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Abstract

The fear of missing out (FOMO) has been shown to increase spending in the form of consumption. Although the effect is known, little research has been done to explore why this is the case. The present paper argues that the effect could be explained by FOMO momentarily reducing one's valuation of money and thus increasing spending, especially in the form of impulsive buys. Attending events, one did not want to be part of earlier, are suddenly seen as necessities and may result in quick and irrational decisions. Unreflective and quick buying behavior is thus consequentially caused by FOMO. As impulsive buys result from overvaluing immediate options, it leads to the question if the opposite effect occurs for the perceived value of money. The paper thus researched the idea that FOMO may drive consumption because it leads individuals to temporarily depreciate money, hence increasing one's spending likelihood. The idea was that FOMO-laden individuals would be more likely to spend money if they perceived it as less valuable. Overall, the results gathered from a survey conducted in Austria and Germany did not support the hypotheses, yet propose that FOMO is domain specific and limited to experiences.

Abstract (German Translation)

Es ist erwiesen, dass die Angst etwas zu verpassen (Fear of Missing Out = FOMO) monetäre Ausgaben in Form von Konsum erhöht. Obwohl dieser Effekt bekannt ist, wurde bisher kaum untersucht, warum dies der Fall ist. In der vorliegenden Arbeit wird argumentiert, dass der Effekt dadurch erklärt werden könnte, dass FOMO die eigene Wertschätzung des Geldes vorübergehend verringert und somit die Ausgaben, insbesondere in Form von Impulskäufen, erhöht. Der Besuch von Veranstaltungen, an denen man vorher nicht teilnehmen wollte, wird plötzlich als Notwendigkeit angesehen und kann zu schnellen und irrationalen Entscheidungen führen. Unreflektiertes und schnelles Kaufverhalten wird demnach durch FOMO verursacht. Da impulsive Käufe aus der Überbewertung unmittelbarer Optionen resultieren, stellt sich die Frage, ob der umgekehrte Effekt auch für den wahrgenommenen Wert des Geldes gilt. In der Studie wurde daher die Idee untersucht, ob FOMO den Konsum ankurbelt, da es Individuen dazu veranlassen könnte, den Wert des Geldes vorübergehend zu mindern und damit die Wahrscheinlichkeit erhöht, dass man dieses ausgibt. Der Forschungsgedanke war, dass FOMO-belastete Personen eher bereit sind, Geld auszugeben, wenn sie es als weniger wertvoll wahrnehmen. Insgesamt haben die Ergebnisse einer in Österreich und Deutschland durchgeführten Umfrage die Hypothesen nicht bestätigt, sondern legen nahe, dass FOMO bereichsspezifisch und auf Erfahrungen beschränkt ist.

List of abbreviations

FOMO Fear of Missing Out

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1. Introduction

A term which has gained popularity over the past few years is the word FOMO (Roberts et al. 2020). The abbreviation stands for Fear of Missing Out, which describes an emotional state in which individuals are afraid to miss out on beneficial occasions (Good et al. 2020). The feeling of one's absence of a rewarding experience can result in anxiety, frustration and mostly regret (Kang et al. 2020, Hayran et al. 2020 & Good et al. 2020). Individuals feeling such negative emotions caused by FOMO, will try to counterfeit these by buying into goods and services that have a soothing effect (Saavedra et al. 2020 & Fumagalli et al. 2022). FOMO can thus be described as a purchase trigger, as it can lead to a higher consumption (Hodkinson 2019) by increasing a person's spending behavior (Durante et al. 2016). An experience which is marketed as able to calm this inner discontent, becomes more desirable and leads to increasing purchase intentions (Kim et al. 2020). Even if it was earlier regarded as irrelevant (Kim et al. 2020), it will suddenly be seen as a necessity (Durante et al. 2016).

While FOMO has already been shown to influence consumption positively, it is yet to be explored why it is a trigger for additional spending (Kim et al. 2020). What actually leads individuals to increase their spending when confronted with FOMO? If a product that was previously deemed uninteresting becomes more desirable due to FOMO, it leads to the belief that the value of the exchanged good (hence money) is likely affected as well. Perhaps FOMO helps individuals "justify" their purchases as money is seen as less valuable when experiencing FOMO, which in turn would increase their spending likelihood. If money is perceived as less beneficial in what it can afford, individuals may be more willing to spend it, seeing less benefits in keeping it. Accordingly, the study seeks to test whether money is depreciated when confronted with FOMO and thus increases impulsive buying behavior.

2. Literature Review

2.1 FOMO

FOMO is felt when an individual worries about not being part of meaningful or rewarding experiences among peers (Przybylski et al. 2013) and can lead to deficiencies in well-being, evoking emotions such as stress and discomfort (Tandon et al. 2021). People experiencing FOMO feel a general uneasiness which can negatively affect a person's demeanor and overall behavior (Klettenhofer 2022). The feeling of FOMO arises if an experience is deemed as a necessity to be part of (Good et al. 2020), but its felt intensity can vary on an individual's ability to partake (Saavedra et al. 2020) and if an individual uses possessions and experiences such as events as a form to define themselves (Zhang 2018). Although FOMO is mostly seen as a trait, ever more research is done at which FOMO is regarded as a state, meaning it can also be regarded as situational (Kim et al. 2020 & Maxwell et al. 2022). If a potentially beneficial opportunity is missed out on, an individual will most likely feel regret and try to prevent this from happening (Good et al. 2020). Being part is viewed as more important as missing out would be perceived as unfavorable (Kim et al. 2020). Individuals who experience FOMO are thus more likely to regularly check on what their peers are doing in order to be updated and feel included (Argan et al. 2022 & Przybylski et al. 2013). As a result, the percentage of people experiencing FOMO is very common among social media users as it allows for constant status updates of what is happening among friends (Przybylski et al. 2013). Although FOMO is present among every age group, it is especially present among the younger generation who are known to have a heavier social media usage (Roberts et al. 2020). It is often accompanied by the feeling of envy, thinking that peers are living a better life than oneself (Klettenhofer 2022). Correspondingly, FOMO leads individuals to constantly compare themselves in reference to others (Dinh et al. 2022) and is accompanied by negative emotions deriving from these comparisons (Przybylski et al. 2013). This is especially the case if a peer's social position is perceived as more rewarding and exciting than one's own situation (Klettenhofer 2022). Furthermore, the negative emotions one might feel lead to an inner conflict in individuals of

trying to avoid these dissatisfactions caused by FOMO (Kim et al. 2020) and has individuals actively working against these (Hodkinson 2019) by trying to narrow the gap between the "anticipated state" and the "current state" (Zhang 2018).

It has been shown that FOMO is positively linked with consumption as it is able to change an individual's purchase attitude (Good et al. 2020). FOMO is known to positively influence one's purchase behavior (Tandon et al. 2021) even when the intrinsic motivation (e.g. enjoyment) to do so was priorly lacking (Kim et al. 2020), as it is especially effective in driving extrinsic stimuli (e.g. social approval) (Zhang 2018). Regarding the purchase decision-making process, an individual contemplates how their decision will affect their future, hence if it is deemed as beneficial (Hodkinson 2019). Individuals who view consumption as a way to seek rewards often experience altered emotional input which in turn affects their decision-making and overall their spending behavior (Black 2022). FOMO is thus a stressor (Tandon et al. 2021) that uses consumption as a form of need satisfaction (Maxwell et al. 2022). This means that consumption resulting from FOMO is a form of reward or a way to prevent future regret (anticipated regret) and triggers preventive purchase behavior (Saavedra et al. 2020 & Good et al. 2020). An individual uses consumption as a form to avoid later disappointment, increasing the urge to buy (Kim et al. 2020). Hence an event for example is seen as more desirable and valuable in presence of FOMO as it is suddenly regarded as a once in a lifetime experience and a necessity to be a part of (Good et al. 2020), showing that FOMO can change one's value perception. Although the relationship between FOMO and consumption in the form of increased spending behavior has been shown to be given, the reason why this is the case is yet to be fully explored. Could it be that individual's prioritize getting rid of FOMO that they are subconsciously devaluing their money?

2.2 The Relationship between FOMO and the Depreciation of Money

As FOMO has the potential to increase an individual's perceived value of goods or services, making them more desirable, perhaps the value of money used to buy these may temporarily vary as well. Although money has a static value, the way consumers perceive its value is subjective and may differ from person to person (Peetz et al. 2016). Furthermore, the spending behavior of individuals varies (Wong et al. 2017), meaning that the value of money is situational rather than fixed (Ahmeteglu et al. 2014). People thus do not act as rational as the homo economicus and are influenced in their decision-making (Krämer 2020).

Regarding the process of buying goods, it comes down to the monetary value assigned to them by individuals and how much they are willing to pay (Wertenbroch 2007). If money as such is presented in a less favorable way (Peetz et al. 2016), its value is perceived lower which in turn increases spending (Raghubir et al. 2002). The monetary value is thus situational (Zhou et al. 2022) and determined by its perceived purchasing power, meaning how much it is able to buy (Polman et al. 2018). The purchasing power of money is equal to the assigned goods and services that can be bought with the money in question (Ramsay 1996). This means that if money is thought to have a high purchasing power, it will be deemed as more valuable as it appears to be more beneficial in terms of what it can afford (Polman et al. 2018). The perception of money can thus drive an individual's motivation (purchase intention) in different directions (Peetz et al. 2016) and overall influence the spending behavior, depending on the purchasing power assigned to it (Polman et al. 2018). Individuals will be more likely to spend money if its perceived purchasing power is low as the pain of payment is consequently lower (Zhou et al. 2022), making spending it more easily. This means that the loss of money will not be felt as heavily which increases an individual's willingness to spend it (Raghubir et al. 2008). It is therefore hypothesized that the individual may not see any further benefits in keeping it, making them feel indifferent towards spending their money, subconsciously depreciating it.

The idea that FOMO influences the perceived value of money (ergo its purchasing power) bases on the finding that FOMO increases the need for instant rewards (Gupta et al. 2021).

Perhaps individuals subconsciously devalue money when confronted with FOMO in order to validate their spending. As FOMO often times results from not being able to partake due to a lack of time or money (Zhang 2018), perhaps devaluing money when confronted with FOMO is used as a mechanism to avoid feeling its loss. People tend to overvalue immediate rewards (Cherniawsky et al. 2013 & Frigerio et al. 2020) and in this state of overvaluing, they do not weigh or react to negative consequences of their consumption choices as heavily (Frigerio et al. 2020 & Black 2022). Loss aversion of options which are perceived as beneficial weigh heavier than the aversion of monetary losses (Chen et al. 2016), meaning that losing out on an opportunity may be worse than losing money which would be needed to buy it. Shoppers who are prone to indulge in impulsive shopping have shown to experience a lower insula activation (the part of the brain responsible for detecting pain), which shows that people perceive prices differently (Black 2022). Hence the loss of money may not be felt as intensely and can be understood as a coping mechanism of temporarily separating the pain of payment from consumption (Levav et al. 2009). The pleasure of giving into impulsive purchases is immediately felt while the pain of payment is delayed, making for quick and unreflective expenditures (Black 2022). Spending money thus depends on an individual's willingness of giving away money (Polman et al. 2018) and how valuable the good is perceived (Collins et al. 2014). It can therefore be hypothesized that FOMO overhauls the experience of a monetary loss, driving impulsive shopping behavior. This effect is therefore thought to occur due to a momentary devaluation of money, which in turn increases spending.

2.3 The Relationship between FOMO and Impulsive Buying

Impulsivity is a loss of control and seen as the devotion to immediate desire (Crews et al. 2009). Hence, impulsivity is understood as the opposite of self-control (Frigerio et al. 2020). It is driven by the need of instant rewards (Crew et al. 2009) and works on a subconscious level, with the individual not necessarily understanding what caused their decision to take action (Strack et al. 2004). Giving into impulsive temptations does not involve an elaborate cognitive process (Kroeber-Riel et al. 2019). Thus decisions under impulsivity are driven by emotions

and do not base on rationality (Cherniawsky et al. 2013). There is no further thought process and reflection of the choices made and can hence be labeled as unreflective (Strack et al. 2004).

As FOMO is seen as a way to avoid punishment in form of regret (Saavedra et al. 2020), it can trigger impulsive behavior in individuals (Celik et al. 2019). Impulsive buying behavior aims to diminish potential non-purchase regret which would arise if not giving in to this sudden desire (Muratore 2016). Consumption is thus a form of need satisfaction and the reduction of FOMO can be seen as a form of satisfying these (Maxwell et al. 2022). As FOMO is closely linked to impulsive behavior due to its obsessive and addictive properties (Kang et al. 2019), it triggers instantaneous and overpowering aspirations (Bhakat et al. 2013). When stressed, spending money is perceived as a way for consumers to regain control (Durante et al. 2016). As impulsive buying behavior stems from mostly negative emotions (Youn et al. 2020) such as stress (Durante et al. 2016), it leads people to engage in actions that offer some form of relief to such (Bhakat et al. 2013). By not giving into sudden desires, an individual may feel like missing out on an opportunity (Good et al. 2020). As FOMO triggers negative emotions, it pushes people to make quick and spontaneous decisions, hence impulsive ones (Celik et al. 2019). Most purchases made by millennials under the influence of FOMO have been made within a short time frame, within 24 hours (Kim et al. 2020), showing that FOMO makes for quick decision-making. Individuals tend to prefer immediate rewards (Cherniawsky et al. 2013), leading to increased and unreflective spending behavior (Celik et al. 2019). People are thus more likely to make hasty spendings out of FOMO, not contemplating on the consequences of their decision (Gupta et al. 2022). This leads to the thought that the purchase likelihood for impulsive buys is so overwhelming that an individual does not reflect on the money spent in such instances. The effect would be thought to accelerate if money is depreciated, thus making the choice to spend it on impulsive desires easier.

3. The Current Research

The study will investigate the relationship between FOMO and depreciation of money. Do individuals temporarily depreciate the value of money which in turn increases spending likelihood? In moments experiencing FOMO, the tendency towards impulsive behavior rises (Celik et al. 2019) triggering irrational behavior (Argan et al. 2022), which might also be applied to the perception of money.

The conceptual framework is illustrated in figure 1 and shows the hypothesized relationships between the variables. Hypothesis (H1) states that FOMO will increase impulsive behavior. To explain the impulsive component resulting from FOMO (Hodkinson 2019 & Zhang et al. 2022), it is hypothesized that the effect is mediated by an individual's depreciation of money when confronted with FOMO. Hence Hypothesis (H2) states that FOMO increases the depreciation of money which in turn leads to a higher impulsive buying (H3). Overall, the effect of FOMO on impulsive buying is thought to be mediated by depreciation of money. To seek the effect of FOMO, the study will therefore manipulate the independent variable FOMO to seek how differently participants react when confronted with this fear. The research model will look as depicted below and include the following variables:

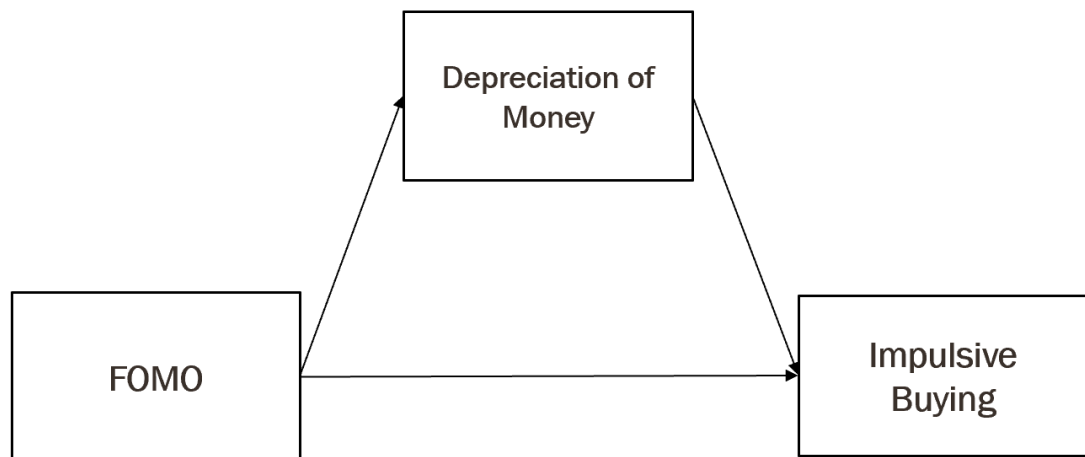


Figure 1 - Research Model

H1: FOMO increases impulsive buying.

H2: FOMO increases depreciation of money.

H3: Depreciation of money increases impulsive buying.

4. Methodology

4.1 Empirical Design

The mediation was tested by conducting a survey in Austria and Germany. Participants ($N = 141$, $M_{Age} = 29.97$, $SD = 11.74$, 66.67% female, 31.20% male, 2.13% diverse) were randomly assigned to one of two conditions: FOMO-laden ($N = 68$) and control group ($N = 73$). Both groups received different short texts, one being FOMO-laden, stating a situation where their friends decide to go on vacation without the individual, making the participant feel left out. The manipulation based on the one used in the study of Good et al. (2020). The participants of the manipulation group were then asked to write a short paragraph about how they would feel in such a situation. The text included various triggers of FOMO emphasizing the feeling that the vacation with friends was regarded as a “once in a lifetime” experience which would serve as the basis for future insiders between friends (Przybylski et al. 2013). The control group received a different text which was not FOMO-laden but the opposite, suggesting the reader feeling indifferent towards joining the trip. The text the control group received did not trigger any major emotions to avoid biases.

4.1.1 Measures: Depreciation of Money

To test the mediator depreciation of money, both participant groups were asked to indirectly evaluate the purchasing power of a given amount of money. In particular, they were asked how many items of a category they could afford with 20 Euros (see APPENDIX G). The mean value across all items was then calculated to detect the assigned purchasing power. To recall, in the present study valuation of money is treated as equivalent to the attributed purchasing power, hence how valuable an individual thinks of money in terms of what it can buy. Similar scales, to evaluate an individual's valuation of money, were conducted by Zhou et al. (2022) and Polman et al. (2018). If the assigned purchasing power was low, less items were attributed to the 20 Euros, it would hence be assumed that individuals are devaluing money when confronted with FOMO which would explain their higher spending behavior. The six chosen utilitarian FMCG categories for the present study were all goods that typically experience little

price swings (e.g., toothbrushes, chewing gum) and are all relatively in the same price range. All items fell into the everyday goods category as proposed by Polman et al. (2018). It was expected that the FOMO-laden group would attribute less purchasing power to 20 Euros and therefore have a lower average number of items throughout all categories. If the attributed value was low, it was believed that spending it would be “easier”. This was thought to explain why the FOMO-laden participants would be more likely to engage in impulsive behavior as they deem the money as less valuable and would thus be more likely to spend it, temporarily seeing less reason or rather benefits in keeping it.

Different to the studies conducted by Polman et al. (2018) and Zhou et al. (2022) the mediator variable was later inverted, meaning the average number of items was subtracted from 20 (the highest possible number of items in the study). This was done in order to properly measure the depreciation of money (not appreciation, hence the opposite effect) and make for a positive relationship when analyzing its effect on impulsive buying. If the scale would not be inverted it would measure the valuation of money and not the devaluation (depreciation of money = the average number of items across categories was subtracted from the highest possible number of items; $M = 9.12$, $SD = 2.82$).

4.1.2 Measures: Impulsive Buying

The variable impulsive buying was also measured by checking for the purchase likelihood of individuals granting themselves a desired item or service in the form of buying it within a given timeframe. The scale ranged from a probability of 0 to a probability of 100 percent, which meant that an individual would be fully willing to purchase ($M = 41.79$, $SD = 32.63$). Participants were first asked if there is a good or a service they have been wanting for a while. If they responded with ‘yes’, they were asked to rate the likelihood of them actually buying the item or service in question for themselves within the next three weeks. If they answered with ‘no’, they were screened-out as no item was considered for the follow-up question. From 202 respondents, only 141 had a product or service in mind.

4.1.3 Manipulation Check

In order to check if the manipulation performed prior in form of two introductory texts (one being FOMO-laden) worked, a manipulation check was performed. Both groups were asked to take a moment to think about the text they were given. For the purpose of assuring a correct manipulation, participants were not able to skip the task of writing a short paragraph given how they would feel in the situation and a word count minimum was implemented to make sure proper sentences were written. Those answers with incoherently written paragraphs were excluded from the further analysis. FOMO was measured using the scale by Przybylski et al. (2013); participants answered to what extent the statements represented how they were feeling on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Not true at all of me, 5 = Extremely true of me). The statements were translated into the German language as the field took place in Austria and Germany. The displaying of the statements was randomized: („I am afraid that others have more exciting experiences than I do“; $M = 2.85$, $SD = 1.36$), („I am afraid that my friends have more exciting experiences than I do“; $M = 2.72$, $SD = 1.32$), („I worry about my friends having fun without me“; $M = 2.40$, $SD = 1.24$), („I get nervous when I am not informed what my friends are doing“; $M = 2.50$, $SD = 1.29$), („It is important to me to be involved in "inside jokes" between friends“; $M = 3.51$, $SD = 1.13$), („I wonder if I worry too much about staying on top of things all the time“, $M = 2.56$, $SD = 1.30$), („It bothers me when I miss an opportunity to get together with my friends“; $M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.07$), („It is important to me to share my experiences online on social media“; $M = 2.09$, $SD = 1.19$), („When I miss a scheduled meeting, it bothers me“; $M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.20$), („When I am on vacation, I continue to follow the activities of my friends“; $M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.20$). As intended by Przybyskli et al. (2013), all individual responses were computed by averaging responses. The ten items used in the scale all measured the same underlying concept (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.88$).

5. Analysis

5.1 Procedure

The data was analyzed using the software SPSS. Mediation was tested by using Hayes' PROCESS Macro model number 4, which is more suitable on smaller samples compared to the Sobel test (Fritz et al. 2007). Although the bootstrapping fits into a robust model and does not specifically ask for prerequisites (Hayes 2018), the standard requirements for conducting a mediation analysis were checked and met. Using the Loess technique, a linear relationship between the variables could be observed with single outliers changing the direction of the line at extreme points. Normal distribution was tested by visualizing the given variables as histograms and depicting the normal distribution curve. Lastly, homoscedasticity was shown using the modified Breusch-Pagan test (Hayes et al. 2007), showing that the null hypothesis of there being homoscedasticity could not be rejected ($p > .05$), meaning that homoscedasticity was considered true. The bootstrapping method of 5000 re-samplings was used to analyze the mediation and a confidence interval value of 95% was chosen.

5.2 Results

The FOMO-laden group showed a higher level of FOMO ($M_{\text{FOMO}} = 2.94$, $SD_{\text{FOMO}} = 0.11$) compared to the control group ($M_{\text{Control}} = 2.64$, $SD_{\text{Control}} = 0.09$; $t(139) = 2.07$, $M_{\text{Difference}} = .30$, Cohen's $d = .35$, $p = .04$, 95%, CI [.01, .58]), meaning the manipulation was successful. Contrary to expectations, no main effect could be found. FOMO hence did not increase impulsive buying ($M_{\text{FOMO}} = 45.88$, $SD_{\text{FOMO}} = 32.01$) compared to the control group ($M_{\text{CG}} = 37.97$, $SD_{\text{CG}} = 32.97$; $t(139) = 1.44$; $M_{\text{Difference}} = 7.91$, Cohen's $d = .24$, $p = .151$, 95% CI [-2.93, 18.74]). Regarding the indirect path, hence the mediation, FOMO did also not have an effect on depreciation of money ($b = .57$, $SE = 0.47$, $p = .24$, 95% CI [-.37, 1.50]). Moreover, depreciation of money did not have an effect on impulsive buying ($b = 1.23$, $SE = 0.98$, $p = .21$, 95%, CI [-.70, 3.16]). In summary, no indirect effect could be found.

Contrary to expectations from the literature review, the tested mediation revealed that FOMO did not have an effect on impulsive buying (no direct effect) ($b = 7.21$, $SE = 5.50$, $p = .19$, 95% CI [-3.65, 18.08]). Hence, the null hypothesis of FOMO not having a positive effect on impulsive buying could not be rejected. Overall, there was no mediation as the total effect was insignificant ($b = 7.91$, $SE = 5.48$, $p = .15$, 95%, CI [-2.93, 18.74]).

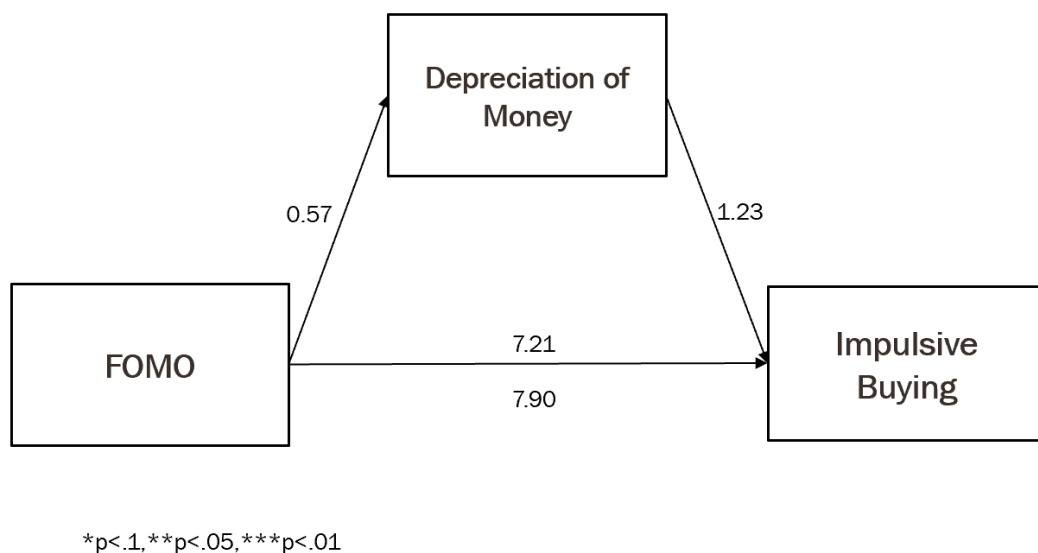


Figure 2 - Research Model | Hypotheses Testing – Regression Coefficients

6. Discussion

6.1 Findings

FOMO has been shown to increase consumption but the mechanism remains unclear. Rather little research has been done to explore why FOMO causes increased and spontaneous spending. The literature review found that FOMO has the potential of triggering extrinsic motivations even though the intrinsic motivation is lacking (Kim et al. 2020), increasing the desire of immediate need satisfaction (Maxwell et al. 2022). With individuals tending to overvalue instant choices (Cherniawsky et al. 2013 & Frigerio et al. 2020), FOMO was thought to trigger individuals to take immediate action in the form of impulsive buying. The study proposed that the effect could be explained through a temporal depreciation of money. Contrary to expectations, depreciation of money could not explain the effect of FOMO on spending as no mediation was found. This, however, means that FOMO was not found to trigger impulsive buying. As a result, the hypotheses had to be rejected. This leads to the question: What could be the reason for the lack of findings?

A possible explanation for not finding an effect could be that FOMO does not change purchase intentions in general but is only domain specific. This would mean that FOMO does not travel from one domain to another, hence not overarching. This assumption would suggest that FOMO only increases purchase behavior for the FOMO-laden service, experience or product and that its effect is limited to these. As the intention of the study was to explore the effect of FOMO on impulsive buying in general, the missing main effect could possibly be explained by not testing for a specific domain. As stated by Przyblyski et al. (2013), FOMO is seen as a state of mind involving personal need satisfaction, depending on an individual's attitude. Contrary to the gathered results of the present study, the results by Good et al. (2019 & 2020) show that FOMO was able to change purchase likelihood for given events. However, the purchase likelihood in their study was related to the presented event of the prior manipulation (e.g. a concert). Here FOMO's effect on purchase likelihood was regarded for a specific domain, limited to the FOMO-laden event. This raises the question whether FOMO only

increases purchase likelihood for a specific event FOMO is felt for. Furthermore, this would explain why the results of the present study were not significant. The present study viewed each variable independently, meaning the topics were not related and did not follow a common theme. Overall the findings would suggest, that although FOMO is able to change extrinsic motivation (Kim et al. 2020), perhaps the effect is limited to certain domains, meaning it would be context-specific.

Adding to the idea that FOMO is only domain-specific, is that FOMO might only be effective in driving impulsive buys for experiences. The study did not find an effect of FOMO on impulsive buying of goods and services, hinting at the idea that the effect of FOMO is limited to experiences (e.g. in the form of events). Regarding events, there is a fixed date when they will take place, presumably pushing an individual to quickly buy tickets as there might not be any left, should they decide later. As consumption resulting from FOMO is seen as way to avoid later regret (Saavedra et al. 2020), events trigger an individual to take immediate action, which would result in impulsive buying. The pressure of quickly deciding whether or not to buy would be thought to be higher for these. It might not be possible to achieve compensation for losing out on once in a lifetime experiences (Good et al. 2020), increasing FOMO accordingly. The anticipated regret thus is very high for experiences an individual feels FOMO for (Hayran et al. 2016). For goods and services the need to act impulsively might not be as high as these are in general not as limited to a certain point in time, except if stated otherwise (e.g. limited editions or timely limited offers). The potential buyer has more time to reflect his decision which would result in a more reflective purchase behavior. From the literature review it is known that impulsivity in form of quick and unreflective buys is a way of diminishing any potential non-purchase regret (Muratore 2016). It could therefore be assumed that not buying tickets to events would lead to an overall higher perceived non-purchase regret which triggers individuals who feel FOMO to take action (Good et al. 2020).

Furthermore, the social factor tends to be higher for events. Given that FOMO is triggered by social pressures (Hodkinson 2019), it could be assumed that FOMO only functions in relieving these. Most instances of FOMO involve friends, showing that individuals are more prone to feel FOMO if they skip a social gathering that their friends are anticipated to attend (Dogan 2019). The desire of enhancing social connections is very high for people experiencing FOMO, explaining why it is especially common among social media users (Roberts et al. 2020). Experiences in the form of events would be thought to increase the effect of FOMO as they might become the subject of various conversations among friends and the base to insiders, which could increase non-purchase regret. For people to work against a feeling of social isolation (Fumagalli et al. 2022), they consume more things that enhance their feeling of belongingness (Cleveland et al. 2022). Experiential consumption has shown to be especially effective in soothing the need to belong (Pandelaere 2022). If tickets to an event (e.g. a concert) are popular among peers and are marketed to induce FOMO, the purchase likelihood of such increases (Good et al. 2020). In summary, the results of the study suggest that FOMO is domain-specific, meaning its effect is most likely limited to experiences such as events which usually require immediate decision-making and imply a high social factor.

6.2 Limitations and further Research

Regarding limitations, the study only measures impulsive buying in terms of purchase likelihood. The variable bases on individual's personal assessment (purchase likelihood 1-100%). Even though Celik et al. (2019) had already found a positive relationship between FOMO and impulsivity, they analyzed impulsivity as a trait. In comparison, the present study looked into impulsive buying as a state, exploring situational impulsive behavior. The idea was to detect whether individuals change their purchase intention situationally, meaning if FOMO would temporarily affect impulsive buying. There might be individuals who are more impulsive by nature, so exploring the effect of FOMO on situational impulsivity was deemed more suitable for the paper. As Good et al. (2020) state, they view the effect of FOMO to be transient, which supports the idea to test impulsivity as a state variable, rather than trait. However, the behavior

tracked in the present study is limited to theoretical acts but might look different in practice. The findings are limited to how an individual assumes their purchase behavior would look like (hence an individual's self-assessment) but exploratory research might show different impulsive buying behavior. As impulsive decisions are unreflective and spontaneous (Strack et al. 2004), tracking actual impulsive decisions would show if participants acted on the spot. As FOMO is attributed with stress (Kim et al. 2020 & Gupta et al. 2021), putting impulsive purchase behavior to the test would make sense. Hodgkinson (2019) highlights that FOMO triggers the necessity to make choices. In order to identify impulsive behavior, individuals could be given a shorter time-frame to make their decision. If real-life purchase decisions are tested in form of an experiment, participants would need to make their decision on the spot, either deciding to buy or not.

Regarding future studies, it would make sense to further explore the mechanisms of FOMO. The mediator depreciation of money was thought to explain that FOMO increases impulsive buying. Although the study did not reveal a mediation (ergo a non-mediation), previous studies (Kang et al. 2019 & Dinh et al. 2022) have found FOMO to increase consumption. Future studies could thus further research why the willingness to spend money is higher when individuals experience FOMO. A possible variable for future research would be measuring the pain of payment, an individual feels when choosing to consume more, triggered by FOMO. While the mediator of the present study focused on the valuation of money, future studies could include an emotional layer, hence how painful the spending is felt when making a purchase. Depreciation of money was measured as the perceived face value of money and was regarded as interchangeable with purchasing power. As a lower pain of payment positively influences impulsive buying decisions (Thomas et al. 2011), it would be interesting to see if FOMO can affect how the payment is perceived emotionally. The intention to minimize anticipated regret might outweigh the pain of payment, subconsciously easing the willingness to spend. This means that deficits such as feeling lonely and stressed caused by FOMO (Klettenhofer 2022) could possibly dominate the pain felt when losing money.

7. Conclusion

Overall the study explored the relationship between FOMO and impulsive buying. The idea of preventing non-purchase regret caused by FOMO was thought to change an individual's decision-making. As impulsive buying is understood as unreflective and as making immediate choices, FOMO was believed to trigger such purchases. In moments of experiencing FOMO, participants were expected to assign less purchasing power to their money which would thus make them more likely to spend it. The findings from the literature review proposed that FOMO would positively effect purchase likelihood of individuals. The effect was thought to be explained through a temporal depreciation of money. If individuals assign less purchasing power to money, they were thought to be more willing to spend it, deeming it as less “useful” and seeing less reasons in keeping it. Contrary to expectations, the results showed that FOMO was not strong enough to show significant effects. However, the results are relevant as they suggest that FOMO is most likely domain-specific and does not increase impulsive buying in general but its effect is rather limited to experiences.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire

A Introduction Text

Guten Tag,

im Rahmen meines Masterstudiums würde ich gerne eine kurze Umfrage (3-5 Minuten) durchführen.

Sie werden als erstes einen Einleitungstext erhalten und werden dann unterschiedliche Fragen zu Ihrem Freizeitverhalten gestellt bekommen.

- Die Teilnahme an der Studie ist freiwillig.
- Sie können den Fragebogen jederzeit abbrechen.
- Ihre Teilnahme ist anonym, Ihre Antworten können nicht auf Sie zurückgeführt werden.
- Ihre Daten werden ausschließlich für wissenschaftliche Zwecke verwendet.
- Ihre Daten werden strengvertraulich behandelt.

Ich würde mich sehr über Ihre Teilnahme freuen.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Hilfe!

B Participation

Sind Sie mit der Teilnahme an der Studie einverstanden?

- ☐ Ja
☐ Nein

C Group 1: FOMO

German (Original Text):

Stellen Sie sich vor Ihre Freundesgruppe plant eine spannende Reise, bei der Sie gerne dabei wären. Im gemeinsamen Gruppenchat werden mehrere Links zu verschiedenen Unterkünften geteilt und schliesslich abgestimmt. Zum Zeitpunkt der Reise bekommen Sie allerdings keinen Urlaub und sind somit also gezwungen, Ihre Teilnahme an der Reise, auf die Sie sich sehr gefreut hätten, abzusagen. Ihre Freunde unternehmen die Reise dennoch, ohne Sie. Im Gruppenchat werden mehrere Bilder der Reise geteilt. Bei den darauf später stattfindenden Treffen mit Ihren Freunden ist die Reise immer wieder Gesprächsthema. Ihre Freunde hatten viel Spaß auf dieser Reise und haben viel ohne Sie erlebt. Aufgrund Ihrer Nicht-Teilnahme können Sie an den Gesprächen wenig teilhaben.

English (Translated):

Imagine your group of friends is planning an exciting trip that you would like to be a part of. In the group chat, several links to different accommodations are shared and finally voted on. The prices for the accommodation and the flight largely exceed your available budget. So you are forced to cancel your participation in the trip you were looking forward to. Your friends still go on the trip without you. Several pictures of the trip are shared in the group chat. During the subsequent meetings with your friends, the trip is always a topic of conversation. Your friends had a lot of fun on this trip and experienced a lot without you. Because of your non-participation, you can't participate much in the conversations.

Bitte schreiben Sie einen kurzen Absatz darüber wie Sie sich in einer solchen Situation fühlen würden:

Bitte schreiben Sie mindestens 3 Sätze.

D Group 2: Control Group

German (Original Text):

Stellen Sie sich vor, Ihre weitere Freundesgruppe plant eine Reise, bei der Sie nicht unbedingt teilnehmen möchten. Für eine Teilnahme müssten Sie Ihren Resturlaub aufbrauchen, Sie entscheiden sich gegen die Teilnahme, da Ihnen diese eigentlich ziemlich gleichgültig ist. Im gemeinsamen Gruppenchat werden zwar mehrere Links zu verschiedenen Unterkünften geteilt, doch Sie schalten Ihr Handy auf stumm, um einen Spam zu verhindern. Beim Wiedersehen mit Ihren Freunden wird kurz über die Reise gesprochen, das Thema wird allerdings schnell wieder gewechselt. Sie bereuen Ihre Entscheidung nicht.

English (Translated):

Imagine that your wider group of friends is planning a trip that you don't necessarily want to attend. You would have to use up your remaining vacation to participate, but you decide against it because you don't really care. In the group chat, several links to different accommodations are shared, but you put your phone on silent to prevent spam. Upon reuniting with your friends, you briefly talk about the trip, but the topic is quickly changed again. You don't regret your decision.

Bitte schreiben Sie einen kurzen Absatz darüber wie Sie sich in einer solchen Situation fühlen würden:

Bitte schreiben Sie mindestens 3 Sätze.

E Manipulation Check I

Bitte denken Sie nochmals an den vorher angezeigten Text und beantworten Sie bitte die untenstehende Frage.

le + 5) gen und	Stimme ich gar nicht zu	Stimme ich nicht zu	Weder noch	Stimme ich zu	Stimme ich ganz zu
Ich würde mich in der vorher genannten Situation so fühlen, als ob ich etwas verpasse.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

F Manipulation Check II

Geben Sie anhand der Skala bitte an, wie sehr die einzelnen Aussagen auf Ihre allgemeinen Erfahrungen zutreffen. Bitte antworten Sie entsprechend Ihrer tatsächlich gemachten Erfahrungen.

Behandeln Sie bitte jeden Punkt getrennt von den anderen Punkten.

	Trifft garnicht auf mich zu	Triff wenig auf mich zu	Teilweise zutreffend	Trifft auf mich zu	Trifft völlig auf mich zu
Es stört mich, wenn ich eine Gelegenheit verpasse, mich mit meinen Freunden zu treffen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich werde nervös, wenn ich nicht informiert bin, was meine Freunde vorhaben.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich mache mir Sorgen, dass meine Freunde Spaß ohne mich haben.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich befürchte, dass andere spannendere Erfahrungen machen als ich.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Es ist mir wichtig, meine Erlebnisse online auf sozialen Medien zu teilen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Trifft garnicht auf mich zu	Triff wenig auf mich zu	Teilweise zutreffend	Trifft auf mich zu	Trifft völlig auf mich zu
Ich frage mich, ob ich mir zu viele Gedanken mache, ständig auf den Laufenden zu bleiben.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wenn ich ein geplantes Treffen verpasse, stört mich das.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wenn ich auf Urlaub bin, verfolge ich weiterhin die Aktivitäten meiner Freunde.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich befürchte, dass meine Freunde spannendere Erfahrungen machen als ich.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Es ist mir wichtig in "Insiderwitzen" zwischen Freunden involviert zu sein.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

G Mediator: Depreciation of Money

Bitte schätzen Sie grob, wie viel Stück Sie jeweils von den unten angeführten Produkten mit **20 Euro** kaufen könnten.

Als Beispiel: Wie viel Zahnbürsten können Sie mit 20€ kaufen? (**Angabe in Stück**)

	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20
Packung Zahnbürsten	☐										
Avocado	☐										
Packung Kaugummi	☐										
1 Kilo Nudeln	☐										
1,5 Liter Softdrink	☐										
Packung Flüssigseife	☐										

H Screening Question

Bitte nehmen Sie sich einen Moment Zeit, um über ein Produkt oder eine Dienstleistung nachzudenken, welche(s) Sie schon länger beobachten.

Vielleicht haben Sie ein Produkt oder eine Dienstleistung in einer Wunschliste oder in einem Warenkorb auf einer bestimmten Webseite.

Gibt es ein Produkt bzw. eine Dienstleistung, welche(s) Sie sich schon länger wünschen?

- ☐ Ja
- ☐ Nein

I Independent Variable: Impulsive Buying

Wie hoch schätzen Sie die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass Sie sich dieses Produkt bzw. diese Dienstleistung innerhalb der nächsten drei Wochen kaufen würden?

Nutzen Sie den Slider unten um die Wahrscheinlichkeit anzugeben (0% = ausgeschlossen, 100 % = mit an Sicherheit grenzender Wahrscheinlichkeit)

	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Wahrscheinlichkeit (in %)	☐										

J Demographics

Soziodemografie

Sind Sie...?

- ☐ Weiblich
- ☐ Männlich
- ☐ Divers

Wie alt sind Sie?

Was ist Ihre höchste erfolgreich abgeschlossene Schulbildung?

- ☐ Fach- und Handelsschule
- ☐ Abschluss einer Universität, (Fach-)Hochschule
- ☐ Matura
- ☐ Lehre mit Berufsschule
- ☐ Pflichtschule
- ☐ Anderer Abschluss nach der Matura

K Debriefing

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme an der Studie!

Das Ziel der Arbeit ist es herauszufinden, ob das Gefühl "Fear of Missing Out" (FOMO) situationsbedingte Impulsivität fördert. Der Effekt soll dadurch erklärt werden, dass Personen temporär beeinflusst durch FOMO eher bereit sind Geld auszugeben, begründet durch eine geringere Wertschätzung von Geld, und dadurch eine höhere Bereitschaft haben, impulsive Entscheidungen zu treffen.

Appendix 2

SPSS Output – Sociodemographics

		Gender			
		Frequenc y	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	94	66,7	66,7	66,7
	Male	44	31,2	31,2	97,9
	Diverse	3	2,1	2,1	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

		Age Groups			
		Frequenc y	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-29	111	78,7	78,7	78,7
	30-49	12	8,5	8,5	87,2
	50-64	16	11,3	11,3	98,6
	Over 65	2	1,4	1,4	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

		Education			
		Frequenc y	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Pflichtschule	4	2,8	2,9	2,9
	Lehre mit Berufsschule	6	4,3	4,3	7,1
	Fach- und Handelsschule	6	4,3	4,3	11,4
	Matura	18	12,8	12,9	24,3
	Abschluss einer Universität, (Fach-)Hochschule	99	70,2	70,7	95,0
	Anderer Abschluss nach der Matura	7	5,0	5,0	100,0
	Total	140	99,3	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,7		
Total		141	100,0		

SPSS Output – Reliability Check

Reliability Check of the FOMO scale (Przybylski et al. 2013)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,887	,886	10

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	2,785	2,085	3,511	1,426	1,684	,192	10
Item Variances	1,513	1,148	1,856	,708	1,617	,048	10
Inter-Item Covariances	,664	,296	1,422	1,126	4,810	,062	10
Inter-Item Correlations	,437	,219	,793	,573	3,613	,019	10

SPSS Output – Manipulation Check

Group Statistics

	1=FOMO, 0=CG	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Mean of FOMO statements	FOMO	68	2,9397	,91115	,11049
	CG	73	2,6411	,80032	,09367

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			
		F	Sig.	t	df
Mittelwert aus FOMO statements	Equal variances assumed	1,583	,210	2,071	139
	Equal variances not assumed			2,061	133,665

t-test for Equality of Means

Significance		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
One-Sided p	Two-Sided p			Lower	Upper
,020	,040	,29861	,14419	,01352	,58370
,021	,041	,29861	,14485	,01211	,58511

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardiz er ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Mean of FOMO statements	Cohen's d	,85553	,349	,016	,681
	Hedges' correction	,86019	,347	,015	,678
	Glass's delta	,80032	,373	,036	,708

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 group.

		Ich befürchte, dass meine Freunde spannendere Erfahrungen machen als ich.	Ich mache mir Sorgen, dass meine Freunde Spaß ohne mich haben.	Ich werde nervös, wenn ich nicht informiert bin, was meine Freunde vorhaben.	Es ist mir wichtig in "Insiderwitzen" zwischen Freunden involviert zu sein.
Mean	2,85	2,72	2,40	2,50	3,51
N	141	141	141	141	141
Std. Deviation	1,362	1,317	1,236	1,280	1,125

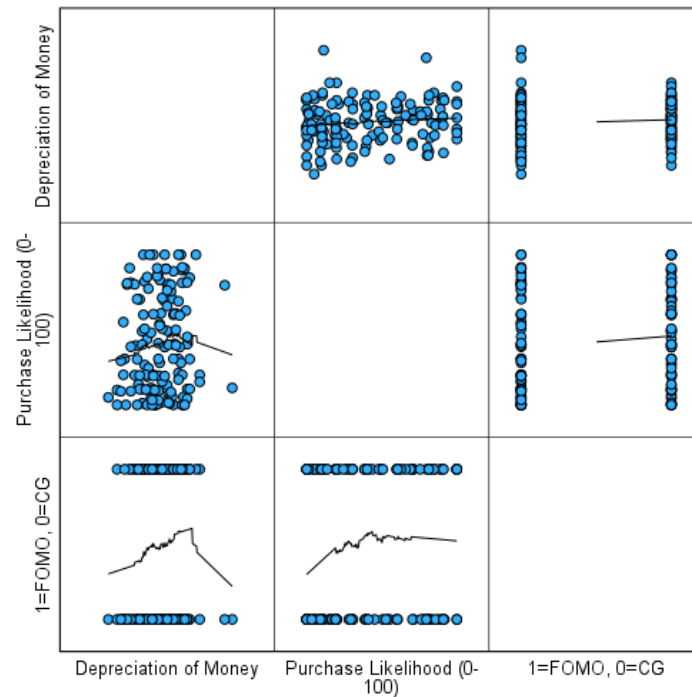
Ich frage mich, ob ich mir zu viele Gedanken mache, ständig auf den Laufenden zu bleiben.	Es stört mich, wenn ich eine Gelegenheit verpasse, mich mit meinen Freunden zu treffen.	Es ist mir wichtig, meine Erlebnisse online auf sozialen Medien zu teilen.	Wenn ich ein geplantes Treffen verpasse, stört mich das.	Wenn ich auf Urlaub bin, verfolge ich weiterhin die Aktivitäten meiner Freunde.
2,56	3,23	2,09	3,26	2,74
141	141	141	141	141
1,300	1,072	1,186	1,198	1,198

SPSS Output – Prerequisites for Mediation Analysis

Linearity – Matrix Scatterplot

Before conducting the mediation analysis prior testing was done to assure linearity and homoskedasticity. The normal distribution of the mediator and the dependent variable was also checked, however the Bootstrapping method of PROCESS is a non-parametric procedure and thus does not require normal distribution, given that it relies on a resampling of 5000 samples and that a sample size greater than 50 was reviewed for the study (Hayes 2018).

Scatterplots of the relationship between the different variables were analyzed visually to check for linearity. The Loess (locally estimated scatterplot smoothing) technique was used to visualize the regression. The Loess technique is a parametric process to identify trends and cycles in the data (Nattino et al. 2014). By the exception of a few extreme values, an overall rough linear relationship was observed.



Homoscedasticity – White Test & (Mod.) Breusch-Pagan Test

In order to check for an equal distribution of residuals among the variables, the heteroskedasticity tests of White and Breusch-Pagan were conducted. The hypothesis of residuals not being dependent on independent variables, H_0 , was considered true (hence a p value greater than .05). Homoscedasticity was thus ensured.

White-Test auf Heteroskedastizität^{a,b,c}

Chi-Quadrat	df	Sig.
89,448	85	,350

a. Abhängige Variable: Wahrscheinlichkeit (1-100)

b. Testet die Nullhypothese, dass die Fehlervarianz nicht von den Werten der unabhängigen Variablen abhängt.

c. Design: Konstanter Term + MED + IV + MED * IV

Modifizierter Breusch-Pagan-Test auf Heteroskedastizität^{a,b,c}

Chi-Quadrat	df	Sig.
1,777	1	,183

- a. Abhängige Variable: Wahrscheinlichkeit (1-100)
- b. Testet die Nullhypothese, dass die Fehlervarianz nicht von den Werten der unabhängigen Variablen abhängt.
- c. Vorhergesagte Werte aus Design: Konstanter Term + MED + IV + MED * IV

Breusch-Pagan-Test auf Heteroskedastizität^{a,b,c}

Chi-Quadrat	df	Sig.
2,130	1	,144

- a. Abhängige Variable: Wahrscheinlichkeit (1-100)
- b. Testet die Nullhypothese, dass die Fehlervarianz nicht von den Werten der unabhängigen Variablen abhängt.
- c. Vorhergesagte Werte aus Design: Konstanter Term + MED + IV + MED * IV

Tests for Intersubjective Effects

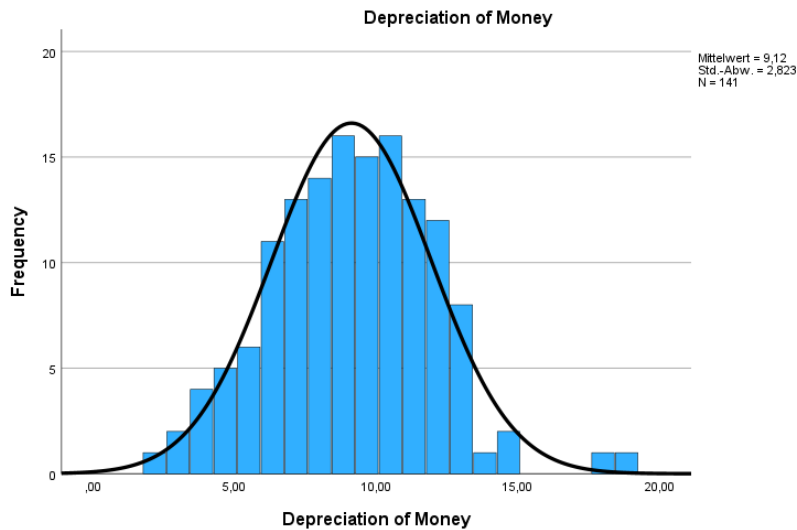
Abhängige Variable: Wahrscheinlichkeit (1-100)

Quelle	Typ III Quadratsumme	df	Mittel der Quadrate	F	Sig.
Korrigiertes Modell	87297,813 ^a	85	1027,033	,914	,650
Konstanter Term	193068,069	1	193068,069	171,796	<,001
MED	63071,979	55	1146,763	1,020	,470
IV	1729,127	1	1729,127	1,539	,220
MED * IV	25295,005	29	872,242	,776	,768
Fehler	61810,274	55	1123,823		
Gesamt	395300,920	141			
Korrigierte Gesamtvariation	149108,087	140			

- a. R-Quadrat = ,585 (korrigiertes R-Quadrat = -,055)

Normal Distribution – Komoglorov Smirnoff & Shapiro Wilk Test

Normal distribution within the mediator depreciation of money was assured. It was visually noticeable and tested true (the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests showed a p value of greater than p.05).

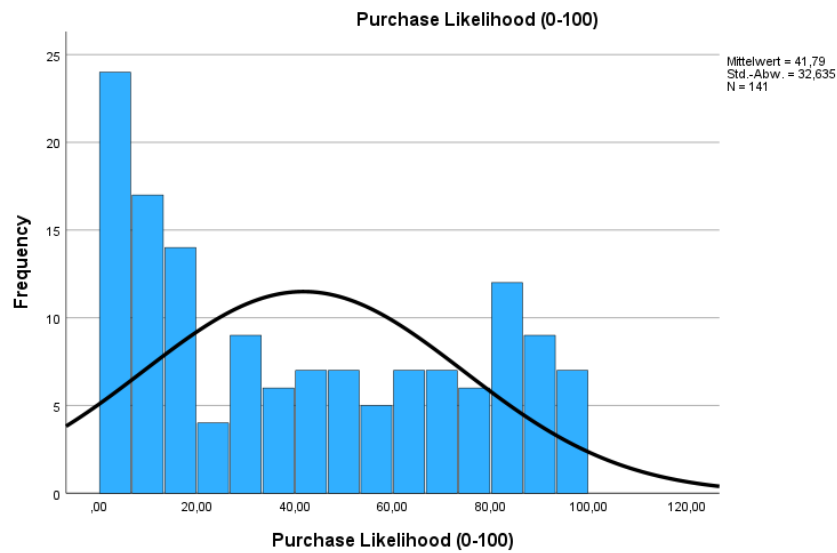


Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Invertiert, Depreciation of Money	,049	141	,200*	,986	141	,175

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

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction



Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Purchase Likelihood (0-100)	,145	141	<,001	,911	141	<,001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

SPSS Output – T-Test

Group Statistics				
	1=FOMO, 0=CG	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Wahrscheinlichkeit (1-100)	FOMO	68	45,8799	32,0123
	CG	73	37,9721	32,9657

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				Indi
		F	Sig.	
Wahrscheinlichkeit (1-100)	Equal variances assumed	,277	,600	
	Equal variances not assumed			

Independent Samples Effect Sizes			
		Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate
Wahrscheinlichkeit (1-100)	Cohen's d	32,50972	,243
	Hedges' correction	32,68645	,242
	Glass's delta	32,96578	,240

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 group.

SPSS Output – Mediation Analysis

Run MATRIX procedure:

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

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

Model : 4
Y : DV
X : IV
M : MED

Sample
Size: 141

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
MED

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,1004	,0101	7,9441	1,4151	1,0000	139,0000	,2362

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	8,8516	,3299	26,8325	,0000	8,1994	9,5038
IV	,5651	,4750	1,1896	,2362	-,3741	1,5043

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
IV	,2002

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
DV

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,1610	,0259	1052,4936	1,8356	2,0000	138,0000	,1634

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	27,1111	9,4392	2,8722	,0047	8,4470	45,7752
IV	7,2145	5,4954	1,3128	,1914	-3,6517	18,0806
MED	1,2270	,9763	1,2568	,2110	-,7034	3,1574

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
IV	,2211
MED	,1061

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

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
DV

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,1215	,0148	1056,8817	2,0830	1,0000	139,0000	,1512

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	37,9721	3,8050	9,9796	,0000	30,4489	45,4952
IV	7,9078	5,4791	1,4433	,1512	-2,9253	18,7409

Standardized coefficients

coeff
IV ,2423

***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
7,9078	5,4791	1,4433	,1512	-2,9253	18,7409	,2423

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
7,2145	5,4954	1,3128	,1914	-3,6517	18,0806	,2211

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MED ,6933	,9885	-,6228	3,3293

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MED ,0212	,0304	-,0195	,1009

***** 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: Standardized coefficients for dichotomous or multicategorical X are in partially standardized form.

----- END MATRIX -----