g. quality and durability) of a brand. This because compulsive buyers were primarily motivated by the emotional and social benefits. The findings of the study support the latter statement, but unfortunately no conclusions can be made based on the perceived value of the functional benefits.

4. Study 2 – The Consumer-Brand Relationship

4.1 Method

The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of compulsive buying on the relationship of consumers with brands. The brand relationship constructs used for this are brand trust, brand attachment and brand switching behavior. Since one survey was used for the data collection of both studies, the data was gathered in the same way.

4.1.1 Questionnaire design

As mentioned, the data for both study 1 and 2 are gathered through one survey. For the first study, the questions ended with statements about the buying behavior of the respondent. These will also be used to measure the compulsive buying behavior in this study. Following these statements, respondents are asked to choose one product category, from several options,

in which they experience the most shopping enjoyment. This because one is probably more likely to shop compulsively in a product category he or she likes. The product categories the respondent could choose from are clothing, sports equipment, home products, electronics, tools, footwear, body care and jewelry. These categories are chosen as they seem to be most attractive for compulsive buyers (Dittmar, Beattie and Freise, 1996) and because these are categories that consist of branded products. Next, the respondents were asked to name their last purchased brand within this product category. Thereafter, the questions about brand trust, brand attachment and brand switching behavior had to be answered. These questions were based on the last purchased brand. The last purchased brand is chosen as it is an objective measurement, since one does not necessarily has a relationship with this brand already. A 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (e.g. 1) to strongly agree (e.g. 7) is used to measure the brand relationship constructs. As already mentioned, the survey ends with questions about the demographics of the respondent.

4.1.2 Measurements

The scales used to measure the brand relationship constructs can be found in appendix A. The measurement of brand trust is based on a 8-item scale of Larzelere and Huston (1980). The original measurement scale is a dyadic trust scale used to measure the trust in one's partner. For this study, the items are changed so that it measures the trust in a specific brand. For the measurement of brand switching behavior, a 10-item scale based on Raju (1980) and Odin, Odin and Valette-Florence (2001) is adopted. The original scale of Raju (1980) is based on brand switching behavior in general. As the purpose of this study is to measure the switching behavior from the last purchased brand to another brand, the items are changed in such a way that they reflect this specific switching behavior. The scale of Odin et al. (2001) generally measures the loyalty towards a brand, which can be seen as the opposite of brand switching behavior. These items are also adjusted with respect to the last purchased brand. Lastly, the 4-item measurement scale of Park et al. (2010) is used for the measurement of brand attachment.

4.1.3 Control variables

Previous research has found that compulsive buying may occur more often in specific product categories (Workman and Paper, 2010; Dittmar et al., 1996). These studies measured the compulsive buying behavior of both men and woman within several different product categories (i.e. jewelry, sports equipment, clothes, music, books, electronic leisure, kitchen

equipment, footwear and body care). All these categories are more likely to be bought by compulsive buyers compared to noncompulsive buyers, only to different degrees (Dittmar et al. 1996). The compulsivity in product categories also differs across men and woman. Whereas compulsive woman are more interested in clothing, jewelry, makeup and collectibles, compulsive men are more attracted to electronic equipment and collectibles (Workman and Paper, 2010). These differences in compulsive buying across product categories indicate that there also may be differences in the relationships of compulsive buyers with brands across various product categories. Therefore, product category is included as a control variable in this study. Furthermore, just as in the first study, the demographics are also added as control variables in this study.

4.1.4 Pre-test

The same pre-test as with the first study is conducted of which the mistakes and ambiguities are taken into account in the final survey. The measurement scales of brand trust, brand attachment and brand switching behavior all have a favorable reliability (α of 0.781, 0.968 and 0.839 respectively), which already indicates that the measurement scale is working. Looking at the distribution of the items it shows that, overall, the items on the consumer-brand relationship have a normal distribution. There is only one outlier with a kurtosis of approximately 4. However, it is not such a big outlier, and together with the small sample size, this finding is not problematic for the further study. The findings concerning the compulsive buying variable are the same as in the first study.

4.1.5 Sample

The total amount of responses obtained from the survey was the same as with the first study, namely 348 ($N = 348$). After a missing data analysis which deleted responses with a percentage of missing data higher than 10% (Hair et al., 2014), the sample consisted of 311 respondents ($N = 311$). For this study, an extra reduction in the sample size was made, as not everybody filled in their last purchased brand. Because the items on the brand related constructs were based on this last purchased brand, these responses need to be excluded from the final sample. After this reduction, the final sample size consists of 277 respondents ($N = 277$). Of these respondents most are female (82.7%), are 18-25 years old (59.6) and have a net monthly income of €500-€1,000 euros (25.3%). Table 10 shows a more detailed overview on the demographic variables. Within this sample, 19.5% of the respondents has a tendency to

buy compulsive (mean score above 4) and again 4 respondents suffer from extreme compulsive buying behavior (mean score of 6 or higher).

Table 10: Demographics study 2

	<i>N</i>	%
Gender		
Male	48	17.3
Female	229	82.7
Age		
Younger than 18	6	2.2
18-25 years	165	59.6
26-35 years	30	10.8
36-45 years	20	7.2
46-55-years	29	10.5
56-65 years	25	9.0
66 years and older	2	0.7
Income		
€0-€500	65	23.5
€500 - €1.000	70	25.3
€1.000 - €1.500	39	14.1
€1.500 - €2.000	37	13.4
€2.000 - €2.500	28	10.1
€2.500 - €3.000	7	2.5
€3.000 or more	7	2.5
Private	24	8.7

4.1.6 Construct reliability and validity

Just as with the first study the internal consistencies of the constructs are assessed (table 11). Although the sample size here is smaller than the sample size in the first study, the same items of the construct compulsive buying were deleted. Also here those items resulted in an increase of the reliability, had relatively low factor loadings and high cross loadings. Moreover, the theoretical reasons for the elimination of the items also apply here.

For the construct ‘brand trust’, items 1 and 6 were deleted. The elimination of both items resulted in an increase in the reliability, due to which it became even more favorable. In support of this decision were the low factor loadings and cross loadings. From a theoretical point of view, the elimination of these items can also be supported. Both items were reversed items, which may have resulted in some confusion. As a result, those items do not correlate well with the other items.

The items of the ‘brand switching behavior’ construct are divided over two constructs. An explanation for this may be the fact that the items come from two different measurement scales. The scale of Raju (1980) included items that explicitly measure brand switching

behavior, whereas the items of Odin, Odin and Valette-Florence (2001) represent the opposite of brand switching behavior, namely brand loyalty. Those items were mostly used as reversed items within this research. Looking at items 8 and 10, it is unclear on which of the two constructs they load. Their loadings on both constructs are correlating highly with each other and therefore it is hard to establish if they measure brand switching behavior or brand loyalty. Moreover, both items consist a reason for the switching behavior. It could have been that people did switch between brands, but not because of the reason mentioned in the statement. These findings have led to elimination of items 8 and 10. As a consequence, two separate constructs arose measuring the brand switching behavior and brand loyalty. Where items 1, 2 and 5 are used to measure brand switching behavior, items 3, 4, 6, 7 and 9 are now used to measure brand loyalty. Where in the first place the reversed items were applied to measure brand switching behavior, now the initial items (i.e. non reversed items) will be used to measure the brand loyalty construct. The effect of compulsive buying behavior on brand loyalty will be examined in an additional analysis.

Table 11: Internal consistency and convergent validity

Construct	Original # items	Cronbach's alpha	# of items deleted	Cronbach's alpha	Percentage explained variance
Compulsive Buying	15	0.893	4	0.907	52%
Brand Trust	8	0.855	2	0.869	70%
Brand Attachment	4	0.901	0		77%
Brand Switching	10	0.896	7	0.800	72%
Brand Loyalty	10	0.896	5	0.883	69%

A principal component factor analysis is conducted with these five constructs to determine discriminant and convergent validity. The results showed a KMO value of 0.876 and a significant Barlett's test of sphericity. The rotation method 'varimax' was used to determine the discriminant validity. The analysis showed five constructs and the items were only loading on one factor, confirming discriminant validity (Appendix C). The explained variance of the five constructs together is 64%. The constructs were also analyzed separately in five different factor analyses. All the items formed one construct in these analyses, and therefore convergent validity is established (Appendix C).

4.2 Results

4.2.1 Descriptive analysis

Table 12 provides an overview of the descriptive variables of the independent variable (compulsive buying) and the dependent variables (brand trust, brand attachment and brand switching behavior). Compulsive buying behavior correlates significantly with all brand relationship construct. Where it correlates negatively with brand trust, it has a positive correlation with brand attachment and brand switching behavior. The correlations between the different brand relationship constructs show that they are correlating significantly with each other. Whereas brand trust and brand attachment have a positive correlation, both variables correlate negatively with brand switching behavior.

Table 12: Correlation matrix and descriptive statistics

	1	2	3	4
1. Compulsive buying				
2. Brand trust	-.128*			
3. Brand attachment	.252**	.257**		
4. Brand switching	.141*	-.119*	-.345**	
Mean	3.10	5.01	3.66	4.31
Standard deviation	1.19	0.95	1.36	1.22

n = 277, **p<.01; *p<.05

Table 13: Frequencies product category and last purchased brand

	N	%
Product category		
Clothing	173	62.7
Sports equipment	11	4
Home products	17	6.2
Electronics	20	7.2
Tools	3	1.1
Footware	30	10.9
Body care	19	6.9
Jewelry	3	1.1
Last purchased brand		
Adidas	11	4
Apple	6	2.2
Converse	5	1.8
H&M	15	5.4
Hema	7	2.5
Levi's	8	2.9
Nike	18	6.5
Only	12	4.3
Zara	28	10.1

Within this second study, respondents had to choose a product category in which they experience the most shopping enjoyment. As shown in table 13, clothing is by far the most chosen product category by the respondents. Thereafter, footwear and electronics contain the biggest groups. Both tools and jewelry were not often chosen as a product category in which one experiences shopping enjoyment, resulting in relatively low observations in those categories. Respondents were also asked to name their last purchased brand within the product category. An overview of the brands that were mentioned five times or more can also be found in table 13. Not surprisingly, all these brands belong to the three product categories that contain the most observations.

4.2.2 Hypothesis testing

For this second study, three multiple regression analyses were conducted to test if compulsive buying has a significant effect on brand trust, brand attachment and brand switching behavior. Here, the first model contains only the control variables gender, age, income and product category, where after the compulsive buying construct is included in the second model. Just as within the first study, the control variables are included in the analysis as dummy variables. Again, the categories 'female', '18-25 years' and '€500 - €1,000' are the reference categories. For the variable product category, 'clothing' was taken into account as the reference category. Before analysing the results, several assumptions of regression analysis were checked. First, the residuals are independent as the Durbin-Watson statistic is between 1 and 3 for all three regression analysis (respectively; 2.205, 1.897 and 2.050). Second, the independent variable as well as all three dependent variables are normally distributed. The absolute values of skewness and kurtosis are between -3 and 3 (Hair et al., 2014). Third, the variance inflation factor (VIF) is below 10 within all three analyses (Hair et al., 2014). This indicates that multicollinearity is not an issue and therefore the assumption is met. Lastly, the assumptions of linearity, constant variance of the residuals and normality of the residuals' distribution are met (Appendix D).

The first regression analysis conducted was used to test the effect of compulsive buying on brand trust (table 14). The control variables together explain a significant proportion of the variance in the dependent variable ($R^2 = .184$, $F(21,255) = 2.729$, $p = .000$). Only after adding compulsive buying behavior as the independent variable, the model did not significantly improve ($R^2 = .184$, $F(1,254) = .011$, $p = .917$). A surprising result is the non significance level of the variable compulsive buying. Where the effect of compulsive buying on brand trust

was significant according to the pearson correlation coefficient (table 12), with the inclusion of the control variables in the model it is not. Thus, H2 is not supported.

Table 14: Effect of control variables and compulsive buying on brand trust

	Model 1: Control Variables				Model 2: Inclusion Compulsive Buying			
	B	B	SE	p	B	β	SE	p
Gender								
Male	-.213	-.085	.172	.215	-.208	-.083	.178	.245
Age								
Younger than 18	.122	.019	.381	.749	.124	.019	.383	.745
26-35 years	.022	.007	.199	.912	.021	.007	.200	.915
36-45 years	-.185	-.050	.228	.417	-.181	-.049	.231	.433
46-55 years	.402	.129	.218	.067	.405	.130	.221	.068
56-65 years	.298	.090	.217	.171	.302	.091	.222	.174
66 years or older	.358	.032	.664	.590	.363	.032	.667	.587
Income								
0-500	.022	.010	.158	.887	.024	.011	.159	.882
1000-1500	-.093	-.034	.191	.625	-.093	-.034	.191	.626
1500-2000	.092	.033	.195	.639	.096	.034	.200	.632
2000-2500	.517*	.164*	.223	.021	.519*	.164*	.223	.021
2500-3000	.864*	.142*	.382	.025	.865*	.143*	.383	.025
3000 or more	.333	.055	.383	.385	.336	.055	.384	.383
Product Category								
Sports equipment	.881**	.181**	.282	.002	.887**	.182**	.288	.002
Home products	.279	.070	.235	.237	.282	.071	.237	.236
Electronics	.337	.092	.241	.163	.340	.092	.243	.164
Tools	.470	.051	.583	.421	.469	.051	.584	.422
Footware	.487**	.159**	.184	.009	.491**	.160**	.188	.009
Body care	.672**	.179**	.223	.003	.673**	.179**	.224	.003
Jewelry	-.155	-.017	.552	.779	-.155	-.017	.553	.780
Compulsive Buying					.006	.007	.056	.917
R ² (Adjusted R ²)		.184*** (.116)				.184 (.113)		

n = 277, ***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05

The variance in the dependent variable ‘brand attachment’ is also significantly explained by the control variables, as can be seen in table 15 ($R^2 = .121$, $F(21,255) = 1.666$, $p = .036$). The inclusion of the compulsive buying variable results in a significant improvement of the model ($R^2 = .173$, $F(1,254) = 16.153$, $p = .000$). Moreover, compulsive buying behavior does have a significant, positive effect on brand attachment. A more compulsive consumer is more likely to become attached to a brand. Although this effect is significant, it does not support H3. The hypothesis expected compulsive buying to have a negative effect on brand attachment.

Table 15: Effect of control variables and compulsive buying on brand attachment

	Model 1: Control Variables				Model 2: Inclusion Compulsive Buying			
	B	B	SE	p	B	β	SE	p
Gender								
Male	-.465	-.130	.254	.069	-.189	-.053	.257	.462
Age								
Younger than 18	-.470	-.050	.565	.406	-.347	-.037	.550	.528
26-35 years	-.385	-.088	.295	.194	-.415	-.095	.287	.149
36-45 years	-.462	-.088	.337	.173	-.254	-.048	.332	.445
46-55 years	-.869**	-.196**	.323	.008	-.659*	-.148*	.318	.039
56-65 years	-.512	-.108	.322	.113	-.268	-.056	.319	.402
66 years or older	.422	.026	.984	.668	.729	.045	.959	.448
Income								
0-500	-.397	-.124	.235	.092	-.330	-.103	.229	.151
1000-1500	-.200	-.051	.283	.481	-.197	-.050	.275	.474
1500-2000	-.450	-.113	.290	.121	-.228	-.057	.287	.428
2000-2500	.570	.126	.330	.085	.650	.144	.321	.044
2500-3000	1.438*	.166*	.567	.012	1.512**	.175**	.551	.006
3000 or more	.653	.075	.568	.251	.786	.091	.553	.156
Product Category								
Sports equipment	.217	.031	.418	.603	.541	.078	.414	.193
Home products	-.045	-.008	.349	.897	.096	.017	.341	.779
Electronics	.350	.067	.358	.329	.517	.098	.350	.140
Tools	-.615	-.047	.864	.478	-.633	-.048	.840	.452
Footware	-.326	-.054	.273	.388	-.046	-.010	.270	.866
Body care	.474	.088	.331	.153	.526	.098	.322	.103
Jewelry	-.608	-.046	.818	.458	-.602	-.046	.795	.449
Compulsive Buying					.323***	.281***	.080	.000
R ² (Adjusted R ²)		.121* (.048)				.173*** (.102)		

n = 277, ***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05

Lastly, a third regression analysis was used to test if compulsive buying has a significant effect on brand switching behavior (table 16). The control variables explain a significant proportion of the variance in this variable ($R^2 = .267$, $F(20,256) = 4.660$, $p = .000$). However, the addition of the compulsive buying behavior construct does not result in a significant improvement of the model ($R^2 = .267$, $F(1,255) = .005$, $p = .942$). Although the pearson correlation coefficient shows a significant, positive effect of compulsive buying on brand switching behavior (table 12), the results with the inclusion of the control variables do not show a significant effect. Therefore, H4 is not supported.

Table 16: Effect of control variables and compulsive buying on brand switching behavior

	Model 1: Control Variables				Model 2: Inclusion Compulsive Buying			
	B	B	SE	p	B	β	SE	p
Gender								
Male	-.344	-.107	.207	.098	-.340	-.106	.215	.116
Age								
Younger than 18	.191	.023	.461	.679	.193	.023	.462	.677
26-35 years	.041	.010	.239	.865	.041	.010	.239	.865
36-45 years	-.168	-.036	.270	.535	-.164	-.035	.276	.552
46-55 years	.259	.065	.255	.311	.263	.066	.261	.315
56-65 years	-.309	-.073	.252	.220	-.305	-.072	.260	.242
65 years or older	-1.458	-.102	.794	.067	-1.452	-.101	.799	.070
Income								
0-500	-.121	-.042	.183	.509	-.121	-.042	.183	.511
1000-1500	-.055	-.016	.216	.799	-.056	-.016	.216	.796
1500-2000	.398	.111	.222	.074	.400	.112	.225	.076
2000-2500	-.294	-.073	.248	.238	-.294	-.073	.249	.239
2500-3000	-1.315**	-.170**	.449	.004	-1.315**	-.170**	.450	.004
3000 or more	-.327	-.042	.449	.466	-.327	-.042	.449	.468
Product Category								
Sports equipment	-1.263***	-.203***	.340	.000	-1.259***	-.202***	.348	.000
Home products	-.601*	-.119*	.283	.035	-.598*	-.118*	.285	.037
Electronics	-1.224***	-.261***	.291	.000	-1.221***	-.260***	.294	.000
Tools	-.888	-.076	.703	.208	-.888	-.076	.704	.209
Footware	-.088	-.022	.223	.693	-.085	-.022	.227	.708
Body care	-1.353***	-.281***	.270	.000	-1.352***	-.281***	.270	.000
Jewelry	-.141	-.012	.663	.831	-.140	-.012	.664	.833
Compulsive Buying					.005	.005	.066	.942
R ² (Adjusted R ²)	.267*** (.210)				.267 (.207)			

n = 277, ***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05

4.2.3 Control variables

The control variables age, income and product category seem to have an influence on the brand relationship constructs. With regard to the brand trust construct, two categories of the variable ‘income’ and three categories of the variable ‘product category’ are significant. This indicates that both income and product category also influence brand trust. The analysis of brand attachment shows that the control variables ‘age’ and ‘income’ both have one significant category, suggesting an influence of these control variables on brand attachment. Nevertheless, when comparing the betas of these significant categories with the beta of compulsive buying behavior, it can be concluded that compulsive buying behavior has a bigger impact on brand attachment. Looking at the brand switching behavior construct, one

income category and four product categories are significant. These results suggest an influence of the control variables income and product category on the brand switching behavior of a consumer. Most interestingly is the change of significance with regard to the effects on brand trust and brand switching behavior, after the inclusion of the control variables in the regression analysis. This suggest an impact of the control variables on the relationship between compulsive buying and brand trust and brand switching behavior. Further research is necessary to examine these effects of the control variables more specifically.

Table 17: Effect of control variables on compulsive buying behavior

	Effect on compulsive buying			
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>P</i>
Gender				
Male	-.868***	-.277***	.195	.000
Age				
Younger than 18	-.370	-.045	.434	.395
26-35 years	.020	.005	.225	.930
36-45 years	-.774**	-.169**	.255	.003
46-55 years	-.824**	-.213**	.240	.001
56-65 years	-.955***	-.231***	.237	.000
66 years or older	-1.253	-.090	.748	.095
Income				
0-500	-.062	-.022	.173	.722
1000-1500	.207	.061	.203	.308
1500-2000	-.479*	-.137*	.209	.023
2000-2500	.020	.005	.234	.931
2500-3000	.051	.007	.424	.904
3000 or more	-.115	-.015	.423	.786
Product Category				
Sports equipment	-1.011**	-.176**	.321	.002
Home products	-.508	-.103	.267	.058
Electronics	-.526	-.115	.275	.056
Tolls	-.058	-.005	.663	.930
Footwear	-.609**	-.160**	.210	.004
Body care	-.152	-.032	.254	.549
Jewelry	-.206	-.018	.625	.742
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)		.315*** (.262)		

n = 277, ***p<.001; **p < .01; *p < .05

Again, the effect of the control variables on the independent variable (i.e. compulsive buying) is also examined (table 17). The control variables explain a significant proportion of the variance in the compulsive buying variable ($R^2 = .315$, $F(20,256) = 5.892$, $p = .000$). When comparing the results to the outcomes of the first study, the category ‘male’ again has a negative and significant impact on compulsive buying. This supports the assumption that

males are less compulsive in their buying behavior than females (Workman and Paper, 2010; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989). Also the three age categories (i.e. 36-45 years, 46-55 years and 56-65 years) are again negative and significant. This indicates that compulsive buyers are more common in the age category '18-25 years' in comparison to these three significant age categories. Within the income variable also the same category (i.e. €1,500 - €2,000) has a significant, and negative, effect. In addition, the effect of the control variable 'product category' on compulsive buying has been examined. The product categories sports equipments and footwear show to have a significant, negative effect. When comparing these categories to the reference category 'clothing', compulsive buying is less likely to occur here.

4.2.4 Additional analyses

The impact of the control variables on brand trust and brand switching behavior

According to the pearson correlation coefficients, compulsive buying behavior has a significant effect on both brand trust and brand switching behavior. Where it suggest it negatively influences brand trust, the effect on brand switching behavior contains a positive sign. Here, both effects are in comparison with the expectations made based on existing literature. However, the effects become non significant after the inclusion of the control variables in the model. This suggests an influence of the control variables on both relationships. An explanation for this may be the small amount of observations in some categories of the control variables. As a result, there are also big differences in the observations of the various categories. In order to test if this has caused the non significant results, categories of the variables age and income are grouped together. With regard to the control variable 'age', the category containing respondents with an age younger than 18 only consisted of 6 observations. This category is combined with the '18-25 years' category. Moreover, there were only 2 respondents who are 66 years older. This group has been merged with the 56-65 years old group. For the income categories, there were only seven observations in the income groups of '€2,500-€3,000' and '€3,000 and more'. Both groups are combined with the group that has an income between €2,000 and €2,500. Some product categories also showed a relatively low number of observations. After removing one category at the time as a dummy variable, the product categories clothing and footwear (e.g. the two groups with the most observations) were the only ones left in the end.

After conducting another regression analysis for both brand trust and brand switching behavior with these new categories, the effects remained non significant. Only after the deletion of the control variable gender, the effect of compulsive buying behavior on brand

switching behavior became significant. This may be due to the big difference in observations for both males ($N = 48$) and females ($N = 229$). However, this finding does not apply for the effect of compulsive buying behavior on brand trust, as it stayed non significant. In order to test if the results differ across product categories, two separate regression analysis were conducted for only the product categories clothing and footwear. The results were in accordance with earlier findings, suggesting that the relationships are not different across product categories. Additional regression analyses were also conducted for males and females separately. Again, the results did not show any different effects.

The effect of compulsive buying on brand loyalty

Due to the dissension between the items of brand switching behavior an additional construct arose, measuring the brand loyalty of a consumer. As a result, a multiple regression analysis has been conducted examining the effect of compulsive buying on brand loyalty (table 18). Just as with the models used for the hypotheses testing, the first model contains the control variables and the second model includes compulsive buying as well. The same reference categories are used for the control variables. The control variables show to explain a significant proportion of the variance in the dependent variable (i.e. brand loyalty) ($R^2 = .121$, $F(20,256) = 1.766$, $p = .025$). The inclusion of compulsive buying behavior as an independent variable resulted in a significant improvement of the model ($R^2 = .140$, $F(1,255) = 5.685$, $p = .018$). The findings show a significant, positive effect of compulsive buying behavior on brand loyalty. However, this finding is not in line with earlier suggestions. As literature expected compulsive buying to positively influence the brand switching behavior (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015), it would, in turn, negatively influence the brand loyalty.

Comparing low versus high compulsive buying

Also for this second study, a MANOVA is conducted in order check if the same outcomes hold when compulsive buying is measured as a dichotomous variable (i.e. low versus high). Within this analysis, the control variables are also examined as they seem to be influential for some of the dependent variables. The sample was divided into three equal groups each representing 33% of the sample. Both the first and third group consist of 88 respondents, where the first group contains low compulsive buyers and the third high compulsive buyers. The middle group is not taken into account as it does not discriminate enough between low and high compulsive buyers.

Table 18: Effect of control variables and compulsive buying on brand loyalty

	Model 1: Control Variables				Model 2: Inclusion Compulsive Buying			
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender								
Male	-.151	-.044	.244	.536	.009	.003	.251	.972
Age								
Younger than 18	-.626	-.070	.542	.249	-.558	-.062	.538	.301
26-35 years	-.383	-.091	.281	.174	-.387	-.092	.279	.166
36-45 years	-.224	-.044	.318	.483	-.081	-.016	.321	.801
46-55 years	-.491	-.115	.300	.103	-.339	-.080	.304	.265
56-65 years	-.347	-.076	.296	.243	-.171	-.037	.303	.574
65 years or older	.038	.002	.934	.967	.270	.017	.931	.772
Income								
0-500	.187	.061	.215	.385	.199	.064	.213	.353
1000-1500	-.103	-.027	.254	.685	-.141	-.038	.252	.575
1500-2000	-.144	-.037	.261	.582	-.056	.014	.262	.832
2000-2500	.405	.093	.292	.168	.401	.092	.290	.168
2500-3000	1.113*	.134*	.529	.036	1.103*	.133*	.524	.036
3000 or more	.732	.088	.528	.167	.753	.090	.523	.151
Product Category								
Sports equipment	.574	.086	.401	.153	.761	.114	.405	.061
Home products	-.263	-.048	.333	.430	-.170	-.031	.332	.610
Electronics	.539	.107	.343	.117	.636	.126	.342	.064
Tools	.696	.055	.827	.401	.707	.056	.820	.390
Footware	-.389	-.093	.262	.139	-.277	-.066	.264	.295
Body care	-1.016**	.197**	.317	.002	1.044**	.202**	.315	.001
Jewelry	-.692	.055	.780	.376	-.654	-.052	.773	.398
Compulsive Buying					.184*	.167*	.077	.018
R ² (Adjusted R ²)		.121* (.053)				.140* (.070)		

n = 277, ***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05

The results of the MANOVA largely correspond with earlier findings (table 19). The main effects show a significant relationship for brand attachment ($F(1,174) = 13.741, p = .00, \eta = .073$) and brand switching behavior ($F(1,174) = 6.182, p = .014, \eta = .034$). High compulsive buying ($M = 4.14, SD = 1.41$) results in higher attachment to a brand than low compulsive buying ($M = 3.35, SD = 1.42$). With regard to brand switching behavior, people high on compulsive buying ($M = 4.51, SD = 1.18$) seem to switch more often than people low on compulsive buying ($M = 4.01, SD = 1.32$). These findings are in accordance with the pearson correlation coefficients for both effects (table 12). In contradiction to the pearson correlation coefficient of brand trust, the effect of compulsive buying on brand trust is not significant ($F(1,174) = 3.265, p = .073, \eta = .018$). This suggests that there is no difference in brand trust between low and high compulsive buyers. The main effect for brand loyalty is also significant

($F(1,174) = 6.326, p = .013, \eta = .035$), where buyers high on compulsiveness ($M = 4.30, SD = 1.32$) have greater brand loyalty than buyers low on compulsiveness ($M = 3.79, SD = 1.37$).

Table 19: Effect of low versus high compulsive buying on the dependent variables

	Model 1:				Model 2:			
	Main effects only				With control variables			
Brand trust	<i>Df</i>	<i>F</i>	η	<i>p</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η	<i>p</i>
Compulsive buying	1	3.265	.018	.073	1	.018	.000	.895
Gender					1	1.046	.006	.308
Age					1	2.454	.014	.119
Income					1	3.988*	.023	.047
Product category					1	4.845*	.028	.029
Brand attachment								
Compulsive buying	1	13.741***	.073	.000	1	10.314**	.057	.002
Gender					1	.225	.001	.636
Age					1	.457	.003	.500
Income					1	4.249*	.024	.041
Product category					1	.154	.001	.695
Brand Switching								
Compulsive buying	1	6.182*	.034	.014	1	.108	.001	.743
Gender					1	5.296*	.030	.023
Age					1	.869	.005	.353
Income					1	.033	.000	.855
Product category					1	2.711	.016	.101
Brand Loyalty								
Compulsive buying	1	6.326*	.035	.013	1	3.744	.022	.055
Gender					1	.088	.001	.767
Age					1	.204	.001	.652
Income					1	.003	.000	.954
Product category					1	.035	.000	.853

n = 176, ***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05

The inclusion of the control variables in the model results in different significant levels for the dependent variables. The effect for brand trust was still not significant ($F(1,174) = .018, p = .895, \eta = .000$), which is in line with the finding of the regression analysis. For brand attachment, the effect remained significant ($F(1,174) = 10.314, p = .002, \eta = .057$), still indicating a higher level of brand attachment for high compulsive buyers ($M = 4.14, SD = 1.41$) than for low compulsive buyers ($M = 3.35, SD = 1.42$). Again, this finding is in accordance with the outcomes of the regression analysis. The results show a non significant effect for brand switching behavior ($F(1,174) = .108, p = .743, \eta = .001$). The control variable ‘gender’ does have a significant effect here ($F(1,174) = 5.296, p = .023, \eta = .030$), indicating that this may cause the change in effect for brand switching behavior. This is in line with

earlier findings based on the brand switching behavior construct. For brand loyalty, the effect became non significant after the inclusion of the control variables ($F(1,174) = 3.744, p = .055, \eta = .022$). However, the cause of this change in significance is unclear, as none of the control variables show a significant effect on brand loyalty.

4.3 Discussion

The goal of this second study was to examine the effect of compulsive buying behavior on the consumer-brand relationship constructs (brand trust, brand attachment and brand switching behavior). First, the results showed a non significant effect for compulsive buying behavior on brand trust. The non significant relationship did show a negative sign, which is similar to earlier theories on addictive and compulsive behavior. It was suggested that people with an addictive personality often have trust issues, as they are afraid to be betrayed by the other party (Jampolsky, 2008; Peele and Brodsky, 1975). Moreover, the findings from the qualitative study of Horváth and Van Birgelen (2015) showed that compulsive buyers developed less brand trust than noncompulsive buyers. Lastly, the research of Otero-López and Pol (2013) found a direct, negative relationship between compulsive behavior and trust in general. Although the sign of the effect is in comparison to these other findings, the results of this study cannot reinforce it as the relationship is found to be non significant.

Second, the hypothesis with regard to the effect of compulsive buying on brand attachment was not supported. In contrast to what was expected, the results showed a significant, positive relationship. An explanation for this finding may be the difference between the actual and ideal self. As mentioned before, it is difficult for brands to connect with the actual self of compulsive buyers since it may reinforce the negative feelings that are associated with the actual self. However, this assumption does not hold for brands that represent the ideal self of a compulsive buyer. This brand still may connect to the consumer as it enhances the self-esteem and generates positive feelings (Malär et al., 2011). When the last purchased brands of the respondents represented the ideal self, the possibility arises that individuals with a compulsive buying tendency also felt attached to that brand. Future research should take this difference between the actual and ideal self into account when measuring the brand attachment of compulsive buyers. Still, the finding is contradictory to general statements made on addictive/compulsive behavior and attachment. Literature stated that people with an addictive or compulsive personality suffer from attachment problems (Leon, 1984; Hirschman, 1992; Chein, 1969; Flores, 2004), and that compulsive buyers are primarily attached to the buying process itself (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989). A reason for not finding this relationship here may

be the fact that only a small proportion of the respondents have a tendency to buy compulsively (19.5%), and an even smaller part is extremely compulsive in his/her buying behavior (1.1%). Further research should also include more respondents that experience extreme compulsive buying behavior.

Third, no significant relationship was found between compulsive buying behavior and brand switching behavior. However, the sign of the non significant effect was negative as predicted in the hypothesis. This is in comparison to what was expected by earlier research, which stated that compulsive buyers are characterized by variety seeking and are more willing try new brands (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015; Olsen et al., 2016). However, the effect is still not significant in this research which may be due to several other influences. The results showed a change in the relationship at the expense of the significance level after including the control variables in the model. This suggests an influence of the control variables on the relationship between compulsive buying behavior and brand switching behavior. Moreover, the non significant effect may also be due to the lack of extreme compulsive buyers. An inclusion of the more extreme form of compulsive buying behavior may draw a more accurate picture.

5. General Discussion

The results of both studies have provided more insights with regard to the motivations of buying branded products and the consumer-brand relationship. Findings showed a positive relationship between compulsive buying and the perceived value of emotional and social benefits. It can be concluded from this that the primary motivations of compulsive buyers for buying branded products are the emotional and social benefits of a brand. In other words, as was already suggest by earlier research, compulsive buyers purchase brands for shopping enjoyment and the social approval from others (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996). The results also showed a positive sign with regard to the relationship between compulsive buying and the perceived value of functional benefits. However, this effect was not significant and not in contrast with earlier research, so no conclusions can be based on this finding. In support of these outcomes are the findings of a MANOVA which compared low and high compulsive buyers with each other. These indicated that high compulsive buyers value the emotional and social benefits more than low compulsive buyers. Again, no significant effect was found for the perceived value of functional benefits.

The second study showed a negative, but non significant, relationship between compulsive buying and brand trust. Although the sign is in comparison with findings from earlier research

(Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015), these findings cannot be supported due to the non significance level of the effect. Notably, the pearson correlation coefficient did show a significant, negative correlation between compulsive buying and brand trust. This suggest that their is a relationship between the two constructs somewhere. However, the model with the control variables showed a non significant effect on brand trust, indicating that these influence the relationship. In contradiction to the pearson correlation coefficient, a MANOVA analysis without the control variables showed a non significant effect for brand trust. This suggests that their are also differences due to the measurement of compulsive buying behavior. In other words, it matters whether you measure compulsive buying on a continuum or as a dichotomous construct. Due to the differences in the findings, the results for brand trust are inconclusive and can therefore not support the findings of earlier studies. Further research should pay special attention to the extent of this relationship.

Some of the surprising results for brand trust also hold for the effect of compulsive buying on brand switching behavior. No significant relationship was found between compulsive buying and brand switching behavior. But, the non significant effect that was found showed a positive sign, which was also suggested by earlier research (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). As with brand trust, the pearson correlation coefficient did show a significant and positive correlation between compulsive buying and brand switching behavior. In addition, the MANOVA which examined only the main effect also found a significant result for brand switching behavior. These findings together suggest that both constructs are somehow related to each other. In both the regression analysis and the MANOVA, the relationship became non significant when the control variables were added to the model. Again, this suggest an influence of the control variables on the relationship between the two constructs. Earlier research expected compulsive buying to have an effect on brand trust and brand switching behavior, which would worsen the brand equity of a brand (Horváth and van Birgelen, 2015). Due to the inconclusive results for both brand trust and brand switching behavior, this study cannot support this assumption.

For brand attachment, all analyses showed a significant effect. The control variables and the measurement of compulsive buying were not of influence here, resulting in corresponding findings. Although the relationship was found significant, it was not in support of the hypothesis as the sign of the effect was in contrast to the expectations. Where a negative relationship between compulsive buying and brand attachment was expected, a positive relationship was found, stating that compulsive buying behavior increases someone's attachment to a brand. As earlier research expected compulsive buyers to be less attached to

brands, it was suggested that also this would worsen the brand equity (Horváth and van Birgelen, 2015). However, based on the findings of this study, it should actually strengthen the brand equity.

5.1 Theoretical implications

This research contributes to the marketing literature by providing more insights into the motivations for buying branded products and the consumer-brand relationship of compulsive buyers. To my knowledge, Horváth and van Birgelen (2015) were the first to examine these relationships in a qualitative study. Their findings have been tested in two studies with a large-scale quantitative research. Concerning the motivations for buying branded products, the results of this study corroborate the propositions that compulsive buyers attach greater value to emotional and social benefits. No confirmation is found for the relationship of compulsive buying with the perceived value of functional benefits. This also holds for the three brand-relationship constructs. The findings concerning brand trust and brand attachment do not support the notions made by Horváth and van Birgelen (2015). The positive relationship found between compulsive buying and brand attachment weakens the theory provided by Horváth and van Birgelen (2015), as this research shows a contradictory effect.

This research also contributes to existing literature by shedding light on the effect of demographics and product categories on compulsive buying. The findings support the theory suggesting that compulsive buyers are more common among women than men (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Christenson et al., 1994). Looking at the demographic variable age, this research has eliminated some of the inconclusiveness present in existing research (Workman and Paper, 2010). It seems that compulsive buying is most pronounced by consumers within the age range 18 through 25. The findings concerning the income level and product category were not convincing enough, as not all categories showed to be significant.

Lastly, this research provides insights in the compulsive buying construct. A measurement scale for compulsive buying is used that examines compulsive buying behavior on a continuum, ranging from extremely low to extremely high forms of compulsive buying (Edwards, 1993). Earlier research had focused mainly on compulsive buying as a dichotomous construct, indicating that a consumer was either noncompulsive or compulsive (i.e. there is no in between). Since it is not such a black and white issue, taking into account various levels of compulsive buying behavior is of importance.

5.2 Managerial implications

Besides the theoretical implications, the findings of this research also are relevant for marketing managers. The results showed the primary motivations of compulsive buyers for buying branded products, which are the emotional and social brand benefits. Brand managers could use this information in their communication strategy. When the goal is reaching compulsive buyers, managers should especially stress the emotional and social benefits of the brand (e.g. design, status). A way of doing is by providing the brand with a fashionable design or advertising the social status of a brand. Important to keep in mind are the ethical issues that come with this decision. Targeting compulsive buyers and making buying attractive to them harms the buyers and is often seen as unethical. Managers should make a well-thought decision here.

Although the outcomes of this research are a little inconclusive with regard to the brand-relationship constructs, the findings do show some relationships between compulsive buying and the constructs that could harm the brand equity of the brand. This, together with earlier findings and the ethics issue, shows that the better decision may be to help compulsive buyers with their excessive and problematic behavior. Previous research has demonstrated that compulsive buyers develop less trust in a brand and are more likely to switch to another brand (Horváth and Van Birgelen, 2015). In other words, compulsive buyers are expected to be not so loyal to brands, which also affects the brand equity in a negative way. Therefore, brand managers should protect themselves for this behavior and try to influence the compulsive buying behavior. An additional advantage is the improved public image they create by helping people with problematic buying behavior. One way of influencing this behavior is by helping compulsive buyers with their self-control mechanism (Horváth, Büttner, Belei and Adigüzel, 2015). They could for example monitor the buying behavior of their customers and warn the customers if his or her buying behavior becomes too excessive. Moreover, managers who are often dealing with compulsive buyers should be more careful with the acceptance of credit cards, as it is often misused by compulsive buyers.

5.3 Limitations and further research

As with any research, also this research has some limitations that provide directions for further research. First, an interesting result was found concerning the relationship between compulsive buying behavior and brand attachment. There seemed to be a positive relationship, instead of the expected negative one. An explanation for this may be the difference between the actual and ideal self. It can be the case that the brands in question represented the

ideal self of compulsive buyers and thus did feel attached to it. Future research should examine this relationship in more detail and also take into account this difference in the selves of an individual. Moreover, it should also take a closer look at the functional benefits, brand trust and the brand switching behavior, as compulsive buying seemed to have a non significant effect on these constructs.

Second, due to the sensitivity of compulsive buying behavior the occurrence of social desirable answers exist. Although the definition and explanation of this behavior has not been provided to the respondent, people who are fully aware of their behavior could have answered in a social desirable. In order to reduce this social desirability as much as possible, the anonymity of the respondents have been made clear to them. Further research should try to eliminate this risk even more by, for example, making use of proxy subjects (Nederhof, 1985). This is a method which questions someone close to the compulsive buyer about the buying behavior of this individual. The compulsive buyer self does then only have to respond to questions related to the brand. Future research could also include a measurement scale of social desirability to measure its impact. An example of such a measurement scale is the one developed by Ray (1984).

Third, there are some limitations which concern the sample. There is only a small proportion within the sample that shows a tendency of compulsive buying, and an even smaller amount that show signs of excessive compulsive buying. Consequently, the sample is somewhat biased and this may be an explanation for some unexpected results with regard to the hypotheses tested. Further research should include more consumers with a compulsive buying tendency, and especially consumers with excessive compulsive buying behavior. Moreover, the sample consisted for a large majority of females, individuals between the age of 18 and 25 and with an income between €500 and €1,000 euros. The latter two are an indication for a sample that largely consists of students. Since multiple researches have stressed the difference in compulsive buying between men and women, further research should try to achieve a more equal dispersion. By all means, future research should also at least try to equally spread respondents with regard to age and income.

Lastly, the variable product category was included in this research as it was argued that compulsive buying differs across product categories. In addition, literature stated that the compulsivity in these product categories also differed across men and woman (Dittmar et al., 1996; Workman and Paper, 2010). However, the findings of this construct were not conclusive and further research should take a closer look at this. For example, this could be done with an experiment which divides respondents randomly over different product

categories. The experiment should try to have men and women in both groups to an approximately equal extent. Further research could then compare the different groups with each other with respect to the compulsive buying behavior.

6. Conclusion

The main goal of this research was to gather more knowledge on the role of brands for compulsive buyers. This has been done by conducting two studies which each provided an answer on a research question. The research question of the first study was: *To what extent does compulsive buying influence the motivations for buying branded products?* From the results of a regression analysis can be concluded that emotional and social benefits are the primary motivations for compulsive buyers for buying branded products. They attach great value to the design, enjoyment and social status of brands.

Concerning the second study, the research question was: *To what extent does compulsive buying influence the relationship of consumer with brands?* Again a regression analysis was conducted, which examined the brand trust, brand attachment and brand switching behavior separately. The results showed for compulsive buying to have a positive impact on brand attachment. No significant effect was found for the relationships between compulsive buying and the brand-relationship constructs brand trust and brand switching behavior. The table below provides an overview on the hypotheses tested in this research.

Table 20: Outcomes of hypothesized effects

	Hypothesized effect	Outcome
Study 1		
H1a	The positive effect of compulsive buying behavior on the perceived value of emotional brand benefits	Supported
H1b	The positive effect of compulsive buying behavior on the perceived value of the social brand benefits	Supported
H1c	The negative effect of compulsive buying behavior on the perceived value of the functional brand benefits	Not supported
Study 2		
H2	The negative effect of compulsive buying behavior on brand trust	Not supported
H3	The negative effect of compulsive buying behavior on brand attachment	Not supported
H4	The positive effect of compulsive buying behavior on brand switching behavior	Not supported

References

- Bell, D.C. (2010). *The dynamics of connection: How evolution can biology create care-giving and attachment*. Lanham, MD: Lexington.
- Bergler, E. (1958). *The Psychology of Gambling*. New York: International Universities Press.
- Black, D.W. (1996). "Compulsive Buying: A Review". *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 57, 50-55.
- Black, D.W. (2007). "A review of compulsive buying disorder". *World Psychiatry*, 6(1), 14-18.
- Black, D.W., Shaw, M., McCormick, B., Bayless, J.D. and Allen, J. (2012). "Neuropsychological performance, impulsivity, ADHD symptoms, and novelty seeking in compulsive buying disorder". *Psychiatry Research*, 200(2), 581-587.
- Bleuler, E. (1924). *Textbook of Psychiatry*, 538-541. New York: Macmillian.
- Buss, D.M. and Chiodo, L.M. (1991). "Narcissitic acts in everyday life". *Journal of Personality*, 59(2), 179-215.
- Bradlee, P.M. and Emmons, R.A. (1992). "Locating narcissism within the interpersonal circumplex and the five-factor model. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 13(7), 821-830.
- Campbell, W.K. and Foster, C.A. (2002). "Narcissism and Commitment in Romantic Relationships: An Investment Model Analysis". *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 28(4), 484-495.
- Carroll, L. (1987). "A study of narcissism, affiliation, intimacy, and power motives among students in business administration. *Psychological Reports*, 61(2), 355-358.
- Chaudhuri, A. and Holbrook, M.B. (2001). "The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to performance: The role of brand loyalty". *Journal of Marketing*, 65(2), 81-93.
- Chein, I. (1969). "Psychological functions of drug use". *Scientific basis of drug dependence*, 13-30.
- Chinomona, R. (2013). "An Empirical Examination Of The Predictors Of Consumer Compulsive Buying As An Impulse Control Disorder Not Otherwise Specified: A Branding Perspective". *The Journal of Applied Business Research*, 29(6), 1689-1704.
- Christenson, G.A., Faber, R.J., de Zwaan, M., Raymond, N.C., Specker, S.M. and Eckern, M.D. (1994). "Compulsive Buying: Descriptive Characteristics and Psychiatric Comorbidity". *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 55, 5-11.
- Coopersmith, S. (1990). "Self-esteem inventories". Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

- Crosby, L.A., Evans, K.R. and Cowles, D. (1990). "Relationship Quality in Services Selling: An Interpersonal Influence Perspective". *Journal of Marketing*, 54(3), 68-81.
- d'Astous, A. (1990). "An Inquiry into the Compulsive Side of Normal Consumers". *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 13(1), 15-31.
- d'Astous, A., Maltais, J. and Roberge, C. (1990). "Compulsive Buying Tendencies of Adolescent Consumer Advances in Consumers". *NA-Advances in Consumer Research*, 17, 306-312.
- Delgado-Ballester, E. (2003). "Development and Validation of a Brand Trust Scale". *International Journal of Market Research*, 45(1), 35-54.
- DeSarbo, W.S. and Edwards, E.A. (1996). "Typologies of compulsive buying behavior: A constrained clusterwise regression approach". *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 5(3), 231-262.
- Dittmar, H., Beattie, J. and Friese, S. (1996). "Objects, decision considerations and self-image in men's and women's impulse purchases". *Acta Psychologica*, 93(1), 187-206.
- Dittmar, H. (2005). "A new look at compulsive buying: self-discrepancies and materialistic values as predictors of compulsive buying tendency". *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 24(6), 832-859.
- Duhachek, A. (2005). "Coping: a multidimensional, hierarchical framework of responses to stressful consumption episodes". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(1), 41-53.
- Edwards, E.A. (1992). "The measurement and modeling of compulsive consumer buying behavior". *Doctoral dissertation*. Published Dissertation, the University of Michigan: University Microfilms.
- Edwards, E.A. (1993). "Development of a new Scale for Measuring Compulsive Buying Behavior". *Financial Counseling and Planning*, 4(1), 67-84.
- Elliot, R. (1994). "Addictive Consumption: Function and Fragmentation in Postmodernity". *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 17(2), 159-179.
- Ertelt, T.W., Marino, J.M., Mitchell, J.E. and Lancaster, K. (2009). "Current status of cognitive-behavioral intervention for compulsive buying disorder". *Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy*, 39(4), 213-220.
- Faber, R. J., O'Guinn, T. C. and Krych, R. (1987). Compulsive consumption. *NA-Advances in Consumer Research*, 14.
- Faber, R.J. and O'Guinn, T.C. (1992). "A clinical screener for compulsive buying". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19(3), 459-469.

- Faber, R.J. (1992). "Compulsive Buying From a Biopsychosocial Perspective". *American Behavioral Scientist*, 35(6), 809-819.
- Faber, R.J., Christenson, G.A., de Zwaan, M. and Mitchell, J. (1995). "Two Forms of Compulsive Consumption: Comorbidity of Compulsive Buying and Binge Eating". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22(3), 296-304.
- Faber, R.J. and Christenson, G.A. (1996). "In the mood to buy: differences in the mood states experiences by compulsive buyers and other consumers". *Psychology and Marketing*, 13(8), 803-819
- Feldman, M.P. and MacCulloch, M.J. (1971). *Homosexual Behavior: Therapy and Assessment*. Oxford, England: Paragon
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistics using SPSS*. Sage publications.
- Flores, P.J. (2004). *Addiction as an Attachment Disorder*. Jason Aronson.
- Foster, J.D., Shrira, I. and Campbell, W.K. (2006). "Theoretical models of narcissism, sexuality, and relationship commitment". *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 23(3), 367-386.
- Fournier, S. (1998). "Consumers and Their Brands: Developing Relationship Theory in Consumer Research". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(4), 343-373.
- Ganesan, S. (1994). "Determinants of Long-Term Orientation in Buyer-Seller Relationship". *Journal of Marketing*, 58(2), 1-19.
- Goldberg, L.R. (1981). "Language and individual differences: the search for universals in personality lexicons. *Review of Personality and Social Psychology*, 2(1), 141-165.
- Goldberg, L.R. (1990). "An alternative description of personality: the big –five factor structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(6), 1216-1229.
- Goldenson, R. M. (1984). *Longman Dictionary of Psychology and Psychiatry*, 371 and 165; 506; 37, as cited in Rook 1987. New York: Longman.
- Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J. and Anderson, R.E. (2014). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Harlow: Pearson.
- Hanley, A. and Wilhelm, M.S. (1992). "Compulsive buying: An exploration into self-esteem and money attitudes". *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 13(1), 5-18.
- Hirschmann, E.C. (1992). "The Consciousness of Addiction: Toward a General Theory of Compulsive Consumption". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19(2), 155-179.
- Horváth, C., Büttner, O.B., Belei, N. and Adigüzel, F. (2015). "Balancing the balance: Self-control mechanisms and compulsive buying". *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 49, 120-132.

- Horvath, C. and Van Birgelen, M. (2015). "The role of brands in the behavior and purchase decisions of compulsive versus noncompulsive buyers". *European Journal of Marketing*, 49(1/2), 2-21.
- Jacobs, D.F. (1986). "A General Theory of Addictions: A New Theoretical Model". *Journal of Gambling Behavior*, 2(1), 15-31.
- Jampolsky, L.L. (2008). *Healing the addictive personality: Freeing yourself from addictive patterns and relationships*. Celestial Arts.
- Keller, K.L. (1993). "Conceptualizing, Measuring, and Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity". *Journal of Marketing*, 57, 1-22.
- Kim, H.Y., Lee, M. and Lee, Y.W. (2005). "Developing a Scale For Measuring Brand Relationship Quality". *AP Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research*, 6, 118-126.
- Kim, E.J., Namkoong, K., Ku, T. And Kim, S.J. (2008). "The relationship between online game addiction and aggression, self-control and narcissistic personality traits". *European Psychiatry*, 23(3), 212-218.
- Kleine, S.S, Kleine, R.E. and Allen, C.T. (1995). "How is a possession 'me' or 'not me'? Characterizing types and an antecedent of material possession attachment". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22(3), 327-343
- Kraepelin, E. (1915). *Psychiatrie* 8th edition. Leipzig: Verlag Von Johann Ambrosius Barth, 408-409.
- Kyrios, M., Frost, R.O and Steketee, G. (2004). "Cognitions in compulsive buying and acquisition". *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 28(2), 241-258.
- Larzelere, R.E. and Huston, T.L. (1980). "The Dyadic Trust Scale: Towards Understanding Interpersonal Trust in Close Relationships". *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 42(3), 595-604.
- Leon, G.R. (1984). *Case Histories of Deviant Behavior*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Leuba, C. (1955). "Toward Some Integration of Learning Theories: The Concept of Optimal Stimulation." *Psychological Reports*, 1, 27-33.
- Malär, L., Krohmer, H., Hoyer, W.D. and Nyffenegger, B. (2011). "Emotional Brand Attachment and Brand Personality: The Relative Importance of the Actual and the Ideal Self". *Journal of Marketing*, 75(4), 35-52.
- Manolis, C. and Roberts, J.A. (2008). "Compulsive buying: Does it matter how it's measured? *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 29(4), 555-576
- Maraz, A., Griffiths, M.D. and Demetrovics, Z. (2016). "The prevalence of compulsive buying: a meta-analysis". *Addiction*, 111(3), 408-419.

- Marlatt, G.A., Baer, J.S., Donovan, D.M. and Kivlahan, D.R. (1988). "Addictive Behaviors: Etiology and Treatment". *Annual Review of Psychology*, 39(1), 223-252.
- Masterson, J.F. (1988). *The search for the real self*. New York: Free Press.
- Mazursky, D., LaBarbera, P. and Aiello, A. (1987). "When Consumers Switch Brands". *Psychology and Marketing*, 4(1), 17-30.
- McCrae, R.R. and Costa, P.T. (1987). "Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(1), 81-90.
- Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. (1991). "A Three Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment". *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1), 61-89.
- McElroy, S.L., Satlin, A., Pole, H.G. and Keck, P.E. (1991). "Treatment of Compulsive Shopping with Antidepressants. A report of three cases". *Annals of Clinical Psychiatry*, 3(3), 199-204.
- Miltenberger, R.G., Redlin, J., Crosby, R., Stickney, M., Mitchell, J., Wonderlich, S., Faber, R. and Smyth, J. (2003). "Direct and retrospective assessment of factors contributing to compulsive buying". *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry*, 34(1), 1-9.
- Morf, C.C. and Rhodewalt, F. (2001). "Unraveling the paradoxes of narcissism: A dynamic self-regulatory processing model. *Psychological Inquiry*, 12(4), 177-196.
- Mueller, A., Mitchell, J.E., Crosby, R.D., Gefeller, O., Faber, R.J., Martin, A., Bleich, S., Glaesmer, H., Exner, C. and de Zwaan, M. (2010). "Estimated prevalence of compulsive buying in Germany and its association with sociodemographic characteristics and depressive symptoms". *Psychiatry Research*, 180(2), 137-142.
- Nakken, C. (2009). *The addictive personality: Understanding the addictive process and compulsive behavior*. Simon and Schuster.
- Natarajan, R. and Goff, B.G. (1991). "Compulsive Buying: Toward A Reconceptualization". *Journal of Social behavior and Personality*, 6(6), 307-328.
- Nathan, P. E. (1988). "The addictive personality is the behavior of the addict". *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 56(2), 183.
- Nederhof, A.J. (1985). "Methods of coping with social desirability bias: a review". *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 15(3), 263-280.
- Odin, Y., Odin, N. and Valette-Florence, P. (2001). "Conceptual and operational aspects of brand loyalty: an empirical investigation". *Journal of Business Research*, 53(2), 75-84.

- O'Guinn, T.C. and Faber, R.J. (1989). "Compulsive buying: a phenomenological exploration". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(2), 147-157.
- Oliver, R. (1997). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Olsen, S.O., Tudoran, A.A., Honkanen, P. and Verplanken, B. (2016). "Differences and Similarities between Impulse Buying and Variety Seeking: A Personality-based Perspective". *Psychology and Marketing*, 33(1), 36-47.
- Otero-López, J.M. and Pol, E.V. (2013). "Compulsive buying and the Five Factor Model of personality: A facet analysis". *Personality and Individual Differences*, 55(5), 585-590.
- Park, C.W., MacInnis, D.J. and Priester, J. (2006). "Brand Attachment: Constructs, Consequences, and Causes". *Foundations and Trends in Marketing*, 1(3), 191-230.
- Park, C.W., MacInnis, D.J., Priester, J., Eisingerich, A.B. and Iacobucci D. (2010). "Brand Attachment and Brand Attitude Strength: Conceptual and Empirical Differentiation of Two Critical Brand Equity Drivers". *Journal of Marketing*, 74(6), 1-17.
- Peele, S. And Brodsky, A. (1975). *Love and Addiction*. New York: Taplinger.
- Qureshi, A.S.J.A., Zeb, F. And Saifullah, K. (2012). "The effect of personality on impulse and compulsive buying behaviors". *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(6), 2187-2194.
- Raju, P.S. (1980). "Optimum Stimulation Level: Its Relationship to Personality, Demographics, and Exploratory Behavior". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 7(3), 272-282.
- Raskin, R.N. and Novacek, J. (1991). "Narcissism and the use of fantasy". *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 47(4), 490-499.
- Ray, J.J. (1984). "The reliability of short social desirability scales". *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 123(1), 133-134.
- Rempel, J.K., Holmes, J.G. and Zanna, M.P. (1985). "Trust in Close Relationships". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49(1), 95-112.
- Ridgway, N.M., Kukar-Kiney, M. And Monroe, K.B. (2008). "An Expanded Conceptualization and a New Measure of Compulsive Buying". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35(4), 622-639.
- Rindfleisch, A., Burroughs, J.E. and Denton, F. (1997). "Family Structure, Materialism, and Compulsive Consumption". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 23(4), 312-325.
- Roberts, J.A. (1998). "Compulsive Buying Among College Students: An Investigation of Its Antecedents, Consequences, and Implications for Public Policy". *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 32(2), 295-319.
- Rook, D.W. (1987). "The Buying Impulse". *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(2), 189-199.

- Rose, P. (2007). "Mediators of the Association Between Narcissism and Compulsive Buying: The Roles of Materialism and Impulse Control". *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 21(4), 576-581.
- Salzman, L. (1981). *Psychodynamics of the Addictions*. New York: Free Press, 338-349.
- Scherhorn, G., Reisch, L.A. and Raab, G. (1990). "Addictive Buying in West Germany: An Empirical Study". *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 13, 355-387.
- Schlosser, S., Black, D.W., Repertinger, S. And Freet, D. (1994). "Compulsive buying: Demography, phenomenology and comorbidity in 46 subjects". *General Hospital Psychiatry*, 16(3), 205-221.
- Schmitz, J.M. (2005). "The Interface Between Impulse-Control Disorders and Addictions: Are Pleasure Pathway Responses Shared Neurobiological Substrates?". *Sexual Addiction and Compulsivity*, 12(2/3), 149-168.
- Sichtmann, C. (2007). "An analysis of antecedents and consequences of trust in a corporate brand". *European Journal of Marketing*, 41(9/10), 999-1015.
- Shoham, A. and Brencic, M.M. (2003). "Compulsive buying behavior". *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 20(2), 127-138.
- Sneath, J.Z., Lacey, R. and Kennett-Hensel, P.A. (2009). "Coping with a natural disaster: Losses, emotions and impulsive and compulsive buying". *Marketing Letters*, 20(1), 45-60.
- Spielberger, C., Gorsuch, R. and Lushene, R. (1970). *Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.
- Sweeney, J.C. and Soutar, G.N. (2001). "Consumer perceived value: the development of a multiple item scale". *Journal of Retailing*, 77(2), 203-220.
- Thomson, M., MacInnis, D.J. and Park, C.W. (2005). "The Ties That Bind: Measuring the Strength of Consumers' Emotional Attachments to Brands". *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 15(1), 77-91.
- Trijp, van H.C.M., Hoyer, W.D. and Inman, J.J. (1996). "Why Switch? Product Category-Level Explanations for True Variety-Seeking Behavior". *Journal of Marketing Research*, 281-292.
- Valence, G., d'Astous, A. and Fortier, L. (1988). "Compulsive Buying: Concept and Measurement". *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 11(4), 419-433.
- Wang, Y.D. and Emurian, H.H. (2005). "An overview of online trust: Concepts, elements, and implications". *Computers in Human Behavior*, 21(1), 105-125.

- Watson, P.J., Grisham, S.O., Trotter, M.V. and Biderman, M.D. (1984). "Narcissism and empathy: Validity evidence for the narcissistic personality inventory". *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 45(3), 159-162.
- Whang, Y.O., Allen, J., Sahoury, N. and Zhang, H. (2004). "Falling in love with a product: The structure of romantic consumer-product relationship". *Advances in Consumer Research*, 31(1), 320-327.
- Williams, A.D. (2012). "Evaluation of the mood repair hypothesis of compulsive buying". *Open Journal of Psychiatry*, 2, 83-90.
- Workman, L. and Paper, D. (2010). "Compulsive Buying: A Theoretical Framework". *The Journal of Business Inquiry*, 9(1), 89-126.
- Yang, Y.H. (2010). "Identification of Consumer Switching Behavior with Market Level Data". *Unpublished manuscript, University of California at Los Angeles*.
- Yurchisin, J. and Johnson, K.K.P. (2004). "Compulsive Buying Behavior and Its Relationship to Perceived Social Status Associated With Buying, Materialism, Self-Esteem, and Apparel-Product Involvement. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 32(3), 291-314.
- Zeithaml, V.A. (1988). "Consumer Perceptions of Price, Quality and Value: A Means-End Model and Synthesis of Evidence". *Journal of Marketing*, 52, 2-22.
- Zuckerman, M. (1979). *Sensation Seeking: Beyond the Optimal Level of Arousal*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Appendix

A. Measurement Scales

1 Measurement Scale Compulsive Buying

Dimensions	Items	Source
Tendency to Spend	1. I go on buying binges 2. I feel “high” when I go on a buying spree 3. I buy things even when I don’t need anything 4. I go on a buying binge when I’m upset, disappointed, depressed, or angry. 5. I buy things I don’t need or won’t use.	Edwards (1992;1993); Valence et al. (1988); Faber and O’Guinn (1992)
Compulsion/Drive to Spend	6. I feel driven to shop and spend, even when I don’t have the time or the money 7. I sometimes feel compelled to go shopping	
Feelings (Joy) about Shopping and Spending	8. I get little or no pleasure from shopping (reversed) 9. I hate to go shopping (reversed)	
Dysfunctional Spending	10. I worry about my spending habits but still go out and shop and spend money 11. I buy things even though I cannot afford them	
Post-Purchase Guilt	12. I feel anxious after I go on a buying binge 13. I feel guilty or ashamed after I go on a buying binge	
Escaping Negative Mood	14. I buy things in order to make myself feel better 15. For me, shopping is a way of facing the stress of my daily life	

2. Measurement Scale Brand Trust

Items	Source
1. Brand X is primarily interested in its own welfare (reversed)	Larzelere and Huston (1980)
2. There are times when Brand X cannot be trusted (reversed)	
3. Brand X is perfectly honest and truthful with me	
4. I feel that I can trust Brand X completely	
5. Brand X is truly sincere in its promises	
6. I feel that Brand X does not show me enough consideration (reversed)	
7. Brand X treats me fairly and justly	
8. I feel that Brand X can be counted on to help me	

3. Measurement Scale Brand Attachment

Dimensions	Items	Source
Brand-Self Connection	1. Brand X is part of me and who I am 2. I feel personally connected to Brand X	Park et al. (2010)
Brand Prominence	3. My thoughts and feelings toward Brand X are automatically coming to my mind 4. My thoughts and feelings toward Brand X come to me naturally and instantly	

4. Measurement Scale Brand Switching Behavior

Items	Source
1. I like switching from Brand X to another	Odin, Odin and Valette-Florence (2001); Raju (1980)
2. I often switch from Brand X to another	
3. During my next purchase, I will buy Brand X (reversed)	
4. I have been buying Brand X for a long time (reversed)	
5. I like trying other brands than Brand X	
6. I always buy Brand X (reversed)	
7. During my last purchases, I have always bought Brand X (reversed)	
8. Since I like Brand X, I rarely switch from it just to try something different (reversed)	
9. Usually, I buy Brand X (reversed)	
10. I would rather stick with Brand X than try something I am not very sure of (reversed)	

5. Measurement Scale Brand Benefits

Dimensions	Items	Source
Emotional Benefits	1. I value brands that give me joy 2. I value brands that that make me feel relaxed about using 3. I value brands that make me feel good 4. I value brands that give me pleasure	Sweeney and Soutar (2001)
Social Benefits	1. I value brands that help me feel acceptable 2. I value brands that improve the way I am perceived 3. I value brands that make a good impression on other people 4. I value brands that give me social approval	
Functional Benefits	1. I value brands that are well made 2. I value brands with consistent quality 3. I value brands that will not last a long time (reversed) 4. I value brands that will perform consistently 5. I value brands that have an acceptable standard of quality 6. I value brands that have poor workmanship (reversed)	

B. The Survey (in Dutch)

Beste Deelnemer/Deelneemster,

Allereerst wil ik u hartelijk bedanken voor uw deelname aan dit onderzoek. Ik ben een masterstudent aan de Radboud Universiteit in Nijmegen. Voor mijn afstuderen doe ik onderzoek naar wat consumenten vinden van merken.

Het invullen van de enquête kost ongeveer 10 minuten. Er zijn geen goede of slechte antwoorden: het gaat om uw mening! Ik zal uw gegevens geheel anoniem verwerken en met niemand delen.

Als dank voor uw medewerking verloot ik een cadeaukaart van GiftForYou ter waarde van €25,- onder de deelnemers. Deze kunt u inleveren bij verschillende restaurants naar keuze. Om kans te maken op deze prijs dient u de vragenlijst volledig af te ronden en uw e-mailadres in te vullen.

Nogmaals hartelijk dank voor uw deelname aan dit onderzoek.

Vriendelijke groet,
Daniek Willems

Voordat u begint aan het invullen van de vragenlijst wil ik u nog even wijzen op uw rechten in dit onderzoek:

- Als u vragen heeft over het onderzoek of op de hoogte gehouden wilt worden van het onderzoek kunt u een mail sturen naar daniekwillems@live.nl
- In de loop van het onderzoek kunt u zich ten alle tijden onttrekken aan uw deelname zonder negatieve gevolgen
- Er zal met al uw informatie vertrouwelijk worden omgegaan, uw antwoorden zullen anoniem worden verwerkt en u zult niet te identificeren zijn in het eindverslag
- Indien uw e-mailadres is ingevuld, zal deze niet worden gelinkt aan uw antwoorden

Bij invulling van de vragenlijst geeft u aan uw rechten te begrijpen en geeft u toestemming voor het ‘anoniem’ gebruiken van uw antwoorden in dit onderzoek

1. Hieronder vindt u stellingen over wat u belangrijk vindt aan merken. Gelieve aan te geven in welke mate u het eens of oneens bent met elke stelling:

	Helemaal mee oneens	Oneens	Enigszins Oneens	Niet mee eens of oneens	Enigszins mee eens	Eens	Helemaal mee eens
Ik hecht waarde aan merken waar ik blij van word	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken waar ik me ontspannen bij voel	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken die me een goed gevoel geven	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken die me plezier geven	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken die me helpen om me geaccepteerd te voelen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken die mij een beter aanzien geven	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken die een goede indruk maken op andere mensen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Ik hecht waarde aan merken die mij maatschappelijke erkenning geven	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken die goed zijn gemaakt	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken met consistente kwaliteit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken die niet lang meegaan	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken die goed presteren	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken met een acceptabele standaard kwaliteit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik hecht waarde aan merken met slechte competenties	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. Hieronder vindt u stellingen met betrekking tot uw koopgedrag. Gelieve aan te geven in welke mate u het eens of oneens bent met elke stelling:

	Helemaal mee oneens	Oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Niet mee eens of oneens	Enigszins mee eens	Eens	Helemaal mee eens
Ik heb soms een aanval van koopzucht (sterke drang tot kopen)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik voel me "high" als ik ga winkelen in een aanval van koopzucht	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik koop dingen, zelfs als ik niets nodig heb	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Ik ga winkelen als ik verdrietig, teleurgesteld, depressief of boos ben	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik koop dingen die ik niet nodig heb of die ik niet zal gebruiken	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik voel de drang om te winkelen en geld uit te geven, zelfs als ik geen tijd of geld heb	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik voel me soms gedwongen om te gaan winkelen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik beleef weinig of geen plezier aan het winkelen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik haat het om te gaan winkelen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik maak me zorgen over mijn bestedingspatroon, maar dat weerhoudt me er niet van om te gaan winkelen en geld uit te geven	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik koop dingen, zelfs als ik het eigenlijk niet kan betalen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik voel me bezorgd na een aanval van koopzucht	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik voel me schuldig of beschaamd na een aanval van koopzucht	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik koop dingen om mezelf beter te voelen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Voor mij is winkelen een manier om om te gaan met de stress van mijn dagelijkse leven	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
---	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

3. In welke van de volgende productcategorieën koopt u het liefst?

- ☐ Kleding
- ☐ Sportartikelen
- ☐ Producten voor in huis
- ☐ Electronica
- ☐ Gereedschap
- ☐ Schoeisel
- ☐ Lichaamsverzorgingsproducten
- ☐ Sieraden

4. Wat is uw laatst gekochte **merk** binnen deze productcategorie?

5. Hieronder vindt u stellingen met betrekking tot uw mening over dit laatst gekochte merk. Gelieve aan te geven in welke mate u het eens of oneens bent met elke stelling:

	Helemaal mee oneens	Oneens	Enigszins oneens	Niet mee eens of oneens	Enigszins mee eens	Eens	Helemaal mee eens
Dit merk handelt vooral in het eigenbelang	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik vind dit merk niet altijd betrouwbaar	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dit merk komt heel eerlijk en betrouwbaar over op mij	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik kan volledig op dit merk vertrouwen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dit merk is werkelijk oprecht in zijn	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

beloften							
Dit merk toont geen respect naar mij	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dit merk komt op mij eerlijk en rechtvaardig over	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik kan op dit merk rekenen om mij service te verlenen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dit merk is onderdeel van mij en van wie ik ben	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik voel me persoonlijk verbonden met dit merk	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mijn gedachten en gevoelens ten opzichte van dit merk komen automatisch naar boven	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mijn gedachten en gevoelens ten opzichte van dit merk voelen voor mij natuurlijk en komen direct bij mij op	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Ik vind het leuk om van dit merk over te stappen naar een ander merk	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik stap vaak over van dit merk naar een ander merk	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tijdens mijn volgende aankoop zal ik dit merk kopen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik koop dit merk al een lange tijd	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik vind het leuk om andere merken dan dit merk te proberen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik koop dit merk altijd	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tijdens mijn laatste aankopen heb ik dit merk altijd gekocht	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik stap zelden over van dit merk op een ander merk	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Meestal koop ik dit merk	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ik blijf liever bij dit merk dan dat ik iets	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

probeer waar ik niet zeker van ben							
---	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

7. Wat is uw geslacht?

- ☐ Man
- ☐ Vrouw

8. Wat is uw leeftijd?

- ☐ Jonger dan 18 jaar
- ☐ 18-25 jaar
- ☐ 26-35 jaar
- ☐ 36-45 jaar
- ☐ 47-55 jaar
- ☐ 56-65 jaar
- ☐ 66 jaar of ouder

9. Wat is uw maandelijkse netto inkomen?

- ☐ €0 - €500
- ☐ €500 - €1.000
- ☐ €1.000 - €1.500
- ☐ €1.500 - €2.000
- ☐ €2.000 - €2.500
- ☐ €2.500 - €3.000
- ☐ €3.000 of meer
- ☐ Dit is privé

10. Wilt u kans maken over de cadeaukaart van GiftForYou, vul dan hieronder uw e-mailadres in:

Bedankt voor uw tijd om aan deze enquête deel te nemen.

Uw antwoord is geregistreerd.

C. Factor Analysis

1. Discriminant Validity Study 1

	Factor			
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
Compulsive buying 1	.733			
Compulsive buying 2	.668			
Compulsive buying 3	.748			
Compulsive buying 4	.737			
Compulsive buying 5	.719			
Compulsive buying 6	.817			
Compulsive buying 7	.665			
Compulsive buying 10	.673			
Compulsive buying 11	.688			
Compulsive buying 14	.586			
Compulsive buying 15	.754			
Emotional benefit 1		.818		
Emotional benefit 2		.803		
Emotional benefit 3		.866		
Emotional benefit 4		.850		
Social benefit 1			.749	
Social benefit 2			.864	
Social benefit 3			.898	
Social benefit 4			.842	
Functional benefit 1				.646
Functional benefit 2				.749
Functional benefit 4				.617
Functional benefit 5				.639

2. Convergent Validity Study 1

	Factor		Factor
	<i>1</i>		<i>1</i>
Compulsive buying 1	.747	Emotional benefit 1	.866
Compulsive buying 2	.698	Emotional benefit 2	.862
Compulsive buying 3	.765	Emotional benefit 3	.904
Compulsive buying 4	.730	Emotional benefit 4	.892
Compulsive buying 5	.732		
Compulsive buying 6	.835		
Compulsive buying 7	.665		
Compulsive buying 10	.686		
Compulsive buying 11	.686		
Compulsive buying 14	.616		
Compulsive buying 15	.749		
	Factor		Factor
	<i>1</i>		<i>1</i>
Emotional benefit 1	.754	Social benefit 1	.827
Emotional benefit 2	.846	Social benefit 2	.902
Emotional benefit 3	.599	Social benefit 3	.920
Emotional benefit 4	.581	Social benefit 4	.871

3. Discriminant Validity Study 2

	Factor				
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
Compulsive buying 1	.709				
Compulsive buying 2	.690				
Compulsive buying 3	.750				
Compulsive buying 4	.727				
Compulsive buying 5	.725				
Compulsive buying 6	.807				
Compulsive buying 7	.671				
Compulsive buying 10	.695				
Compulsive buying 11	.714				
Compulsive buying 14	.625				
Compulsive buying 15	.735				
Brand trust 2		.686			
Brand trust 3		.850			
Brand trust 4		.859			
Brand trust 5		.828			
Brand trust 7		.787			
Brand trust 8		.620			
Brand attachment 1			.773		
Brand attachment 2			.816		
Brand attachment 3			.844		
Brand attachment 4			.842		
Brand switching 1				.725	
Brand switching 2				.748	
Brand switching 5				.778	
Brand loyalty 3					.715
Brand loyalty 4					.729
Brand loyalty 6					.759
Brand loyalty 7					.790
Brand loyalty 9					.818

4. Convergent Validity Study 2

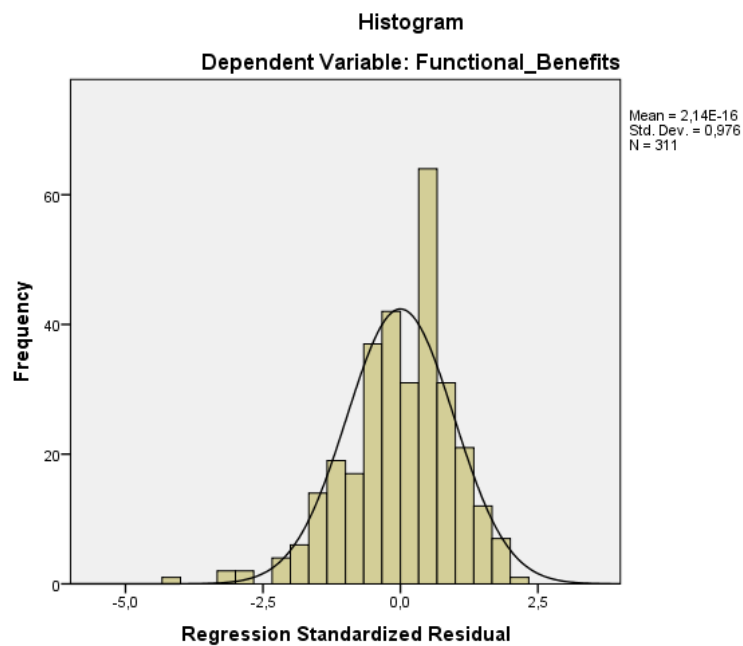
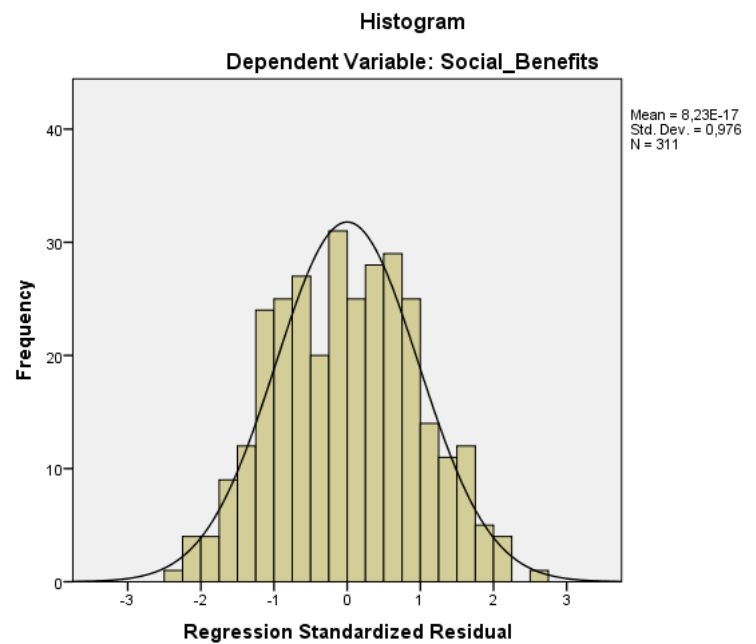
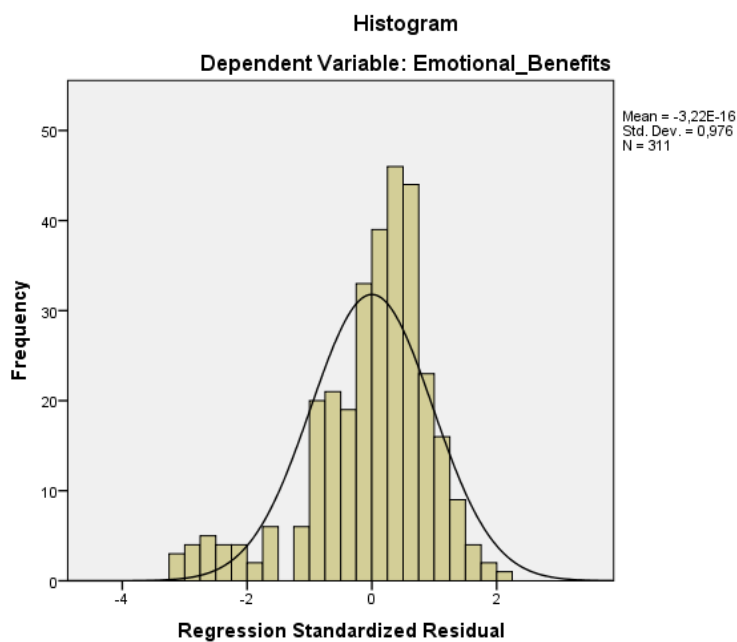
	Factor		Factor
	<i>1</i>		<i>1</i>
Compulsive buying 1	.742	Brand trust 2	.684
Compulsive buying 2	.695	Brand trust 3	.843
Compulsive buying 3	.759	Brand trust 4	.871
Compulsive buying 4	.734	Brand trust 5	.853
Compulsive buying 5	.729	Brand trust 7	.790
Compulsive buying 6	.834	Brand trust 8	.656
Compulsive buying 7	.677		
Compulsive buying 10	.694		Factor
Compulsive buying 11	.694		<i>1</i>
Compulsive buying 14	.619	Brand switching 1	.858
Compulsive buying 15	.740	Brand switching 2	.864
		Brand switching 5	.816

	Factor 1
Brand attachment 1	.827
Brand attachment 2	.902
Brand attachment 3	.920
Brand attachment 4	.871

	Factor 1
Brand loyalty 3	.815
Brand loyalty 4	.683
Brand loyalty 6	.876
Brand loyalty 7	.870
Brand loyalty 9	.884

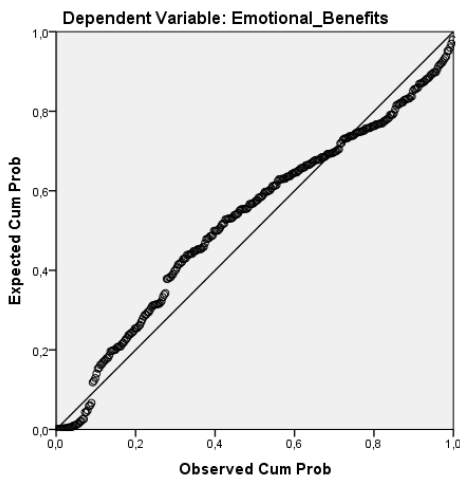
D. Assumptions Regression Analysis

1. Normality Plots Study 1 – Emotional, Social and Functional Benefits

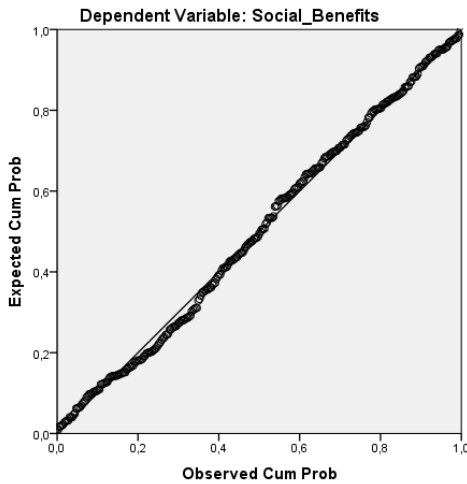


2. Regression Plots Study 1 – Emotional, Social and Functional Benefits

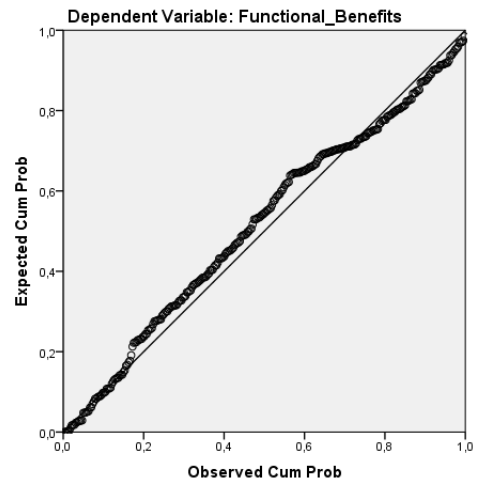
Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



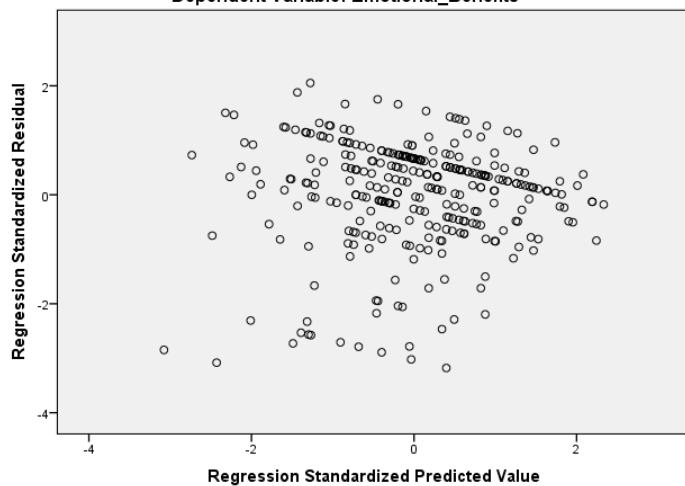
Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



3. Residuals Plots Study 1 – Emotional, Social and Functional Benefits

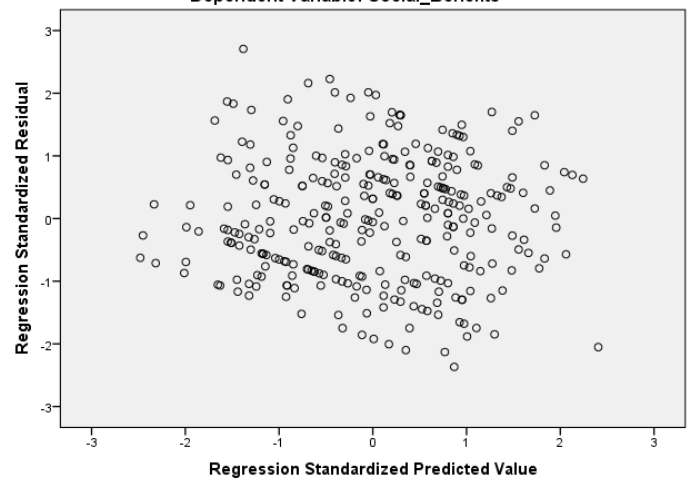
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: Emotional_Benefits



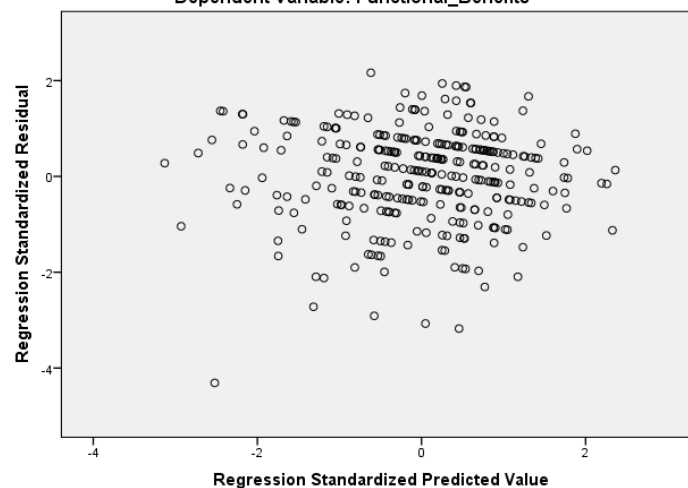
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: Social_Benefits

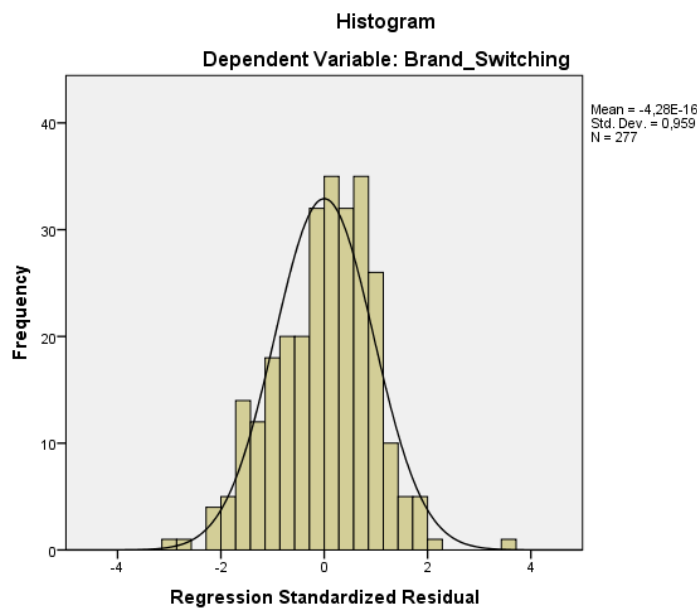
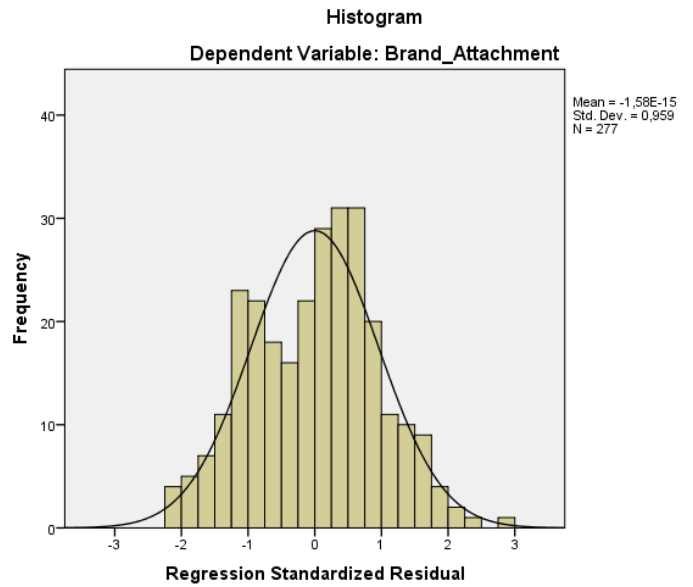
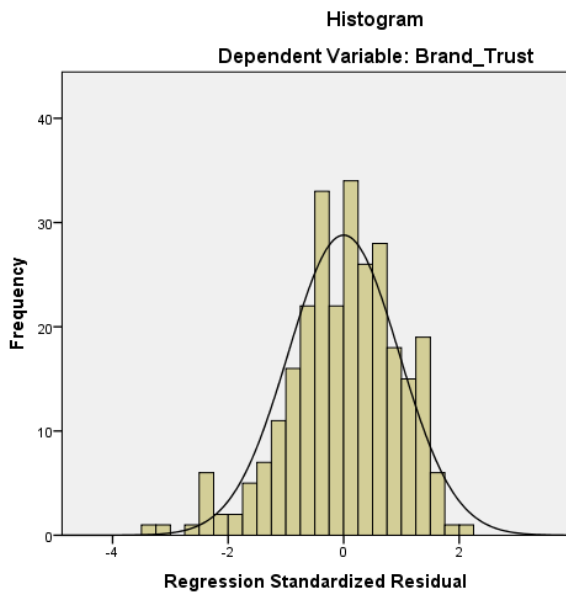


Scatterplot

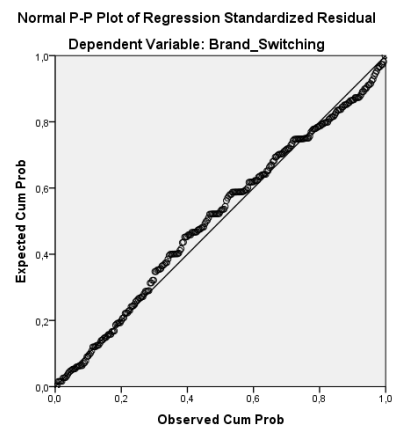
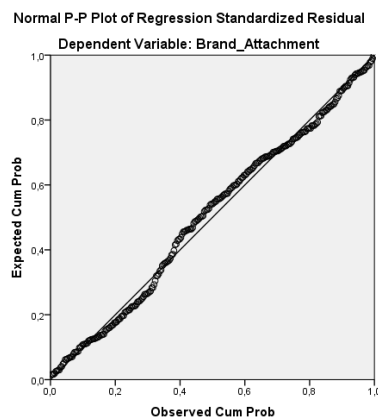
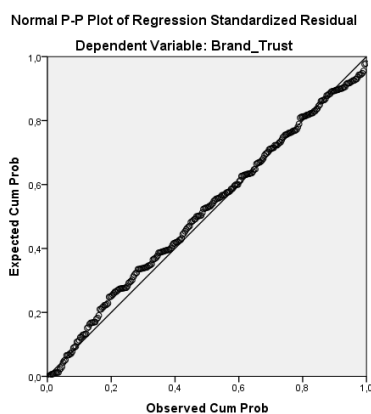
Dependent Variable: Functional_Benefits



4. Normality Plots Study 2 – Brand Trust, Brand Attachment and Brand Switching Behavior



5. Regression Plots Study 2 – Brand Trust, Brand Attachment and Brand Switching Behavior



6. Residuals Plots Study 2 – Brand Trust, Brand Attachment and Brand Switching Behavior

