Framing the Deal: The Interaction of Discount Type, Price Level, and Consumer Self-Control in Shaping Purchase Intentions

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates how discount framing (percentage vs. monetary) affects customer purchase intention, with product price level and trait self-control being considered potential moderators. An online experiment employing a between-subjects design (N = 320) randomly assigned participants to evaluate fictitious promotional offers for either a low-priced (shampoo) or high-priced (smartphone) product. The findings indicated a strong significant influence of discount type on purchase intention. This effect was further tempered by the product price: at low price points, percentage-based reductions resulted in much higher purchase intentions than monetary discounts. In contrast, trait self-control and its interactions did not exhibit any statistically significant effects. These findings suggest that situational variables, specifically price point and discount type, have a greater influence on consumer responses than stable psychological factors. This study contributes to the price framing literature by identifying the conditional strength of percentage discounts and challenging the practical influence of self-control under typical purchasing settings. From a managerial perspective, the findings underscore the significance of tailoring promotional techniques to align with product attributes and contextual factors. Future studies should explore emotionally charged or high-pressure situations, when self-regulation may play a larger role. Overall, this study contributes to a more contextualized knowledge of discount effectiveness and offers actionable insights for psychologically informed marketing strategy.

Keywords: price discount, discount framing, purchase intention, self-control, consumer behavior

Título: Enquadrando a Oferta: A Interação entre Tipo de Desconto, Nível de Preço e Autocontrole do Consumidor na Formação da Intenção de Compra

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RESUMO

Este estudo investiga como a formulação do desconto (percentual vs. monetário) influencia a intenção de compra do consumidor, considerando o nível de preço do produto e o autocontrolo como possíveis moderadores. Um experimento online com desenho entre sujeitos (N = 320) atribuiu aleatoriamente participantes para avaliar ofertas promocionais fictícias de um produto de baixo preço (champô) ou alto preço (smartphone). Os resultados revelaram um efeito principal significativo do tipo de desconto sobre a intenção de compra. Esse efeito foi moderado pelo preço do produto: em preços baixos, descontos percentuais geraram intenções de compra significativamente mais altas do que os monetários. Em contraste, o autocontrolo e suas interações não produziram efeitos estatisticamente significativos. Esses achados sugerem que variáveis situacionais, como o nível de preço e o tipo de desconto, exercem maior influência sobre as respostas dos consumidores do que traços psicológicos estáveis. O estudo contribui para a literatura de formulação de preços ao identificar a força condicional dos descontos percentuais e questionar o impacto do autocontrolo em condições normais de compra. Do ponto de vista gerencial, os resultados destacam o valor de adaptar estratégias promocionais às características do produto e do contexto. Pesquisas futuras devem explorar ambientes emocionalmente carregados ou de alta pressão, onde a autorregulação possa ter papel mais relevante.

Palavras-chave: desconto de preço, enquadramento promocional, intenção de compra, autocontrole, comportamento do consumidor

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AI USAGE DISCLOSURE

Artificial intelligence (AI) tools were used in a strictly supportive capacity during the preparation of this master's thesis. Their use always remained under my full academic oversight and control. At no point did AI replace independent academic work, critical thinking, or authorship, nor did it contribute original ideas or academic judgment.

ChatGPT (OpenAI) was used to:

- Support the organization of literature by summarizing abstracts and highlighting potential relevance; final selection and critical evaluation of all sources were conducted independently by the author.
- Improve grammar, sentence structure, and clarity throughout the thesis.
- Paraphrase and condense content to enhance readability and academic tone.
- Clarify statistical concepts and SPSS outputs (all analyses and conclusions were conducted and validated independently by the author).
- Provide non-binding suggestions on text structure and formatting (e.g., APA 7 compliance, section organization).
- Reword and shorten content to meet the 13,000-word limit.
- Translate and condense the abstract into Portuguese within the word count.

DeepL Write was used during final editing to:

- Improve grammar, clarity, and consistency in English writing.

All academic content and critical thinking were carried out independently by me. AI tools were used strictly for language improvement and formal presentation purposes. This declaration is made under academic integrity standards to ensure full transparency regarding the use of AI in this thesis.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PI – Purchase Intention

TPB – Theory of Planned Behavior

S-O-R – Stimulus-Organism-Response Model

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Sales promotion promotions have evolved from simple short-term incentives into vital components of contemporary marketing strategies. Modern sales strategies go beyond boosting rapid sales. Instead, they are instrumental in shaping the brand image and fostering long-term consumer loyalty (Iyer et al., 2020; Chandon et al., 2000). This strategic positioning exerts a significant influence on the business landscape. Companies are compelled to confront mounting expenses in marketing and escalating competitive pressures. This has prompted a shift in focus towards enhancing the efficiency of their promotional activities. In this regard, businesses need to examine consumer responses to diverse offer types (Gardner, 2022).

Consumers are constantly bombarded with promotional activities, particularly in the digital realm. To remain competitive and suit consumers' particular needs, brands must develop personalized, data-driven strategies (Aparicio & Eckles, 2023). This is especially crucial because online marketing promotes spontaneous buying. It should be emphasized that around 60% of purchases are unplanned (Mattila & Wirtz, 2008). Furthermore, US consumers spend approximately $17 billion each year on online impulse purchases, amounting to an average of $5,400 per person (Tran, 2019).

Sales promotions can act as a catalyst for these impulse purchases (Huseynzade, 2023). The most prevalent kinds are monetary and percentage discounts, which vary depending on the product price. Monetary discounts are more effective for high-priced items due to easier cognitive processing (González et al., 2016; DelVecchio et al., 2007; Chen et al., 1998). In contrast, percentage discounts have a greater impact on low-cost products (Zhou & Gu, 2015; Ailawadi et al., 2006). However, these effects are not consistent across all product categories, and there is no uniform theoretical explanation for this phenomenon (Zhou & Gu, 2015). Chandon et al. (2000) underscored the significance of discount design on purchase intention in their study.

However, the majority of research has focused on general effects, often not considering the interaction between discount format and contextual elements such as price level and consumer psychology (Gorji & Siami, 2022; Zhang et al., 2017). Nonetheless, consumer psychology exerts a considerable influence on the formation of purchase intention. A psychological factor

that might influence these outcomes is self-control. It can be described as the ability to overcome short-term temptations in order to achieve long-term objectives (Baumeister, 2007). Research indicates that individuals with limited self-control are more prone to react to advertising and exhibit impulsive behaviors (Baumeister et al., 2024; Iyer et al., 2020). Nonetheless, empirical research concerning the interaction between self-control mechanisms and discount design remains unexplored (Zhou & Gu, 2015; Vohs & Faber, 2007).

This study addresses this gap in the literature by investigating whether monetary or percentage discounts have a greater influence on purchase intention and whether this effect is influenced by the product price and customers' self-control. The objective of this study is to enhance the comprehension of the factors that influence consumers' decisions and to formulate psychologically effective advertising strategies.

1.2 Relevance

Price promotions have been identified as a well-established strategic instrument in retail marketing. Nevertheless, the effectiveness and application of monetary versus percentage discounts remain insufficiently understood (Gardner, 2022; Khonsor, 2020; Gonzalez et al., 2016). In addition, the success of discount formats stems from a multifaceted interplay of contextual, cognitive, and emotional factors. These include product-related variables like pricing and individual variances (Baumeister et al., 2024; Sutrisno, 2023; Gardner, 2022; Ailawadi et al., 2006).

A pivotal psychological factor that may influence the success of promotions is self-control. Research indicates that individuals with limited self-control are more prone to respond to advertising and exhibit impulsive behavior (Baumeister et al., 2024; Duckworth et al., 2016; Iyer et al., 2020). Following the tenets of Preventive Regulation Theory, consumers who possess high self-control make more deliberative, goal-consistent decisions (Iyer et al., 2020; Duckworth et al., 2016).

Although price discounts and self-control have been thoroughly studied individually in consumer psychology, their interaction has not yet been sufficiently explored (Zhu, 2024; Zhou & Gu, 2015; Vohs & Faber, 2007). Moreover, research findings indicate a robust correlation between self-control and impulsivity, as well as heightened sensitivity to marketing stimuli

(Baumeister et al., 2024; Wennerhold & Friese, 2022; Vohs & Faber, 2007). This finding may suggest that these elements play a crucial role in the effectiveness of advertising campaigns.

In the context of promotional pricing tactics, it is essential to implement distinct strategies for different product price levels. According to studies, monetary discounts are more effective for high-priced products, whereas percentage discounts are more effective for low-priced goods (González et al., 2016; Zhou & Gu, 2015). However, the findings remain inconsistent, and a definitive explanation for the superiority of one type over another remains elusive (Zhou & Gu, 2015; Suri et al., 2013; DelVecchio et al., 2007).

This underscores the importance of examining how discount formats, product price levels, and self-control stages interact to shape purchase intention. Theoretically, the research integrates perspectives from behavioral pricing and self-regulation within a person-in-context framework. Practically speaking, the primary objective of this research is to contribute to the development of more effective and psychologically informed advertising strategies.

1.3 Problem Statement

Although price reductions are widespread in retail, there is no consensus on which form of discount—percentage or monetary—is most effective. Research shows that percentage discounts are more influential for higher-priced products, while percentage discounts tend to work better for lower-priced items. However, there are limited theoretical explanations for these effects, and empirical results are sometimes inconsistent (Gardner, 2022; Khonsor, 2020; Gonzalez et al., 2016).

A further conceptual limitation is the insufficient consideration of individual psychological characteristics that can systematically influence how consumers respond to discounts. In particular, self-control, as it shapes impulsive buying behavior and sensitivity to immediate rewards (Iyer et al., 2020; Vohs & Faber, 2007). Individuals with low self-control tend to respond more strongly to offers that promise immediate gratification, while individuals with greater self-control evaluate such opportunities more critically (Iyer et al., 2020; Duckworth et al., 2016; Vohs & Faber, 2007).

A recent study in behavioral economics examined the dynamics of self-control in the context of digital platforms and advertising environments (Zhu, 2024). However, the relationship

between discount format, product price, and individual self-control has not yet been examined using a unified experimental strategy (Duan, 2025; Lyngs et al., 2019).

This dissertation aims to address this substantial research gap by conducting a comprehensive investigation into the influence of discount type (monetary discount vs. percentage discount) on purchase intention. It will further explore how this effect is moderated by product price (low vs. high) and the degree of consumer self-control (low vs. high).

The objective is pursued through the implementation of an online experiment, in which controlled stimuli are utilized. A theory-driven approach is employed to examine the extent to which the effectiveness of various discount formats is contingent upon product price or consumer self-control. Consequently, the following research question will be addressed:

- **RQ1:** Which price discounts (percentage discounts vs. monetary) have a higher impact on purchase intention?
- **RQ2:** Does self-control (high vs. low) change the relationship between price discounts and purchase intention?

By addressing these questions, the study aims to advance the understanding of behavioral pricing and inform the design of psychologically grounded, segment-specific promotional strategies.

1.4 Research Methods

Using a quantitative methodology, this study investigates how different discount formats affect purchase intention in relation to contextual and psychological factors. This approach is suitable for identifying variable correlations and deriving generalizable conclusions (Kivunja, 2016; Sudheesh et al., 2016; Denscombe, 2012).

A structured online questionnaire with validated scales will be employed to gather data on Qualitrics. Participants will be randomized to one of three experimental conditions: monetary discount, percentage discount, or no promotion as a control group. This design has been demonstrated to effectively isolate treatment effects while concurrently reducing confounding factors (Fleming & Kowalsky, 2021; Denscombe, 2012).

This process is preceded by preliminary tests carried out with the aim of ensuring clarity and ecological validity (Burnett, 2009). Subsequent to the collection of responses, a rigorous statistical analysis is conducted, with methods suitable for the evaluation of interactions (Hammond, 2022). Given the study's length and scope, this approach to methodology is set apart by a careful balancing act between practical limitations and internal validity criteria (Fleming & Kowalsky, 2021; Denscombe, 2012).

1.5 Dissertation Outline

Following the introduction, the second chapter provides a comprehensive literature review of established theoretical frameworks and formulates hypotheses based on previous research. The third chapter describes the methodology utilized to answer the research questions and provides a thorough explanation of the study approach and all statistical tools used. Following that, the results and discussion chapter presents the major findings and determines whether the hypotheses are supported or not. The final chapter draws conclusions from the research acknowledges study limitations, and outlines directions for further research.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter presents a comprehensive overview of the existing literature and theoretical perspectives on the research topic, thereby establishing the foundation for hypothesis formation. Its structure is outlined as follows: first, an examination of purchase intention; second, an in-depth analysis of price discounts, including the comparative effectiveness of monetary and percentage formats. In addition, the moderators self-control and price level are examined.

2.1 Purchase Intention

Purchase intention (PI) is a term used to describe a consumer's deliberate plan to purchase a specific product in the future (Müller & Gelbrich, 2021; Namias, 1959). As Cahyanaputra et al. (2022) describe, PI is "generally related to consumer behavior, perceptions, and attitudes—the essence of consumers in accessing and evaluating specific products" (p. 3). Consequently, this phenomenon may involve the activation of psychological mechanisms that are modulated by external stimuli, including marketing tools.

In the past, PI was used as a reliable predictor of customer purchasing behavior as a forecasting and strategy tool (Müller & Gelbrich, 2021; Iyer et al., 2020). However, recent research shows that purchase intention is not a stable predictor, but rather a multidimensional construct that is influenced by many factors. For example, personal dispositions as well as external signals and situational and contextual factors (Khonsor, 2020; Kotler & Keller, 2016; Baumeister et al., 2007). Accordingly, PI is best understood as the result of dynamic interactions between psychological traits—such as motivation, attitude, and self-control—and contextual stimuli, including price level, brand, and promotional framing (Kotler & Keller, 2016; Baumeister et al., 2007; Spears & Singh, 2004). This perspective draws on Ajzen's (1991)Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), which proposes that intention is determined by attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. The extension of TPB includes factors such as past experiences or external stimuli that influence consumer behavior (Kim & Chung, 2011). Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R model) outlines how external stimuli trigger internal states that drive behavior. Together, the frameworks provide a solid foundation for understanding how price discounts affect self-control and purchasing intention across price points.

2.2 Price Discount Promotions

Price discount promotions can be classified into two categories: non-monetary promotions, such as product samples, and monetary promotions, which encompass price reductions and vouchers (Parente & Strausbaugh-Hutchinson, 2015). This research focuses on monetary discounts, which are defined as “a direct incentive that offers additional value or incentive for the product ... with the primary goal of achieving an immediate sale” (Haugh, 1983, p. 44).

The objective of such discounts is to increase sales by offering added value that prompt consumers to take immediate action. Research indicates that well-designed discounts can enhance perceived value, thereby reducing purchase inhibitions and increasing conversion rates (Chandon et al., 2000; Rothschild & Gaidis, 1981). Following Thaler's Transaction Utility Theory (1985), consumers evaluate not only the product itself but also the attractiveness of the offer. This suggests that the form of the discount may be a pivotal factor in the evaluation process.

The influence of price discounts on PI depends also on the product type, value perception, and price sensitivity (Khonsor, 2020; Weisstein et al., 2013). These results are consistent with the findings of Kahneman & Tversky's Prospect Theory (1979), which examines loss aversion. This theory implies that losses are subjectively perceived as more painful than equivalent gains. Consequently, this effect can be interpreted as a psychological compensation mechanism, which states that rejecting financial gains is perceived as more painful than accepting losses.

Furthermore, it should be noted that discounts can involve strategic risks. This phenomenon is particularly evident in premium categories, where frequent or significant discounts can indicate reduced quality. This, in turn, could harm brand value and promote mistrust (Peck & Childers, 2006; Keller, 1998). In addition, the Price–Quality Inference Theory advises against the excessive use of discounts, as they may ultimately lead to a decline in perceived value (Monroe, 1973). On top of that, inconsistent offers have been shown to engender skepticism and erode credibility (Darke & Chung, 2005).

In short, the perceived value of a discount is contingent upon its presentation. Therefore, it is imperative to examine how different formats—monetary versus percentage discounts—affect purchase intention (DelVecchio et al., 2007).

2.2.1 Percentage and Monetary Price Discount

Price discounts vary in perception despite equivalent nominal savings. This can be explained by Behavioral Decision Theory, according to which consumers evaluate price reductions relative to a reference point, in this case, the price (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

While monetary discounts (e.g., "20 € discount") are straightforward to understand and to calculate relative to the reference point, they are more effective than percentage discounts, especially for high-priced products (González et al., 2016). This can be supported by theories such as Prospect Theory by Kahneman and Tversky (1979, which states that consumers find losses more painful and therefore want to avoid them at all costs and thus react more strongly to gains that are easy to interpret and compare.

Moreover, the efficacy of monetary discounts has been demonstrated in contexts characterized by elevated cognitive load or temporal constraints, as they facilitate the elimination of ambiguity through the implementation of straightforward calculations. The effectiveness is even greater in situations involving high cognitive load or time pressure, as simple discounts reduce uncertainty (Biswas et al., 2021; Sinha & Smith, 2000; Darke & Freedman, 1995).

Conversely, percentage discounts are more challenging to calculate, particularly for individuals with limited mathematical aptitude, which diminishes their efficacy (DelVecchio et al., 2006; Chen et al., 1998). Moreover, percentage discounts (e.g., 20% off) are more compelling for low-priced items because the relative savings appear greater despite lower absolute amounts (Lowe & Barnes, 2012; Chen et al., 1998). Consequently, monetary discounts are perceived as fairer and associated with higher quality due to their clarity and conspicuousness. This is why they are considered important drivers of purchase intention (Lee, 2002).

2.2.2 The Effect of Price Discounts on Purchase Intention

Price reductions are one of the most used and empirically proven marketing strategies in the consumer goods sector. As they deconstruct psychological barriers and promote purchasing behavior (Biswas et al., 2021; Khonsor, 2020; Chandon et al., 2000).

Their effect goes beyond economic value and influences the cognitive and emotional evaluation of the offer. Discounts minimize the cognitive effort required to assess product value, especially when the savings are explicitly stated. Monetary discounts offer real, explicit benefits that

simplify evaluation and strengthen confidence in the purchase decision, especially in high-stakes or time-pressured situations (Biswas et al., 2021; Gendall et al., 2006).

In addition, discounts elicit an emotional response of gain or satisfaction, leading to positive sentiments about both the bargain and the brand. This psychological reinforcement boosts purchase likelihood, especially when the discount appears fair, timely, and relevant (Kuo & Rice, 2015; Thaler, 1985).

The discount format affects both cognitive and emotional responses. While percentage discounts emphasize proportional value and may be suitable in certain pricing scenarios, monetary discounts provide clearer, more intuitive benefits that are less likely to be misinterpreted (Lowe & Barnes, 2012; Tversky & Kahneman, 1981). As a result, they often lead to stronger purchase intentions, especially when combined with product pricing and consumer processing (Biswas et al., 2021; Sinha & Verma, 2020).

In summary, the impact of discounts on purchase intention is determined not only by economic value, but also by psychological clarity, perceived fairness, and cognitive effort. Monetary discounts appear to have a higher impact since they offer immediate, easy-to-process benefits. Based on these insights, the following hypotheses are proposed:

- **H1:** Price discounts positively influence purchase intention.
- **H1A:** Monetary discounts lead to higher purchase intention than percentage discounts.

2.3 Price Point of a Product

The influence of discounts on purchase intention varies depending on the price range of the product, which is an important factor in consumer response. Apart from framing, the product price influences consumers' perception of value and quality (Khonsor et al., 2020).

According to Signaling Theory, greater prices frequently suggest higher quality (Monroe, 1990; Zeithaml, 1988). However, Akerlof's lemon market (1970) demonstrates that this signal may fail in the presence of information asymmetry. Furthermore, Prospect Theory states that consumers evaluate gains and losses relative to a reference point, becoming less sensitive to absolute values as the numbers increase (Tversky & Kahneman, 1992). Building on this

principle, later research has found that percentage discounts are more compelling for low-priced items, while absolute reductions are favored for high-priced items (DelVecchio et al., 2007; Chen et al., 1998). Prospect Theory is especially relevant in this situation since it explains how price levels affect the perceived value of a discount (Tversky & Kahneman, 1992).

2.3.1 Low-Priced Products

In contrast, low-priced and frequently bought goods—usually low-involvement products—are more responsive to price promotions, often resulting in stronger short-term sales boosts (Blattberg & Neslin, 1989). For low-proced products (e.g., under 100 €) are percentage discounts usually more effecicient than monetary discounts. Customers use basic heuristics like "higher percentage = better deal" because they usually buy these items with little consideration.

The perception of value can be enhanced by framing effects and proportional thinking; for instance, 50% off a 10 € item seems more appealing than a 5 € discount, regardless of whether the two are of equal value (Chen et al., 1998). The perceived benefit typically outweighs the additional cognitive effort required to use percentage discounts (Suri et al., 2013).
Building on these findings, the following hypothesis was formulated:

- **H1B:** Percentage discounts have a stronger impact on purchase intention for low-price products than for high-price products.

2.3.2 High-Priced Products

Conversely, in the context of high-priced goods (e.g., over 100 €) particularly in scenarios characterized by heightened involvement, monetary promotions have been observed to exert a more substantial impact. Even if the absolute value is the same, consumers tend to view relative savings as more attractive (Chen et al., 1998). Frequent use, however, might cause expectations to rise and damage the credibility of the price over time (DelVecchio et al., 2007).

2.3.3 Price Point as a Moderator Between Discount Type and Purchase Intention

The price level of the product has a direct impact on how effectively discount formats influence purchase intention. Monetary discounts are typically more successful for expensive products as they provide obvious, understandable savings. By lowering ambiguity and raising the likelihood of a purchase, their concreteness improves perceived fairness and quality (Lowe & Barnes,

2012; Lee, 2002; Tversky & Kahneman, 1981). Particularly in high-involvement decisions, the offer is more compelling due to the transparent value proposition (Sutrisno, 2023; González et al., 2016). Conversely, for low-priced and low-involvement goods are percentage discounts more successful (Chen et al., 1998). This is because consumers tend to rely on simple heuristics, and the perceived benefit often outweighs the effort required to process the discount. This phenomenon can be attributed to cognitive biases such as proportional thinking and framing effects. These findings imply that, contingent upon consumers' cognitive evaluation of value, price point moderates the relationship between discount type and purchase intention.

2.4 Self-Control

Self-control plays a pivotal role in shaping consumer decision-making, especially when it comes to responding to price discounts. As Baumeister (2007) puts it, self-control is "a central function of the self and an important key to success in life" (p. 351), influencing both thoughts and emotions during purchasing (Wennerhold & Friese, 2022; Khonsor, 2020). In marketing, self-control is essential for regulating behavior and segmenting consumers, particularly in digital commerce, where algorithms can amplify impulsivity (Lyngs et al., 2019; Roberts & Manolis, 2012).

Self-control is shaped by both enduring traits and situational factors. Baumeister (2007) regards it as a core aspect of the self, while Tangney et al. (2004) connect it to future orientation and internal standards. The Strength Model conceptualizes self-control as a limited resource that can be depleted, resulting in increased impulsivity (Baumeister et al., 2007). Research shows that when self-control is depleted—such as under stress or time pressure—consumers are more likely to make impulsive purchases (Yanti et al., 2023).

Other relevant theoretical perspectives are Dual-Process Theory, which highlights the distinction between quick, impulsive choices and slower, reflective decision-making. In addition, the Preventive Regulation Theory emphasizes proactive strategies for resisting temptation and maintaining self-control (Duckworth et al., 2016; Strack & Deutsch, 2004)

These theories are especially pertinent in digital environments, where manipulative design may undermine self-regulation, yet supportive tools like self-tracking apps can help (Verma et al., 2023; Lyngs et al., 2019). This study primarily relies on the Strength Model but also

incorporates Dual-Process and Preventive Regulation theories to better understand how self-control influences responses to discounts.

2.4.1 Low Self-Control

Consumers who lack self-control are especially vulnerable to advertising methods that employ time pressure or emotional appeals. They prefer short-term rewards to long-term gains (Moayery, 2025; Baumeister, 2002; O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). Impulse purchases are particularly common in emotionally charged or stressful settings (Vohs & Faber, 2007).

2.4.2 High Self-Control

External advertising stimuli, on the other hand, have less influence on consumers with strong self-control. Their decisions are not guided by emotional impulses but by rational and reflective considerations and inner long-term objectives (Strack & Deutsch, 2004). This in turn reduces susceptibility to the immediate temptation of urgency or the apparent magnitude of an advertising offer (Iyer et al., 2020; Vohs & Faber, 2007).

2.4.3 Self-Control as a Moderator Between Discount Type and Purchase Intention

Empirical studies show that the efficiency of discounts is determined not only by their shape and value but also by psychological aspects. In particular, it is influenced by impulsivity and regulatory focus (Vetriveletal, 2022; Suri et al., 2013). Individuals with low self-control have a high demand for instant satisfaction and are particularly sensitive to emotionally appealing or time-limited discounts, which influence their purchasing intentions (Iyer et al., 2020; Vohs & Faber, 2007; Baumeister, 2002). In contrast, those with high self-control reflect and make goal-oriented decisions. As a result, they are less susceptible to surface cues and analyze advertising offers critically (Yanti et al., 2023; Fujita, 2011; Tangney et al., 2004). These results align with theoretical frameworks such as the Strength Model of self-control and Dual-Process Theory, which underscore the significance of self-regulation in modulating responses to marketing communications. A synthesis of theoretical and empirical research indicates that self-control might exert a moderating influence on the effects of discounts on purchase intention.

Based on this, the following hypotheses are put forward:

- **H2:** Self-control moderates the relationship between discount format and purchase intention.

- **H2A:** Among individuals with low self-control, the effect of discounts on purchase intention is stronger than among those with high self-control.

Although self-control cannot be directly observed in a multitude of shopping scenarios, contextual signals, such as product kind or emotional framing, can reveal consumers' regulatory states. Marketers can utilize this information to better adapt promotions to certain consumer profiles (Suri et al., 2013; Fujita, 2011; Vohs &Faber, 2007).

2.5 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 depicts the conceptual framework for this research. It demonstrates how different discount types impact purchase intention, with the price level and self-control serving as moderators. All hypotheses (H1, H1A, H1B, H2, and H2A) are visually mapped to demonstrate the expected influences.

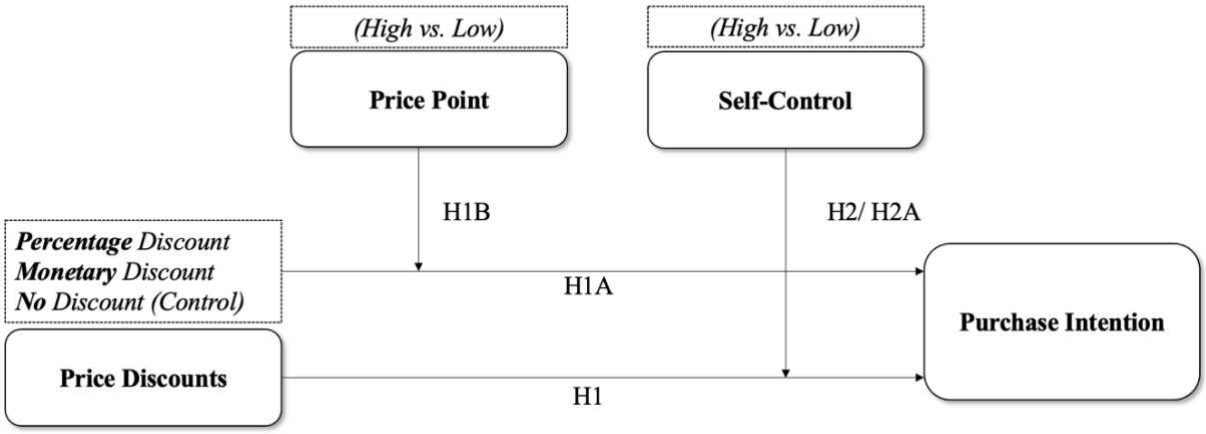

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

Note. Own creation.

3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research design applied to investigate the study's objectives and test the hypotheses. It covers the research approach, data collecting, stimuli generation, questionnaire design, and analytical processes to assure the study's validity, reliability, and replicability (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

3.1 Research Approach

A survey-based experimental design was employed to control key factors and investigate causal linkages (Seltman, 2015). A literature review served as the foundation for the framework, and a pre-test validated its clarity and validity.

This study, which follows a quantitative, postpositivist paradigm, asserts an objective reality that is quantifiable through empirical data (Khaldi, 2017; Creswell, 2009). Theory-driven hypotheses were tested using a randomized online experiment and a deductive research methodology. The method used is categorized as a structured experimental survey because it combines the internal validity of controlled exposure with the practicability of online data gathering (Saunders et al., 2019; Malhotra, 2015).

Moreover, this study takes a problem-solving perspective by analyzing how discount types affect purchase intention. A cross-sectional, between-subjects design was applied to capture consumer behavior at a single point in time, reduce order effects, and enhance internal validity (Kumar et al., 2019; Malhotra et al., 2017).

3.2 Data Collection

This section covers the type of data gathered, how it was obtained, and from whom. It is divided into three subsections: Data type, collecting method, and variable measurement, which ensures alignment with the research objectives and facilitates reliable hypothesis testing.

3.2.1 Data Type

The data type employed in this study is primary data, which was collected through an online questionnaire. This data will subsequently undergo statistical analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The use of primary data enables direct measurement of research variables, improving the precision of hypothesis testing (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

3.2.2 Collection Method

To ensure uniformity and methodological rigor in data collecting, a structured online survey was carried out (Schnell et al., 2008; Bortz & Döring, 2006). The responses were collected between April 10 and April 27, 2025. The questionnaire was carried out using Qualtrics and distributed via e-mail, WhatsApp, and social media (for example, LinkedIn, Instagram, Facebook). From an initial sample of 622 responses, 302 were rejected owing to unfulfilled screening criteria, missing data, or failed manipulation tests. This yielded a final sample of 320 valid cases.

To reduce bias and assure clarity, a pre-survey of 31 respondents was undertaken to ensure that the stimuli were perceived correctly (Saunders et al., 2009; Thielsch & Weltzin, 2009). Informed consent, voluntary participation, and GDPR-compliant anonymization were all supported as ethical criteria (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013; Saunders et al., 2009). A pilot test with 24 participants indicated clarity and functionality, and the 7 minute duration reduced tiredness and dropout.

Furthermore, the convenience sample targeted people who recently purchased shampoo, a smartphone, or both. While this ensured efficiency, it also limits generalizability regarding demographics and cultural transferability (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013; Saunders et al., 2009).

3.2.3 Variable Measurement

Based on the methodological approach, this section describes how key constructs (control, independent, dependent, and moderating variables) were assessed. To improve data quality, established multi-item Likert scales were employed to detail each component, improving accuracy and content validity (Neuman, 1997).

3.2.3.1 Additional supplementary variables

An expanded set of constructs was incorporated to facilitate a more comprehensive capture of individual differences, including sales proneness, value consciousness, personal relevance. These constructs were measured using validated 7-point Likert scales.

Sale proneness was assessed using a shortened 5-item adaptation of the original scale by Lichtenstein et al. (1993), which builds on coupon proneness (Lichtenstein et al., 1990). Items reflect a consumer's tendency to react positively to promotions (e.g., "I enjoy shopping more when I find items on sale"). This construct depicted a high internal consistency (α = . 90).

Value consciousness reflects consumers' desire to get maximum value for money and was measured using six items from Lichtenstein et al. (1993) (α = .83). A sample item: "When I buy products, I like to be sure that I am getting my money's worth.".

Personal relevance was evaluated on a scale with 5 items, developed by Lowe (2010) and Mittal (1995). It illustrates the significance of the product categories for respondents (α = 0.75–0.90).

3.2.3.2 Dependent Variable: Purchase Intention

Purchase intention represents the likelihood of purchasing a product (Dodds et al., 1991). PI was assessed using a 7-point Likert scale developed by Dodds et al. (1991), which included five validated items. The scale is widely used in consumer research and has great reliability (α =.92) (Antunes et al., 2022; Gardner, 2022; Chandon et al., 2000).

The construct includes the following five items:

1. The probability that I would buy this product is (very high to very low).
2. If I were going to buy this product, I would consider buying this model at the price shown (strongly agree to strongly disagree).
3. At the price shown, I would consider buying the product (strongly agree to strongly disagree).
4. The probability that I would consider buying the product is: (very high to very low).
5. My willingness to buy the product is (very high to very low).

3.2.3.3 Independent Variable: Price Discount

In this study, the independent variable discount type (Promotion Group (3-Level)) was operationalized as a categorical variable with three conditions representing popular promotional formats (Weisstein et al., 2013). Participants were randomly allocated to one of the following discount conditions.

- Monetary discount (e.g., 20 € off)

- Percentage discount (e.g., 20% off)
- No discount (control group)

A manipulation check ensured the correct perception of the discount type: “What type of promotion was shown in the scenario?”. This confirmed that participants processed the assigned condition accurately (Gendall et al., 2006; Chen et al., 1998).

3.2.3.4 Moderator Variable: Self-Control

The Brief Self-Control Scale (BSCS), a validated measure developed by Tangney et al. (2004), was used to evaluate the moderator's self-control. The original 5-point Likert scale was adopted to a 7-point Likert scale to guarantee uniformity across instruments. Significant associations with conceptually related traits such as impulse control and conscientiousness (Hoyle & Davisson, 2016; Duckworth & Kern, 2011) support the validity of the BSCS, which also exhibits strong internal consistency (Cronbach's α =.83–.85) and substantial retest reliability (r =.87).

In accordance with previous research, participants were assigned into high and low self-control conditions using a median split in order to test for moderating effects (Sultan et al., 2012). As a criterion-related validation measure, observed differences in impulse buying tendencies provided evidence for the robustness of this classification (Vohs & Faber, 2007).

The following items are included in the BSCS scale:

1. I am good at resisting temptation. +
2. I have a hard time breaking bad habits. −
3. I am lazy. −
4. I say inappropriate things. −
5. I do certain things that are bad for me if they are fun. −
6. I refuse things that are bad for me. +
7. I wish I had more self-discipline. −
8. People would say that 1 has iron self-discipline. +
9. Pleasure and fun sometimes keep me from getting work done. −
10. I have trouble concentrating. −
11. I can work effectively toward long-term goals. +
12. Sometimes I can’t stop myself from doing something, even if I know it is wrong. –

13. I often act without thinking through all the alternatives. –

3.2.3.5 Moderator Variable: Price Point

Price Point was included as a moderator to test whether the effect of discount type on purchase intention differs by product price level. It was operationalized via stimuli, using two product categories:

- Shampoo (low-priced, 5.99 €)
- Smartphone (high-priced, 799 €)

As the price point was embedded in the stimuli, no additional survey items were needed. In the analysis, it is treated as a binary moderator (0 = Low Price; 1 = High Price).

This structured approach ensures valid measurement of key constructs, enabling robust statistical analysis of price discount framing effects on purchase intention. An overview of the measurement framework and the operationalization of all core variables is provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Operational Model Summary

Variable	Measure	Items	Scale	Reference	Cronbach's α
IV	Price Discount	Stimuli	N/A (Randomized scenarios)	N/A	N/A
DV	Purchase Intention	5	7-point Likert scale	Dodds et al. (1991)	0.92
Moderator	Self-Control	13	7-point Likert scale (*)	Tangney et al. (2004)	0.83 - 0.85
Moderator	Price Point	Stimuli	Binary (0 = Low Price, 1 = High Price)	N/A	N/A

Note. Tangney et al. (2004). The scale was adapted from the original 5-point Likert scale.

3.3 Stimuli Design

The design and presentation of stimuli play a critical role in shaping participant responses and ensuring experimental validity. To maintain independent observations and allow for valid statistical comparisons, each participant was exposed to only one stimulus condition, thereby minimizing potential biases and carryover effects (Malhotra et al., 2017).

3.3.1 Creating the Stimuli

To examine discount framing across price levels, a shampoo and a smartphone were selected as representatives of the low- and high-priced product (Jia et al., 2024; Proboyo & Kusuma, 2019; Chandon et al., 2000). To enhance realism and external validity, familiar brand names were used (DelVecchio et al., 2006). The predominantly German sample justified the selection of Head & Shoulders and the iPhone, given their strong market presence in Germany (Tenzer, 2025; Statista, 2023). Base prices of 5.99 € and 799 € with a 20% discount ensured consistency and reflected real market values, enhancing ecological validity (Tenzer, 2025; Statista, 2023). This is in line with current market practice and consistent with earlier studies (Chandon et al., 2000; Chen et al., 1998).

Figure 2 displays the standardized visual stimuli used in the experiment. Participants were shown one of six product–discount combinations (control, 20% off, or a 20% equivalent in form of an absolute discount), with price tags indicating both the discount type and the final price. Stimuli were embedded in an image-based shopping interface (Weisstein et al., 2013). The six conditions were structured as follows:

1. Shampoo – No Discount (Control condition)
2. Shampoo – Percentage Discount (20%)
3. Shampoo – Absolute Discount (1.49 € off)
4. Smartphone – No Discount (Control condition)
5. Smartphone – Percentage Discount (20%)
6. Smartphone – Absolute Discount (199.75 € off)

Figure 2. Stimuli Presentation

Note. Own creation.

3.3.2 Validating the Stimuli

To ensure clarity, realism, and effectiveness, a pre-test was carried out (Malhotra et al., 2017). Thirty-one participants were randomly assigned to one of six shopping scenarios, which varied by product type (shampoo vs. smartphone) and promotion type (monetary, percentage, or none). High internal validity was ensured through manipulation checks; more than 90% of the products and the discount format were correctly identified. Moreover, the perceived clarity, realism, persuasiveness, and relevance were measured using Likert-scale ratings (1–7), which surpassed a mean of 4.5, demonstrating strong stimulus credibility and comprehensibility (Kumar et al., 2019). Appendix A offers a summary of the pre-test questionnaire.

3.3.3 Final Stimuli

Based on the pre-test results, all six of the validated visual stimuli were retained and included to the final questionnaire. A random assignment to the stimuli, based on screening questions and manipulation checks that confirmed participants' identification of the product and the type of discount, ensured transparency and reproducibility.

3.4 Questionnaire Design

The full questionnaire is detailed in Appendix B. A funnel structure and thematically grouped question blocks were used to minimize priming, social desirability bias, and cognitive load, thereby improving response accuracy (Burns et al., 2017). Following an introductory statement ensuring anonymity, outlining the study's topic and duration (7 minutes), participants provided informed consent. Two screening questions followed to ensure product relevance, allowing only individuals who had purchased shampoo or smartphones within a predefined timeframe to be included (Puri et al., 2024). Participants relevant for both product categories were randomly allocated to one of two conditions; those who had purchased only one were matched accordingly. A manipulation check followed to confirm recognition of the product and discount type. To prevent priming and ensure unbiased results, blocks on self-control, sale proneness, and value consciousness were randomized—appearing either before or after the stimulus. This helped capture stable traits rather than momentary effects. Participants then rated purchase intention, followed by questions on discount relevance and usage. Demographic data were collected at the end (Lowe, 2010; Mittal, 1995; Lichtenstein et al., 1993). Figure 3 illustrates the full survey flow, including item order and randomization.

Introduction (3 Questions)
Screening Questions (2 Questions)
Branch If 1: Yes is selected, Yes is selected
Randomizer 1: Evently present 2 elements
Randomizer 1.1: Evently present 1 elements
Stimuli 1 - Smartphone (Promo %) (4 Questions)
Stimuli 2 - Shampoo (Promo %) (4 Questions)
Stimuli 3 - Smartphone (Promo €) (4 Questions)
Stimuli 4 - Shampoo (Promo €) (4 Questions)
Stimuli 5 - Smartphone (Control, no Promo) (4 Questions)
Stimuli 6 - Shampoo (Control, no Promo) (4 Questions)
Randomizer 1.2: Evently present 2 elements
Sale Proneness, Value Consciousness (2 Questions)
Self-Control (1 Question)
Branch If 2: Yes is selected, No is selected
Randomizer 2: Evently present 2 elements
Randomizer 2.1: Evently present 1 elements
Stimuli 2 - Shampoo (Promo %) (4 Questions)
Stimuli 4 - Shampoo (Promo €) (4 Questions)
Stimuli 6 - Shampoo (Control, no Promo) (4 Questions)
Randomizer 1.2: Evently present 2 elements
Sale Proneness, Value Consciousness (2 Questions)
Self-Control (1 Question)
Branch If 3: No is selected, Yes is selected
Randomizer 3: Evently present 2 elements
Randomizer 3. 1: Evently present 1 elements
Stimuli 1 - Smartphone (Promo %) (4 Questions)
Stimuli 3 - Smartphone (Promo €) (4 Questions)
Stimuli 5 - Smartphone (Control, no Promo) (4 Questions)
Randomizer 3.2: Evently present 2 elements
Sale Proneness, Value Consciousness (2 Questions)
Self-Control (1 Question)
Context for Purchase Intention (1 Question)
Purchase Intention (2 Questions)
Personal Relevance & Promotion Usage (2 Questions)
Demographics (6 Questions)

Figure 3. Survey Flow

Note. Own creation.

3.5 Data Analysis

After collecting the data from the questionnaire, the hypotheses were tested. Inferential statistics in IBM SPSS Statistics 30 was used to examine the relationships between the variables. These analyses aimed to identify both main effects and interactions between the key variables to draw conclusions that can be generalized beyond the sample. The impact of promotional exposure on purchase intention (H1) was examined using linear regression.

Differences between monetary and percentage discounts (H1A) and between low- and high-priced products within percentage discounts (H1B) were investigated using independent-sample t-tests. For H2 and H2A, Hayes's PROCESS macro (Model 1) was employed to investigate moderation effects and determine whether self-control affected the association between discount type or presence and purchase intention.

Lastly, as illustrated in Figure 4, a moderated regression (PROCESS Model 2) incorporating both moderators (price level and self-control) was carried out. This thorough test made it possible to evaluate several interactions between the product context, individual characteristics, and discount format at the same time. Every statistical assumption was examined and found to be true. An overview of all hypotheses and the corresponding statistical tests is provided in Table 2. An additional analysis in section 4.3 includes more psychological variables to capture individual differences and explore moderating effects.

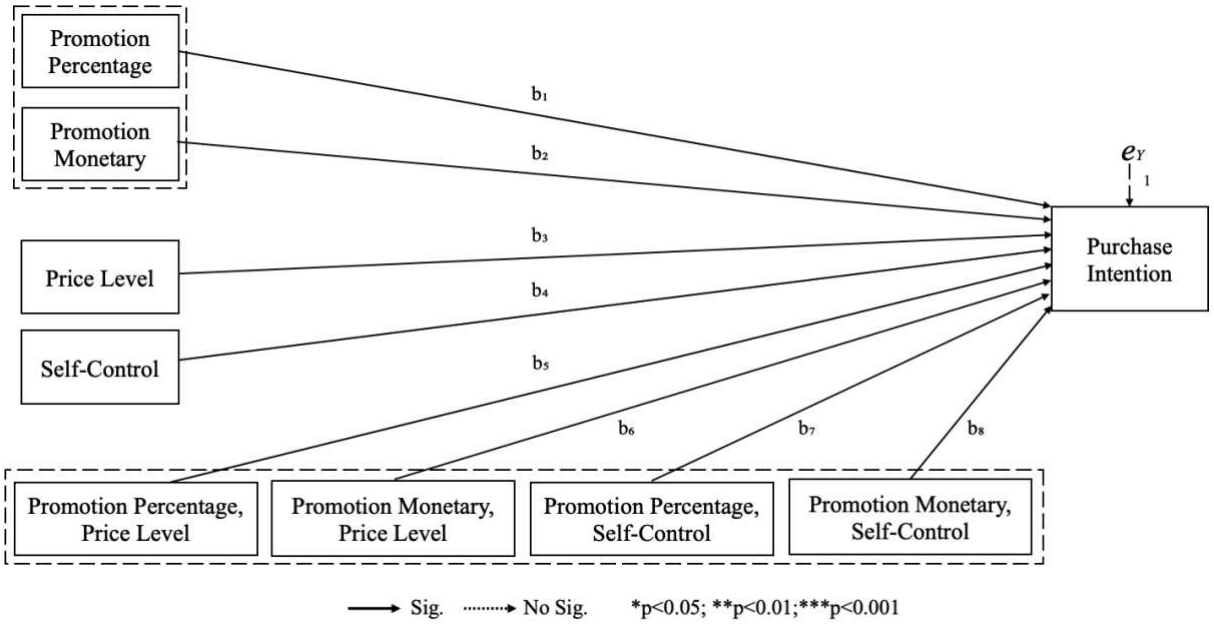

Figure 4. Statistical Model

Note. Own creation.

Table 2. Hypotheses and Statistical Tests

Hypothesis	Statistical Test
H1: Price discounts positively influence purchase intention.	Regression
H1A: Monetary discounts lead to higher purchase intention than percentage discounts.	Independent-Samples t-Test
H1B: Percentage discounts have a stronger impact on purchase intention for low-price products than for high-price products.	Independent-Samples t-Test
H2: Self-control moderates the relationship between price discount promotions (monetary vs. percentage) and purchase intention.	Moderation Analysis (Hayes PROCESS Model 1)
H2A: Among individuals with low self-control, the effect of price discounts on purchase intention is stronger than among individuals with high self-control.	Moderation Analysis (Hayes PROCESS Model 1)

Note. Own creation.

3.5.1 Data Preparation

A number of preparatory steps were taken to guarantee data quality and analysis suitability, including addressing missing data, examining for manipulation, detecting outliers, creating pertinent measurement variables, and evaluating their dependability. Each of these steps is covered in detail in the subsections below.

3.5.1.1 Missing Data

Of the initial 622 responses, 302 were excluded in a three-step cleaning process following established guidelines (Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In step one, 183 cases were systematically removed**,** including 12 pretests, 9 did not consent, 68 failed the purchase screening, and 94 failed the manipulation check. In step two, 7 cases with missing values on key variables (purchase intention, self-control) were excluded via listwise deletion. The final sample consisted of N = 320 complete cases, free of multivariate outliers, and balanced across the six experimental groups. No imputation or MCAR testing was required.

As shown in Figure 5, all six combinations of product (smartphone, shampoo) and promotion type (monetary, percentage, none) were equally represented by 51–55 participants per stimuli. This balanced design enhances internal validity and ensures sufficient power for testing both main and interaction effects (Hair et al., 2018; Field, 2009). No signs of allocation bias were detected.

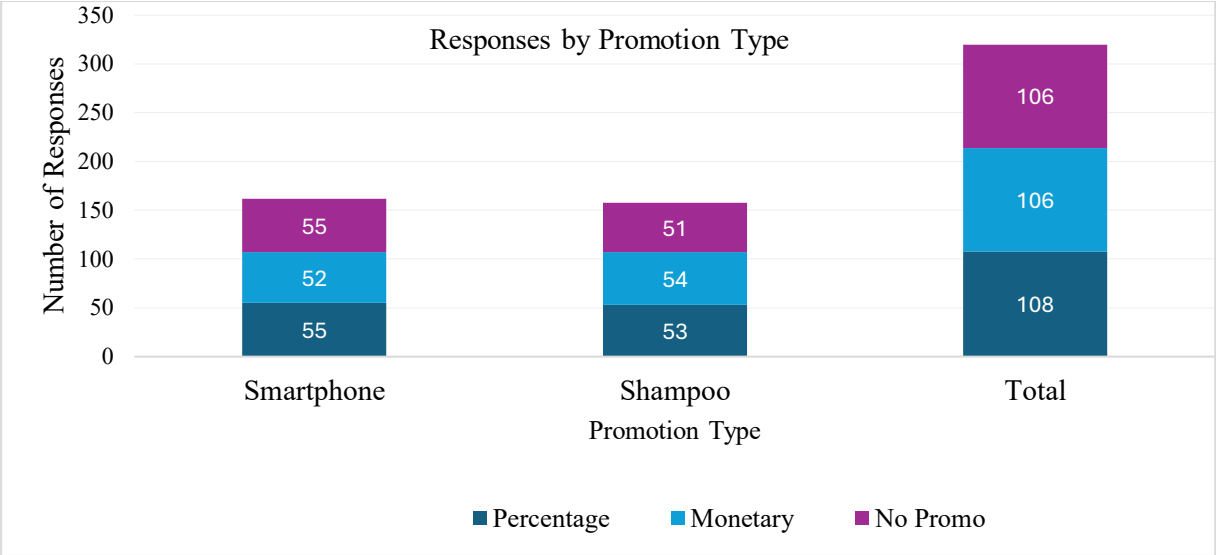

Figure 5. Responses by Promotion Type

Note. Own creation.

3.5.1.2 Manipulation Check

In the questionnaire after being presented the stimulus, participants answered two questions to identify the product (shampoo or smartphone) and promotion type (monetary, percentage, or none), assessing manipulation accuracy. Participants who answered incorrectly or selected "Not sure" were excluded by automatic skip logic (n = 94) to ensure that only attentive respondents were included (Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

A one-way ANOVA was employed to evaluate the effectiveness of manipulation, and the results revealed significant differences between the three experimental conditions ($F(2, 317) = 17.42$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .099$). Both discount types differed significantly from the no-promotion condition, and post-hoc Tukey HSD tests verified that the discount conditions were interpreted as intended. These findings suggest that the promotional cue manipulation was effective and appropriate for evaluating the experimental hypotheses.

3.5.1.3 Outliers Analysis

In a further step, multivariate outliers were identified using Mahalanobis distance across 17 variables. Cases exceeding the critical chi-square value (($\chi^2(17) = 40.79$, $p < .001$) were excluded, following established guidelines (Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In total, 12 cases were removed to reduce bias and maintain multivariate assumptions such as

normality and linearity. The final dataset of N = 320 valid cases resulted from a multi-step data cleaning process, as outlined in Table 3.

Table 3. Sample Cleaning Overview

Step	Description	TOTAL
Initial Observations		**622**
Preview (Test responses)	Pretest participants	12
No Consent	Failed screening question 1	9
No Product Purchase	Failed screening question 2	68
Failed Manipulation Check	Promo + Product Check failed	94
Missing in Key Variables	Missing Self-Control/PI items	100
Dropout after Core Section	Dropout after Self-Control/PI	7
Mahalanobis Outliers	Multivariate outliers	12
Final Observations		**320**

Note. Own creation.

3.5.1.4 Measurement Creation and Reliability

In order to guarantee internal consistency, the Cronbach's Alpha test was utilized, where an $\alpha \geq .70$ was regarded as acceptable, whereas $\alpha \geq .80$ were indicative of good reliability (George & Mallery, 2019). Thirteen Likert-type items measured self-control, and the results showed good reliability ($\alpha = .815$). Five items were employed to measure purchase intention, and demonstrated excellent reliability ($\alpha = .934$). Consequently, all items were kept. Table 4 displays descriptive statistics for the primary constructs self-control and purchase intention.

Table 4**.** Descriptive Statistics for Main Variables

Variable	Type	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Self Control	Moderator	320	2.23	6.54	4.54	0.881	13	.815
Purchase Intention	DV	320	1	7	4.451	1.453	5	.934

Note. Own creation.

All variables were operationalized following the theoretical framework and statistical requirements. Coding and analytical roles are outlined below:

- **Promotion Presence**: Binary (0 = No Promotion, 1 = Promotion); tests main effect on purchase intention (H1).

- **Discount Format**: Dichotomous (0 = Monetary, 1 = Percentage); compares discount types (H1A, H2).
- **Promotion Group (3-Level)**: Categorical (0 = No Promotion, 1 = Monetary, 2 = Percentage); applied in full model.
- **Self-Control Level**: Dummy-coded moderator (0 = Low, 1 = High), based on median split (H2, H2A).
- **Product Price Level**: Dichotomous (0 = Shampoo, 1 = Smartphone); used as control and moderator.
- **Purchase Intention**: Dependent variable; averaged from five Likert items (1–7) and employed across all hypothesis tests.

Table 5 offers a structured overview of all model variables and their respective coding schemes.

Table 5. Model Variables Summary

Variable	Description	Values	Measure
Promotion Presence	Binary variable indicating presence or absence of a promotion	0 = No Promotion 1 = Promotion	Nominal
Discount Format	Binary variable indicating discount format among promoted cases	0 = Monetary Discount 1 = Percentage Discount	Nominal
Promotion Group (3-Level)	Three-level dummy-coded variable for promotion group comparison	0 = No Promotion 1 = Monetary 2 = Percentage	Nominal
Self-Control Level	Dummy-coded moderator for trait self-control (median split)	0 = Low Self-Control 1 = High Self-Control	Nominal
Product Price Level	Dummy-coded product type as proxy for price level (control variable)	0 = Shampoo (Low-Priced Product) 1 = Smartphone (High-Priced Product)	Nominal
Purchase Intention	Composite score for purchase intention based on Likert scale items	1 to 7	Scale

Note. Own creation.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter analyses the quantitative survey data to evaluate the hypotheses outlined in the literature review.

4.1.1 Descriptive Analysis

2.1) Sample Characteristics

Following data cleaning and outlier elimination, N = 320 participants comprised the final sample. Figure 6 summarizes demographics, including nationality, gender, age, employment, income, and education. The sample was predominantly female (64.7%) and from Germany (75.6%). The majority of the subjects were either employed (62.8%) or still enrolled as students (20.1%), with the majority being under the age of 25 (29.4%). Moreover, the level of education was high, with 25.9% holding a master's degree and 45% with a bachelor'. The income was more evenly distributed, with 20% earning under 20,000 €. A full demographic breakdown is provided in Appendix C.

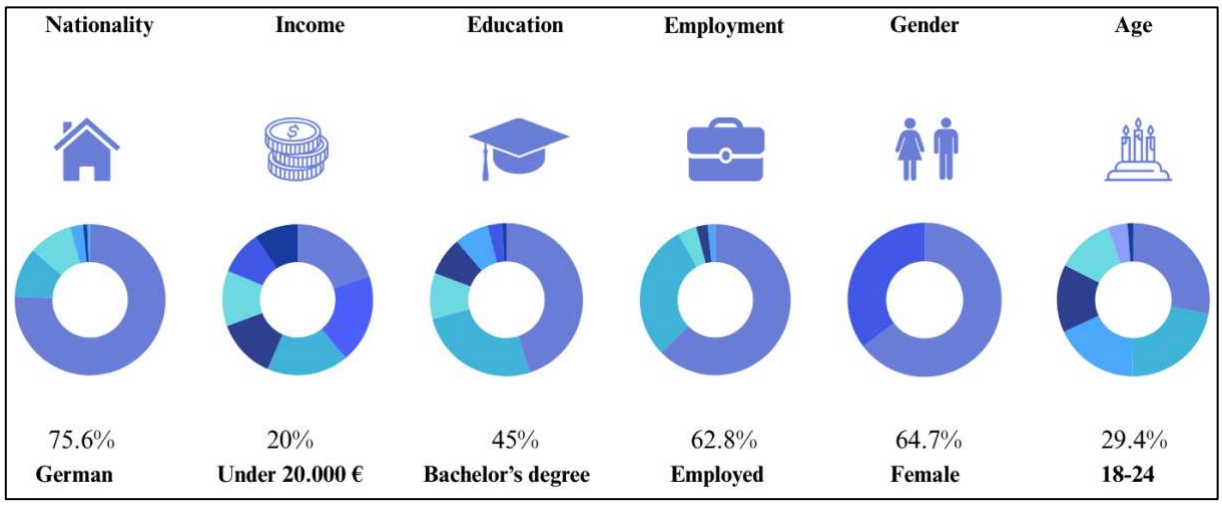

Figure 6. Main Characteristics of Respondents

Note. Own creation.

4.1.2 Hypothesis Testing

Following the descriptive analysis, after confirming data quality and reliability, hypothesis testing was conducted using inferential methods that aligned with the conceptual framework. Essential assumptions, such as multicollinearity and interaction validity, have been assessed through preliminary testing. With a focus on promotions, self-control, price point and PI, the

analysis was conducted in three stages: (1) evaluating predictor independence, (2) testing hypotheses with suitable techniques, and (3) examining moderation effects. Appendix D contains comprehensive SPSS output tables of the analysis.

4.1.2.1 Multicollinearity Assessment

Before hypothesis testing, multicollinearity diagnostics were undertaken to ensure that promotion type, self-control, and price point did not exhibit problematic intercorrelations. High multicollinearity can inflate standard errors and distort parameter estimates, reducing model validity models (Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Checks for multicollinearity revealed no issues, with all diagnostic results displayed in Table 6.

According to established guidelines, acceptable thresholds are defined as VIF values below 2.5, tolerance values above 0.10, eigenvalues above 0.01, and a condition index below 30 (Hair et al., 2018). As shown in Table 6, all VIFs ranged from 1.001 to 1.037, tolerance values exceeded 0.964, the lowest eigenvalue was 0.361, and the maximum condition index was 3.17—well within acceptable limits. No problematic variance patterns emerged, indicating no evidence of multicollinearity and allowing reliable inclusion of predictors in the regression models.

Table 6**.** Multicollinearity Diagnostics

Variable	VIF	Tolerance	Condition Index	Eigenvalue
Promotion Group (3-Level)	1.001	0.999	3.171	1.000
Price Point (High vs. Low)	1.036	0.965	2.962	0.361
Self-Control (High vs. Low)	1.037	0.964	2.962	0.361

Note**.** VIF = Variance Inflation Factor. Multicollinearity is considered problematic if VIF > 2.5, Tolerance < 0.10, Eigenvalue < 0.01, or Condition Index > 30 (Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). All reported values fall within acceptable thresholds, indicating no multicollinearity concerns.

With these statistical prerequisites confirmed, the analysis proceeded with the hypothesis testing. Starting with Hypothesis 1, which examines the direct effect of promotional discount exposure on consumers' purchase intention.

H1: Price discounts positively influence purchase intention.

To test H1, a linear regression was performed using promotion presence as a dummy-coded predictor (0 = no promotion, 1 = promotion) and purchase intention (7-point Likert scale) as the dependent variable. Due to its increased flexibility and capacity to estimate explained variance, this approach was chosen over an independent samples t-test (Field, 2018). The model specification is as follows:

$$PI_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot PromotionPresence_i + \varepsilon_i \qquad \text{for } i = 1, ..., 320$$

The Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression assumptions were fulfilled. Linearity and homoscedasticity were verified by residual plots. The data showed no autocorrelation, according to the Durbin–Watson statistic (1.590). The sample size (N = 320) was considered sufficient for normality, even though the Shapiro-Wilk test was significant (W = 0.964, p <.001), and skewness (–0.535) and kurtosis (–0.375) were within acceptable bounds (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The model was significant with F(1, 318) = 32.73, p <.001, and R2 =.093. Higher purchase intention was reported by participants in the promotion condition (B = 0.942, SE = 0.165, β = 0.305, 95% CI [0.618, 1.266]). This was confirmed by group means: No-promotion group M = 4.07, promotion group M = 5.01.

These results *confirm H1*: Price reductions influence PI. The outcome is consistent with research such as Chandon et al. (2000). It is further supported by the Transaction Utility Theory (Thaler, 1985), Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), which emphasize the influence of external cues in consumer decision-making. Figure 7 illustrates how promotional presence affects purchase intention.

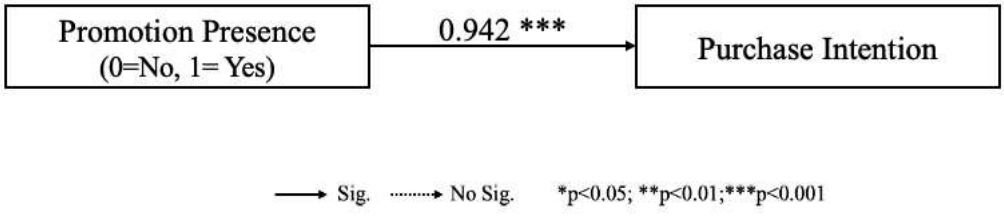

Figure 7. Effect of Promotion Presence on Purchase Intention

Note. Own creation. No promotion (0) was used as a reference category.

H1A: A monetary discount has a stronger effect on purchase intention than a percentage discount.

To test Hypothesis H1A, an independent-sample t-test compared purchase intention between participants who received a monetary discount (coded 0) and those who received a percentage discount (coded 1). The equation representing the model is given below:

$$PI_i = \mu_0 + \mu_1 \cdot DiscountFormat_i + \varepsilon_i \qquad \text{for } i = 1, ..., 214,$$

Assumptions were fulfilled: Levene's test verified the homogeneity of variances ($F = 2.942$, $p = .088$). Skewness and kurtosis were within acceptable bounds, and visual inspection revealed no significant violations, despite significant Shapiro-Wilk results ($p < .01$). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), the sample size ($N = 214$) is adequate to guarantee robustness.

There was no statistically significant difference in purchase intention between monetary and percentage discounts, $t(212) = -1.393$, $p = .165$, 95% CI [–0.648, 0.111], with a mean difference of –0.27. Effect size estimates (Cohen's $d = -0.19$) suggested a small, non-significant effect.

There was *no support for H1A*. Although the descriptive results indicated a preference for monetary discounts, this effect was neither statistically nor practically significant. The null hypothesis of equal means could not be rejected. This finding could be due to the lack of price differentiation, which may mask effects, as monetary discounts tend to be more persuasive for high-priced products (Chen et al., 1998; Suri et al., 2013). Figure 8 depicts the comparison of purchase intentions by discount type.

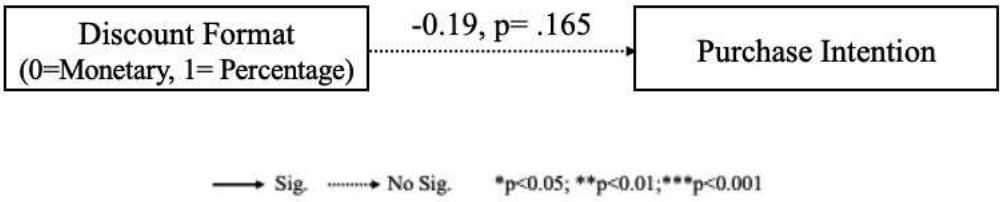

Figure 8. Effect of Discount Format on Purchase Intention

Note. Own creation. Based on monetary vs. percentage discount condition.

H1B: Percentage discounts have a stronger impact on purchase intention for low-price products than for high-price products.

To test Hypothesis H1B, an independent-sample t-test was conducted among participants exposed to a percentage discount (N = 108). Purchase intention was compared between low-priced products (0 = shampoo) and high-priced products (1 = smartphone). The statistical specification is as follows:

$$PI_i = \mu_0 + \mu_1 \cdot PriceLevel_i + \varepsilon_i \qquad \text{for } i = 1, ..., 108,$$

Assumptions were met: Despite a significant Shapiro-Wilk result ($p < .05$), skewness and kurtosis scores were within the acceptable (±1) range, and Levene's test demonstrated equal variances ($F = 0.210$, $p = .648$). The sample size guaranteed robustness, and visual inspection confirmed approximate normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Results show that there was a significant difference in purchase intention ($t(106) = 2.204$, $p = .030$). With a mean difference of 0.62 (95% CI [0.06, 1.17]), participants gave the low-priced item a higher rating ($M = 4.94$, $SD = 1.42$) than the high-priced item ($M = 4.33$, $SD = 1.48$). The observed effect size ranged from small to moderate (Cohen's $d = 0.42$).

These results *support H1B*: Percentage discounts were more effective for low-priced products, warranting rejection of the null hypothesis. This finding align with previous research (Chen et al., 1998). The comparative effect across price levels is visually illustrated in Figure 9**.**

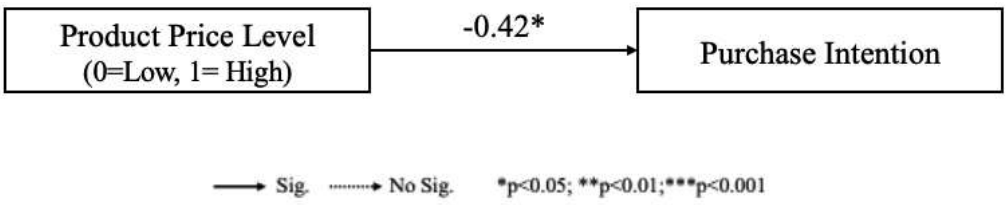

Figure 9. Effect of Price Level on Purchase Intention for Percentage Promotions

Note. Own creation. Based on percentage discount condition.

H2: Self-control moderates the relationship between price discount promotions (monetary vs. percentage) and purchase intention.

To test H2, a moderation analysis was conducted using PROCESS Model 1 introduced by Hayes (2022), with purchase intention as the dependent variable, discount format as the predictor (0 = monetary, 1 = percentage), and self-control as the continuous moderator. Variables were mean-centered, and HC3 standard errors were applied to correct for heteroscedasticity. The statistical model can be expressed as follows:

$$PI_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot DiscountFormat_i + \beta_2 \cdot SelfControl_i + \beta_3 \cdot (DiscountFormat_i \times SelfControl_i) + \varepsilon_i$$
$$\text{for } i = 1, ..., 214$$

The assumptions of the regression were fulfilled. A visual inspection and acceptable skewness (-0.561) and kurtosis (-0.288) values supported approximate normality, yet the Shapiro-Wilk test indicated non-normality ($W = .966$, $p < .001$). There was no evidence of multicollinearity (VIF < 1.04), and residuals were independent (Durbin–Watson = 1.507).

The analysis indicates, that the model was not significant: $F(3, 210) = 0.993$, $p = .397$, $R^2 = .016$. Neither the interaction between discount format and self-control ($\beta = 0.18$, $p = .644$) nor the main effects of discount format ($\beta = 0.14$, $p = .636$) or self-control ($\beta = –0.49$, $p = .445$) reached statistical significance. The interaction explained no additional variance ($\Delta R^2 = .001$, $p = .644$).

These results provide *no support for H2*, as self-control demonstrated no moderating effect on the relationship between purchase intention and discount type. This finding stands in contrast to dual-process theories and prior research, which suggest that individuals with lower self-control are more susceptible to prominent promotional cue (Baumeister et al., 2007; Vohs & Faber, 2007; Strack & Deutsch, 2004). As illustrated by Figure 10, consumers' responses to the type of discount were not significantly impacted by trait-level self-control.

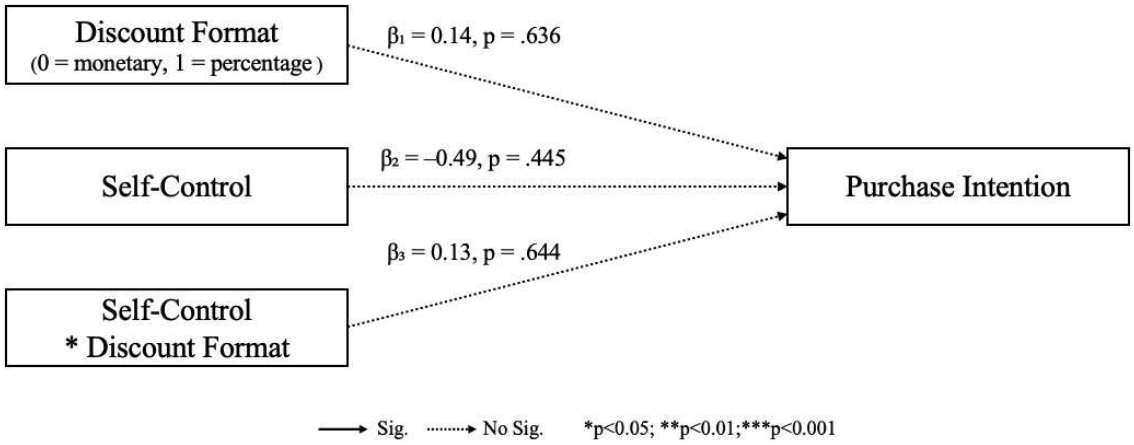

Figure 10. Self-Control as Moderator of Discount Format

Note. Own creation. Based on monetary vs. percentage discount condition.

H2A: Among individuals with low self-control, the effect of price discounts on purchase intention is stronger than among individuals with high self-control.

To examine H2A, moderation was tested using PROCESS Model 1 (Hayes, 2022). Purchase intention served as the dependent variable, promotion presence (0 = no promo, 1 = promo) as the predictor, and self-control (0 = low, 1 = high) as the moderator. All predictors were mean-centered, and HC3 robust standard errors were applied. The model is specified as:

$$PI_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot PromotionPresence_i + \beta_2 \cdot SelfControl_i + \beta_3 \cdot (PromotionPresence_i \times SelfControl_i) + \varepsilon_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, ..., 320$$

Regression assumptions were met. The skewness (–0.492) and kurtosis (–0.404) fell within acceptable bounds. Although the Shapiro–Wilk test indicated non-normality ($W = .970$, $p < .001$), visual inspection supported approximate normality due to the large sample size ($N = 320$). No autocorrelation was detected (Durbin–Watson = 1.579), and residual plots suggested homoscedasticity. Multicollinearity was not present (VIF = 1.001).

Purchase intention was considerably raised by the presence of a promotion ($\beta = 0.89$, $p < .001$). Nevertheless, there was no significant relationship between self-control ($\beta = –0.33$, $p = .212$) and discount type ($\beta = 0.07$, $p = .827$). No explanatory value was added by the interaction ($\Delta R2 = .0001$, $F = 0.048$, $p = .827$). Although these did not result in significant regression effects, self-control demonstrated a moderately positive correlation with promotion presence ($r = .305$, $p < .001$) and a weakly negative correlation with purchase intention ($r = –.112$, $p = .023$).

There is *no support for H2A.* The absence of a significant interaction between self-control and promotion presence indicates the impact of a discount was independent of self-control level. Dual-process models predicted that consumers with less self-control would be more receptive to promotional cues, yet this was not the case (Strack & Deutsch, 2004; Baumeister et al., 2007; Vohs & Faber, 2007). This implies that self-control might not consistently affect discount effectiveness under the current experimental setup. Figure 11 displays the pattern of interaction.

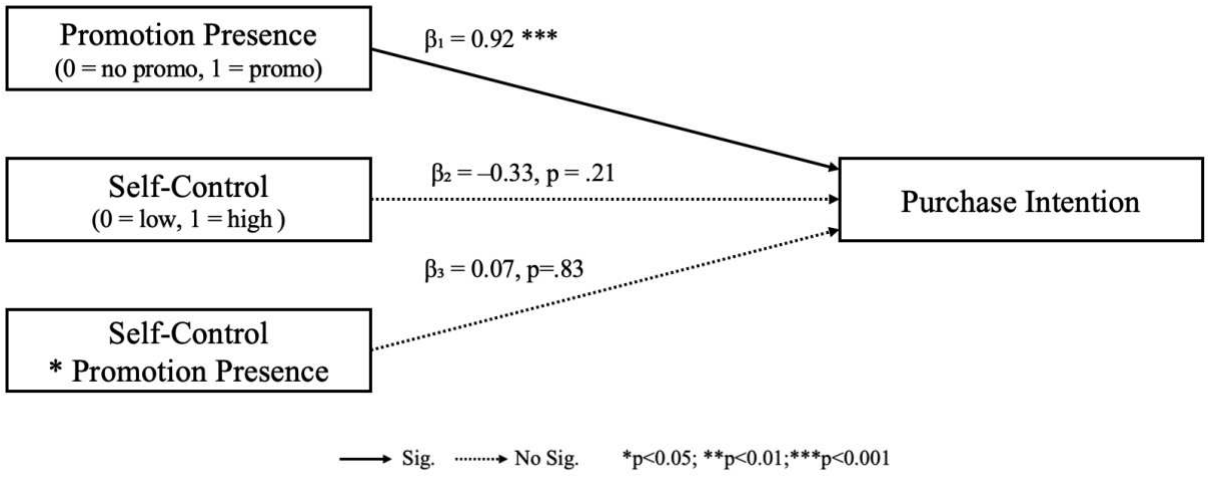

Figure 11. Self-Control as Moderator of Promotion Presence

Note. Own creation. No promotion (0) was used as a reference category.

Full Model Test

A moderated multiple regression using PROCESS Model 2 was employed to analyze the entire conceptual framework (Hayes, 2018). The model examined whether self-control and price level moderated the impact of promotion conditions (3-Level) (monetary, percentage, and no promotion) on purchase intention. Purchase intention was the dependent variable, while the discount condition—dummy-coded with "no promotion" as the reference—was the independent variable. Price level (0 = shampoo, 1 = smartphone) and self-control (0 = low, 1 = high) served as moderators. Prior to the creation of interaction terms, continuous predictors were mean-adjusted.

The model is detailed as:

$$PI_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot Monetary_i + \beta_2 \cdot Percentage_i + \beta_3 \cdot SelfControl_i + \beta_4 \cdot PriceLevel_i + \beta_5 \cdot (Monetary_i \times SelfControl_i) + \beta_6 \cdot (Percentage_i \times SelfControl_i)$$

$$+ \beta_7 \cdot (\text{Monetary}_i \times \text{PriceLevel}_i) + \beta_8 \cdot (\text{Percentage}_i \times \text{PriceLevel}_i) + \varepsilon_i \qquad \text{for } i = 1, ..., 214$$

All regression assumptions were met, including normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity (VIF < 5; Durbin–Watson = 1.56).

The model was significant: $F(8, 311) = 5.61$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .126$. Both discount types increased purchase intention: monetary: $b = 1.05$, $p < .001$ and percentage: $b = 0.80$, $p < .001$. Group means supported these results: monetary = 5.12, Percentage = 4.85, no promotion = 4.07.

No interaction terms were significant (all $p > .47$), and neither price level nor self-control had significant main effects ($p = .236$). These findings demonstrate that while both forms of discounts increase purchase intention, neither price level nor self-control can mitigate their effects. These null results should be interpreted with caution due to the limited power to detect interaction effects. The model should be replicated in future studies with bigger sample sizes and more ecologically sound settings. Table 7 provides a thorough summary of all the results of the hypothesis testing, and Figure 12 shows the complete moderated regression model.

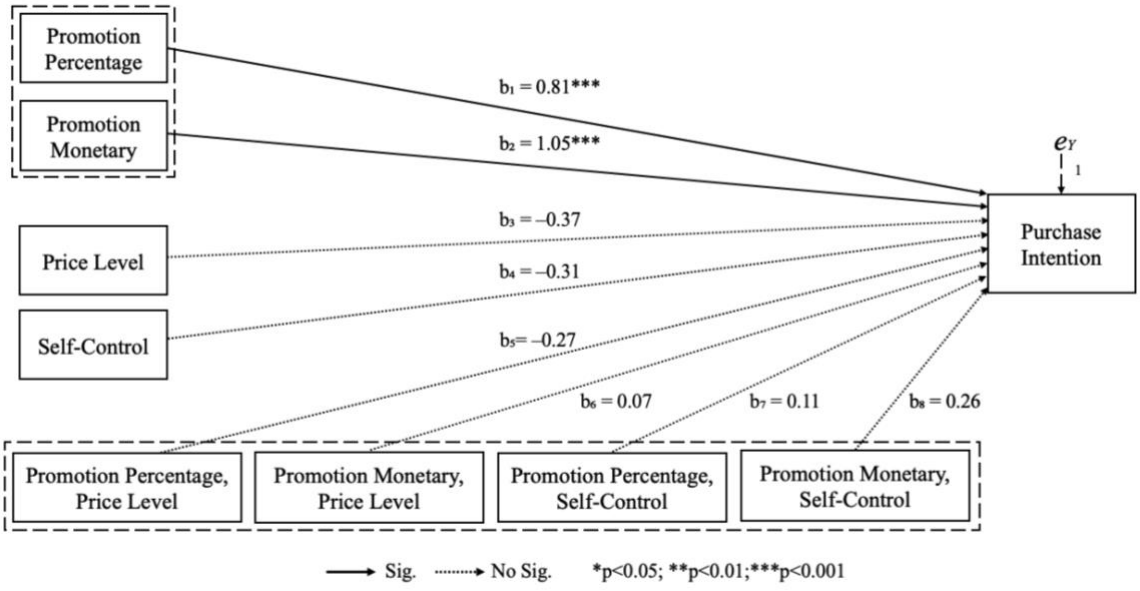

Figure 12. Full Moderated Regression Model (PROCESS Model 2)

Note. Own creation.

Table 7. Summary of Data Analysis Results

Hypothesis	Test	Hypothesis Result	Full Model
1	Linear Regression	Supported	Supported
1A	Independent Samples t-test	Not Supported	Rejected
1B	Independent Samples t-test	Supported	Rejected
2	PROCESS Model 1	Not Supported	Rejected
2A	PROCESS Model 1	Not Supported	Rejected
–	PROCESS Model 2 (Full)	–	Partially Supported

Note. Own creation.

4.2 Key Findings and Discussion

The aim of this section is to assess whether the empirical data supports the theoretical assumptions outlined earlier.

H1: Price discounts positively influence purchase intention.

The results *support H1*. Participants reported significantly higher purchase intention when exposed to a discount compared to the control group ($\beta = .305$, $p < .001$), which is consistent with previous findings (e.g., Chandon et al., 2000). Several theoretical models offer a coherent explanation for this effect.

Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior suggests that external cues like discounts influence attitudes and perceived behavioral control, thereby increasing behavioral intent. Similarly, Thaler's (1985) Transaction Utility Theory highlights the psychological value derived from perceived "good deals," which may explain the heightened intent to purchase discounted products. Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) model frames discounts as environmental stimuli that trigger internal cognitive or affective reactions, leading to behavioral responses such as purchase intention. Dual-Process Theories further suggest that in low-involvement contexts—such as the purchase of everyday products like shampoo—consumers rely on heuristics (e.g., "discount = value") rather than deliberate analysis (Kahneman, 2011; Strack & Deutsch, 2004). In digital settings, where attention is limited, such cues serve as particularly salient signals of value (Iyengar et al., 2004).

Taken together, these frameworks explain why price discounts are effective: they simplify decision-making, elevate perceived value, and trigger positive responses. However, the model explained only a small proportion of variance ($R^2 = 0.093$), indicating the likely influence of

additional factors. Prior research suggests that elements such as brand image, emotional state or scarcity and urgency cues may further shape consumer intention (Gardner, 2022; Lee & Choeh, 2021; Friese et al., 2008).

H1A: A monetary discount has a stronger effect on purchase intention than a percentage discount.

Findings do *not support H1A*, which predicted that monetary discounts would more strongly influence purchase intention than percentage discounts. While purchase intention was slightly higher in the monetary condition (M = 4.90) than in the percentage condition (M = 4.63), the difference was not statistically significant (p = .165) and the effect size was small (d = –0.19).

This outcome contrasts with findings from behavioral pricing research, which suggest that monetary discounts may appear more valuable, particularly for higher-priced products (Sinha & Smith, 2000; Chen et al., 1998). The underlying explanation often draws on Prospect Theory by Kahneman and Tversky (1979), where loss aversion and diminishing marginal utility make tangible savings psychologically appealing. However, the theory does not universally prioritize absolute over relative framing. Supporting this, Hardisty and Weber (2009) emphasize that context shapes value perception. Plassmann et al. (2008) further demonstrate how price framing activates reward-related brain regions.

In this study, several factors may have weakened potential framing effects. First, no interaction between price level and format was tested, possibly masking differential effects (González et al., 2016; Darke & Freedman, 1995). Second, both discount types were equivalent in value (20%), and presented in a low-involvement context (shampoo), where consumers tend to rely on simple heuristics (Kahneman, 2011; Strack & Deutsch, 2004). Additionally, framing effects are less likely under low cognitive effort as indicated by Sinha and Verma (2020), especially when differences between formats are subtle and affectively neutral (DelVecchio et al., 2007; Chandon et al., 2000; Dholakia, 2001). Moreover, the hypothetical design and the utilitarian nature of the products may have reduced emotional involvement—an important moderator for framing effects (Neal et al., 2009; Hardesty & Bearden, 2003; Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). In sum, while no format emerged as superior, the findings reaffirm that discount effectiveness is context-dependent. Future research should consider product price, emotional involvement, and framing salience more explicitly (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000; Inman & Winer, 1998).

H1B: **Percentage discounts have a stronger impact on purchase intention for low-price products than for high-price products.**

The analysis indicated *support for H1B*. Participants reported significantly higher purchase intention for a relative price reduction on a low-cost product (shampoo) compared to a high-cost item (smartphone) ($p = .030$, $d = 0.42$). This suggests that the perceived effectiveness of discounts is influenced by the product's price level.

This finding aligns with Prospect Theory, which posits that individuals evaluate outcomes relative to a reference point, making them particularly sensitive to relative gains when the absolute value is small (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Tversky & Kahneman, 1992).

The observed effect is further explained by the Number Effect, which suggests that percentage discounts appear more psychologically salient when applied to low-cost products, as the relative saving feels larger even when the absolute amount is modest (Suri et al., 2013; Chen et al., 1998; Darke & Freedman, 1995). This perceived magnitude increases their impact on decision-making. Additionally, proportional discounts are cognitively easier to process and more noticeable, especially in low-involvement settings where consumers rely on simple heuristics rather than detailed evaluations (Lowe & Barnes, 2012; Krishna et al., 2002).

Empirical findings support that percentage discounts are generally more persuasive than equivalent monetary savings when the product price is low, as they are perceived to offer greater value (Khonsor, 2020; González et al., 2016; DelVecchio et al., 2007). This pattern is particularly relevant for everyday purchases, where price sensitivity is high and cognitive effort is minimal.

From a managerial perspective, relative discount framing seems particularly appropriate for low-cost, frequently purchased products, allowing businesses to maximize perceived value while reducing financial impact.

In conclusion, the results support the idea that discount framing effects are context-sensitive. Discount tactics should be customized by marketers based on product attributes like cost and customer engagement. In order to reflect real-world decision-making, future research should use more ecologically valid designs and look into other moderating factors like urgency, brand image, or emotional relevance (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000; Inman & Winer, 1998).

H2: Self-control moderates the relationship between price discount promotions (monetary vs. percentage) and purchase intention

Hypothesis *H2 was not supported.* The interaction between discount format and trait self-control was not significant (β = 0.18, p = .644), and the model explained minimal variance (R^2 = .016). According to the Strength Model of self-control and Dual-Process Theory, individuals with lower self-control should respond more strongly to immediate rewards such as discounts (Baumeister et al., 2007; Strack & Deutsch, 2004). However, this effect did not emerge in the present study.

A likely explanation lies in the emotionally neutral and hypothetical design, which lacked key triggers such as urgency, financial risk, or temptation—conditions known to activate self-regulatory conflict (Friese et al., 2008; Shiv & Fedorikhin, 1999). Moreover, the utilitarian nature of the products and the controlled online setting likely minimized emotional engagement and impulsivity.

These results align with recent theoretical developments framing self-control as a context-sensitive rather than static trait (Duckworth et al., 2016; Inzlicht & Schmeichel, 2012). In situations devoid of temptation or consequence, even low self-control individuals may behave similarly to high-control individuals (Friese, 2022). Cultural homogeneity in the sample may have further limited behavioral variance (Müller & Gelbrich, 2021).

Theoretically, these findings challenge static trait-based models and underscore the importance of situational factors in shaping consumer behavior. Practically, marketers may achieve stronger effects by using dynamic cues such as urgency, scarcity, or emotional framing rather than relying on trait segmentation (Iyer et al., 2020; Lyngs et al., 2019).

H2A: Among individuals with low self-control, the effect of price discounts on purchase intention is stronger than among individuals with high self-control.

The statistical results reveal *no support for H2A*. Although Wennerhold and Friese (2022) and Baumeister et al. (2007) suggest that individuals with low self-control are more responsive to immediate rewards, no moderating effect was found in this study (β = 0.07, p = .827; ΔR^2 = .0001). While price promotions increased overall purchase intention, trait self-control did not significantly influence this effect.

A likely explanation lies in the emotionally neutral, low-stakes nature of the experimental setting. Previous studies show that self-control effects typically emerge under conditions of emotional salience, cognitive load, or real consequences (Friese et al., 2008; Vohs et al., 2006; Shiv et al., 1999). In contrast, the online, hypothetical scenario involving functional products (e.g., shampoo, smartphone) may not have sufficiently activated self-regulatory conflict.

Recent theoretical models view self-control as a context-sensitive, dynamic process rather than a stable trait (Duckworth et al., 2016; Inzlicht & Schmeichel, 2012). High self-control is often expressed through proactive avoidance, which is less visible in static choice tasks. Conversely, impulsive responses in low self-control individuals are more likely when temptations are emotionally compelling—conditions not present here.

These findings suggest that trait self-control, while conceptually important, may not be a reliable predictor of discount sensitivity in emotionally neutral, low-stakes settings. In such environments, consumers appear less driven by dispositional control and more by the immediate structure of the decision context. As a result, marketing strategies may be more effective when they adapt to situational triggers—such as emotional cues, urgency, or perceived scarcity—rather than relying on trait-based segmentation. This perspective aligns with recent literature that has emphasized the necessity for more context-aware, state-dependent models of consumer behavior (Inzlicht et al., 2020; Lyngs et al., 2019).

4.3 Additional Research

4.3.1 Extended Psychological Predictors

An extended multiple regression model was employed to add supplementary psychological predictors to the key variables of self-control, price level, and discount format. Value consciousness, sale proneness, and personal relevance are factors that were included as they were proven to be significant in forecasting consumer deal evaluation and purchase behavior (Mittal, 1995; Lichtenstein et al., 1993; Lichtenstein et al., 1990). All were assumptions were met, no outlier detected and constructs were reliable ($\alpha > .80$). The complete SPSS output can be found in Appendix E.

The initial model ($R2 = .293$) revealed that personal relevance ($\beta = .427$, $p < .001$) and sale proneness ($\beta = .348$, $p < .001$) were significant predictors, thereby indicating that motivational factors play a crucial role in influencing customer responses. Conversely, self-control and value

consciousness exhibited no discernible effects, suggesting that stable personality traits and general price sensitivity may not exert a significant influence in this context. The explanatory power of the second model, which substituted price level for self-control, was marginally higher (R2 =.339), but the price level (β =.103, p =.109) was still not significant. The notion that situational involvement and individual deal orientation are more important than static factors like price level or self-control is further supported by this.

Three-way interactions between product price level, individual characteristics, and discount format were tested using PROCESS Model 3 (Hayes, 2018) to find potential moderating effects. To suggest that the framing of discounts work consistently across various consumer profiles and product categories, none of these interactions were statistically significant (e.g., discount format × value consciousness × self-control: p =.799).

According to these results, consumer motivation—particularly deal proneness and personal relevance—drives purchase behavior more strongly than stable attributes. This shows marketers the potential of dynamic, context-sensitive tactics like urgency cues or personalized messaging, especially in low-involvement or digital contexts (Simonson, 2005; Lyngs et al., 2019). These findings should be interpreted cautiously, though, considering the study's hypothetical and emotionally neutral design. Future studies should examine these effects in more emotionally compelling and ecologically sound settings because there aren't many generalizations to behavior in the real world.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

The present study examined the impact of monetary versus percentage discount formats on consumer purchase intentions, while also exploring the moderating effects of individual self-control and product price level on these effects.

The findings of this research indicate that price promotions consistently enhance purchase intention, regardless of the discount format. Participants did not show a clear preference for either monetary or percentage-based discounts. Contrary to expectations, monetary discounts were not significantly more effective than percentage discounts in increasing purchase intention. However, a key result emerged when accounting for product price level: percentage discounts proved to be more effective for low-cost products.

Contrary to the prevailing assumptions, the psychological characteristic of self-control exerted no influence on the extent to which price discounts influenced purchase intention. Individuals with low self-control demonstrated no significant response to price discounts on their intention to make a purchase, a finding that aligned with the responses of individuals with high self-control.

Supplementary analyses revealed that purchase intention is primarily driven by psychological traits, particularly personal relevance, and sale proneness, rather than by general price consciousness. Furthermore, no significant moderating effects were identified for psychological traits such as self-control or situational factors like product price level when these were examined in conjunction with either value consciousness or sale proneness.

The findings indicate that discount framing effects remain consistent across diverse consumer profiles and various product categories, thereby underscoring the predominant role of motivational engagement and deal affinity in shaping purchase decisions.

5.2 Limitations

While this study sheds light on the effect of discount formats and trait self-control on purchase intention, it is necessary to acknowledge several limitations. First, the use of a convenience sample of customers who had recently purchased shampoo or smartphones allowed for rapid

data gathering but limited generalizability. The sample's demographics and cultural background were rather uniform, which may have reduced response variability and limited external validity (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013; Saunders et al., 2009; Aiken & West, 1991).

Second, although purchase intention is widely used as a proxy for actual behavior, its predictive validity may be limited in emotionally neutral and hypothetical experimental settings. The absence of real consequences, emotional arousal, or situational pressures—such as time constraints or financial risk—can reduce the ecological validity of the findings. Prior research has shown that such contextual factors are essential in activating self-regulatory mechanisms and realistic decision-making processes (Hofmann & Kotabe, 2012; Neal et al., 2009; Friese et al., 2008; Vohs et al., 2006).

Third, all psychological predictors—self-control, personal relevance, sale proneness, and value consciousness—were assessed using self-report in a hypothetical setting. Their predictive power could have been influenced by social desirability or a lack of self-awareness (Paulhus, 1991). Future studies should consider incorporating implicit measures or actual behavioral data to validate these constructs more robustly and reduce the influence of self-report distortions. Fourth, the goods used—shampoo and smartphones—were utilitarian and emotionally neutral, which probably reduced affective participation and framing effects (Herabadi et al., 2009; Chandon et al., 2000). Brand associations (e.g., iPhone vs. Samsung) may also have generated uncontrolled bias.

Fifth, self-control was conceptualized solely as a stable trait, without accounting for situational variability. Recent research emphasizes that self-control is dynamic and context-sensitive, which may explain the absence of significant moderating effects (Friese, 2022; Duckworth et al., 2016; Inzlicht & Schmeichel, 2012). Finally, slight deviations from normality in residuals, indicated by a significant Shapiro–Wilk test, suggest caution when interpreting p-values—particularly for interaction effects (Field, 2018; Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Consequently, these limitations underscore the necessity for additional research to address the study’s shortcomings.

5.3 Further Research

Several promising avenues for future research arise from the present study's limitations and findings. First, instead of relying solely on trait-based assessments, future work should incorporate situational manipulations of self-control—such as ego depletion, time pressure, or cognitive load—which more effectively trigger self-regulatory processes, particularly in emotionally charged or high-risk environments (Wennerhold & Friese, 2022; Duckworth et al., 2016; Baumeister et al., 2007).

Second, future studies should move beyond self-reported purchase intentions and prioritize actual or incentivized consumer behavior. While intention remains a widely used proxy, it often fails to reflect the spontaneous and affect-driven nature of real purchasing decisions, especially in digital or emotionally salient contexts (Hofmann et al., 2012; Friese et al., 2008).

Third, psychological constructs such as personal relevance, value consciousness, and sale proneness should be validated using behavioral tasks or choice-based experiments. Online A/B testing or field experiments could offer more ecologically valid insights into how these variables predict actual decision-making under varying situational constraints.

Fourth, future research should examine whether hedonic or emotionally engaging product categories (e.g., fashion, food, entertainment) are more susceptible to discount framing effects and impulse buying. Product type and price level likely interact with consumers' regulatory capacity, affecting the efficacy of monetary versus percentage discounts (Herabadi et al., 2009; Strack & Deutsch, 2004; DelVecchio et al., 2007).

Fifth, the influence of digital retail environments deserves deeper investigation. Features like scarcity cues, algorithmic targeting, and push notifications may amplify framing effects and reduce the relevance of stable personality traits by increasing cognitive load and heuristic reliance (Lyngs et al., 2019; Iyer et al., 2020).

Moreover, longitudinal and multi-session designs could better capture habit formation, changing deal sensitivity, and the cumulative effects of repeated exposure to promotions (Adriaanse et al., 2014; Wood et al., 2005). Expanding beyond a German sample to include diverse cultural contexts would also strengthen the generalizability of findings.

Finally, future studies should explore how non-price-based value drivers—such as sustainability, convenience, or brand trust—interact with discount framing. These factors may amplify or attenuate the perceived attractiveness of discounts, particularly in high-involvement or ethically motivated purchases (Luchs et al., 2010; Keller, 1998).

In sum, enhancing ecological validity through emotionally salient contexts, real purchase consequences, and situational manipulations of self-control would help better understand the conditions under which price promotions influence behavior (Loewenstein et al., 2001; Vohs et al., 2006).

5.3.1 Managerial Implications

This study provides several actionable insights for marketers seeking to enhance promotional effectiveness. First, the findings indicate that percentage discounts are particularly effective for low-priced products, likely because consumers evaluate savings proportionally rather than in absolute terms (DelVecchio et al., 2007). While percentage discounts also outperformed monetary ones for high-priced items in this study, previous research suggests that monetary formats may be more persuasive when the absolute saving is substantial (Chen et al., 1998). Discount strategies should therefore be tailored to the product's price level to optimize perceived value.

Second, since trait self-control did not moderate promotional responsiveness, marketers should focus on situational techniques that foster heuristic decision-making. Tools such as scarcity cues, countdown timers, and push notifications have been shown to increase urgency and reduce deliberation—especially in digital environments where consumer attention is fragmented (Iyengar et al., 2004; Simonson, 2005).

Nevertheless, it is imperative to exercise caution when implementing excessive discounting, particularly within premium segments. This is to ensure that the brand is not subjected to long-term damage (Peck & Childers, 2006; Keller, 1998).

The potential for targeted segmentation and personalized messaging is further underscored by exploratory findings on value consciousness and saleproneness. However, prior to the dissemination of the strategy, it is imperative to substantiate these psychological characteristics in ecologically realistic settings (Hofmann & Kotabe, 2012; Neal et al., 2009; Friese et al., 2008; Vohs et al., 2006).

In summary, marketers must employ situational cues to encourage impulsive buying and correspond to the type of discount to the attributes of the product. In the pursuit of maintaining brand integrity, a strategic shift toward prioritizing context over personality traits may yield more consistent outcomes.

5.3.2 Academic Implications

This study advances the field of consumer behavior research by highlighting the notion that contextual factors, such as product price level and discount framing, possess a greater effect on purchase intention than stable psychological traits like self-control. These outcomes align with dynamic models of self-regulation, that highlight how context-specific triggers, cognitive load, and emotional salience affect consumer responses (Duckworth et al., 2016; Inzlicht & Schmeichel, 2012).

The efficacy of percentage discounts on inexpensive goods aligns with existing research, which posits that consumers evaluate value proportionately rather than in absolute terms (DelVecchio et al., 2007; Chen et al., 1998). Conversely, the limited impact of monetary price reductions under high-price conditions suggests a complex interaction that requires further research.

To better simulate impulsive consumer behavior, situational manipulations including ego depletion, time pressure, or emotional stimuli should be encompassed (Baumeister et al., 2007; Vohs & Faber, 2007) This is highlighted by the absence of significant moderating effects for trait self-control. Additionally, although self-reported intentions are frequently utilized, their external validity is limited. According to Friese et al. (2008), behavioral measures or real-life purchase situations have the potential to produce more reliable insights, especially in digital or emotionally charged settings.

Value consciousness and sale proneness constitute two exploratory findings which seem promising for segmentation research. However, to verify their predictive ability, these constructs must be replicated in ecologically valid environments (Lichtenstein et al., 1990; Wood et al., 2005).

In sum, this thesis supports a shift from static trait-based approaches to context-sensitive models that better capture how real-world purchase decisions are shaped by discount framing and product context.

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7 APPENDICES

Appendix A: Pre-Test Questionnaire

1. Introduction
Welcome and thank you for participating!
This short pre-study is intended to evaluate the clarity and realism of product advertisements. There are right or wrong answers. If you have any questions or comments, feel free to contact me at: s-lschulze@ucp.pt.

Thank you very much for your time and support!
Leona Schulze

2. Screening Questions
2.1. Purchase Shampoo
Have you purchased a Head & Shoulders shampoo in the past 12 months?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

2.2. Purchase iPhone
Have you purchased an iPhone smartphone in the past 4 years?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

3. Stimuli Presentation and Manipulation Check
3.1. Shopping Scenario
Please imagine you are shopping and come across the product shown on the next page. Consider the product and its price as if you were in a real online purchase situation. Please pay close attention and memorize the product and price promotion and answer the following questions based on your personal impression.

(One of the following stimuli was randomly presented.)

3.2. Manipulation Check – Product Type
Which product was shown to you?

- Smartphone (1)
- Shampoo (2)
- I'm not sure (3)

3.3. Manipulation Check – Promotion Type
What type of promotion did you see?

- Percentage discount (e.g., 20%) (1)
- Monetary discount (e.g., €20 off) (2)
- No discount (3)
- Not sure (4)

4. Evaluation of the Advertisement
4.1. Perceived Realism of the Advertisement
How realistic did the product advertisement feel to you?
1 – Not at all realistic
2 – Slightly realistic
3 – Somewhat realistic
4 – Neutral
5 – Moderately realistic
6 – Very realistic
7 – Extremely realistic

4.2. Clarity of the Promotion
How easy was it to understand the promotion?
1 – Very difficult
2 – Difficult
3 – Somewhat difficult
4 – Neutral
5 – Somewhat easy
6 – Easy
7 – Very easy

4.3. Attractiveness of the Offer
How attractive did you find the offer?
1 – Not at all attractive
2 – Slightly attractive
3 – Somewhat attractive
4 – Neutral
5 – Moderately attractive
6 – Very attractive
7 – Extremely attractive

4.4. Relevance to Personal Interests
How relevant was the promotion to your personal interests or needs?
1 – Not at all relevant
2 – Slightly relevant
3 – Somewhat relevant
4 – Neutral
5 – Moderately relevant
6 – Very relevant
7 – Extremely relevant

4.5. Persuasiveness of the Advertisement
How convincing was the advertisement in influencing your opinion?
1 – Not at all convincing
2 – Slightly convincing
3 – Somewhat convincing
4 – Neutral
5 – Moderately convincing
6 – Very convincing
7 – Extremely convincing

4.6. Likelihood of Behavioral Response
How likely would you be to act on this promotion (e.g., make a purchase, visit a website)?
1 – Very unlikely
2 – Unlikely
3 – Somewhat unlikely
4 – Neutral
5 – Somewhat likely
6 – Likely
7 – Very likely

4.7. Perceived Trustworthiness of the Brand
How trustworthy did you find the company or brand being promoted?
1 – Not at all trustworthy
2 – Slightly trustworthy
3 – Somewhat trustworthy
4 – Neutral
5 – Moderately trustworthy
6 – Very trustworthy
7 – Extremely trustworthy

5. Personal Relevance of the Product
Please rate how personally relevant the product is to you on the following semantic differential scales (1–7):

Scale Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unimportant – Very important	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Means nothing to me – Means very much to me	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Does not matter to me – Matters a great deal to me	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Insignificant – Very significant	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Of no concern to me – Of great concern to me	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

6. Frequency of Discount Use
How often do you use the following types of promotions?

Promotion Type	Very rarely	Very little	Somewhat little	Neutral	Somewhat much	Quite a lot	Very much
Percentage discounts	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Monetary discounts	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Other	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

7. Demographics
7.1. Gender

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- Other (3)
- Prefer not to say (4)

Appendix B: Full Questionnaire

7.2. Age
- Under 18 (1)
- 18–24 (2)
- 25–34 (3)
- 35–44 (4)
- 45–54 (5)
- 55–64 (6)
- 65 or older (7)

7.3. Education Level
- Less than high school (1)
- High school diploma (2)
- Apprenticeship (7)
- Some college, no degree (
- Bachelor's degree (4)
- Master's degree (5)
- Doctorate (6)

7.4. Employment Status
- Student (1)
- Employed (2)
- Unemployed (3)
- Homemaker (4)
- Retired (5)

7.5. Annual Household Income
- Under €20,000 (1)
- €20,000–34,999 (2)
- €35,000–49,999 (3)
- €50,000–74,999 (4)
- €75,000–99,999 (5)
- Over €100,000 (6)
- Prefer not to say (7)

7.6. Nationality
- German (1)
- Portuguese (2)
- Swiss (7)
- Swedish (4)
- Turkish (5)
- Iranian (8)
- Other (6): _____

1. Introduction and Consent

Welcome and thank you for participating! I kindly invite you to take part in a short survey as part of my Master's thesis in Management with a specialization in Marketing at the Universidade Católica Portugues This study investigates consumer preferences in different shopping situations. Your answers are anonymous and used for academic purposes only. The survey will take approximately 7 minutes. If you have any questions or comments, feel free to contact me at: s-lschulze@ucp.pt.

Thank you very much for your time and support!
Leona Schulze

Consent to participate:
• Yes, I consent to participate.
• No, I do not consent to participate.

Prize Draw Entry (Optional):
To enter the prize draw for an Amazon gift card (1st place: 50€, 2nd place: 30€, 3rd place: 15€), please enter your email address or phone number below. Only fully completed surveys, including the demographic section, will be considered for the draw. Providing contact details is optional and solely for the purpose of notifying the winner. All data will be deleted afterwards.

2. Screening Questions

2.1. Have you purchased a Head & Shoulders shampoo in the past 12 months?
• Yes
• No

2.2. Have you purchased an iPhone smartphone in the past 4 years?
• Yes
• No

3. Stimuli Presentation and Manipulation Check

3.1. Shopping Scenario:
Please imagine you are shopping and come across the product shown on the next page. Consider the product and its price as if you were in a real online purchase situation. Please pay close attention and memorize the product and price promotion and answer the following questions based on your personal impression.

(One of the following stimuli was randomly presented.)

3.2. Which product was shown to you?
• Smartphone
• Shampoo
• I'm not sure

3.3. What type of promotion did you see?
• Percentage discount (e.g., 20%)
• Monetary discount (e.g., €20 off)
• No discount
• Not sure

4. Sale Proneness

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
If a product is on sale, that can be a reason for me to buy it. (1)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
When I buy a brand that's on sale, I feel that I am getting a good deal. (2)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I have favorite brands, but most of the time I buy the brand that's on sale. (3)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
One should try to buy the brand that's on sale. (4)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I am more likely to buy brands that are on sale. (5)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Compared to most people, I am more likely to buy brands that are on sale. (6)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

5. Value Consciousness

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am very concerned about low prices, but I am equally concerned about product quality. (1)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
When grocery shopping, I compare the prices of different brands to be sure I get the best value for the money. (2)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
When purchasing a product, I always try to maximize the quality I get for the money I spend. (3)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
When I buy products, I like to be sure that I am getting my money's worth. (4)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I generally shop around for lower prices on products, but they still must meet certain quality requirements before I will buy them. (5)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
When shopping, I usually compare the unit prices (e.g., price per 100g) of the brands I normally buy. (6)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I always check prices at the grocery store to be sure I get the best value for the money I spend. (8)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

6. Self-Control

Please indicate how much each of the following statements reflects how you typically are:

	Not at all	Slightly	Somewhat	Moderately	Mostly	Very	Very much
I am good at resisting temptation. (1)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I have a hard time breaking bad habits. (2)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I am lazy. (3)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I say inappropriate things. (4)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I do certain things that are bad for me, if they are fun. (5)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I refuse things that are bad for me. (6)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I wish I had more self-discipline. (7)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
People would say that I have iron self-discipline. (8)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Pleasure and fun sometimes keep me from getting work done. (9)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I have trouble concentrating. (10)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I am able to work effectively toward long-term goals. (11)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Sometimes I can't stop myself from doing something, even if I know it is wrong. (12)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
I often act without thinking through all the alternatives. (13)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

7. Purchase Intention

Please rate the following statements:

	Very low	Low	Moderately low	Neither low nor high	Moderately high	High	Very high
The probability that I would buy this product is... (1)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
The probability that I would consider buying the product is... (2)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
My willingness to buy the product is... (3)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

8. Purchase Intention

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
If I were going to buy this product, I would consider buying this model at the price shown. (1)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
At the price shown, I would consider buying the product. (2)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

9. Personal Relevance

Please rate how personally relevant the product is to you on the following semantic differential scales (1–7):

Scale Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unimportant – Very important	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Means nothing to me – Means very much to me	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Does not matter to me – Matters a great deal to me	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Insignificant – Very significant	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Of no concern to me – Of great concern to me	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

10. Frequency of Discount Use

How often do you use the following types of promotions?

Promotion Type	Very rarely	Very little	Somewhat little	Neutral	Somewhat much	Quite a lot	Very much
Percentage discounts	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Monetary discounts	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Other	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

11. Demographics

11.1 Gender

- Male
- Female
- Other
- Prefer not to say

11.2 Age

- Under 18
- 18–24
- 25–34
- 35–44
- 45–54
- 55–64
- 65 or older

11.3 Education Level

- Less than high school
- High school diploma
- Apprenticeship
- Some college, no degree
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Doctorate

11.4 Employment Status

- Student
- Employed
- Unemployed
- Homemaker
- Retired

11.5 Annual Household Income

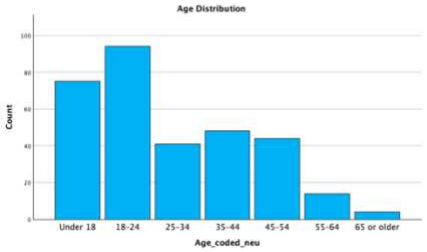
- Under €20,000
- €20,000–34,999
- €35,000–49,999
- €50,000–74,999
- €75,000–99,999
- Over €100,000
- Prefer not to say

11.6 Nationality

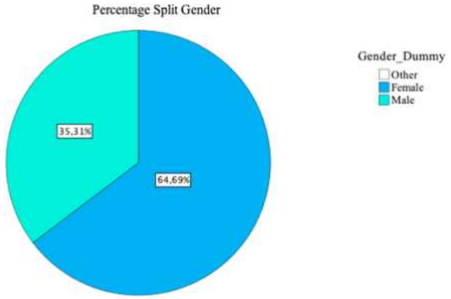
- German
- Portuguese
- Swiss
- Swedish
- Turkish
- Iranian
- Other: _____

Appendix C: Descriptives

Frequencies



Construct	Response Option	Percentage (%)	Total Count
Gender	Female	64,70%	207
	Male	35,30%	113
Age	Under 18	23,40%	75
	18–24	29,40%	94
	25–34	12,80%	41
	35–44	15,00%	48
	45–54	13,80%	44
	55–64	4,40%	14
	65 or older	1,30%	4
Employment	Employed	62,80%	201
	Homemaker	2,50%	8
	Retired	4,10%	13
	Student	29,10%	93
	Unemployed	1,60%	5
Education	Apprenticeship	7,20%	23
	Bachelor's degree	45,00%	144
	Doctorate	3,10%	10
	High school diploma	8,10%	26
	Less than high school	0,90%	3
	Master's degree	25,90%	83
	Some college, no degree	9,70%	31
	Total	100,00%	320
Income	20,000€–34,999€	12,80%	41
	35,000€–49,999€	17,50%	56
	50,000€–74,999€	11,90%	38
	75,000€–99,999€	19,10%	61
	Over 100,000€	9,40%	30
	Prefer not to say	9,40%	30
	Under 20,000€	20,00%	64
Nationality	German	75,60%	242
	Other	10,60%	34
	Portuguese	2,80%	9
	Swedish	0,60%	2
	Swiss	9,40%	30
	Turkish	0,90%	3
	Total	100,00%	320



Univariate Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing Count	Missing Percent	No. of Extremes[a] Low	No. of Extremes[a] High
SaleProneness_N_1	318	5,3962	1,26849	2	,6	30	0
SaleProneness_N_2	316	5,3513	1,21891	4	1,2	22	0
SaleProneness_N_3	317	4,2019	1,65839	3	,9	0	0
SaleProneness_N_4	317	4,4921	1,49813	3	,9	12	0
SaleProneness_N_5	318	4,9874	1,33380	2	,6	3	0
SaleProneness_N_6	317	4,4826	1,58229	3	,9	0	0
ValueConsciousness_N_1	316	5,4462	1,26251	4	1,2	34	0
ValueConsciousness_N_2	316	5,4525	1,29503	4	1,2	30	0
ValueConsciousness_N_3	310	5,6194	1,17840	10	3,1	23	0
ValueConsciousness_N_4	318	5,7296	1,07266	2	,6	16	0
ValueConsciousness_N_5	316	5,3829	1,29304	4	1,2	37	0
ValueConsciousness_N_6	315	5,4381	1,39784	5	1,6	38	0
ValueConsciousness_N_7	315	5,4540	1,24420	5	1,6	29	0
FrequencyUsePromo_N_1	314	5,1019	1,20534	6	1,9	0	0
FrequencyUsePromo_N_2	315	4,8825	1,19800	5	1,6	0	0
FrequencyUsePromo_N_3	308	4,3019	1,17648	12	3,7	22	10
PurchaseIntention1_1_N	320	4,2406	1,72250	0	,0	0	0
PurchaseIntention1_2_N	320	4,4750	1,60895	0	,0	0	0
PurchaseIntention1_3_N	320	4,2469	1,71065	0	,0	0	0
PurchaseIntention2_1_N	320	4,7500	1,51275	0	,0	8	0
PurchaseIntention2_2_N	320	4,5406	1,60863	0	,0	0	0
SelfControl_1_N	320	4,6500	1,39277	0	,0	6	0
SelfControl_6_N	320	4,2750	1,57149	0	,0	0	0
SelfControl_8_N	320	4,0969	1,59741	0	,0	0	0
SelfControl_11_N	320	4,6500	1,48851	0	,0	8	0
SelfControl_2_R	320	4,2000	1,51606	0	,0	0	0
SelfControl_4_R	320	5,0781	1,60431	0	,0	6	0
SelfControl_5_R	320	4,5656	1,63103	0	,0	0	0
SelfControl_7_R	320	4,0094	1,73564	0	,0	0	0
SelfControl_9_R	320	4,3281	1,56224	0	,0	0	0
SelfControl_10_R	320	4,6438	1,63943	0	,0	0	0
SelfControl_12_R	320	4,5906	1,60463	0	,0	0	0
SelfControl_13_R	320	4,9625	1,63576	0	,0	2	0
SelfControl_3_R	320	4,9719	1,54428	0	,0	3	0

a. Number of cases outside the range (Q1 - 1.5*IQR, Q3 + 1.5*IQR).

Frequency Table

Gender_Dummy

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	207	64,7	64,7	64,7
	Male	113	35,3	35,3	100,0
	Total	320	100,0	100,0	

Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Apprenticeship	23	7,2	7,2	7,2
	Bachelor's degree	144	45,0	45,0	52,2
	Doctorate	10	3,1	3,1	55,3
	High school diploma	26	8,1	8,1	63,4
	Less than high school	3	,9	,9	64,4
	Master's degree	83	25,9	25,9	90,3
	Some college, no degree	31	9,7	9,7	100,0
	Total	320	100,0	100,0	

Employment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Employed	201	62,8	62,8	62,8
	Homemaker	8	2,5	2,5	65,3
	Retired	13	4,1	4,1	69,4
	Student	93	29,1	29,1	98,4
	Unemployed	5	1,6	1,6	100,0
	Total	320	100,0	100,0	

1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Shampoo (Low Priced Product)	158	49,4	49,4	49,4
	Smartphone (High Priced Product)	162	50,6	50,6	100,0
	Total	320	100,0	100,0	

Income

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20,000€-34,999€	41	12,8	12,8	12,8
	35,000€-49,999€	56	17,5	17,5	30,3
	50,000€-74,999€	38	11,9	11,9	42,2
	75,000€-99,999€	61	19,1	19,1	61,3
	Over 100,000€	30	9,4	9,4	70,6
	Prefer not to say	30	9,4	9,4	80,0
	Under 20,000€	64	20,0	20,0	100,0
	Total	320	100,0	100,0	

Nationality

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	German	242	75,6	75,6	75,6
	Other	34	10,6	10,6	86,3
	Portuguese	9	2,8	2,8	89,1
	Swedish	2	,6	,6	89,7
	Swiss	30	9,4	9,4	99,1

Nationality_6_TEXT

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		286	89,4	89,4	89,4
	American	2	,6	,6	90,0
	American U S	1	,3	,3	90,3
	Asian	1	,3	,3	90,6
	Austrian	1	,3	,3	90,9
	Belarusian	1	,3	,3	91,3
	British	1	,3	,3	91,6
	Chilean	1	,3	,3	91,9
	Czech	1	,3	,3	92,2
	Dutch	1	,3	,3	92,5
	French	5	1,6	1,6	94,1
	German / Turkish	1	,3	,3	94,4
	German, Morocco	1	,3	,3	94,7
	Hungarian	1	,3	,3	95,0
	Italian	5	1,6	1,6	96,6
	Luxembourgish	1	,3	,3	96,9
	Moroccan	2	,6	,6	97,5
	Peruvian	1	,3	,3	97,8
	Polish	2	,6	,6	98,4
	Russian	1	,3	,3	98,8
	south african	1	,3	,3	99,1
	SurveySwap helpdesk test	1	,3	,3	99,4
	Tunisian	1	,3	,3	99,7
	Ukraine	1	,3	,3	100,0
	Total	320	100,0	100,0	

Stimuli Distribution

Promo_Typ_Kodiert = 1 (No Promo), 2 (Monetary), 3 (Non-Monetary)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Smartphone + Percentage	55	17,2	17,2	17,2
	Smartphone + Monetary	52	16,3	16,3	33,4
	Smartphone + No Discount Control	55	17,2	17,2	50,6
	Shampoo + Percentage	53	16,6	16,6	67,2
	Shampoo + Monetary	54	16,9	16,9	84,1
	Shampoo + No Discount Control	51	15,9	15,9	100,0
	Total	320	100,0	100,0	

Appendix D: Data Analysis

Multicollinearity

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo, Sale Promotion Discount, Low vs High Self-Control[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,283[a]	,080	,071	1,40061

a. Predictors: (Constant), 1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo, Sale Promotion Discount, Low vs High Self-Control

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	53,958	3	17,986	9,169	<,001[b]
	Residual	619,902	316	1,962		
	Total	673,860	319			

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), 1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo, Sale Promotion Discount, Low vs High Self-Control

Hypothesis 1: Price discounts positively influence purchase intention

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	Collinearity Statistics VIF
1	(Constant)	3,969	,232		17,091	<,001		
	Sale Promotion Discount	,404	,096	,228	4,222	<,001	,999	1,001
	Low vs High Self-Control	-,273	,160	-,094	-1,705	,089	,964	1,037
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	-,362	,159	-,125	-2,268	,024	,965	1,036

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions (Constant)	Variance Proportions Sale Promotion Discount	Variance Proportions Low vs High Self-Control	Variance Proportions 1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo
1	1	3,171	1,000	,01	,01	,03	,03
	2	,399	2,819	,01	,03	,12	,92
	3	,361	2,962	,03	,09	,82	,01
	4	,069	6,798	,95	,87	,03	,04

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

H1: Normality: Skewness & Kurtosis

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error
Standardized Residual	214	-2,62362	1,68166	,0000000	,99764982	-,535	,166	-,375	,331
Valid N (listwise)	214								

H1: Shapiro-Wilk-Test

Explore

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Standardized Residual	214	66,9%	106	33,1%	320	100,0%

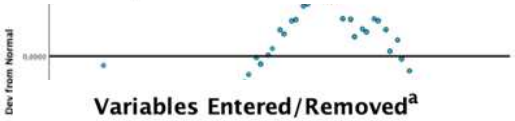
Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Standardized Residual	Mean		,0000000	,06819794
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	-,1344293	
		Upper Bound	,1344293	
	5% Trimmed Mean		,0315786	
	Median		,2141733	
	Variance		,995	
	Std. Deviation		,99764982	
	Minimum		-2,62362	
	Maximum		1,68166	
	Range		4,30528	
	Interquartile Range		1,51220	
	Skewness		-,535	,166
	Kurtosis		-,375	,331

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Standardized Residual	,122	214	<,001	,964	214	<,001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

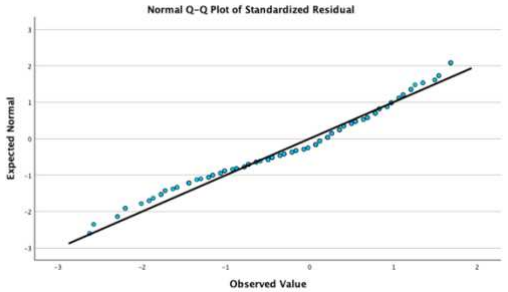


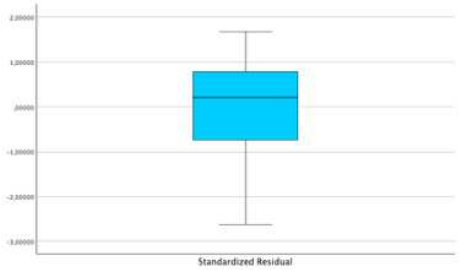
Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. All requested variables entered.





H1: Regression, Linearity

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PI_Mean	4,4506	1,45341	320
Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo	,6688	,47140	320

Correlations

		PI_Mean	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo
Pearson Correlation	PI_Mean	1,000	,305
	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo	,305	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PI_Mean	.	<,001
	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo	,000	.
N	PI_Mean	320	320
	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo	320	320

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3,821	,135		28,379	<,001	3,556	4,086		
	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo	,942	,165	,305	5,721	<,001	,618	1,266	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions (Constant)	Variance Proportions Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo
1	1	1,818	1,000	,09	,09
	2	,182	3,158	,91	,91

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	62,885	1	62,885	32,730	<,001[b]
	Residual	610,975	318	1,921		
	Total	673,860	319			

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3,8208	4,7626	4,4506	,44399	320
Std. Predicted Value	-1,419	,703	,000	1,000	320
Standard Error of Predicted Value	,095	,135	,108	,019	320
Adjusted Predicted Value	3,8000	4,7803	4,4506	,44409	320
Residual	-3,76262	2,23738	,00000	1,38394	320
Std. Residual	-2,715	1,614	,000	,998	320
Stud. Residual	-2,721	1,618	,000	1,002	320
Deleted Residual	-3,78028	2,24789	,00000	1,39247	320
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2,749	1,622	-,001	1,004	320
Mahal. Distance	,494	2,013	,997	,716	320
Cook's Distance	,000	,020	,003	,004	320
Centered Leverage Value	,002	,006	,003	,002	320

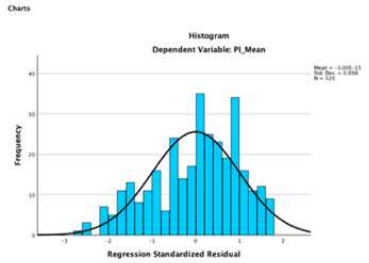
a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

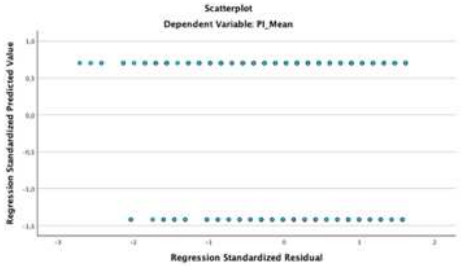
Model Summary[b]

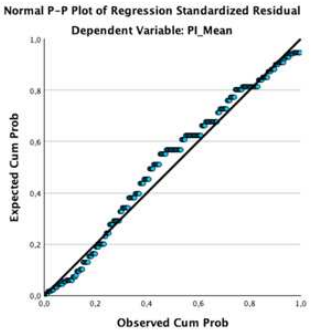
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	,305[a]	,093	,090	1,38611	,093	32,730	1	318	<,001	1,590

a. Predictors: (Constant), Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo

b. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean







Hypothesis 1A: Monetary discounts lead to higher purchase intention than percentage discounts
H1A: Testing Normality & Sharpio-Wilk

Case Processing Summary

		Cases					
		Valid		Missing		Total	
	Monetary and Percentage	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
PI_Mean	Percentage Promotion	108	100,0%	0	0,0%	108	100,0%
	Monetary Promotion	106	100,0%	0	0,0%	106	100,0%

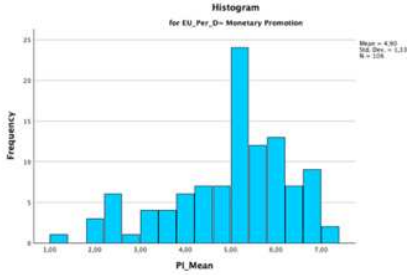
Tests of Normality

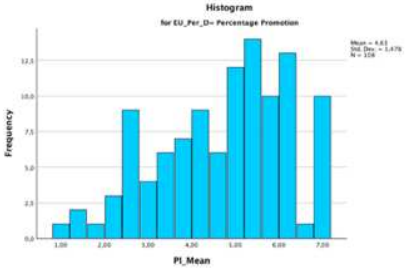
		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Monetary and Percentage	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
PI_Mean	Percentage Promotion	,108	108	,003	,965	108	,006
	Monetary Promotion	,162	106	<,001	,938	106	<,001

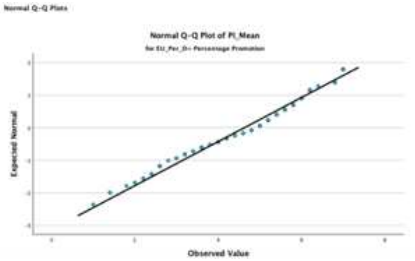
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

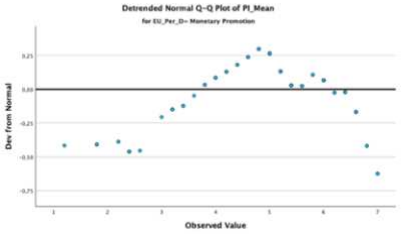
Descriptives

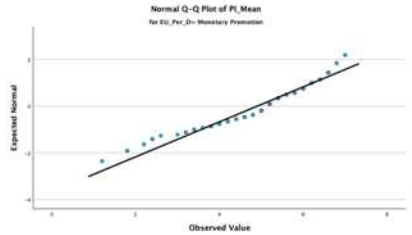
	Monetary and Percentage			Statistic	Std. Error
PI_Mean	Percentage Promotion	Mean		4,6296	,14222
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4,3477	
			Upper Bound	4,9116	
		5% Trimmed Mean		4,6679	
		Median		5,0000	
		Variance		2,185	
		Std. Deviation		1,47802	
		Minimum		1,00	
		Maximum		7,00	
		Range		6,00	
		Interquartile Range		2,20	
		Skewness		-,366	,233
		Kurtosis		-,658	,461
	Monetary Promotion	Mean		4,8981	,12978
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4,6408	
			Upper Bound	5,1554	
		5% Trimmed Mean		4,9639	
		Median		5,2000	
		Variance		1,785	
		Std. Deviation		1,33616	
		Minimum		1,20	
		Maximum		7,00	
		Range		5,80	
		Interquartile Range		1,80	
		Skewness		-,772	,235
		Kurtosis		,039	,465











H1A: Homoscedasticity (using Levene's test)

Oneway

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PI_Mean	Based on Mean	2,942	1	212	,088
	Based on Median	2,616	1	212	,107
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2,616	1	211,993	,107
	Based on trimmed mean	3,232	1	212	,074

ANOVA

PI_Mean

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3,856	1	3,856	1,941	,165
Within Groups	421,205	212	1,987		
Total	425,061	213			

ANOVA Effect Sizes[a,b]

		Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Upper
PI_Mean	Eta-squared	,009	,000	,050
	Epsilon-squared	,004	-,005	,046
	Omega-squared Fixed-effect	,004	-,005	,045
	Omega-squared Random-effect	,004	-,005	,045

a. Eta-squared and Epsilon-squared are estimated based on the fixed-effect model.

b. Negative but less biased estimates are retained, not rounded to zero.

H1A: Skewness & Kurtosis

Descriptive Statistics

	N Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error
Standardized Residual	214	-2,63155	1,81957	,0000000	,99529409	-,557	,166	-,252	,331
PI_Mean	320	1,00	7,00	4,4506	1,45341	-,382	,136	-,632	,272
Valid N (listwise)	214								

H1A: Independent Samples t-Test

T-Test

Group Statistics

	EUR_Percent_Dummy	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PI_Mean	Percentage Promotion	108	4,6296	1,47802	,14222
	Monetary Promotion	106	4,8981	1,33616	,12978

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Upper
PI_Mean	Cohen's d	1,40954	-,190	-,459	,078
	Hedges' correction	1,41456	-,190	-,457	,078
	Glass's delta	1,33616	-,201	-,470	,069

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control (i.e., the second) group.

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F	Sig.	t-test for Equality of Means: t	df	Significance One-Sided p	Significance Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
PI_Mean	Equal variances assumed	2,942	,088	-1,393	212	,083	,165	-,26848	,19272	-,64837	,11140
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,394	210,589	,082	,165	-,26848	,19254	-,64803	,11106

Hypothesis 1B: Percentage discounts have a stronger impact on purchase intention for low-price products than for high-price products

H1B: Independent Samples t-Test

H1B: Testing Normality & Sharpio-Wilk

T-Test

Group Statistics

	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PI_Mean	Shampoo (Low Priced Product)	53	4,9434	1,42201	,19533
	Smartphone (High Priced Product)	55	4,3273	1,48042	,19962

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Upper
PI_Mean	Cohen's d	1,45206	,424	,042	,805
	Hedges' correction	1,46244	,421	,041	,799
	Glass's delta	1,48042	,416	,029	,800

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control (i.e., the second) group.

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F	Sig.	t-test for Equality of Means: t	df	Significance One-Sided p	Significance Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference: Lower	Upper
PI_Mean	Equal variances assumed	,210	,648	2,204	106	,015	,030	,61612	,27950	,06199	1,17025
	Equal variances not assumed			2,206	105,999	,015	,030	,61612	,27929	,06241	1,16984

Case Processing Summary

	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	Cases: Valid N	Valid Percent	Missing N	Missing Percent	Total N	Total Percent
PI_Mean	Shampoo (Low Priced Product)	53	100,0%	0	0,0%	53	100,0%
	Smartphone (High Priced Product)	55	100,0%	0	0,0%	55	100,0%

Descriptives

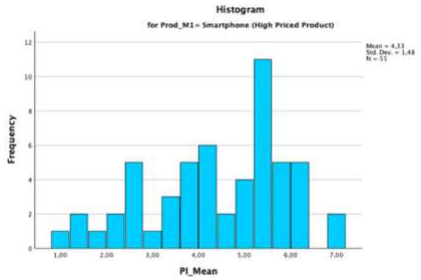
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo			Statistic	Std. Error
PI_Mean	Shampoo (Low Priced Product)	Mean		4,9434	,19533
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4,5514	
			Upper Bound	5,3354	
		5% Trimmed Mean		4,9677	
		Median		5,0000	
		Variance		2,022	
		Std. Deviation		1,42201	
		Minimum		2,20	
		Maximum		7,00	
		Range		4,80	
		Interquartile Range		2,20	
		Skewness		-,269	,327
		Kurtosis		-1,001	,644
	Smartphone (High Priced Product)	Mean		4,3273	,19962
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3,9271	
			Upper Bound	4,7275	
		5% Trimmed Mean		4,3657	
		Median		4,6000	
		Variance		2,192	
		Std. Deviation		1,48042	
		Minimum		1,00	
		Maximum		7,00	
		Range		6,00	
		Interquartile Range		2,00	
		Skewness		-,457	,322
		Kurtosis		-,648	,634

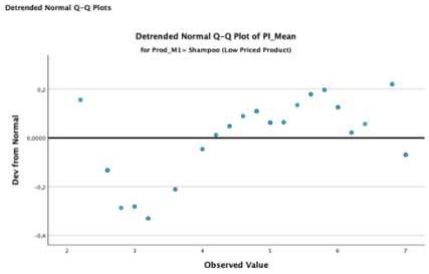
Tests of Normality

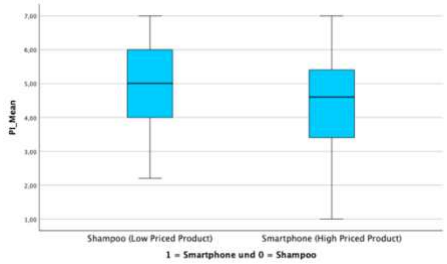
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]: Statistic	df	Sig.	Shapiro-Wilk: Statistic	df	Sig.
PI_Mean	Shampoo (Low Priced Product)	,097	53	,200*	,944	53	,015
	Smartphone (High Priced Product)	,148	55	,004	,957	55	,048

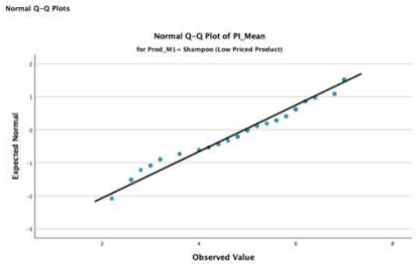
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

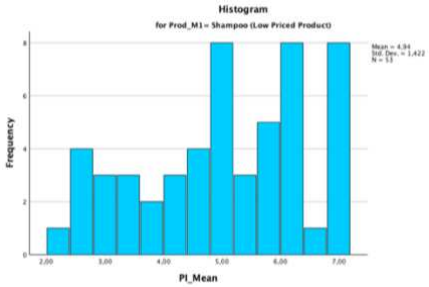
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction











H1B: Skewness & Kurtosis

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
PI_Mean	108	1,00	7,00	4,6296	1,47802	-,366	,233	-,658	,461
Valid N (listwise)	108								

Hypothesis 2: Self-control moderates the relationship between price discount promotions (monetary vs. percentage) and purchase intention.
H2: Regression, Linearity

Regression

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PI_Mean	4,7626	1,41265	214
Low vs High Self-Control	,5187	,50082	214
Monetary and Percentage	1,4953	,50115	214

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Monetary and Percentage , Low vs High Self-Control[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. All requested variables entered.

Correlations

		PI_Mean	Low vs High Self-Control	Monetary and Percentage
Pearson Correlation	PI_Mean	1,000	-,091	,095
	Low vs High Self-Control	-,091	1,000	-,168
	Monetary and Percentage	,095	-,168	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PI_Mean	.	,093	,083
	Low vs High Self-Control	,093	.	,007
	Monetary and Percentage	,083	,007	.
N	PI_Mean	214	214	214
	Low vs High Self-Control	214	214	214
	Monetary and Percentage	214	214	214

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions (Constant)	Low vs High Self-Control	Monetary and Percentage
1	1	2,551	1,000	,01	,05	,01
	2	,404	2,514	,02	,82	,05
	3	,046	7,472	,97	,13	,94

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	,122[a]	,015	,005	1,40879	,015	1,584	2	211	,207	1,507

a. Predictors: (Constant), Monetary and Percentage , Low vs High Self-Control

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Upper Bound	Correlations Zero-order	Correlations Partial	Correlations Part	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	Collinearity Statistics VIF
1	(Constant)	4,528	,339		13,359	<,001	3,860	5,196					
	Low vs High Self-Control	-,216	,196	-,077	-1,107	,269	-,602	,169	-,091	-,076	-,076	,972	1,029
	Monetary and Percentage	,232	,195	,082	1,188	,236	-,153	,617	,095	,082	,081	,972	1,029

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6,289	2	3,145	1,584	,207[b]
	Residual	418,772	211	1,985		
	Total	425,061	213			

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), Monetary and Percentage , Low vs High Self-Control

Residuals Statistics[a]

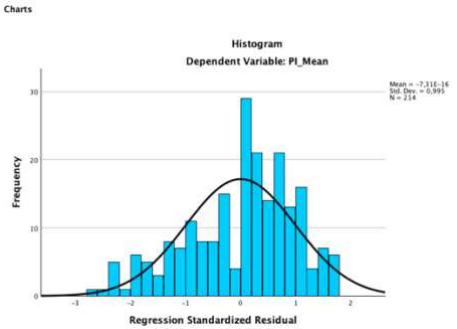
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	4,5434	4,9921	4,7626	,17183	214
Std. Predicted Value	-1,276	1,335	,000	1,000	214
Standard Error of Predicted Value	,156	,180	,167	,010	214
Adjusted Predicted Value	4,5128	5,0422	4,7625	,17297	214
Residual	-3,79206	2,45656	,00000	1,40216	214
Std. Residual	-2,692	1,744	,000	,995	214
Stud. Residual	-2,709	1,755	,000	1,002	214
Deleted Residual	-3,84224	2,48719	,00007	1,42178	214
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2,751	1,763	-,001	1,006	214
Mahal. Distance	1,627	2,463	1,991	,349	214
Cook's Distance	,000	,032	,005	,006	214
Centered Leverage Value	,008	,012	,009	,002	214

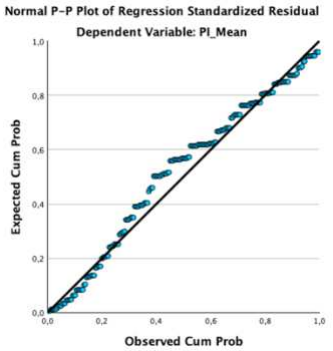
a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

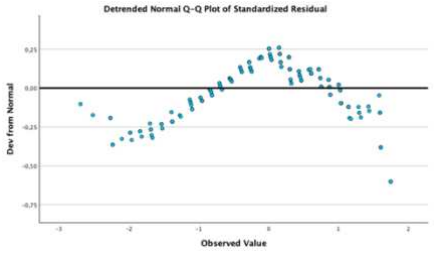
H2: Skewness & Kurtosis

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Standardized Residual	214	-2,69171	1,74373	,0000000	,99529409	-,561	,166	-,288	,331
Valid N (listwise)	214								





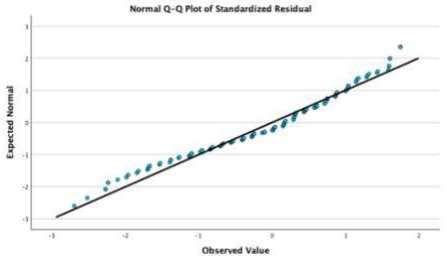


H2: Kurtosis & Shapiro-Wilk-Test

Explore

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Standardized Residual	214	66,9%	106	33,1%	320	100,0%



Standardized Residual

Standardized Residual Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
2,00	-2 .	56
6,00	-2 .	122222
14,00	-1 .	55566666888999
15,00	-1 .	000111122333333
24,00	-0 .	555556666667788888899999
22,00	-0 .	111122222222222333444
61,00	0 .	000000000000011111111111111122222233333333333333344444444444
37,00	0 .	55566666777777777777777888888888999
22,00	1 .	00000000011111112222344
11,00	1 .	555556666777

Stem width: 1,00000
Each leaf: 1 case(s)

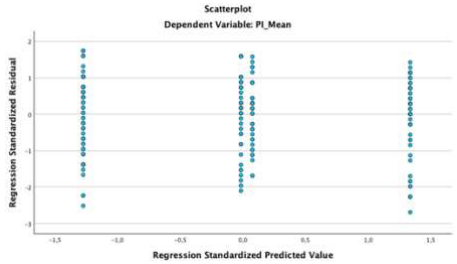
Tests of Normality

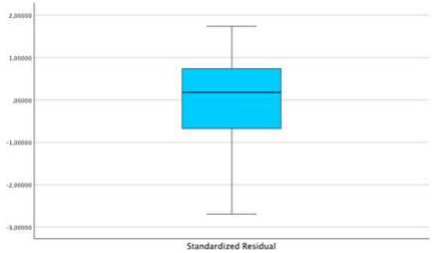
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Standardized Residual	,114	214	<,001	,964	214	<,001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Standardized Residual	Mean		,0000000	,06803690
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	-,1341119	
		Upper Bound	,1341119	
	5% Trimmed Mean		,0332348	
	Median		,1704158	
	Variance		,991	
	Std. Deviation		,99529409	
	Minimum		-2,69171	
	Maximum		1,74373	
	Range		4,43544	
	Interquartile Range		1,40796	
	Skewness		-,561	,166
	Kurtosis		-,288	,331





H2: PROCESS Model 1

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 *****************

         Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 1
    Y  : PI_Mean
    X  : EU_Per_D
    W  : SC_hilow

Sample
Size:  214

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      ,1256      ,0158     1,9922      ,9931     3,0000   210,0000      ,3970

Model
              coeff    se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     4,6746      ,4817     9,7039      ,0000     3,7249     5,6242
EU_Per_D      ,1394      ,2937      ,4745      ,6356     -,4397      ,7185
SC_hilow     -,4853      ,6339     -,7656      ,4448    -1,7349      ,7643
Int_1         ,1790      ,3865      ,4631      ,6437     -,5829      ,9410

Product terms key:
 Int_1    :        EU_Per_D x        SC_hilow

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
       R2-chng     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
X*W      ,0010      ,2145     1,0000   210,0000      ,6437
----------
    Focal predict: EU_Per_D (X)
          Mod var: SC_hilow (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/
   EU_Per_D   SC_hilow   PI_Mean    .
BEGIN DATA.
     1,0000      ,0000     4,8140
     2,0000      ,0000     4,9533
     1,0000     1,0000     4,5077
     2,0000     1,0000     4,8261
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
 EU_Per_D WITH     PI_Mean  BY       SC_hilow .

**************************************************************************
Bootstrap estimates were saved to a file

Map of column names to model coefficients:
          Conseqnt Antecdnt
 COL1     PI_Mean  constant
 COL2     PI_Mean  EU_Per_D
 COL3     PI_Mean  SC_hilow
 COL4     PI_Mean  Int_1

********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS ***********

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

              Coeff   BootMean     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
constant     4,6746     4,6808      ,4716     3,7664     5,6038
EU_Per_D      ,1394      ,1362      ,2883     -,4413      ,6942
SC_hilow     -,4853     -,4905      ,6270    -1,7078      ,7182
Int_1         ,1790      ,1815      ,3820     -,5538      ,9408

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

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  5000

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

------ END MATRIX -----
```

H2A: Among individuals with low self-control, the effect of price discounts on purchase intention is stronger than among individuals with high self-control.
H2A: Regression, Linearity

Regression

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PI_Mean	4,4506	1,45341	320
Low vs High Self-Control	,5375	,49937	320
Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo	,6688	,47140	320

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo, Low vs High Self-Control[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean
b. All requested variables entered.

Correlations

		PI_Mean	Low vs High Self-Control	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo
Pearson Correlation	PI_Mean	1,000	-,112	,305
	Low vs High Self-Control	-,112	1,000	-,054
	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo	,305	-,054	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PI_Mean	.	,023	<,001
	Low vs High Self-Control	,023	.	,170
	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo	,000	,170	.
N	PI_Mean	320	320	320
	Low vs High Self-Control	320	320	320
	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo	320	320	320

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	,320[a]	,102	,097	1,38127	,102	18,096	2	317	<,001	1,579

a. Predictors: (Constant), Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo, Low vs High Self-Control
b. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients: B	Unstandardized Coefficients: Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients: Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B: Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B: Upper Bound	Collinearity Statistics: Tolerance	Collinearity Statistics: VIF
1	(Constant)	3,981	,161		24,707	<,001	3,664	4,298		
	Low vs High Self-Control	-,279	,155	-,096	-1,798	,073	-,584	,026	,997	1,003
	Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo	,926	,164	,300	5,636	<,001	,603	1,249	,997	1,003

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3,7024	4,9072	4,4506	,46525	320
Residual	-3,70724	2,37158	,00000	1,37694	320
Std. Predicted Value	-1,608	,981	,000	1,000	320
Std. Residual	-2,684	1,717	,000	,997	320

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

ANOVA[a]

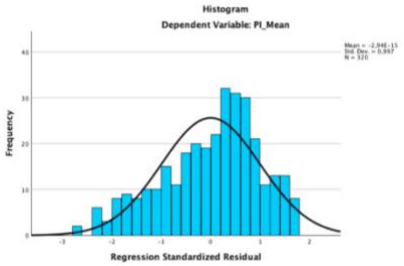
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	69,051	2	34,526	18,096	<,001[b]
	Residual	604,809	317	1,908		
	Total	673,860	319			

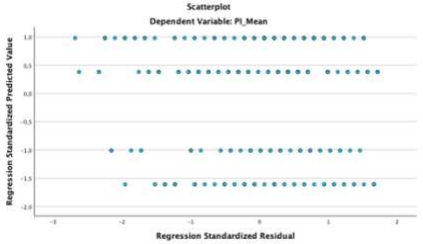
a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean
b. Predictors: (Constant), Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo, Low vs High Self-Control

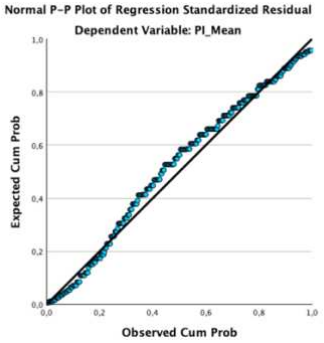
Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions: (Constant)	Variance Proportions: Low vs High Self-Control	Variance Proportions: Dummy: 1 = Promo, 0 = No Promo
1	1	2,424	1,000	,04	,06	,04
	2	,429	2,377	,01	,65	,29
	3	,147	4,062	,96	,29	,67

a. Dependent Variable: PI Mean



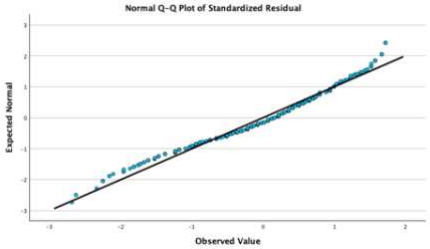


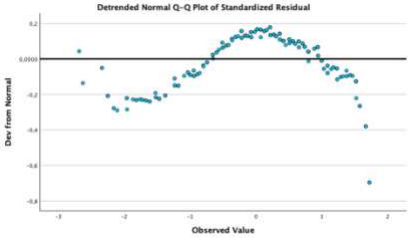


H2A: Skewness & Kurtosis

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Standardized Residual	320	-2,68393	1,71695	,0000000	,99686027	-,492	,136	-,404	,272
Valid N (listwise)	320								





H2A: Kurtosis & Shapiro-Wilk-Test

Explore

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Standardized Residual	320	100,0%	0	0,0%	320	100,0%

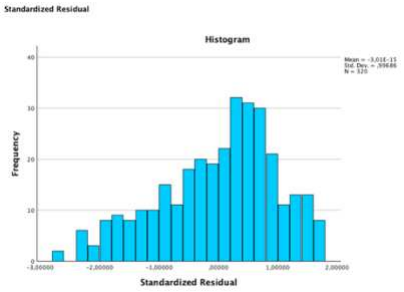
Descriptives

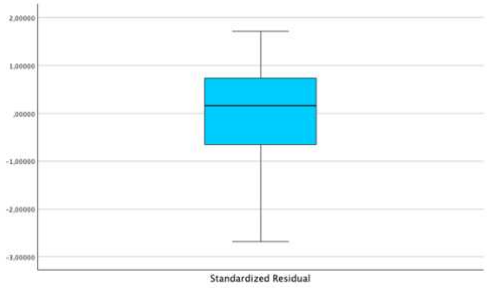
			Statistic	Std. Error
Standardized Residual	Mean		,0000000	,05572618
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	-,1096373	
		Upper Bound	,1096373	
	5% Trimmed Mean		,0320694	
	Median		,1583985	
	Variance		,994	
	Std. Deviation		,99686027	
	Minimum		-2,68393	
	Maximum		1,71695	
	Range		4,40088	
	Interquartile Range		1,39439	
	Skewness		-,492	,136
	Kurtosis		-,404	,272

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Standardized Residual	,083	320	<,001	,970	320	<,001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction





H2A: PROCESS Model 1

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 1
    Y  : PI_Mean
    X  : Pro_NPro
    W  : SC_hilow

Sample
Size:  320

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      ,3203      ,1026     1,9137    12,0044     3,0000   316,0000      ,0000

Model
              coeff    se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     4,0089      ,1951    20,5500      ,0000     3,6251     4,3927
Pro_NPro      ,8863      ,2428     3,6501      ,0003      ,4085     1,3640
SC_hilow     -,3269      ,2617    -1,2494      ,2124     -,8417      ,1879
Int_1         ,0714      ,3259      ,2191      ,8267     -,5699      ,7127

Product terms key:
 Int_1    :        Pro_NPro x        SC_hilow

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
       R2-chng     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
X*W      ,0001      ,0480     1,0000   316,0000      ,8267
----------
    Focal predict: Pro_NPro (X)
          Mod var: SC_hilow (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.


Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  5000

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
         SC_hilow Prod_M1

------ END MATRIX -----
```

```
DATA LIST FREE/
   Pro_NPro   SC_hilow   PI_Mean    .
BEGIN DATA.
      ,0000      ,0000     4,0089
     1,0000      ,0000     4,8951
      ,0000     1,0000     3,6820
     1,0000     1,0000     4,6396
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
 Pro_NPro WITH     PI_Mean  BY       SC_hilow .

**************************************************************************
Bootstrap estimates were saved to a file

Map of column names to model coefficients:
          Conseqnt Antecdnt
 COL1     PI_Mean  constant
 COL2     PI_Mean  Pro_NPro
 COL3     PI_Mean  SC_hilow
 COL4     PI_Mean  Int_1

*********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS ************

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

              Coeff   BootMean     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
constant     4,0089     4,0093      ,1931     3,6143     4,3659
Pro_NPro      ,8863      ,8863      ,2428      ,4183     1,3711
SC_hilow     -,3269     -,3289      ,2618     -,8376      ,1876
Int_1         ,0714      ,0721      ,3284     -,5739      ,7173

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

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  5000

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

------ END MATRIX -----
```

Full PROCESS Model

Full Model: Regression, Linearity

Correlations

		PI_Mean	Promo_X_SC_ HiLow	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control	Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control	Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint	Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint	0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt	0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt	Low vs High Self-Control
Pearson Correlation	PI_Mean	1,000	,095	-,144	,020	,106	,097	-,039	,217	,088	-,112
	Promo_X_SC_HiLow	,095	1,000	,168	,693	,562	,231	,329	,129	,382	,676
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	-,144	,168	1,000	,079	,137	,435	,450	-,022	,004	,187
	Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control	,020	,693	,079	1,000	-,207	-,222	,552	-,355	,707	,468
	Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control	,106	,562	,137	-,207	1,000	,568	-,187	,582	-,292	,380
	Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint	,097	,231	,435	-,222	,568	1,000	-,201	,626	-,314	,052
	Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint	-,039	,329	,450	,552	-,187	-,201	1,000	-,321	,638	,140
	0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt	,217	,129	-,022	-,355	,582	,626	-,321	1,000	-,502	-,146
	0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt	,088	,382	,004	,707	-,292	-,314	,638	-,502	1,000	,092
	Low vs High Self-Control	-,112	,676	,187	,468	,380	,052	,140	-,146	,092	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PI_Mean	.	,045	,005	,362	,029	,042	,245	<,001	,058	,023
	Promo_X_SC_HiLow	,045	.	,001	,000	,000	,000	,000	,011	,000	,000
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	,005	,001	.	,079	,007	,000	,000	,347	,469	,000
	Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control	,362	,000	,079	.	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control	,029	,000	,007	,000	.	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint	,042	,000	,000	,000	,000	.	,000	,000	,000	,178
	Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint	,245	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	.	,000	,000	,006
	0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt	,000	,011	,347	,000	,000	,000	,000	.	,000	,004
	0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt	,058	,000	,469	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	.	,050
	Low vs High Self-Control	,023	,000	,000	,000	,000	,178	,006	,004	,050	.
N	PI_Mean	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320
	Promo_X_SC_HiLow	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320
	Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320
	Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320
	Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320
	Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320
	0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320
	0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320
	Low vs High Self-Control	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320	320

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PI_Mean	4,4506	1,45341	320
Promo_X_SC_HiLow	,3469	,47672	320
1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	,5063	,50074	320
Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control	,2031	,40295	320
Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control	,1438	,35139	320
Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint	,1625	,36949	320
Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint	,1719	,37786	320
0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt	,3313	,47140	320
0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt	,3375	,47360	320
Low vs High Self-Control	,5375	,49937	320

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Low vs High Self-Control, Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint, Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint, 0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt, Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control, 1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo, 0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt, Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. Tolerance = ,000 limit reached.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,355[a]	,126	,104	1,37607	,126	5,608	8	311	<,001	1,563

a. Predictors: (Constant), Low vs High Self-Control, Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint, Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint, 0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt, Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control, 1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo, 0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt, Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control

b. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	84,960	8	10,620	5,608	<,001[b]
	Residual	588,900	311	1,894		
	Total	673,860	319			

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), Low vs High Self-Control, Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint, Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint, 0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt, Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control, 1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo, 0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt, Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,159	,243		17,089	<,001	3,680	4,638		
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	-,307	,268	-,106	-1,146	,253	-,834	,220	,330	3,031
	Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control	,115	,386	,032	,297	,767	-,645	,874	,245	4,078
	Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control	,260	,393	,063	,663	,508	-,513	1,034	,311	3,212
	Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint	,070	,389	,018	,180	,857	-,696	,836	,287	3,483
	Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint	-,274	,380	-,071	-,720	,472	-1,021	,474	,288	3,473
	0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt	,877	,317	,285	2,767	,006	,253	1,501	,266	3,764
	0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt	,885	,339	,288	2,613	,009	,218	1,551	,231	4,331
	Low vs High Self-Control	-,311	,271	-,107	-1,148	,252	-,844	,222	,325	3,080

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	Promo_X_SC_HiLow	.[b]	.	.	.	,000	.	,000

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Low vs High Self-Control, Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint, Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint, 0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt, Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control, 1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo, 0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt, Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	Interaktion: Percent × Self-Control	Interaktion: Monetär × Self-Control	Interaktion: Monetary X PricePoint	Interaktion: Percent X PricePoint	0/1 Dummy Monetary Rabatt	0/1 Dummy Percentage Rabatt	Low vs High Self-Control
1	1	4,303	1,000	,00	,01	,00	,00	,00	,00	,00	,00	,01
	2	2,372	1,347	,00	,00	,01	,02	,02	,01	,01	,01	,00
	3	,673	2,528	,00	,06	,03	,05	,03	,06	,00	,00	,05
	4	,484	2,982	,07	,01	,00	,12	,01	,04	,08	,01	,02
	5	,446	3,106	,03	,07	,04	,03	,03	,03	,05	,04	,07
	6	,358	3,466	,01	,00	,11	,12	,24	,14	,02	,00	,00
	7	,244	4,200	,01	,00	,13	,08	,03	,07	,16	,25	,01
	8	,081	7,285	,00	,54	,33	,30	,43	,43	,00	,00	,39
	9	,038	10,684	,88	,31	,34	,28	,20	,21	,68	,68	,46

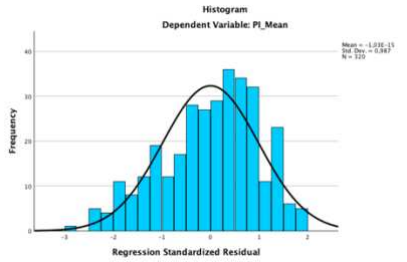
a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

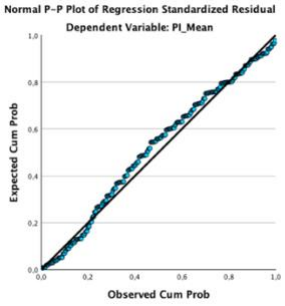
Residuals Statistics[a]

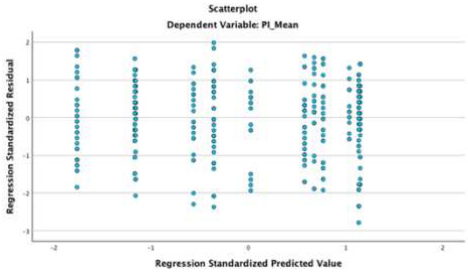
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3,5411	5,0434	4,4506	,51607	320
Std. Predicted Value	-1,762	1,149	,000	1,000	320
Standard Error of Predicted Value	,203	,278	,230	,021	320
Adjusted Predicted Value	3,4796	5,1218	4,4502	,51717	320
Residual	-3,83625	2,73343	,00000	1,35871	320
Std. Residual	-2,788	1,986	,000	,987	320
Stud. Residual	-2,819	2,009	,000	1,001	320
Deleted Residual	-3,92184	2,79493	,00041	1,39695	320
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2,851	2,019	-,001	1,004	320
Mahal. Distance	5,965	12,036	7,975	1,682	320
Cook's Distance	,000	,020	,003	,004	320
Centered Leverage Value	,019	,038	,025	,005	320

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Charts





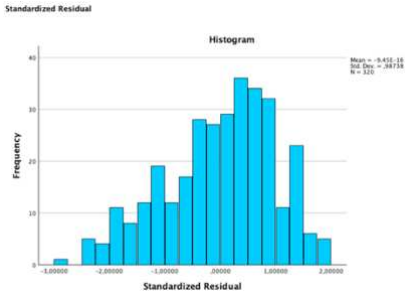


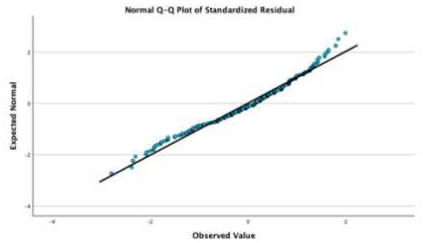
Full Model: Skewness & Kurtosis

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Standardized Residual	320	-2,78783	1,98640	,0000000	,98738120	-,459	,136	-,415	,272
Valid N (listwise)	320								





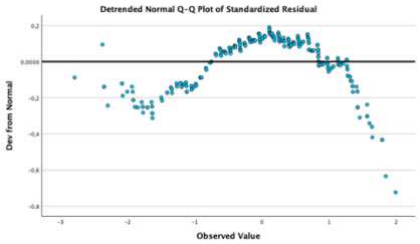
Full Model: Shapiro-Wilk-Test

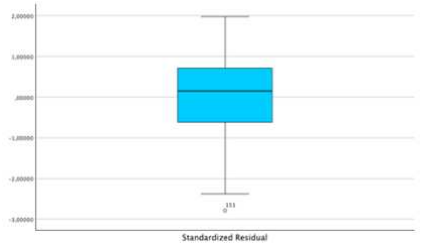
Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Standardized Residual	320	100,0%	0	0,0%	320	100,0%

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Standardized Residual	Mean		,0000000	,05519629
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	-,1085947	
		Upper Bound	,1085947	
	5% Trimmed Mean		,0289085	
	Median		,1458201	
	Variance		,975	
	Std. Deviation		,98738120	
	Minimum		-2,78783	
	Maximum		1,98640	
	Range		4,77423	
	Interquartile Range		1,34397	
	Skewness		-,459	,136
	Kurtosis		-,415	,272





Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Standardized Residual	,078	320	<,001	,975	320	<,001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Full PROCESS Model 2

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 2
    Y  : PI_Mean
    X  : ThreePIV
    W  : SC_hilow
    Z  : Prod_M1

Sample
Size:  320

Coding of categorical X variable for analysis:
 ThreePIV       X1       X2
    1,000     ,000     ,000
    2,000    1,000     ,000
    3,000     ,000    1,000

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      ,3551      ,1261     1,8936     5,6013     8,0000   311,0000      ,0000

Model
              coeff    se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,8364      ,1303    29,4340      ,0000     3,5800     4,0929
X1           1,0527      ,1815     5,8006      ,0000      ,6956     1,4098
X2            ,8076      ,1928     4,1889      ,0000      ,4282     1,1869
SC_hilow     -,3109      ,2616    -1,1885      ,2356     -,8257      ,2038
Int_1         ,2604      ,3658      ,7119      ,4770     -,4593      ,9802
Int_2         ,1145      ,3914      ,2926      ,7700     -,6557      ,8848
Prod_M1      -,3069      ,2584    -1,1877      ,2358     -,8154      ,2015
Int_3         ,0700      ,3700      ,1892      ,8500     -,6581      ,7981
Int_4        -,2736      ,3877     -,7056      ,4810    -1,0364      ,4893

Product terms key:
 Int_1    :        X1       x        SC_hilow
 Int_2    :        X2       x        SC_hilow
 Int_3    :        X1       x        Prod_M1
 Int_4    :        X2       x        Prod_M1

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
        R2-chng     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
X*W        ,0012      ,2549     2,0000   311,0000      ,7752
X*Z        ,0025      ,4199     2,0000   311,0000      ,6575
BOTH       ,0044      ,3742     4,0000   311,0000      ,8270
----------

    Focal predict: ThreePIV (X)
          Mod var: SC_hilow (W)
          Mod var: Prod_M1  (Z)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/
   ThreePIV   SC_hilow   Prod_M1    PI_Mean    .
BEGIN DATA.
     1,0000     -,5375     -,5063     4,1589
     2,0000     -,5375     -,5063     5,0363
     3,0000     -,5375     -,5063     5,0434
     1,0000     -,5375      ,4938     3,8520
     2,0000     -,5375      ,4938     4,7993
     3,0000     -,5375      ,4938     4,4630
     1,0000      ,4625     -,5063     3,8480
     2,0000      ,4625     -,5063     4,9857
     3,0000      ,4625     -,5063     4,8471
     1,0000      ,4625      ,4938     3,5411
     2,0000      ,4625      ,4938     4,7488
     3,0000      ,4625      ,4938     4,2666
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
 ThreePIV WITH     PI_Mean  BY       SC_hilow /PANEL   ROWVAR=  Prod_M1  .

**************************************************************************
Bootstrap estimates were saved to a file

Map of column names to model coefficients:
          Conseqnt Antecdnt
 COL1     PI_Mean  constant
 COL2     PI_Mean  X1
 COL3     PI_Mean  X2
 COL4     PI_Mean  SC_hilow
 COL5     PI_Mean  Int_1
 COL6     PI_Mean  Int_2
 COL7     PI_Mean  Prod_M1
 COL8     PI_Mean  Int_3
 COL9     PI_Mean  Int_4

*********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS ************

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

              Coeff   BootMean     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
constant     3,8364     3,8362      ,1309     3,5782     4,0952
X1           1,0527     1,0497      ,1788      ,6965     1,3975
X2            ,8076      ,8075      ,1911      ,4168     1,1780
SC_hilow     -,3109     -,3079      ,2576     -,8020      ,2130
Int_1         ,2604      ,2529      ,3590     -,4475      ,9320
Int_2         ,1145      ,1132      ,3862     -,6534      ,8762
Prod_M1      -,3069     -,3087      ,2558     -,8132      ,1793
Int_3         ,0700      ,0695      ,3650     -,6119      ,7994
Int_4        -,2736     -,2767      ,3821    -1,0354      ,4650

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

Appendix E: Additional Research

Moderator: Self-Control
Regression, Linearity

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PI_Mean	4,7626	1,41265	214
Low vs High Self-Control	,5187	,50082	214
Monetary and Percentage	1,4953	,50115	214
Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	4,8692	1,34890	214
Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	4,8816	1,07504	214
Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	5,4846	,82670	214

Correlations

		PI_Mean	Low vs High Self-Control	Monetary and Percentage	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore
Pearson Correlation	PI_Mean	1,000	-,091	,095	,479	,385	,215
	Low vs High Self-Control	-,091	1,000	-,168	-,077	-,230	-,001
	Monetary and Percentage	,095	-,168	1,000	,248	,285	,119
	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	,479	-,077	,248	1,000	,332	,219
	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	,385	-,230	,285	,332	1,000	,469
	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	,215	-,001	,119	,219	,469	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PI_Mean	.	,093	,083	<,001	<,001	<,001
	Low vs High Self-Control	,093	.	,007	,130	,000	,495
	Monetary and Percentage	,083	,007	.	,000	,000	,041
	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	,000	,130	,000	.	,000	,001
	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	,000	,000	,000	,000	.	,000
	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	,001	,495	,041	,001	,000	.
N	PI_Mean	214	214	214	214	214	214
	Low vs High Self-Control	214	214	214	214	214	214
	Monetary and Percentage	214	214	214	214	214	214
	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	214	214	214	214	214	214
	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	214	214	214	214	214	214
	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	214	214	214	214	214	214

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2,5031	6,2060	4,7626	,76430	214
Std. Predicted Value	-2,956	1,888	,000	1,000	214
Standard Error of Predicted Value	,139	,369	,196	,045	214
Adjusted Predicted Value	2,4717	6,2789	4,7611	,76975	214
Residual	-3,74993	2,88431	,00000	1,18804	214
Std. Residual	-3,119	2,399	,000	,988	214
Stud. Residual	-3,173	2,521	,001	1,003	214
Deleted Residual	-3,87960	3,18412	,00150	1,22492	214
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3,244	2,554	-,001	1,009	214
Mahal. Distance	1,851	19,060	4,977	3,061	214
Cook's Distance	,000	,110	,005	,011	214
Centered Leverage Value	,009	,089	,023	,014	214

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore, Low vs High Self-Control, Monetary and Percentage , Personal_Relevance_MeanScore, Sale_Proneness_MeanScore[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean
b. All requested variables entered.

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	124,424	5	24,885	17,217	<,001[b]
	Residual	300,637	208	1,445		
	Total	425,061	213			

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean
b. Predictors: (Constant), Value_Consciousness_MeanScore, Low vs High Self-Control, Monetary and Percentage , Personal_Relevance_MeanScore, Sale_Proneness_MeanScore

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	,541[a]	,293	,276	1,20224	,293	17,217	5	208	<,001	1,533

a. Predictors: (Constant), Value_Consciousness_MeanScore, Low vs High Self-Control, Monetary and Percentage , Personal_Relevance_MeanScore, Sale_Proneness_MeanScore
b. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients: B	Unstandardized Coefficients: Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients: Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B: Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B: Upper Bound	Correlations: Zero-order	Correlations: Partial	Correlations: Part	Collinearity Statistics: Tolerance	Collinearity Statistics: VIF
1	(Constant)	1,247	,619		2,015	,045	,027	2,467					
	Low vs High Self-Control	-,035	,171	-,012	-,204	,838	-,373	,303	-,091	-,014	-,012	,921	1,085
	Monetary and Percentage	-,239	,175	-,085	-1,367	,173	-,585	,106	,095	-,094	-,080	,881	1,135
	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	,427	,066	,408	6,485	<,001	,297	,557	,479	,410	,378	,858	1,165
	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	,348	,095	,265	3,679	<,001	,161	,534	,385	,247	,215	,657	1,521
	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	,021	,114	,012	,181	,857	-,204	,245	,215	,013	,011	,764	1,310

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

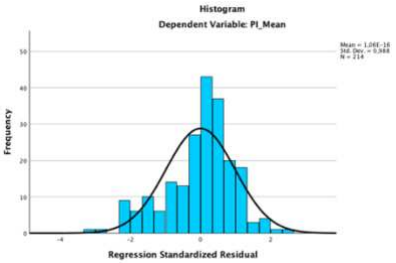
Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions: (Constant)	Low vs High Self-Control	Monetary and Percentage	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore
1	1	5,379	1,000	,00	,01	,00	,00	,00	,00
	2	,469	3,388	,00	,83	,01	,00	,00	,00
	3	,072	8,655	,01	,03	,96	,07	,02	,01
	4	,048	10,617	,02	,01	,00	,92	,06	,04
	5	,022	15,581	,23	,12	,00	,00	,83	,07
	6	,010	22,791	,74	,00	,03	,01	,08	,87

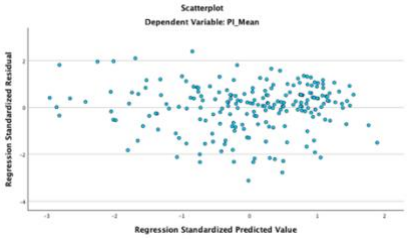
a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

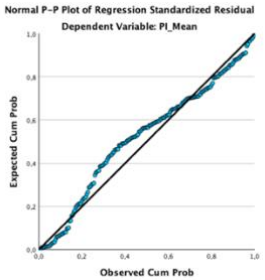
Casewise Diagnostics[a]

Case Number	Std. Residual	PI_Mean	Predicted Value	Residual
16	-3,119	1,00	4,7499	-3,74993

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean







Self-Control: Shapiro-Wilk-Test

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Standardized Residual	214	66,9%	106	33,1%	320	100,0%

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Standardized Residual	Mean		,0000000	,06755150
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	-,1331551	
		Upper Bound	,1331551	
	5% Trimmed Mean		,0332516	
	Median		,1650612	
	Variance		,977	
	Std. Deviation		,98819321	
	Minimum		-3,11913	
	Maximum		2,39913	
	Range		5,51826	
	Interquartile Range		1,10049	
	Skewness		-,656	,166
	Kurtosis		,432	,331

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Standardized Residual	,113	214	<,001	,961	214	<,001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Self-Control: Skewness & Kurtosis

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Standardized Residual	214	-3,11913	2,39913	,0000000	,98819321	-,656	,166	,432	,331
Valid N (listwise)	214								

Moderator: Price Point
Price Point: Regression, Linearity

PI_Mean	4,7626	1,41265	214
Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	4,8692	1,34890	214
Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	4,8816	1,07504	214
Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	5,4846	,82670	214
Monetary and Percentage	1,4953	,50115	214
1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	,5000	,50117	214

Correlations

		PI_Mean	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	Monetary and Percentage	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo
Pearson Correlation	PI_Mean	1,000	,479	,385	,215	,095	-,156
	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	,479	1,000	,332	,219	,248	,203
	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	,385	,332	1,000	,469	,285	-,131
	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	,215	,219	,469	1,000	,119	-,036
	Monetary and Percentage	,095	,248	,285	,119	1,000	-,019
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	-,156	,203	-,131	-,036	-,019	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PI_Mean	.	<,001	<,001	<,001	,083	,011
	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	,000	.	,000	,001	,000	,001
	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	,000	,000	.	,000	,000	,028
	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	,001	,001	,000	.	,041	,302
	Monetary and Percentage	,083	,000	,000	,041	.	,393
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	,011	,001	,028	,302	,393	.
N	PI_Mean	214	214	214	214	214	214
	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	214	214	214	214	214	214
	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	214	214	214	214	214	214
	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	214	214	214	214	214	214
	Monetary and Percentage	214	214	214	214	214	214
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	214	214	214	214	214	214

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	,582[a]	,339	,323	1,16251	,339	21,306	5	208	<,001	1,514

a. Predictors: (Constant), 1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo, Monetary and Percentage , Value_Consciousness_MeanScore, Personal_Relevance_MeanScore, Sale_Proneness_MeanScore

b. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	143,965	5	28,793	21,306	<,001[b]
	Residual	281,096	208	1,351		
	Total	425,061	213			

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), 1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo, Monetary and Percentage , Value_Consciousness_MeanScore, Personal_Relevance_MeanScore, Sale_Proneness_MeanScore

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo, Monetary and Percentage , Value_Consciousness_MeanScore, Personal_Relevance_MeanScore, Sale_Proneness_MeanScore		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

b. All requested variables entered.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients: B	Unstandardized Coefficients: Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients: Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B: Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B: Upper Bound	Correlations: Zero-order	Correlations: Partial	Correlations: Part	Collinearity Statistics: Tolerance	Collinearity Statistics: VIF
1	(Constant)	1,536	,588		2,611	,010	,376	2,696					
	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	,493	,066	,471	7,469	<,001	,363	,623	,479	,460	,421	,800	1,251
	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	,287	,091	,218	3,162	,002	,108	,466	,385	,214	,178	,667	1,499
	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	,021	,109	,013	,196	,844	-,194	,237	,215	,014	,011	,775	1,290
	Monetary and Percentage	-,252	,168	-,089	-1,498	,136	-,584	,080	,095	-,103	-,084	,891	1,122
	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo	-,633	,166	-,225	-3,808	<,001	-,961	-,305	-,156	-,255	-,215	,914	1,094

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions: (Constant)	Personal_Relevance_MeanScore	Sale_Proneness_MeanScore	Value_Consciousness_MeanScore	Monetary and Percentage	1 = Smartphone und 0 = Shampoo
1	1	5,388	1,000	,00	,00	,00	,00	,00	,01
	2	,458	3,428	,00	,00	,00	,00	,01	,88
	3	,074	8,561	,01	,03	,02	,02	,96	,01
	4	,046	10,815	,03	,95	,02	,04	,00	,04
	5	,024	15,105	,19	,01	,87	,05	,00	,06
	6	,010	22,824	,76	,01	,08	,89	,03	,00

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

Casewise Diagnostics[a]

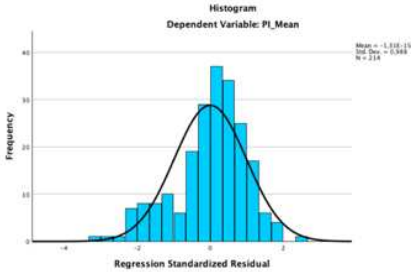
Case Number	Std. Residual	PI_Mean	Predicted Value	Residual
100	-3,104	1,80	5,4079	-3,60788

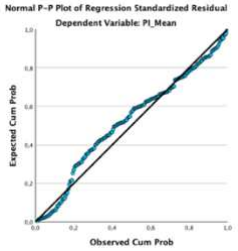
a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean

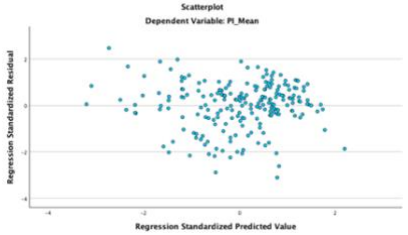
Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2,1325	6,5660	4,7626	,82213	214
Std. Predicted Value	-3,199	2,194	,000	1,000	214
Standard Error of Predicted Value	,138	,398	,189	,046	214
Adjusted Predicted Value	2,1273	6,6513	4,7602	,82701	214
Residual	-3,60788	2,88193	,00000	1,14878	214
Std. Residual	-3,104	2,479	,000	,988	214
Stud. Residual	-3,127	2,581	,001	1,003	214
Deleted Residual	-3,66271	3,12269	,00239	1,18397	214
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3,196	2,617	-,001	1,009	214
Mahal. Distance	2,023	23,930	4,977	3,363	214
Cook's Distance	,000	,093	,005	,011	214
Centered Leverage Value	,009	,112	,023	,016	214

a. Dependent Variable: PI_Mean







Price Point: Skewness & Kurtosis

Descriptive Statistics

	N Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error
Standardized Residual	214	-3,10354	2,47907	,0000000	,98819321	-,650	,166	,387	,331
Valid N (listwise)	214								

Price Point: Shapiro-Wilk-Test

Case Processing Summary

	Cases Valid N	Valid Percent	Missing N	Missing Percent	Total N	Total Percent
Standardized Residual	214	66,9%	106	33,1%	320	100,0%

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Standardized Residual	Mean		,0000000	,06755150
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	-,1331551	
		Upper Bound	,1331551	
	5% Trimmed Mean		,0317148	
	Median		,1769453	
	Variance		,977	
	Std. Deviation		,98819321	
	Minimum		-3,10354	
	Maximum		2,47907	
	Range		5,58260	
	Interquartile Range		1,11144	
	Skewness		-,650	,166
	Kurtosis		,387	,331

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] Statistic	df	Sig.	Shapiro-Wilk Statistic	df	Sig.
Standardized Residual	,090	214	<,001	,964	214	<,001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

PROCESS Model 1: Value Consciousness

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 1
    Y  : PI_Mean
    X  : EU_Per_D
    W  : ValCo_Me

Sample
Size:  214

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

Model Summary
       R       R-sq        MSE      F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      ,2265      ,0513     1,9203     5,2590     3,0000   210,0000      ,0016

Model
             coeff    se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2,6249     1,6210     1,6193      ,1069     -,5707     5,8205
EU_Per_D      ,1268     1,0520      ,1205      ,9042    -1,9470     2,2006
ValCo_Me      ,3354      ,3009     1,1146      ,2663     -,2578      ,9287
Int_1         ,0131      ,1930      ,0681      ,9458     -,3673      ,3935

Product terms key:
 Int_1    :        EU_Per_D x        ValCo_Me

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
       R2-chng      F(HC3)         df1         df2           p
X*W      ,0000      ,0046     1,0000   210,0000      ,9458
----------
     Focal predict: EU_Per_D (X)
           Mod var: ValCo_Me (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.


DATA LIST FREE/
   EU_Per_D   ValCo_Me   PI_Mean    .
BEGIN DATA.
     1,0000     4,8571     4,4447
     2,0000     4,8571     4,6354
     1,0000     5,7143     4,7435
     2,0000     5,7143     4,9454
     1,0000     6,2857     4,9427
     2,0000     6,2857     5,1521
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
 ValCo_Me WITH     PI_Mean  BY       EU_Per_D .

**************************************************************************
Bootstrap estimates were saved to a file

Map of column names to model coefficients:
          Conseqnt Antecdnt
 COL1     PI_Mean  constant
 COL2     PI_Mean  EU_Per_D
 COL3     PI_Mean  ValCo_Me
 COL4     PI_Mean  Int_1

********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS ***********

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

             Coeff   BootMean     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
constant     2,6249     2,6533     1,6235     -,4748     5,9262
EU_Per_D      ,1268      ,1053     1,0574    -2,0247     2,1622
ValCo_Me      ,3354      ,3296      ,3009     -,2742      ,9005
Int_1         ,0131      ,0174      ,1935     -,3559      ,4073

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

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  5000

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

------ END MATRIX -----
```

PROCESS Model 1: Personal Relevance

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 1
    Y  : PI_Mean
    X  : EU_Per_D
    W  : PRel_Me

Sample
Size:  214

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      ,4792      ,2297     1,5593    17,5882     3,0000   210,0000      ,0000

Model
              coeff    se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2,3466     1,1446     2,0501      ,0416      ,0902     4,6031
EU_Per_D     -,0361      ,7316     -,0493      ,9607    -1,4783     1,4062
PRel_Me       ,5180      ,2274     2,2779      ,0237      ,0697      ,9662
Int_1        -,0070      ,1414     -,0495      ,9605     -,2858      ,2718

Product terms key:
 Int_1    :        EU_Per_D x        PRel_Me

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
       R2-chng      F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
X*W      ,0000      ,0025     1,0000   210,0000      ,9605
----------
     Focal predict: EU_Per_D (X)
           Mod var: PRel_Me  (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.
    2,0000    3,5667    4,0720
    1,0000    5,0833    4,9080
    2,0000    5,0833    4,8363
    1,0000    6,0000    5,3764
    2,0000    6,0000    5,2983
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
 PRel_Me  WITH     PI_Mean  BY       EU_Per_D .

**************************************************************************
Bootstrap estimates were saved to a file

Map of column names to model coefficients:
          Conseqnt Antecdnt
 COL1     PI_Mean  constant
 COL2     PI_Mean  EU_Per_D
 COL3     PI_Mean  PRel_Me
 COL4     PI_Mean  Int_1

*********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS ************

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

              Coeff   BootMean     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
constant     2,3466     2,2878     1,1183     -,0298     4,3629
EU_Per_D     -,0361      ,0005      ,7229    -1,3605     1,4895
PRel_Me       ,5180      ,5282      ,2235      ,1052      ,9816
Int_1        -,0070     -,0132      ,1402     -,3003      ,2485

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

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  5000

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

------ END MATRIX -----
```

PROCESS Model 1: Sale Proneness

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 1
    Y  : PI_Mean
    X  : EU_Per_D
    W  : SaP_Mean

Sample
Size:  214

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      ,3920      ,1537     1,7130     9,7954     3,0000   210,0000      ,0000

Model
              coeff    se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,7462     1,5743     2,3796      ,0182      ,6427     6,8497
EU_Per_D    -1,1061     1,0233    -1,0809      ,2810    -3,1234      ,9112
SaP_Mean      ,2209      ,3236      ,6826      ,4956     -,4170      ,8587
Int_1         ,2136      ,2056     1,0392      ,2999     -,1916      ,6189

Product terms key:
 Int_1    :        EU_Per_D x        SaP_Mean

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
       R2-chng      F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
X*W      ,0056     1,0800     1,0000   210,0000      ,2999
----------
     Focal predict: EU_Per_D (X)
           Mod var: SaP_Mean (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

    2,0000    3,8333    4,0186
    1,0000    5,0000    4,8127
    2,0000    5,0000    4,7748
    1,0000    6,0000    5,2472
    2,0000    6,0000    5,4230
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
 SaP_Mean WITH     PI_Mean  BY       EU_Per_D .

**************************************************************************
Bootstrap estimates were saved to a file

Map of column names to model coefficients:
          Conseqnt Antecdnt
 COL1     PI_Mean  constant
 COL2     PI_Mean  EU_Per_D
 COL3     PI_Mean  SaP_Mean
 COL4     PI_Mean  Int_1

*********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS ************

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

              Coeff   BootMean     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
constant     3,7462     3,6841     1,5073      ,7490     6,6921
EU_Per_D    -1,1061    -1,0902      ,9890    -3,0689      ,8250
SaP_Mean      ,2209      ,2342      ,3107     -,3827      ,8296
Int_1         ,2136      ,2100      ,1985     -,1816      ,6103

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

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  5000

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

------ END MATRIX -----
```

PROCESS Model 3: Self-Control

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 3
    Y  : PI_Mean
    X  : EU_Per_D
    W  : ValCo_Me
    Z  : SC_hilow

Sample
Size:  214

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE      F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      ,2708      ,0733     1,9121     3,3009     7,0000   206,0000      ,0024

Model
              coeff    se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     1,2899     2,5093      ,5140      ,6078    -3,6574     6,2371
EU_Per_D      ,2125     1,5888      ,1337      ,8938    -2,9200     3,3449
ValCo_Me      ,6705      ,4616     1,4527      ,1478     -,2395     1,5805
Int_1        -,0467      ,2870     -,1627      ,8709     -,6126      ,5192
SC_hilow      ,6995     3,5343      ,1979      ,8433    -6,2685     7,6676
Int_2         ,9576     2,4277      ,3944      ,6937    -3,8288     5,7439
Int_3        -,2643      ,6466     -,4087      ,6832    -1,5391     1,0105
Int_4        -,1116      ,4380     -,2549      ,7991     -,9752      ,7519

Product terms key:
 Int_1    :        EU_Per_D x        ValCo_Me
 Int_2    :        EU_Per_D x        SC_hilow
 Int_3    :        ValCo_Me x        SC_hilow
 Int_4    :        EU_Per_D x        ValCo_Me x        SC_hilow

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
         R2-chng      F(HC3)         df1         df2           p
X*W*Z      ,0002      ,0650      1,0000    206,0000      ,7991
----------
     2,0000     5,7143      ,0000     5,0124
     1,0000     5,7143     1,0000     4,5758
     2,0000     5,7143     1,0000     4,8411
     1,0000     6,2857      ,0000     5,4232
     2,0000     6,2857      ,0000     5,3422
     1,0000     6,2857     1,0000     4,7174
     2,0000     6,2857     1,0000     4,8923
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
 EU_Per_D WITH     PI_Mean  BY       ValCo_Me /PANEL   ROWVAR=  SC_hilow .

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

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95,0000

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

------ END MATRIX -----
```

PROCESS Model 3: Price Point

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 3
    Y  : PI_Mean
    X  : EU_Per_D
    W  : ValCo_Me
    Z  : Prod_M1

Sample
Size:  214

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PI_Mean

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE      F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      ,2809      ,0789     1,9006     3,2920     7,0000   206,0000      ,0024

Model
              coeff    se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,1026     2,5696     1,2075      ,2286    -1,9634     8,1686
EU_Per_D     -,2913     1,5528     -,1876      ,8514    -3,3527     2,7702
ValCo_Me      ,3489      ,4695      ,7261      ,4686     -,5847     1,2665
 Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
         R2-chng      F(HC3)         df1         df2           p
X*W*Z      ,0002      ,0489      1,0000    206,0000      ,8253
 ----------
     Focal predict: EU_Per_D (X)
           Mod var: ValCo_Me (W)
           Mod var: Prod_M1  (Z)

 Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
 Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

 DATA LIST FREE/
    EU_Per_D   ValCo_Me   Prod_M1    PI_Mean    .
 BEGIN DATA.
     1,0000     4,8571      ,0000     4,7228
     2,0000     4,8571      ,0000     4,6870
     1,0000     4,8571     1,0000     4,1790
     2,0000     4,8571     1,0000     4,5895
     1,0000     5,7143      ,0000     5,0601
     2,0000     5,7143      ,0000     5,0694
     1,0000     5,7143     1,0000     4,4325
     2,0000     5,7143     1,0000     4,8094
     1,0000     6,2857      ,0000     5,2849
     2,0000     6,2857      ,0000     5,3244
     1,0000     6,2857     1,0000     4,6015
     2,0000     6,2857     1,0000     4,9560
 END DATA.
 GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
  EU_Per_D WITH     PI_Mean  BY       ValCo_Me /PANEL   ROWVAR=  Prod_M1  .

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

 Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
   95,0000

 NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

 ------ END MATRIX -----
```