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**INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF BRAND LOYALTY AND HAPPINESS ON
CONSUMERS' IMPULSE BUYING TENDENCY**

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Abstract

The concept of happiness has been extensively studied in psychology but has received limited attention in the marketing field as the antecedent of the consumer behavior aspects such as impulse buying and brand loyalty. To test the hypothesis we conducted the survey of Iranian consumers using the convenience sampling method. Questionnaires were distributed to university, and college students. This research considers the effect of happiness on impulse buying and brand loyalty and examines how brand loyalty affects impulse buying. The regression analysis was used to assess the assumed effects. The assumption of the existence of the relationship between happiness, impulsive buying and brand loyalty was not supported, revealing that this phenomenon still requires further scientific attention. Contrary to the predictions the brand loyalty was positively related to the affective aspect of impulsive buying tendency. This study contributes to the understanding of the reasons for the brand loyalty and impulse buying, where the latter is associated with negative outcomes with respect to the individual.

Introduction

Previous studies, the current research proposes that the social effect can have an impact on the customer's unplanned in-store buying. Since, the customers shopping in the retail shops are the social unit for which it receives an effect from social participations. Unplanned buying behavior is implicitly defined as the shopping practices that are the results from exposure to in-store stimuli by which customer may have new created needs and/or be reminded for temporarily forgotten needs (Bell, Corsten & Knox, 2011; Hui, et. al., 2013). Meanwhile, Inman, Winer and Ferraro (2009) defined that unplanned buying behavior is a purchase without specific plan before the shopping event. It can be inferred that there is a situation that customer (s) buys the product without purchasing intention before going to the store. Furthermore, social influence can happen when there is a transmission of information among people who are connected to one another. Thus, one may have a buying behavior deviate from his/her own practices when there is the information transmission from his/her connected people. For example, one may receive an experience of product usage from his/her friend/relative/family member. Even the customers received the advertising information but they might not expose to the reminding message in the store, the customers perhaps buying the item. Due to today's economic uncertainty and surplus expendable such aspects as organization social responsibility. Public well-being and, especially, the happiness of an individual becomes of particular importance. Happiness or subjective well-being is associated with a preferable person's behavior of in the society. However, the results of research completed imply that those members of society who are prone to increasing consumption are less happy (Podoshen, Andrzejewski, & Hunt, 2014). These propensity lead to rival and impela search for new, more socially responsible marketing solutions among the corporations which traditionally were portrait short-term aims were seeking for as bigger as possible consumption irrespective of negative social resultant, such as reduced happiness and subjective well-being. Happiness, subjective well-being or habit and satisfaction recently be an object of profit among scientists who work in diverse fields. Since acquisition of material goods does not meet expectations because it is not characterized by long-term affect, this finally leads to reduction positive sensations or even dissatisfaction with life in general (Segal & Podoshen, 2013; Tsang et al., 2014).

Silvera, Lavack & Kropp (2008) notes that subjective well-being has been widely uncouple in psychological research. However, there are relatively few survey of subjective well-being referral in the field of marketing. Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002), concluding that materialists are less happy and less satisfied with life (Belk, 1985; Richins & Dawson, 1992; Roberts & Clement, 2007; Ryan & Dziurowiec, 2001; Christopher, Saliba, & Deadmarsh, 2009; Richins, 2013; Segal & Podoshen, 2013; Tsang et al, 2014). Priorly remind association implies that less happy consumers are likely to be more prone to impulsive buying conduct research results



which reveal the reality that impulse buying can do as a mechanism that lets eschew of negative psychological state (Silvera et al., 2008; Verplanken, Herabadi, Perry, & Silvera, 2005). To endure positive sensations, these consumers are swept to new acquisitions that are perceived as a potential resource of positive emotions. Consumers of materially oriented society in order to sustain a state of happiness likely will buy such goods which, as they suppose, make them happy and will avoid experimentation in order to prevent disappointment and possible state of unhappiness that arises from a risk of change of brand (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012). Consumers who see happiness as the most substantial factors will not be prone to switching brands. It is static in the literature of relevance marketing that as bigger perceived hazard will arise in connection with making of future decisions, as more consumers are prone to decrease options and to become loyal to a special brand (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995). According to Troisi, Christopher, & Marek (2006), it is very likely that materialists (who on the basis of research outcomes are characterized as less happy) do not wish diversity of acquisitions. On the basis of reasons expressed, the authors of this paper presuppose that the happiness of consumers should have a negative impact on brand loyalty. However, there have been no general studies intended to find out how life consent is related to consumer buying behavior and attitude towards a brand (Lysonski, 2014). This paper tests the dependence between consumer happiness, impulse buying and brand loyalty. Our perusal contributes to consumer behavior field by investigating the link between consumer happiness, impulse buying and brand loyalty that have been given relatively little notice in the scientific literature.). Materialists are prone to constant adjustment of their unreasonably high material aspirations by raising personal paragon each time higher, they perceive material acquisitions as natural phenomena as soon as material wants are met (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012).

Theoretical background and hypotheses development

Happiness and impulse buying

Subjective well-being (or happiness) is a multifaceted construct consisting of positive affect (relatively many positive sensations), lack of negative effect (relatively few unpleasant emotions) and life satisfaction judgments (Diener, Lucas, & Oishi, 2002; Hofmann, Luhmann, Fisher, Vohs, & Baumeister, 2014; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012). Subjective well-being refers to hedonic pleasure or happiness (Chen, Yao, & Yan, 2014). In this study, subjective well-being (hereinafter happiness) is explain as the individual's universal judgment of life satisfaction. Impulse buying is defined as relatively extraordinary and exciting consumer experience that is characterized by "sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately" (Rook, 1987). Similarly Beatty & Ferrell (1998) describe impulse buying as the spontaneous, sudden and immediate urge to buy without pre-purchase intentions and deliberations. According to Sharma, Sivakumaran, & Marshall (2010), in this hedonically complex buying behavior, the speedy of the impulse buying resolutions prevents any cautious consideration of alternatives or future consequences. Consumer behavior which manifests itself in an irresistible desire to make a buy in the attendance of unappealing object. Therefore authors (Zhang & Shrum, 2009; Punj, 2011) assume it being the growth of the inner conflict between the pleasure-seeking consumption and the self-control to resist the impulse, which translates into increased impulse buying when the tendency to consume triumph over the willpower to resist. According to Silvera et al. (2008) impulse buying might serve as an escape from negative psychological states.

Verplanken et al. (2005) found that generic impulse buying tendency was correlated with long-term negative mood and low self-esteem. Therefore, the mentioned authors de duce that impulse buying could be a percussion response of buyer's effort to reduction the disappointment and depression associated with stressful accidents. The consumer propensity for impulse buying is supposed to be induced by the belief that it is usually accompanied by a positive emotional variation (Amos, Holmes, & Keneson, 2014) and may be invoked to reduce distress (Sneath et al., 2009). In addition, research demonstrates that materialistic consumers (who tend to be less happy) show higher sentiment toward impulse buying (Badgaiyan & Verma, 2014). Given that, we hypothesize that:

H1: Happiness has an adverse impact on impulse buying.

Happiness and brand loyalty

Brand loyalty is describe as a deep guarantee to buy the preferred brand frequently and continuously in the future despite the influences of situational factors and the marketing efforts to switch to another brand (Oliver, 1999). Attitudinal loyalty reflects the consumers' psychological disposition in terms of only values associated with the brand (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001) and is a result of brand commitment and desirable attitude toward the brand (Odin, Odin, & Valette-Florence, 2001). Strong emotional attachment to the brand imagine to be the potent predictor of loyalty (Dunn & Hoegg, 2014). Behavioral loyalty is explained as renewal purchase behavior and the percentage of general purchases (Chiu et al., 2013). Except few studies (Silvera et al., 2008; Chiu et al., 2013), the relationship between happiness and brand loyalty received scarce attendance As suggested by Kukar-



Kinney, Ridgway, & Monroe (2012), the centralization on well-known and higher value brands is induced by the necessity of recognition providing better impression and boosting buyer self-esteem.

Consumers engage in materialistic waster implicitly believing it may increase their self-esteem (Shrum et al., 2014). Others authors (Rindfleisch, Burroughs, & Wong, 2009) found that materialistic consumers (who are less happy) establish a potent connection with their brands as they are in requirement of the symbolic safety that brand junctions may provide. Albeit based on the difference paraphrase of prevailing psychological mechanism, the presupposed negative relationship is also natural in the research of other authors. Thus, it is proposed that:

H2: Happiness has an adverse impact on brand loyalty.

Brand loyalty and impulse buying

Some authors (Thompson & Prendergast, 2015; d'Astous, 1990; Clark & Calleja, 2008) observe the impulse buying as a milder manifestation of the compulsive buying, where impulse purchase represents the first stage and compulsive buying befall on the upper extreme of the same behavioral continuum. The current research adopts the latter conceptualization suggesting that the two differ primarily in the strength of the behavior. Compulsive buyers experiment a lower degree of brand attachment due to their diversity seeking nature while non-compulsive buyers trust their favorite brand and comprehend buying other brands as riskier (Horváth & Birgelen, 2015). As Punj (2011) states, the different seeking in the literature is accompanied by such concepts as "satiation, boredom, curiosity, novelty, change and stimulation" that seems to conceptually overlapping with impulse buying behavior. Similarly Sharma et al. (2010) state that both variety seeking, and impulse buying provides consumers with excitement and novelty in their purchase experiences, offer a change of pace and relief from boredom. Assuming that brand loyal consumers do not desire variety we propose that:

H3: Brand loyalty has an adverse impact impulse buying.

Methodology

Sampling and data collection

The research is exploratory in its nature. To test the hypothesis we conducted the survey of Iranian consumers using the convenience sampling method. Questionnaires were distributed to university, and college students. In total 313 questionnaires were collected. The 311 questionnaires were considered valid after the incomplete and faulty questionnaires were excluded. There were 207 females (66.66%) and 104 males (33.4%) in the sample. The vast majority of the respondents belong to the age group of 18 to 24 years (50.8%) and of 25 to 35 years (25.1%). Slightly more than half of respondents (51.8%) are still studying at the university or college. Respectively 49.2% of respondents fall into the low-income categories. However, 12.2% of respondents placed themselves to the relatively high-income group. The independent-samples t-tests were performed to compare the dependent variables scores (impulse buying tendency total, subscales, and brand loyalty) for gender, education, age and income variables. Prior to this procedure, we reduced the number of categories of categorical variables.

Measurement instrument

To measure the brand loyalty, impulse buying tendency and happiness we adopted previously established and validated scales within this study. The respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agree with each item on a 7-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to agree strongly (7). We operationalized brand loyalty using three item scale of Ailawadi, Neslin and Gedek (2001). To measure the impulsive buying tendency we used the twenty item scale developed by Verplanken and Herabadi (2001). The impulsive buying tendency is treated as the higher order construct including cognitive and affective aspect. To capture the happiness we employed the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Pavot, Diener, Colvin & Sandvik, 1991), which consists of five items. Cronbach alpha coefficients for all scales are considered acceptable.

Results

Descriptive results, measurement model and convergent validity

As noted, all constructs were assessed using 5-point Likert type scales. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics, Bivariate correlations, average variance extracted (AVE), composites reliability (CR) and Cronbach alpha (CA) for the model constructs. As depicted in Table 1, the means of the constructs range from 3.31 to 4.04. Before testing the model, normality and validity of the measures were established by statistical normality tests and factor analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998; Malhotra, 1987). The calculated z-values and graphical analysis of the variables suggested that the data distribution was normal (i.e., z-values were between +1.96 and -1.96). The convergent and discriminant validity of the brand loyalty, Impulse buying Intention, Happiness were tested by confirmatory factor analysis using the ordinary Least Squares estimator of LISREL 8.73 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). The discriminant validity of the scales was checked by the Fornell and



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Larcker's (1981) formula. Discriminant validity is present when the square of the AVE from each construct is greater than inter correlations. As can be seen from Table 1, it can be seen that the values in the diagonals are greater than the values in their respective row and column thus indicating the measures used in this study are distinct. We used the factor loadings (see table2), composite reliability and average variance extracted to assess convergence validity (see table1). The recommended values for loadings are set at > 0.5, the average variance extracted (AVE) should be > 0.5 and the composite reliability (CR) should be > 0.7. From Table 1 it can be seen that we have startup intention as first order constructs. From table 1 it can be seen that the results of the measurement model exceeded the recommended values thus indicating sufficient convergence validity. In order to assess the reliability of measurement items, we compute composite construct reliability coefficients and Cronbach Alpha. Composite reliabilities range from 0.805 (for brand loyalty) to 0.907 (for happiness), which exceed the recommended level of 0.7. The results (see table 1), therefore, demonstrate a reasonable reliability level of the measured items.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Correlations, AVE, CR, CA and mean

	FO	MP	MPI	SV	AVE	CR	CA	Mean
Brand loyalty	0.762				0.580	0.805	0.646	3.997
Impulse buying	0.247	0.850			0.723	0.887	0.809	3.319
happiness	0.425	0.393	0.875		0.765	0.907	0.847	3.835

The diagonal figures in bold indicate the average variances extracted (AVE) for constructs. The scores in the upper diagonal are Pearson correlations.

Table 2. Loading factors and t-value

Construct	items	Loading factor	t-value
Brand loyalty	Fo1	0.72	12.84
	Fo2	0.54	9.55
	Fo3	0.64	11.43
happiness	Mp1	0.83	-
	Mp2	0.78	15.65
	Mp3	0.83	16.57
Impulse buying	Mpi1	0.68	-
	Mpi2	0.67	11.58
	Mpi3	0.64	9.13

Goodness of fit statistics

The primary method for model testing was structural equations modelling by means of LISREL 8.73 and the polychromic correlation matrix as input. Ordinary Least Squares was used as the model estimation method due to using ordinal scales for measurement (Joreskog&Sorbom, 1996). This testing confirms a model's goodness of fit, and the hypothesized paths. The overall fit of the structural model is determined initially by examining the chi-square statistic which, along with the associated probability value. The X2 test was statistically significant which indicated an inadequate fit. However, this statistic is mostly influenced by sample size and model complexity. Therefore rejection of a model on the basis of this test alone is inadequate (Hair et al., 1998). The other fit indices such as Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted GFI, Norm Fit Index (NFI), and Critical Fit Index (CFI) are also used to assess goodness of fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The results of the Model indices support a good overall model fit (Chi-Square=85.74, DF=49($\chi^2/df=1.750$), RMSEA=0.045, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.98, NNFI=0.99, GFI=0.96, RFI=0.96. Goodness fit statistics: chi-square= 85.74, df= 49($\chi^2/df=1.750$). RMSEA=0.045, CFI=0.99, NNFI=0.99, GFI=0.96, RFI=0.96.

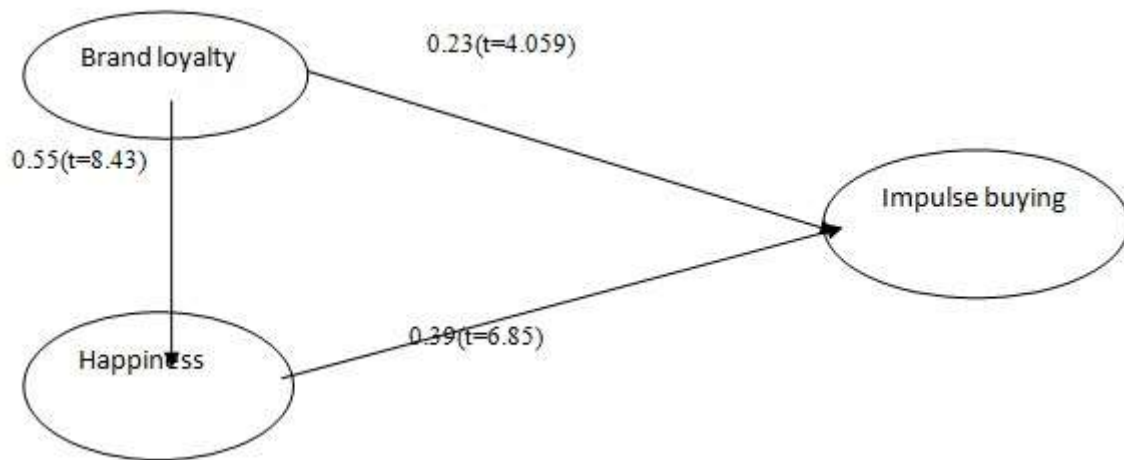


Fig 1. Research Model in Estimation and Significant situation

Structural model

As shown in Table 3. To evaluate the structural models’ predictive power, we calculated the R², R² indicates the amount of variance explained by the exogenous variables (Barclay ET al.1995). Using a T-value technique with a sampling of 369, the path estimates and t-statistics were calculated for the hypothesized relationships. All hypotheses were supported in the testing at P<0.05: As shown in Table 3 and fig 1, the path coefficients and result of hypotheses. The current research predicts, in H1, that brand loyalty has a positive relationship with happiness. The results of the study support this proposition (Standardized Path Coefficient (beta) = 0.55, t = 8.43, p < 0.05). The findings of the model testing also support H2 (beta = 0.40, t = 5.47, p < 0.01), H3 (beta = 0.38, t = 4.94, p < 0.01) and H4 (beta = 0.64, t = 7.54, p < 0.01) and therefore confirms that happiness and brand loyalty have a positive influence on impulse buying. H5a–H5b suggests that happiness mediates the effects of the brand loyalty and happiness on impulse buying. As can be seen from the results of the partial mediation model in Table 3 brand loyalty (beta = 0.39, t = 6.85, p < 0.01), happiness (beta = 0.23, t = 4.049, p < 0.01). Approximately, 31% of the variance of happiness is explained by brand loyalty, approximately 57% of the variance of impulse buying is explained by brand loyalty and happiness and finally 34% of the variance of impulse buying is explained.

Table 3. Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Beta	t-value	R ²	Result	Sign
H1: happiness → brand loyalty	0.55	8.43	0.31	Supported	+
H2: happiness → impulse buying	0.40	5.47	0.57	Supported	+
H3: brand loyalty → impulse buying	0.38	4.94		Supported	+

P<0.05, |t|>2.58 Significant at P<0.01

Conclusion

The purpose of the current research was to investigate the relationships between happiness, brand loyalty and their effect on consumer impulse buying. This is an important aspect in studying consumer behavior because happiness and impulse buying are related definitions in this context. Also brand loyalty is an important aspect among consumers. The results generated from this study expressed that there is strong relations between the discussed constructs including happiness, brand loyalty and impulse buying. Results show that happiness has an influence on brand loyalty and it also affects impulse buying. It is also concluded from the results that brand loyalty has direct effect on impulse buying. The knowledge constructed by this paper can be used by managers and researchers in order to make plan in a way that they can make consumers happier and more loyal and as a result the consumers will buy more of their products. Future researches might be conducted about this context with investigating the relationship between the constructs of this study and other variables in the context of consumer behavior.



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