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The Impact Of Social Media Use On Impulsive Buying: The Roles Of Enjoyment And Self-Control Among Social Media Users In Jakarta And Tangerang

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Abstract

Social media has become both a space for interaction and a commercial channel that encourages unplanned purchases. This study examines the effect of social media use on enjoyment and impulsive buying, and the moderating role of self-control in the relationship between enjoyment and impulsive buying among social media users in Jakarta and Tangerang. The research model was adapted from Chen et al. (2022) and grounded in the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Stimulus–Organism–Response framework. Primary data were collected through an online questionnaire from 175 respondents selected through judgment sampling and analyzed using PLS-SEM with SmartPLS 4.0. The results show that social media use has a positive and significant effect on enjoyment (β = 0.342; p < 0.001) and on impulsive buying (β = 0.201; p = 0.001); enjoyment has a positive and significant effect on impulsive buying (β = 0.304; p < 0.001); and self-control moderates the effect of enjoyment on impulsive buying (β = 0.119; p = 0.036). The model explains 53.4% of the variance in impulsive buying and 11.7% of the variance in enjoyment. These findings offer implications for businesses to design engaging yet responsible content and campaigns, and for consumers to become more aware of their tendency to buy impulsively.

Keywords:Social Media Use; Enjoyment; Impulsive Buying; Self-Control; PLS-SEM

INTRODUCTION

The growth of mobile internet, further accelerated by the COVID-19 pandemic, has expanded the use of social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, and

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TikTok. In Indonesia, the number of internet users reached 213 million in 2023, a 5.45% increase from the previous year (Mutia, 2023). Of the approximately 277 million population, approximately 191 million, or 69%, are active social media users, with Instagram, Facebook, WhatsApp, and TikTok being popular platforms; these platforms serve not only as entertainment but also as business development tools (Kemp, 2023). Statista projections indicate that the number of social media users in Indonesia will continue to increase annually until 2029 (Degenhard, 2024).

The expansion of social media usage has coincided with changes in the way consumers discover and purchase products. Platforms like TikTok and Instagram combine entertainment and shopping into one seamless experience, enabling instantaneous purchases. In this context, impulse buying—unplanned purchases made spontaneously and driven more by emotion than rational consideration (Rook, 1987; Bhakat & Muruganantham, 2013)—has become a significant phenomenon. Aragoncillo and Orús (2018) state that impulse buying can account for 40–80% of all purchases, depending on the context. For businesses, this represents an opportunity for increased revenue, particularly in the retail and e-commerce sectors; for consumers, unthoughtful purchases can lead to dissatisfaction and financial stress.

Several factors influence impulse buying. Exposure to promotional content, influencer marketing, and personalized advertising on social media are among the triggers (Lahath et al., 2021). Other factors include emotional states and moods (Pacheco et al., 2021) and consumer enjoyment, which, according to Atulkar and Kesari (2018), makes consumers more susceptible to unplanned purchases. In a social media-based commercial context, Leong et al. (2017) reported that intense Facebook use contributes to impulse buying, while Pellegrino et al. (2022) found that frequent social media engagement is associated with impulsive consumption behavior. Lahath et al. (2021) also showed that increased social media use during the COVID-19 pandemic was followed by increased impulse buying.

However, previous research findings have not been entirely consistent. Valkenburg (2022) cautions that passive social media use—simply browsing without interacting—can trigger negative emotions such as envy and dissatisfaction, so the relationship between social media use and impulse buying is not always unidirectional. Chen et al. (2022) found that active use increased enjoyment, while passive use was associated with depression; impulse buying was positively correlated with both enjoyment and depression, with self-control moderating the effect of depression and materialism moderating the enjoyment–impulse buying relationship. Conversely,

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consumers with high self-control may not react impulsively despite enjoying the shopping experience, and in situations requiring consideration of risk and trust, enjoyment is no longer a primary consideration. This inconsistency suggests that the relationship between social media use and impulse buying depends on individual usage patterns, emotional responses, and psychological traits such as self-control.

In Indonesia, studies on impulse buying have highlighted the role of emotional arousal and hedonic considerations (Herabadi et al., 2009) as well as positive and negative consumer sentiment during the COVID-19 pandemic (Mursid, 2021). Deborah et al. (2022) showed that excessive social media use influences impulse buying through hedonic shopping motivation and shopping orientation, while Widyayanti (2023) found that marketing through social media and marketplaces significantly influences impulsive buying behavior. However, to the author's knowledge, there are still limited quantitative studies that simultaneously examine the role of social media use, enjoyment as an affective pathway, and self-control as a boundary condition among consumers in Jakarta and Tangerang. This gap is what this study aims to fill.

This study adapts the Chen et al. (2022) model with several adjustments: active and passive social media use are combined into a single construct of social media use, while depression, materialism, and gender are excluded because they do not align with the background and objectives of the study. The final model consists of four variables: social media use, enjoyment, impulse buying, and self-control. The objectives of this study are to analyze (1) the effect of social media use on enjoyment; (2) the effect of enjoyment on impulse buying; (3) the effect of social media use on impulse buying; and (4) the role of self-control in moderating the effect of enjoyment on impulse buying among social media users in Jakarta and Tangerang. Academically, this study enriches the empirical evidence on consumer behavior on social media in the Indonesian context. Practically, the results can be a reference for business actors and marketers in developing sales strategies on social media, as well as for consumers to be more aware of the influence of social media on their purchasing decisions.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Theoretical basis

*Theory of Planned Behavior*The TPB (Transactional Behavioral Behaviour Model) was developed by Ajzen (1991) to predict intentional behavior. Intention is seen as the driving force behind behavior and reflects the amount of effort an individual is willing to expend to perform it. Intention is shaped by three sets of beliefs: behavioral

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beliefs (attitudes toward the behavior), normative beliefs (subjective norms), and control beliefs (perceived behavioral control) (Truong, 2009). In the context of social media, positive attitudes toward impulse buying can be shaped by content aesthetics, flash sales, and limited-time offers; subjective norms are evident when users see friends, influencers, and celebrities share their purchases; while perceived behavioral control is increased by features that facilitate transactions, such as the "yellow basket" feature on TikTok. Various studies and meta-analyses have concluded that the TPB is a useful theoretical framework because these three antecedents influence behavior, both directly and indirectly through intention (Conner & Armitage, 1998).

Because impulse buying is spontaneous, the TPB in this study is used as a general basis for understanding how beliefs, attitudes (including affective responses), and perceived control shape behavior, complemented by the Stimulus–Organism–Response (SOR) framework. The SOR framework views external stimuli as influencing an individual's internal state (organism), which then elicits a behavioral response (Lin et al., 2022). In this research model, social media use is the stimulus, enjoyment is the affective state, impulsive buying is the response, and self-control is the individual characteristic that regulates the transition from affective state to behavioral response, in line with the concept of control in the TPB.

Research Construct

Use of social media. Social media refers to online sites and platforms that allow users to connect with each other and create, share, and interact with content (Aichner et al., 2021). Content formats continue to evolve from text updates to photos, videos, live broadcasts, and stories, while businesses leverage them to build brands, increase sales, and engage with customers. Kaye (2021) emphasizes the importance of responsible and ethical social media use, including respecting user privacy and avoiding deceptive or manipulative practices. In this study, social media usage is defined as the extent to which individuals engage with social media platforms (Valkenburg, 2022), as measured by the frequency of visiting social media sites, sharing posts and general information, interacting with others, and watching videos.

Enjoyment. Enjoyment is understood as a pleasurable emotional reaction to an environment or activity that makes a person feel good (Kawabata & Mallett, 2022; Valkenburg, 2022). When browsing timelines, watching videos, or viewing product images, social media users can experience pleasure, excitement, and satisfaction, which makes them more receptive to marketing messages and product

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recommendations. Engaging visual content, the drive for instant gratification, the fear of missing out, and the desire for social validation are psychological mechanisms commonly proposed to explain how enjoyment on social media is related to purchasing behavior.

Impulse buying. Impulse buying is characterized by a sudden, strong, and irresistible urge to buy (Rook, 1987). This behavior often involves hasty, emotionally motivated rather than rational decisions, with emotions such as excitement, desire, or boredom acting as triggers, and a drive for immediate gratification without considering long-term consequences (Bhakat & Muruganantham, 2013). Environmental cues such as attractive product displays and promotions can also trigger impulse buying (Mohan et al., 2013). In this study, impulse buying is defined as an unplanned purchase decision made by consumers without prior consideration of the product (Vohs & Faber, 2003; Parboteeah, 2005).

Self-control. Self-control is the ability to manage internal states, resist impulsive urges, and demonstrate behavioral control (Tangney et al., 2004). The strengths model views self-control as a resource that can be depleted and strengthened through practice (Baumeister et al., 2007). Individuals with good self-control are better able to focus, set goals, and resist temptation, but self-control can weaken in situations high in temptation, peer pressure, and social norms (Elnina, 2022).

Previous Research

Table 1 summarizes relevant previous research. In general, studies in various countries indicate that social media has a positive influence on purchasing decisions, including impulse buying. The differences lie in the mechanisms studied—emotional responses, hedonic motivation, materialism, and impulse buying tendencies—and in the variables that act as moderators. Studies that place self-control as a boundary condition for the influence of enjoyment on impulse buying among Indonesian consumers are still rare.

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Table 1.Summary of previous research

Researchers (year) and context	Main findings
Gajashree & Anand (2021); mobile phone users in Chennai, India	Consumers use social media to seek information and make decisions; social media influences the consumer decision-making process from information search to post-purchase evaluation.
Kazi et al. (2019); consumers in Hyderabad, Sindh, Pakistan	Social media has a positive and significant influence on impulsive buying behavior (regression analysis).
Aragoncillo & Orús (2018); comparison of online and offline channels, Spain	Offline channels are slightly more likely to encourage impulse buying; online impulse buying drivers are stronger than inhibiting factors; social networks have a significant influence.
Chen et al. (2022); college students in China	Active use increases enjoyment, passive use is associated with depression; impulse buying is positively correlated with both depression and enjoyment; self-control moderates the effect of depression, materialism moderates the enjoyment–impulse buying relationship.
Monicas et al. (2023); customers in India	Social media changes consumer behavior and choices; frequency of use and emotional triggers play a role in impulse buying (mixed methods).
Zafar et al. (2021); social commerce	Celebrity social media posts and contextual interactions influence impulse buying; emotional responses, observational learning, and materialism play a role; impulse buying tendencies moderate the relationship between social media use and impulse buying.
Deborah et al. (2022); Indonesia	Excessive use of social media influences impulsive buying through hedonic shopping motivation and shopping orientation.

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Researchers (year) and context	Main findings
Widyayanti (2023); Indonesia	Social media and marketplace marketing significantly influence impulse buying; digital payments do not moderate (did not weaken) this influence.

Conceptual Framework and Hypothesis

The research model (Figure 1) modifies Chen et al.'s (2022) model. Social media use acts as a stimulus, enjoyment as an affective state, impulsive buying as a response, and self-control as a moderator of the effect of enjoyment on impulsive buying.

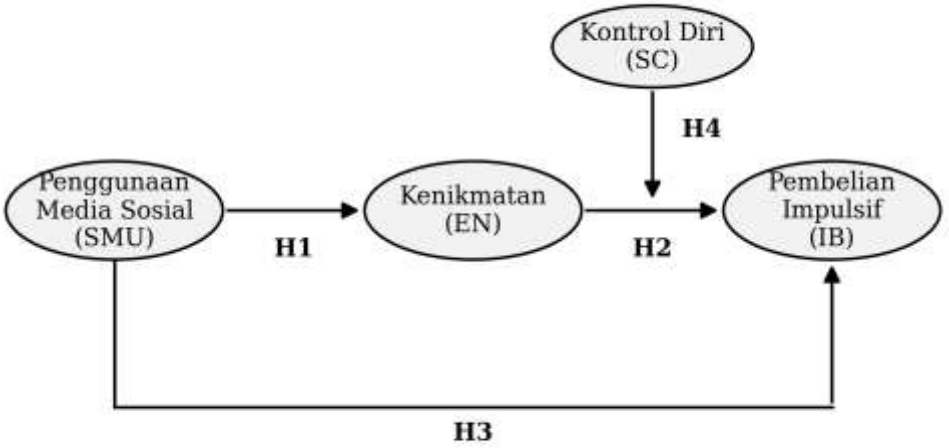


Figure 1.Conceptual model of research
Source: modified from Chen et al. (2022).

Social media use and enjoyment

Social media use can be divided into active use—uploading, liking, commenting, and interacting—and passive use, which involves simply viewing others' posts without participating (Verduyn et al., 2017). Interaction on social media can increase positive emotions, social support, and life satisfaction (Oh et al., 2014), and using social media to communicate and connect can lead to feelings of pleasure and joy (Zhang & Leung, 2015). Chen et al. (2022) also reported that active use has a positive impact on user enjoyment. Conversely, passive use is associated with negative impacts on mental

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health, such as envy and comparison with positive images of others (Krasnova et al., 2015; Valkenburg, 2022). Because the indicators of social media use in this study include activities involving interaction and consumption of entertainment content, social media use is expected to increase enjoyment.

H1: The use of social media has a positive effect on enjoyment.

Pleasure and impulse buying

Consumers who enjoy shopping experiences are more prone to unplanned purchases because pleasant emotional states reinforce impulsive behavior (Atulkar & Kesari, 2018). A pleasant shopping environment also increases impulse buying (Mohan et al., 2013), and consumers in a good mood are more likely to shop impulsively to increase their happiness (Pacheco et al., 2021). In the context of social media, impulse buying is positively correlated with enjoyment (Chen et al., 2022). Negative affect can also trigger impulsive consumption (Verplanken et al., 2005), so emotions in general—not just enjoyment—are important drivers. Based on these arguments, enjoyment is expected to increase impulse buying.

H2: Enjoyment has a positive effect on impulsive buying.

Social media use and impulse buying

Repeated exposure to advertisements, influencer promotions, and peer recommendations on social media can trigger purchases without prior intention. Leong et al. (2017) reported that intense Facebook use contributes to impulse buying; Lahath et al. (2021) and Pellegrino et al. (2022) showed a similar relationship; while Aragoncillo and Orús (2018) and Kazi et al. (2019) found that social media significantly influences impulse buying. In the Indonesian context, Deborah et al. (2022) and Widyayanti (2023) reported similar findings.

H3: Social media use has a positive effect on impulse buying.

Self-control as a moderator

Impulse buying is viewed as a self-regulation issue (Vohs & Faber, 2003; Fenton-O'Creevy et al., 2018), and studies in Indonesia link self-control to impulsive buying tendencies (Alkusani, 2022; Cholili, 2023; Prhatingrum & Restuningrum, 2021). Chen et al. (2022) found a moderating role of self-control in the influence of negative emotions on impulsive buying; this study extends this by examining self-control as a moderator of the effect of pleasure. Consumers with strong self-control are expected to be able to

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resist impulses even when they feel pleasure, so the strength of the pleasure-impulse buying relationship depends on the level of self-control.

H4: Self-control moderates the effect of enjoyment on impulse buying.

METHOD

Research Design

This study used a quantitative approach with a survey method. A quantitative approach allows for systematic investigation through empirical measurement and statistical analysis to test the relationships between variables (Creswell, 2014). The object of the study was consumers' tendency to make impulsive purchases influenced by social media platforms, while the subjects were individuals who use social media in their daily lives and have made impulsive purchases.

Population and Sample

The research population was social media users in Jakarta and Tangerang (Sugiyono, 2013; Garaika & Darmanah, 2019). Because the entire population could not be reached, the sample was drawn using a non-probability sampling technique, namely judgment sampling, which selects sample elements based on certain considerations according to the research objectives (Zikmund et al., 2013). The respondent criteria were (1) male or female social media users; (2) aged 17 years or older; (3) domiciled in Jakarta or Tangerang; and (4) having made impulsive purchases. The minimum sample size was determined by the rule of 5–10 observations per indicator (Hair et al., 2010). With 17 indicators and a multiplier of 5, the minimum sample was 17 × 5 = 85 respondents. This study obtained 175 respondents so that the sample size requirement was met.

Instruments and Measurements

The instrument was a structured, closed-ended questionnaire consisting of 17 statements covering four variables (Table 2), in the Indonesian version. All statements were measured on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree/never to 5 = strongly agree/always). The questionnaire also included questions on respondent characteristics (age, gender, education, occupation, marital status, and income) and screening questions regarding their use of Facebook, Instagram, TikTok, Pinterest, and WhatsApp.

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Table 2.Research instruments

Variables	Item	Example statement	Reference
Social media usage (SMU)	5	"In the past 12 months, how often have you watched videos on social media sites?"	Valkenburg (2022)
Enjoyment (EN)	4	"Using social media provides a fun way to spend time."	Valkenburg (2022)
Impulse buying (IB)	5	"I often make unplanned purchases after seeing ads on social media."	Vohs & Faber (2003); Parboteeah (2005)
Self-control (SC)	3	"I often act without thinking."	Baumeister et al. (2007)

Source: processed by the author.

Data collection

Data were collected through an online survey using a Google Forms questionnaire distributed via social media (WhatsApp and Instagram) and, in part, face-to-face, with a distribution period of approximately one week. Prior to the main data collection, a pre-test of the instrument was conducted on 45 eligible respondents from October 2–7, 2024. On November 4, 2024, 175 respondents' data were collected for the main analysis.

Data Analysis Techniques

Data were analyzed using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) using SmartPLS 4.0. PLS-SEM was chosen because this study tests a multilevel model involving latent constructs, direct paths, and moderating effects simultaneously (Ghozali & Latan, 2015; Hair et al., 2022). The analysis was conducted in two stages.

The first stage is the evaluation of the measurement model (outer model), which includes convergent validity (outer loading ≥ 0.70 and average variance extracted/AVE ≥ 0.50), discriminant validity (cross-loading and heterotrait–monotrait ratio/HTMT < 0.90), and reliability (Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability > 0.70) (Hair et al., 2020,

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2022). The second stage is the evaluation of the structural model (inner model) through the path coefficient along with the t-value and p-value of the bootstrapping results at a significance level of 5% ($|t| > 1.96$; $p < 0.05$), the coefficient of determination (R^2; 0.25, 0.50, and 0.75 for the weak, moderate, and strong categories, respectively), the effect size (f^2; 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 for the small, medium, and large categories, respectively), and the predictive relevance ($Q^2 > 0$) (Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt et al., 2017). The moderation effect was tested through the interaction term self-control × enjoyment.

Descriptive analysis uses the average score grouped into five classes with an interval width of $(5 - 1)/5 = 0.8$, namely very low (1.00–1.80), low (1.81–2.60), medium (2.61–3.40), high (3.41–4.20), and very high (4.21–5.00).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Respondent Profile

There were 175 respondents (Table 3). Most were male (57.1%), aged 26–30 years (36.0%), had a bachelor's degree (S1) (60.6%), were self-employed (54.3%), were single (64.0%), and had a monthly income of Rp 5–10 million (44.0%). Of these, 173 respondents (98.9%) had used Facebook, Instagram, TikTok, Pinterest, or WhatsApp, while two respondents (1.1%) stated they had never used them.

Table 3.Respondent characteristics

Characteristics	Category	n	%
Gender	Man	100	57.1
	Woman	75	42.9
Age (years)	17–20	15	8.6
	21–25	29	16.6
	26–30	63	36.0
	31–35	34	19.4
	36–40	18	10.3
	> 40	16	9.1
Education	SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL	45	25.7
	Diploma 3 (D3)	11	6.3

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Characteristics	Category	n	%
	Diploma 4 (D4)	4	2.3
	Bachelor degree)	106	60.6
	Masters (S2)	9	5.1
Work	Self-employed	95	54.3
	Freelance	49	28.0
	Student	21	12.0
	Government employees	9	5.1
	Private sector employee	1	0.6
Marital status	Not married yet	112	64.0
	Marry	63	36.0
Income per month	< Rp. 5,000,000	43	24.6
	Rp5,000,000–10,000,000	77	44.0
	Rp10,000,000–20,000,000	32	18.3
	> Rp. 20,000,000	23	13.1
Ever used Facebook, Instagram, TikTok, Pinterest, or WhatsApp?	Yes	173	98.9
	No	2	1.1

Source: processed primary data (2024).

Evaluation of Measurement Model

A pilot test on 45 respondents showed that all outer loadings were above 0.70 (0.770–0.954), AVE ranged from 0.668–0.880, the highest HTMT value was 0.618 (<0.90), and Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.866–0.932. Thus, all 17 statements were retained for primary data collection.

Pada pengujian utama (n = 175), seluruh outer loading berkisar 0,769–0,956 sehingga memenuhi kriteria validitas konvergen (Tabel 5). Nilai AVE seluruh konstruk (0,655–0,847) melampaui 0,50. Validitas diskriminan terpenuhi karena setiap indikator memiliki cross-loading tertinggi pada konstruknya sendiri. Nilai Cronbach's alpha

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(0,869–0,909) dan composite reliability (0,905–0,943) seluruhnya melampaui 0,70, sehingga instrumen dinilai reliabel.

Tabel 5. Validitas konvergen dan reliabilitas konstruk (pengujian utama)

Konstruk	Rentang loading	Cronbach's α	CR (ρa)	CR (ρc)	AVE
Penggunaan media sosial	0,769–0,867	0,869	0,879	0,905	0,655
Kenikmatan	0,805–0,909	0,899	0,906	0,930	0,770
Pembelian impulsif	0,793–0,858	0,883	0,897	0,913	0,679
Kontrol diri	0,879–0,956	0,909	0,918	0,943	0,847

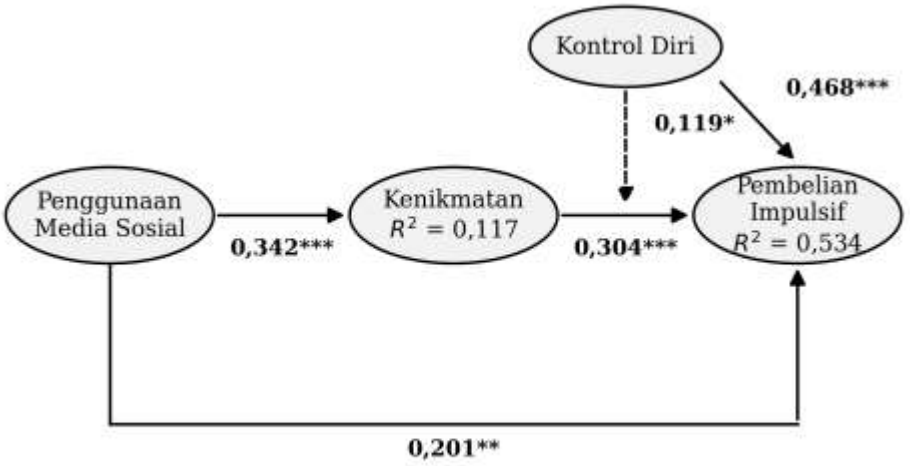
Sumber: data primer diolah dengan SmartPLS 4.0 (2024). CR = composite reliability. AVE dihitung sebagai rata-rata kuadrat outer loading.

Evaluasi Model Struktural

Gambar 2 dan Tabel 6 menyajikan hasil bootstrapping. Keempat hipotesis diterima pada taraf signifikansi 5%. Selain jalur yang dihipotesiskan, jalur langsung kontrol diri terhadap pembelian impulsif juga signifikan dan merupakan koefisien terbesar dalam model.

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Gambar 2. Hasil pengujian model struktural

Catatan: *** p < 0,001; ** p < 0,01; * p < 0,05. Garis putus-putus menunjukkan efek moderasi; jalur kontrol diri → pembelian impulsif tidak dihipotesiskan. Sumber: data primer diolah dengan SmartPLS 4.0 (2024).

Tabel 6. Hasil pengujian hipotesis

Hipotesis	Jalur	β	Rerata sampel	SD	t	P	Keputusan
H1	SMU → EN	0,342	0,347	0,067	5,144	< 0,001	Diterima
H2	EN → IB	0,304	0,304	0,059	5,168	< 0,001	Diterima
H3	SMU → IB	0,201	0,203	0,059	3,424	0,001	Diterima
H4	SC × EN → IB	0,119	0,116	0,057	2,103	0,036	Diterima
—	SC → IB	0,468	0,469	0,054	8,642	< 0,001	Tidak dihipotesiskan

Sumber: data primer diolah dengan SmartPLS 4.0 (2024). SMU = penggunaan media sosial; EN = kenikmatan; IB = pembelian impulsif; SC = kontrol diri.

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Nilai R^2 pembelian impulsif sebesar 0,534 (adjusted 0,523) termasuk kategori moderat, sedangkan R^2 kenikmatan sebesar 0,117 (adjusted 0,112) termasuk kategori lemah (Tabel 7). Nilai Q^2predict kedua konstruk endogen lebih besar dari nol (kenikmatan 0,105; pembelian impulsif 0,430) sehingga model memiliki relevansi prediktif. Berdasarkan ukuran efek (Tabel 8), pengaruh kontrol diri terhadap pembelian impulsif tergolong besar (f^2 = 0,410), pengaruh kenikmatan terhadap pembelian impulsif tergolong sedang (f^2 = 0,165), sedangkan pengaruh penggunaan media sosial terhadap kenikmatan (0,133) dan terhadap pembelian impulsif (0,073) serta efek interaksi (0,025) tergolong kecil.

Tabel 7. Koefisien determinasi (R^2) dan relevansi prediktif (Q^2)

Konstruk endogen	R^2	R^2 adjusted	Q^2predict	RMSE	MAE	Kategori R^2
Kenikmatan	0,117	0,112	0,105	0,956	0,785	Lemah
Pembelian impulsif	0,534	0,523	0,430	0,764	0,595	Moderat

Sumber: data primer diolah dengan SmartPLS 4.0 (2024).

Tabel 8. Ukuran efek (f^2)

Jalur	f^2	Kategori
Kenikmatan → Pembelian impulsif	0,165	Sedang
Kontrol diri → Pembelian impulsif	0,410	Besar
Penggunaan media sosial → Kenikmatan	0,133	Kecil
Penggunaan media sosial → Pembelian impulsif	0,073	Kecil
Self-control × Enjoyment → Impulse buying	0.025	Small

Source: primary data processed with SmartPLS 4.0 (2024).

DISCUSSION

Social media use and enjoyment (H1). Social media use had a positive and significant effect on enjoyment (β = 0.342; t = 5.144; p < 0.001). The more frequently respondents visited social media, shared content, interacted, and watched videos, the greater their perceived enjoyment. This finding aligns with the argument that online

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social interactions increase positive affect and life satisfaction (Oh et al., 2014; Zhang & Leung, 2015) and with Chen et al.'s (2022) finding that active use positively impacts enjoyment. This study did not distinguish between active and passive use, so the negative impacts of passive use reported in the literature (Krasnova et al., 2015; Valkenburg, 2022) could not be identified separately. It is also worth noting that the R^2 for enjoyment was only 0.117: social media use explained a small portion of the variance in enjoyment, leaving the majority of the variation (88.3%) determined by factors outside the model.

Enjoyment and impulse buying (H2). Enjoyment had a positive and significant effect on impulse buying ($\beta = 0.304$; $t = 5.168$; $p < 0.001$) with a medium effect size ($f^2 = 0.165$). This result is consistent with the literature that places pleasant emotional states as drivers of unplanned purchases (Atulkar & Kesari, 2018; Pacheco et al., 2021) and with Chen et al. (2022) who found a positive correlation between enjoyment and impulsive buying in social media users. Conceptually, users who feel entertained and happy are more receptive to advertisements and product recommendations, making it easier for purchase impulses to emerge without planning. Within the SOR framework, these results support the role of affective states (organisms) in linking stimuli to behavioral responses.

Social media use and impulse buying (H3). Social media use has a positive and significant effect on impulse buying ($\beta = 0.201$; $t = 3.424$; $p = 0.001$), with a small effect size ($f^2 = 0.073$). This finding aligns with Leong et al. (2017), Lahath et al. (2021), Pellegrino et al. (2022), Aragoncillo and Orús (2018), and Kazi et al. (2019), as well as with studies in Indonesia (Deborah et al., 2022; Widyayanti, 2023). This direct effect remains significant even after enjoyment is included in the model, indicating that social media influences impulse buying not only through feelings of pleasure but also through exposure to advertisements, promotions, and recommendations, and because active users tend to seek various information, including products, through social media. However, this direct path coefficient is smaller than the influence of enjoyment (0.304) and self-control (0.468), which indicates that individual affective and dispositional factors are more important determinants of impulsive buying than the intensity of social media use alone.

The moderating role of self-control (H4). The interaction effect of self-control × enjoyment on impulse buying was significant ($\beta = 0.119$; $t = 2.103$; $p = 0.036$), thus H4 was accepted; the strength of the influence of enjoyment on impulse buying depends on the respondent's self-control. This pattern is consistent with the argument that

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individuals with lower self-control are more easily influenced by the enjoyment felt on social media, while individuals with higher self-control are more able to resist such urges. This directional interpretation needs to be read considering that the statements in the self-control instrument are formulated in terms of weak self-control (e.g., "I often act without thinking"). The size of the moderating effect is relatively small ($f^2 = 0.025$), so its contribution is practically limited compared to the main pathway.

Contrary to the hypothesis, the direct path of self-control to impulsive buying was the strongest in the model ($\beta = 0.468$; $t = 8.642$; $p < 0.001$; $f^2 = 0.410$). This result aligns with studies that place self-control, or lack thereof, as a significant determinant of impulsive buying (Vohs & Faber, 2003; Alkusani, 2022; Cholili, 2023; Prhatingrum & Restuningrum, 2021). Because the self-control statements in the instrument reflect difficulties in self-control, this positive coefficient is consistent with the finding that respondents with greater self-control difficulties tend to be more impulsive in shopping. Overall, the model explains 53.4% of the variance in impulsive buying, which is considered moderate.

Implications

1. **Theoretical Implications**

First, this study provides empirical evidence from the Jakarta and Tangerang contexts that Chen et al.'s (2022) simplified model—using social media as a single construct—is still able to adequately explain impulse buying. Second, the results support the SOR and TPB perspectives that affective responses (enjoyment) are an important pathway from social media exposure to purchasing behavior. Third, the moderation findings position self-control as a boundary condition for the influence of enjoyment on impulse buying, thus expanding the role of self-control, which in the benchmark study was tested for the influence of negative emotions.

2. **Practical Implications**

Designing experiences that are easy to share. The average frequency of sharing general information (3,429) is lower than the frequency of visiting social media (4,194) and watching videos (4,034). This opens up opportunities for brands to encourage organic sharing through product launches, pop-up stores, or interactive campaigns featuring shareable elements, such as aesthetically pleasing photo backdrops, hashtags, and game-like activities. Engaging influencers or micro-influencers can expand reach, as users tend to emulate those they admire.

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Serving uplifting content ethically. The statement "social media improves my mood" received the lowest average score for the enjoyment variable (3.411). Brands can present refreshing visuals, relatable content, and personalized recommendations, as well as leverage sentiment analysis from text and emoticons to understand audience moods. This strategy must be executed ethically to avoid exploiting consumers at a time of vulnerability.

Provide space for thinking and recognizing segments based on self-control. Because self-control significantly influences impulse buying, platforms and sellers can provide features like wishlists and shopping cart reminders that give consumers a break before completing a purchase. Segmenting by self-control level also allows for differentiated approaches: offering quick gratification for consumers with low self-control and more informative content for those with high self-control, while keeping the consumer's interests in mind.

Consumer education and enjoyment framing. Consumer education campaigns, such as those themed "Think Twice, Buy Smart," can raise awareness of impulse buying tendencies while strengthening brand trust. Brands can also reframe enjoyment in their marketing strategies: emphasizing not only emotional satisfaction but also linking the product to long-term value or satisfaction, thus appealing to both impulsive and rational motives.

For platform organizers. User enjoyment can be enhanced by ensuring the convenience and security of personal data and providing an experience that allows users to fully focus on their activities (flow). Features such as a seamless checkout process, limited-time offers, and personalized content can indeed encourage impulse purchases, but they need to be balanced with policies that maintain user trust and well-being. For consumers, these findings highlight the importance of recognizing that the feeling of enjoyment from using social media can lead to unplanned purchases, thus fostering wiser personal financial management.

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

Conclusion

Based on an analysis of 175 social media user respondents in Jakarta and Tangerang, all four hypotheses were accepted. Social media use had a positive and significant effect on enjoyment (β = 0.342) and impulsive buying (β = 0.201); enjoyment had a positive and significant effect on impulsive buying (β = 0.304); and self-control moderated the effect of enjoyment on impulsive buying (β = 0.119). The model explained

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53.4% of the variance in impulsive buying (moderate) and 11.7% of the variance in enjoyment (weak). Self-control also had a strong direct effect on impulsive buying (β = 0.468). Thus, impulsive buying on social media is influenced by the intensity of social media use, perceived enjoyment, and the individual's ability to control themselves.

Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, the sample was selected using non-probability (judgment sampling) from two regions, thus limiting the generalizability of the results. Second, the data are cross-sectional and derived from respondents' self-reports, thus, they cannot definitively demonstrate causality. Third, social media use was not differentiated by platform type or active-passive patterns. Fourth, this study did not formally test the mediating effect of enjoyment (an indirect effect), so its mediating role can only be inferred conceptually. Fifth, the self-control indicator was formulated as a statement about weak self-control, so interpretation of the direction of moderation requires caution. Future research could use a standardized self-control scale such as that developed by Tangney et al. (2004) and explain its scoring.

Suggestion

The low R^2 value for enjoyment suggests that future research could include other antecedents, such as brand image, discounts, and electronic word of mouth (e-WOM). Future research could also expand the scope to other cities or provinces, focus on a specific generation, such as millennials in Indonesia, and examine e-commerce platforms (Shopee, Lazada, Tokopedia) with cashback and discount schemes. Other variables such as work-life balance, strain, and self-esteem could also be considered as additional variables.

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