South East European Journal of Economics and Business

Volume 21 (2) 2026, 163-179
DOI: 10.2478/jeb-2026-0016

THE MEDIATING ROLE OF SELF CONTROL IN THE EFFECT OF WORK STRESS AND BURNOUT ON IMPULSIVE BUYING

Havva Değirmenci Tarakcı, İlknur Ayar

Abstract

This study investigates how work-related emotional burnout and work stress influence employees' impulsive buying behaviors, focusing on the mediating role of self-control. By bridging the fields of consumer behavior and organisational studies, the research sheds light on how stress and burnout at work can spill over into personal consumption decisions. Data were collected from 1,228 employees across Turkey using established psychometric scales, and the hypotheses were tested through structural equation modelling. The results show that both emotional burnout and work stress significantly increase impulsive buying tendencies. More importantly, self-control emerged as a key factor in this relationship, suggesting that decreased self-control under stress and burnout leads to more impulsive purchasing behavior. These findings contribute to the literature by highlighting the psychological mechanisms that link work-related stress to consumer behavior, an area that has not been extensively explored. The study concludes by discussing implications for workplace interventions and suggesting avenues for future research to deepen our understanding of how occupational well-being influences financial decisions.

Keywords: *Employees, Work-related burnout, work stress, consumer behavior, impulsive buying, self-control, well-being*

Jel Codes: *M000, M120, M310*

1. Introduction

The contemporary business environment, characterised by escalating competitive pressures, rapid digitalisation and heightened individual performance expectations, has emerged as a significant source of stress for employees. Work stress is defined as a reaction arising from the incompatibility between an individual's personal characteristics and the work environment (Gümüştekin and Öztemiz 2004). It represents a distinct form of stress generated by stressors inherent in working life, which occupy a central role in individuals' daily experiences (Şenyiğit 2004), and is closely intertwined with general stress processes (Ganster and Rosen 2013). Consequently, work-related stress is not confined to the workplace but extends

Havva Değirmenci Tarakcı, PhD
Lecturer (Corresponding author)
Hitit University
Osmancık Ömer Derindere Vocational School,
Eymir Mahallesi Rıfat Göbel Boulevard No:160
Osmancik/Corum
Turkey
E-mail: havvatarakci@hitit.edu.tr
ORCID: 0000-0003-4149-0651

İlknur Ayar
Asst. Prof.
Cankiri Karatekin University
Turkey
E-mail: ilknurkilic@karatekin.edu.tr
ORCID: 0000-0002-6870-5571

into individuals' broader life satisfaction and behavioral responses, affecting overall quality of life. Despite growing interest in the spillover effects of work-related stress, existing research has predominantly focused on organizational outcomes, such as job performance and well-being, while its implications for consumer behavior remain relatively underexplored. To the best of the authors' knowledge, the extant consumer behavior literature has not explicitly examined how work stress and burnout differentially influence impulsive buying tendency and impulsive buying behavior.

The literature emphasises the importance of effective coping mechanisms in managing occupational stress, highlighting that stress management strategies often transcend the work domain and influence everyday behaviors (De Brabander et al. 2025; Jang, Gu, and Jeong 2019). In this context, consumption behaviors have been identified as a relevant component of stress-coping strategies, as individuals may turn to consumption as a means of emotional regulation or temporary relief from psychological strain (Duxbury 2014; Bok and Seo 2015; Jain, Dash, and Malhotra 2023). Prior studies suggest that individuals experiencing elevated stress levels may use shopping to alleviate negative emotional states (Jain, Dash, and Malhotra 2023). However, when such coping behaviors persist over time, they may evolve into unplanned and impulsive purchasing patterns. From a theoretical perspective, understanding how work-related stressors may shape consumption behavior requires an examination of underlying psychological mechanisms. In this study, self-control functions as a psychological mechanism through which work-related stressors translate into consumption outcomes. Drawing on self-regulation theory and ego depletion theory, the present study argues that work stress and emotional exhaustion may undermine self-control resources, thereby influencing impulsive consumption in distinct ways depending on whether the outcome reflects a dispositional tendency or an enacted behavior. According to self-regulation theory, individuals rely on limited cognitive and emotional resources to regulate their thoughts, emotions, and behaviors (Baumeister, Vohs, and Tice 2007). Prolonged exposure to work stressors and emotional exhaustion gradually depletes these self-regulatory resources, a process conceptualised within ego depletion theory (Baumeister 2002). When self-regulatory capacity is diminished, individuals become less capable of inhibiting short-term impulses and are more inclined to seek immediate emotional relief. Research in consumer behavior demonstrates that such regulatory failures often manifest in compensatory and impulsive consumption behaviors, particularly under conditions of negative affect and psychological strain (Rook and Gardner 1993; Sneath, Lacey, and Kennett-Hensel 2009). From this perspective, work-related stress may extend beyond the organizational domain and influence consumption decisions by undermining self-control mechanisms that ordinarily constrain impulsive buying.

Another central construct in this study is burnout syndrome, which has gained increasing attention as a critical issue in contemporary organizational contexts due to its profound negative consequences for employees, particularly those in demanding roles (Charoensukmongkol, Moqbel, and Gutierrez-Wirsching 2016). Burnout is associated with the development of various psychological and behavioral responses at both individual and organizational levels (Anaza, Harrison, and Rutherford 2020; Hameli 2024). While prior research on burnout has primarily focused on its antecedents, prevalence, intervention strategies, and physiological correlates (Heinemann and Heinemann 2017), its potential implications for consumer behavior remain underexplored. Zhao et al. (2022) show that feelings of burnout undermine individuals' self-control capacity, thereby increasing their propensity toward impulsive buying, and that such behavior functions as an irrational coping strategy through which individuals attempt to regain a sense of control lost during stressful periods. Emerging evidence suggests that changes in emotional states associated with burnout may influence consumption-related behaviors, including impulsive buying tendencies, with implications for both workplace outcomes and marketing strategies (Randikaparsa, Aryoko, and Firjatilah 2024). Building on this emerging stream of research, the present study contributes to the literature by jointly examining work stress, emotional exhaustion, and self-control within a unified theoretical framework, and by explicitly modeling impulsive buying tendency and impulsive buying behavior as separate, yet related, outcome variables.

Accordingly, this study aims to extend the existing literature by investigating how work stress and burnout influence impulsive buying tendency and impulsive buying behavior through self-control mechanisms, using data from a developing market context. By doing so, the study offers both theoretical and empirical insights into the spillover effects of work-related stress on consumer behavior.

2. Theoretical background

Impulsive buying, also known as unplanned buying (Rook 1987), seeks to explain why consumers

make spontaneous purchases in various situations (Luo 2005). It is often linked to coping with negative emotions like anxiety, stress, or depression (Ayhan Gökcek and Yurtsever 2022). A key psychological factor behind impulsive buying is the struggle to manage difficult emotions and the desire to fill emotional gaps. This behavior has been explored since the 1950s (Clover 1950; Shaffer 1960; Rook 1987; Chang, Eckman, and Yan 2011; Iyer et al. 2020). Beyond its association with negative emotional states, impulsive buying has also been widely examined within the context of positive affect and hedonic motivation. A substantial body of literature conceptualises impulsive buying as a pleasure-oriented behavior driven by excitement, enjoyment, and the pursuit of immediate gratification (Rook 1987; Arnold and Reynolds 2003). From this perspective, consumers may engage in impulsive purchases not to cope with distress, but to enhance positive moods, seek novelty, or experience momentary pleasure. Hedonic shopping motivation emphasises experiential aspects of consumption, such as fun, fantasy, and emotional arousal, which can independently stimulate impulsive buying behavior (Beatty and Ferrell 1998; Chang, Eckman, and Yan 2011). Empirical studies further suggest that positive emotions can increase consumers' openness to spontaneous decisions, thereby facilitating impulsive purchasing even in the absence of psychological strain (Verplanken and Herabadi 2001; Wang, Lu, and Wang 2020).

Impulsive buying is defined as a purchase made with little thought, often triggered by a sudden desire (Beatty and Ferrell 1998). It is seen as a hedonistic act, typically occurring on the spot without prior consideration (Bayley and Nancarrow 1998). Such behavior can lead to financial issues, regret, and a sense of lost control (Hammes et al. 2020). Stern (1962) categorized impulsive buying into four types: pure impulsive buying (completely unplanned), suggested impulsive buying (influenced by an appealing offer), reminded impulsive buying (triggered by remembering a past need), and planned impulsive buying (based on a general idea but decided in-store). Beatty and Ferrell (1998) examined this behavior through two dimensions: individual impulsive buying tendency and shopping enjoyment tendency. According to the literature, impulsive buying tendency and impulse buying behavior are distinct constructs that should not be used interchangeably, as they represent conceptually different aspects of impulsive consumption (Badgaiyan and Verma 2014; Kwon and Ahn 2021). Impulsive buying tendency refers to a personal trait or psychological disposition that reflects the degree to which a consumer is prone to making spontaneous, unplanned, and unreflective consumption decisions. In contrast, impulse buying behavior represents an action-oriented outcome or response that emerges as a result of exposure to a specific stimulus. Jones et al. (2003) define impulsive buying tendency as a trait-based construct that reflects individuals' propensity to engage in unplanned and unreflective purchasing. This construct does not represent impulsive buying behavior itself; rather, it captures the likelihood that individuals will exhibit impulsive purchasing when exposed to relevant environmental stimuli. Accordingly, within the marketing and consumer behavior literature, impulsive buying tendency has been widely examined as a key antecedent of impulsive buying behavior (Dewi et al. 2017; Zhang and Shi 2022). Various internal and external factors shape these tendencies. Store atmosphere, advertising, and promotional messages are key external drivers (Youn and Faber 2000; Schiffman and Kanuk 2010). Elements like music and scent in the store also influence impulsive buying (Kaur and Singh 2007). As these factors can be controlled, they offer marketers valuable tools to encourage impulsive purchases.

Internal factors, particularly personal characteristics, have a stronger influence on impulsive buying than store-related factors (Beatty and Ferrell 1998). Personality traits, emotional states, and cognitive processes are among the main internal determinants of this behavior. While traits such as extraversion, neuroticism, and negative emotions are positively associated with impulsive buying, self-control and conscientiousness are negatively related (Chein, Hui, and Lee 2020; Wang et al. 2022; Huang et al. 2024). Emotional factors have been shown to play a more prominent role in impulsive buying than behavioral factors (Kafadar and Yılmaz 2022). Moreover, consumers with stronger impulsive tendencies are more likely to engage in hedonic-driven purchases, indicating that pleasure and impulsivity function as key internal triggers of impulsive buying (Wang, Lu, and Wang 2020; Gantulga and Dashrentsen 2023).

Impulse buying can be triggered by both positive and negative mood states, influenced by individual traits and marketing stimuli (Iyer et al. 2020). Although impulsive buying has been associated with both positive and negative emotional antecedents, the present study deliberately focuses on negative affective processes. Prior research has conceptualized impulsive buying not only as a hedonic and pleasure-driven behavior but also as a form of emotion regulation and self-regulatory failure. In particular, Fenton-O'Creevy, Dibb, and Furnham (2018), drawing on a large national sample, demonstrate that impulsive buying is more prevalent among individuals who experience greater difficulties in regulating negative emotions and who

lack effective emotion regulation strategies. Their findings suggest that chronic impulsive buying may be better understood as a dysfunctional coping mechanism aimed at alleviating psychological distress rather than as a purely hedonic pursuit. Importantly, the authors also show that higher levels of impulsive buying are associated with more adverse financial outcomes, challenging the view that impulsive purchasing can be predominantly functional or benign. Building on this perspective, the present study focuses on negative affective pathways to examine how work-related stressors spill over into consumption behavior. This theoretical choice is grounded in the work-related context of the study, where stress and emotional exhaustion are predominantly linked to adverse emotional states rather than pleasure-oriented experiences. In occupational settings, impulsive buying is more likely to emerge as a compensatory or escape-oriented response aimed at alleviating psychological strain, rather than as a manifestation of hedonic enjoyment. Accordingly, the study prioritises negative emotional pathways to capture the spillover effects of work-related stressors on consumption behavior. While this focus allows for a more precise examination of stress-induced impulsive buying, it also implies that the findings may be more applicable to contexts characterised by psychological strain. Future research may extend this framework by incorporating positive emotional states and hedonic motivations to provide a more comprehensive understanding of impulsive buying across different emotional and situational contexts.

Burnout is a stress-related condition that significantly impacts employee health and performance (Zare et al. 2024). While early studies viewed burnout as a passing trend (Kaschka, Korczak, and Broich 2011), its inclusion in the International Classification of Diseases by the World Health Organization marked it as an occupational syndrome defined by exhaustion, low energy, and reduced productivity (WHO 2019). Burnout is often seen as a result of long-term exposure to work-related stress (Szcześniak et al. 2024). Maslach and Jackson (1984) identified three core elements: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and reduced personal accomplishment. These involve fatigue, emotional distancing from work and others, and a decline in work performance (Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter 2001; Taris et al. 2005; Larsen, Ulleberg, and Rønnestad 2017).

Burnout can harm an individual's health over time, leading to errors and reduced efficiency at work (Chou, Li, and Hu 2014). Some researchers view burnout as closely related to depression, or even as a form of it (Bakusic et al. 2017). Prolonged fatigue may also contribute to cardiovascular issues (Ahola and Hakanen 2014). Factors like age, gender, and personality have been linked to fatigue in earlier studies (Lim et al. 2010). On the organisational level, burnout can lead to staff turnover (Kelly, Gee, and Butler 2021), absenteeism, and lower performance (Dyrbye et al. 2019). Emotionally, burnout may result in depression, anxiety, and even suicidal thoughts (Ryan et al. 2023). In response, individuals may engage in impulsive or compulsive behaviors as coping strategies (Leone et al. 2024). These can include eating disorders (Nevanperä et al. 2012) or substance abuse (Andrade et al. 2021) aimed at escaping or dulling negative emotions.

From a self-regulation perspective, emotional exhaustion the core component of burnout reflects a state of prolonged psychological resource depletion. Ego depletion theory posits that sustained emotional and cognitive demands weaken individuals' capacity to regulate impulses and affective responses (Baumeister 2002). As emotional exhaustion intensifies, employees experience diminished self-control and an increased tendency to seek immediate forms of emotional relief that require minimal cognitive effort. In this context, impulsive buying may function as a compensatory coping mechanism aimed at temporarily alleviating feelings of fatigue, loss of control, and negative affect. Consistent with Fenton-O'Creevy, Dibb, and Furnham (2018), impulsive buying can be linked to work-related stress and emotional exhaustion through its role as a coping mechanism for regulating negative emotions, providing an empirical basis for connecting organizational stressors with consumer behavior.

Empirical findings support this theoretical link, indicating that emotionally exhausted individuals are more prone to avoidance-oriented and emotion-driven behaviors, including unplanned consumption (Anaza, Harrison, and Rutherford 2020; Randikaparsa Aryoko and Firjatilah 2024). Although prior studies report mixed results regarding the direction and magnitude of this relationship (e.g., Da Silva Schuster da Veiga Dias and Battistella 2016; Bi 2024), these inconsistencies highlight the complexity of burnout-related consumption rather than negate the presence of a meaningful association. Accordingly, this study conceptualises emotional exhaustion as a psychological condition that may indirectly influence impulsive buying by undermining self-regulatory capacity.

Based on this information, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H1: Work-related emotional burnout positively affects impulsive buying tendencies.

H2: Work-related emotional burnout positively affects impulsive buying behavior.

Work stress refers to a state of emotional and psychological strain arising from external pressures and perceived demands that exceed an individual's coping resources (Beehr and Franz 1987). When the body senses danger, it releases hormones like adrenaline and cortisol, leading to faster heartbeat, higher blood pressure, and quick breathing (McEwen and Sapolsky 2006). These are the body's stress responses. Stress affects many parts of life and can harm physical health. It may lead to heart disease (Gianaros and Wager 2015), weaken the nervous system and immune system (O'Connor, Thayer, and Vedhara 2021), and is linked to early ageing and death, including cancer and heart issues (Slavich 2016).

Studies show that stress not only harms physical health but also affects behavior. People under high stress may withdraw socially or act aggressively (Sandi and Haller 2015). Stress also lowers motivation (Hollon, Burgeno, and Phillips 2015). While general stress comes from life challenges, work stress relates to pressure and emotional strain at work (Lim et al. 2021). It includes both psychological and physical reactions (Parker and DeCotiis 1983) and stems from negative feelings at work (Lazarus and Folkman 1984). Unlike general stress, work stress is tied to job demands. It may result from a gap between skills and job needs, lack of resources, heavy workload, poor communication, or unclear roles (Cameron Montgomery, Blodgett, and Barnes 1996). Work stress reduces motivation (Wongsuwan, Phanniphong, and Na-Nan 2023), causes apathy (Pozas, Letzel-Alt, and Schwab 2023), and lowers productivity and service quality (Kong 2024). It also affects personal life through dissatisfaction, boredom, and family issues (Kelly et al. 2020; Aruldoss et al. 2022). Long-term exposure can harm health and reduce both employee and organisational performance (Szcześniak et al. 2024).

Stress harms the body, making healthy coping hard, so people seek other ways. Work stress lowers psychological strength, leading to unhealthy habits. According to cognitive dissonance theory, people act to reduce distress (Festinger 1957). Workers under stress may develop eating disorders like eating too much or too little (King, Vidourek, and Schwiebert 2009). Stress increases addiction risk, raising relapse chances in alcohol and drugs (Koob and Schulkin 2019; Sinha 2007). Work stress is linked to social media, smoking, and online shopping addiction (Tenorio 2021; Erzincanlı et al. 2024).

Importantly, consumer behavior research indicates that shopping can function as a readily accessible emotional regulation strategy under conditions of stress and psychological strain. Moschis (2007) states that consumers experiencing stress may turn to avoidance-oriented consumption behaviors such as shopping to regulate negative emotions, and these behaviors may evolve into excessive or uncontrolled buying patterns over time. Individuals experiencing elevated work stress may engage in shopping behaviors to temporarily escape negative moods, alleviate boredom, or restore a sense of control (Kang and Johnson 2011). Empirical studies show that stress and social isolation increase hedonic browsing and impulsive purchasing tendencies (Jabutay and Limpachote 2024), while anxiety and uncertainty can trigger sudden, unplanned buying decisions (Deng et al. 2020). Although such behaviors may provide short-term emotional relief, they often reinforce impulsive buying patterns driven by affect rather than deliberation (Rook and Gardner 1993; Sneath, Lacey, and Kennett-Hensel 2009). Accordingly, work stress is conceptualised in this study as a psychological antecedent that may contribute to impulsive buying tendencies and behaviors by weakening self-control mechanisms and amplifying emotion-driven consumption.

Based on this, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3: Work stress positively affects impulsive purchasing tendencies.

H4: Work stress positively affects impulsive purchasing behavior.

Self-control is the ability to choose between options that appear at different times (Rachlin 1974). It helps individuals stop unwanted behaviors, change internal reactions, and avoid actions that encourage these behaviors (Tangney, Boone, and Baumeister 2018). Impulsive buying is an emotional process driven by high arousal and the desire for immediate reward. The tendency to buy impulsively depends on the balance between self-control and the need for instant gratification (Rook 1987). People with low self-control often ignore long-term effects and make sudden purchases more easily (Roberts and Manolis 2012).Self-control plays a key role in impulsive buying. When stress lowers mental and emotional resources, self-control weakens, increasing impulsive purchases. Strengthening self-control can help prevent stress-related impulsive buying (Baumeister 2002). In this way, self-control may mediate the link between work stress and impulsive buying. While work stress pushes people toward instant rewards, those with strong self-control can manage these urges. High self-control lets individuals resist impulses and make more rational buying decisions even under stress. In contrast, low self-control makes it harder to resist stress-triggered urges, leading to more impulsive buying.

Within the framework of self-regulation theory, prolonged exposure to work stress and emotional exhaustion gradually depletes individuals' regulatory resources. As these psychological resources decline, individuals become less capable of inhibiting impulses and regulating affective responses. Reduced self-control therefore increases the likelihood of impulsive consumption behaviors aimed at obtaining immediate emotional relief. In this sense, self-control operates as a mediating psychological mechanism linking work-related stressors to impulsive buying outcomes. In this context, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H5: Self-control plays a mediating role in the relationship between work-related emotional exhaustion and impulsive buying tendency.

H6: Self-control plays a mediating role in the relationship between work-related emotional exhaustion and impulsive buying behavior.

H7: Self-control plays a mediating role in the relationship between work stress and impulsive buying tendency.

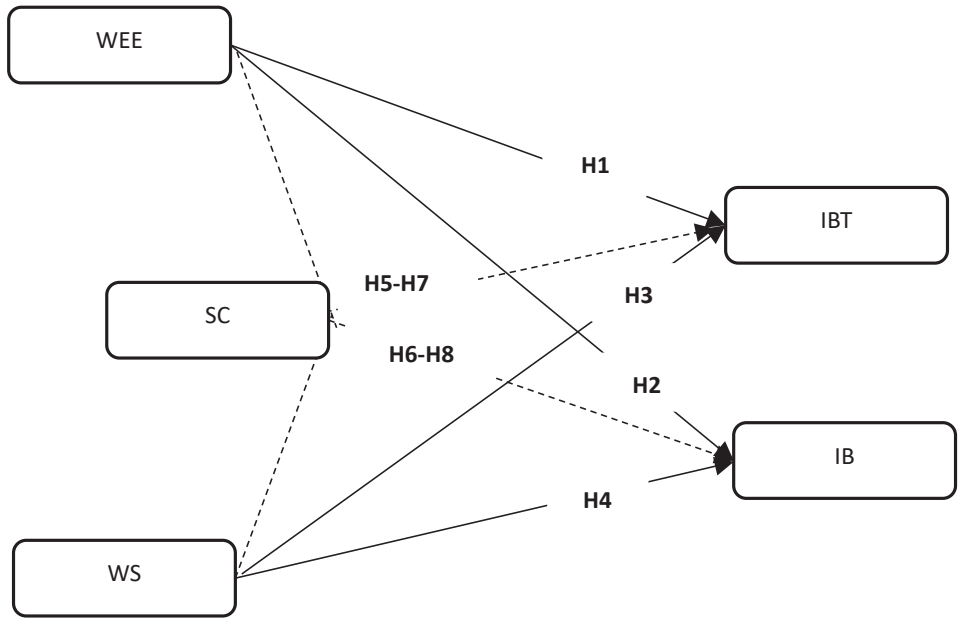
H8: Self-control plays a mediating role in the relationship between work stress and impulsive buying behavior.

In this context, the proposed conceptual model, which summarizes the theoretical relationships among the study variables, is presented in Figure 1. Within the framework of self-regulation theory, individuals rely on limited psychological resources to regulate their emotions and behaviors. Prolonged exposure to work-related stressors such as work stress and emotional exhaustion gradually depletes these regulatory resources (Baumeister, 2002). As these psychological resources decline, individuals become less capable of inhibiting impulses and regulating affective responses. Reduced self-control therefore increases the likelihood of impulsive consumption behaviors aimed at obtaining immediate emotional relief. In this context, work-related emotional exhaustion and work stress are conceptualized as antecedent variables influencing impulsive buying outcomes both directly and indirectly through self-control. Self-control operates as a mediating psychological mechanism through which work-related stressors translate into impulsive buying tendencies and behaviors. The proposed conceptual model reflecting these relationships is presented in Figure 1.

3. Method

This study used a relational screening model within a quantitative approach to examine the effects of work stress and burnout on impulsive buying, with self-control as a mediator. The research model and eight hypotheses were tested using structural equation modelling (SEM) in AMOS. The sample included 1,228 active workers from Turkey, selected via convenience sampling. Participants were 70.85% female

Figure 1. Conceptual Model



WEE= Work-Related Emotional Exhaustion; WS = Work Stress; SC= Self-Control; IBT= Impulsive Buying Tendency; IB= Impulsive Buying

and 29.15% male, aged 18-65, mostly between 18-25, with over half holding a bachelor's degree. Data were collected through a questionnaire with five sections: demographics and four psychometric scales; Work-Related Emotional Exhaustion Scale (6 items, α=0.852; Wharton 1993, adapted into Turkish by Günay 2021), Work Stress Scale (7 items, α=0.827; House and Rizzo 1972, adapted into Turkish by Efeoğlu 2006), Self-Control Scale (8 items, α=0.740; Koç et al. 2023), and used by Lavuri, Jaiswal, and Thaichon (2023), Impulsive Buying Tendency (3 items, α=0.734) and Behavior Scales (3 items, α= 0.714). Since this scale has not previously been used in Turkish, the forward–backward translation method was employed for its adaptation into Turkish. The items were first translated from English into Turkish by two subject-matter experts, and then back-translated into English by an independent expert. The original and back-translated versions were compared, necessary revisions were made, and the final Turkish version of the scale was established.

The data were analysed using licensed SPSS 27 and AMOS. First, frequency analyses for demographic variables were conducted, calculating counts (n) and percentages. Then, descriptive statistics for scale scores mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum were calculated. Normality was checked using skewness and kurtosis values, with acceptable ranges between -1.50 and +1.50 (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). Levene's test assessed variance homogeneity. Structural equation modelling (SEM) tested the model's construct validity, supported by confirmatory factor analysis in AMOS using maximum likelihood estimation due to normal, continuous data. Model fit was evaluated with indices including GFI, AGFI, CFI, NFI, NNFI-TLI, RMSEA, and SRMR. Reliability was assessed via Cronbach's Alpha, interpreted as follows: 0.00–0.40 (unreliable), 0.40–0.60 (low), 0.60–0.80 (moderate), and 0.80–1.00 (high) reliability (Kalaycı 2010). Group differences were analysed using independent samples t-tests (for two groups) and ANOVA (for three or more groups). When variances were unequal, the Welch test was applied. Post-hoc comparisons used Tukey or Tamhane tests depending on variance homogeneity. Pearson correlation tested relationships between continuous variables. A significance level of 0.05 was used, with $p<0.05$ indicating significance. In addition, Harman's single-factor test was conducted to assess potential common method bias. The first factor accounted for 28.68% of the total variance, which is below the recommended 50% threshold, suggesting that common method bias is unlikely to be a serious concern.

3.1. Findings

This section first presents demographic findings, followed by frequency distribution, normality, and reliability results for the scales. Next, comparisons of scale scores by demographic factors, relationships between scales, and finally structural model results are given. Table 1 summarizes the participants' socio-demographic characteristics with frequency distributions.

Table 1. Frequency distribution table for socio-demographic characteristics

Variable	Category	n	%
Gender	Female	870	70.85
	Male	358	29.15
Age	18-25	851	69.30
	26-35	173	14.09
	36-45	125	10.18
	46-55	65	5.29
	56-65	14	1.14
Educaton Level	Primary education	119	9.69
	High school	411	33.47
	Undergraduate	633	51.55
	Postgraduate	65	5.29

In the study, 70.85% of participants were female (n = 870) and 29.15% male (n = 358), indicating a majority of female respondents. Most participants were aged 18-25 (n = 851, 69.30%), followed by 26-35 (n = 173, 14.09%), 36-45 (n = 125, 10.18%), 46-55 (n = 65, 5.29%), and 56-65 (n = 14, 1.14%), showing a predominantly young sample. Regarding education, over half held a bachelor's degree (n = 633, 51.55%), with high school graduates (n = 411, 33.47%), primary school graduates (n = 119, 9.69%), and postgraduates (n = 65, 5.29%) making up smaller portions. This indicates a sample dominated by individuals with higher education levels. Table 2 presents the frequency distribution, normality, and reliability results for the scale scores.

The average work-related emotional exhaustion score was 18.22 ± 5.35 (min = 6; max = 30), with skewness (0.091) and kurtosis (-0.423) within ±1, indicating near-normal distribution. The scale showed high reliability (Cronbach's α = 0.852). The work stress scale averaged 19.94 ± 5.83 (min = 7; max = 35), also normally distributed (skewness 0.147; kurtosis -0.129) with strong reliability (α = 0.827). For self-control, the Initiation subscale averaged 13.45 ± 2.72 (min = 4; max = 20), with skewness (-0.332) and kurtosis (-0.079) supporting normality and reliability of 0.745.

Table 2. Frequency distribution, normality and reliability results for scale levels

Variable	Mean	Min.	Max.	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Reliability
Work-Related Emotional Burnout	18.22	6.00	30.00	5.35	0.091	-0.423	0.852
Work Stress	19.94	7.00	35.00	5.83	0.147	-0.129	0.827
Initiation	13.45	4.00	20.00	2.72	-0.332	-0.079	0.745
Inhibition	13.18	4.00	20.00	3.05	-0.167	-0.147	0.710
Self-Control, Self-Management	26.63	8.00	40.00	4.75	-0.005	0.345	0.740
Impulsive Buying Tendency	9.06	3.00	15.00	2.97	-0.054	-0.597	0.734
Impulsive Buying	7.78	3.00	15.00	2.92	0.339	-0.425	0.714

The Inhibition subscale averaged 13.18 ± 3.05 (min = 4; max = 20), showing symmetrical distribution (skewness -0.167; kurtosis -0.147) and reliability of 0.710. Combined self-control and management averaged 26.63 ± 4.75 (min = 8; max = 40), normally distributed (skewness -0.005; kurtosis 0.345), with reliability of 0.740. Impulsive buying tendency scores ranged from 3 to 15, averaging 9.06 ± 2.97, with normal distribution (skewness -0.054; kurtosis -0.597) and reliability of 0.734. Impulsive buying scores ranged 3 to 15, averaging 7.78 ± 2.92, also normally distributed (skewness 0.339; kurtosis -0.425) with acceptable reliability (0.714). The next section compares scale scores with demographic variables (see Table 3).

Table 3. Comparison of scale levels with demographic characteristics difference=tukey test

Variable	Work Related Emotional Burnout		Work Stress		Initiation		Inhibition		Self Control, Self Management		Impulsive Buying Tendency		Impulsive Buying	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Gender														
Female	18.58	5.17	20.25	5.62	13.24	2.74	12.93	3.02	26.17	4.73	9.33	2.89	8.00	2.87
Male	17.35	5.67	19.21	6.27	13.96	2.60	13.78	3.04	27.74	4.62	8.41	3.07	7.24	2.98
t	3.547		2.841		-4.263		-4.469		-5.318		4.995		4.168	
p	**0.001***		**0.004***		**0.001***		**0.001***		**0.001***		**0.001***		**0.001***	
Age														
18-25 (1)	18.39	5.12	19.92	5.74	13.33	2.71	12.91	3.02	26.25	4.70	9.37	2.93	8.14	2.88
26-35 (2)	18.95	5.53	21.20	6.16	13.74	2.73	13.44	3.14	27.18	5.04	8.83	3.07	7.42	2.93
36-45 (3)	17.32	6.01	19.44	5.90	13.78	2.67	13.94	3.19	27.72	4.77	8.22	2.89	6.62	2.71
46-55 (4)	16.95	5.70	18.22	5.50	13.40	2.82	14.37	2.34	27.77	4.14	7.60	2.57	6.45	2.87
56-65 (5)	13.43	5.23	18.21	6.02	14.07	2.64	13.79	2.67	27.86	4.35	7.07	2.62	6.50	2.65
F	5.701		4.021		1.541		6.604		4.819		10.906		13.5	
p	**0.001***		**0.003***		**0.188**		**0.001***		**0.001***		**0.001***		**0.001***	
Difference	5>1,5>2		2>4		-		1<3,1<4		1<3		1>3,1>4,1>5		1>2,1>3,1>4	
Education Level														
Primary education (1)	16.32	5.76	18.31	5.58	13.42	2.77	14.34	2.52	27.76	4.28	7.34	2.80	6.11	2.41
High school(2)	18.11	5.03	19.53	5.68	13.58	2.72	13.46	3.06	27.04	4.78	8.92	2.89	7.60	2.95
Undergraduate (3)	18.70	5.29	20.51	5.87	13.30	2.68	12.70	3.02	26.00	4.70	9.53	2.90	8.25	2.85
Postgraduate (4)	17.77	6.29	20.06	6.27	14.18	2.82	13.94	3.21	28.12	5.05	8.45	3.19	7.35	3.06
F	7.032		5.851		2.569		13.935		9.324		20.751		20.342	
p	**0.001***		**0.001***		**0.053**		**0.001***		**0.001***		**0.001***		**0.001***	
Difference	1<2,1<3		3>1,3>2		-		3<1,3<2,3<4		3<1,3<2,3<4		3>1,3>2,3>4		1<2,1<3,1<4	

*p<0.05; t=Independent Samples t test, F=ANOVA Test

Women reported higher emotional exhaustion (18.58 ± 5.17) than men (17.35 ± 5.67; t = 3.547; p = 0.001), and higher work stress (20.25 ± 5.62) than men (19.21 ± 6.27; t = 2.841; p = 0.004). The 26–35 age group showed the highest work stress (21.20 ± 6.16), significantly higher than the 46–55 group (F = 4.021; p = 0.003), while the 56–65 group had the lowest burnout (13.43 ± 5.23), significantly lower than the 18–25 (18.39 ± 5.12) and 26–35 (18.95 ± 5.53) groups (F = 5.701; p = 0.001). Undergraduate participants reported the highest burnout (18.70 ± 5.29) and stress (20.51 ± 5.87), significantly higher than primary (burnout: 16.32 ± 5.76; stress: 18.31 ± 5.58) and high school graduates (F_burnout = 7.032; F_stress = 5.851; both p = 0.001). For self-control components, men scored higher in initiation (13.96 ± 2.60) and inhibition (13.78 ± 3.04) than women (initiation: 13.24 ± 2.74; inhibition: 12.93 ± 3.02; both p = 0.001). Younger individuals (18–25) had lower inhibition (12.91) and total self-control (26.25) compared to older groups (e.g., 46–55 inhibition: 14.37; 56–65 total self-control: 27.86), with significant differences (F_inhibition = 6.604; F_total = 4.819; p = 0.001). Undergraduates had the lowest inhibition (12.70 ± 3.02) and total self-control (26.00 ± 4.70), significantly lower than other education levels (F = 13.935; F = 9.324; both p = 0.001). Impulsive buying tendency was higher among women (9.33 ± 2.89), young adults (18–25: 9.37), and undergraduates (9.53 ± 2.90), with significant group differences (F = 10.906 and F = 20.751; p = 0.001). Similarly, women (8.00 ± 2.87), the youngest group (8.14), and undergraduates (8.25 ± 2.85) had significantly higher impulsive buying (F = 13.500 and F = 20.342; p = 0.001). Next, relationships between scale levels are examined (Table 4).

The analysis revealed a strong positive correlation between work stress and emotional exhaustion (r = 0.714; p < 0.01), suggesting that higher stress levels lead to increased emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion was also weakly and negatively correlated with initiation (r = -0.148; p < 0.01), and moderately negatively correlated with both inhibition (r = -0.341; p < 0.01) and self-control/self-management (r = -0.303; p < 0.01), indicating that individuals with higher self-regulation capacities tend to experience lower levels of burnout. Additionally, emotional exhaustion was found to be moderately positively associated with both impulsive buying tendency (r = 0.356; p < 0.01) and impulsive buying (r = 0.314; p < 0.01), suggesting that burnout increases impulsive purchasing behavior. Regarding work stress, a weak negative relationship was observed with initiation (r = -0.126; p < 0.01), while moderate negative correlations were found with inhibition (r = -0.384; p < 0.01) and self-control/self-management (r = -0.318; p < 0.01), showing that individuals with higher inhibitory control and self-regulation experience less stress. Work stress was also moderately positively related to both impulsive buying tendency (r = 0.345; p < 0.01) and impulsive buying (r = 0.340; p < 0.01), indicating that increased stress is associated with higher impulsivity in consumer behavior. Initiation was not significantly related to impulsive buying tendency (r = -0.051; p > 0.05), but showed a weak negative correlation with impulsive buying (r = -0.143; p < 0.01), while inhibition had moderate negative correlations with both impulsive buying tendency (r = -0.307; p < 0.01) and impulsive buying (r = -0.407; p < 0.01), reflecting that stronger inhibitory skills are linked to more controlled purchasing behavior. Furthermore, self-control/self-management was weakly negatively associated with impulsive buying tendency (r = -0.226; p < 0.01) and moderately negatively correlated with impulsive buying (r = -0.343; p < 0.01), indicating that individuals with higher self-control are less likely to engage in impulsive buying. Lastly, impulsive buying tendency and impulsive buying level were moderately positively correlated (r = 0.560; p < 0.01), showing that as the tendency to buy impulsively increases, actual impulsive purchasing behavior also rises. Table 5 presents the convergent and discriminant validity results.

Table 4. Relationship between scale levels

Variable	Statistics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Work-Related Emotional Burnout (1)	r	1						
Work Stress(2)	r	0.714**	1					
Initiation (3)	r	-0.148**	-0.126**	1				
Inhibition (4)	r	-0.341**	-0.384**	0.360**	1			
Self-Control, Self-Management(5)	r	-0.303**	-0.318**	0.802**	0.846**	1		
Impulsive Buying Tendency (6)	r	0.356**	0.345**	-0.051	-0.307**	-0.226**	1	
Impulsive Buying (7)	r	0.314**	0.340**	-0.143**	-0.407**	-0.343**	0.560**	1

*p<0.05; Pearson Correlation Test

Table 5. Convergent and discriminant validity

Item	Factor Loadings (Standardized Regression Coefficients))	CR	AVE
wee1	0.782		
wee2	0.668		
wee3	0.752	0.861	0.554
wee4	0.814		
wee5	0.696		
ws6	0.605		
ws5	0.617		
ws4	0.660	0.824	0.439
ws3	0.709		
ws2	0.737		
ws1	0.636		
ibt1	0.604		
ibt2	0.784	0.741	0.491
ibt3	0.702		
ib1	0.717		
ib2	0.716	0.719	0.462
ib3	0.597		
sc8	0.803		
sc7	0.760		
sc6	0.724		
sc5	0.722	0.900	0.531
sc4	0.729		
sc3	0.625		
sc2	0.701		
sc1	0.752		

CR=Composite Reliability, AVE=Average Variance Extracted

As shown in Table 5, all composite reliability (CR) values exceed 0.70, confirming acceptable internal consistency for the constructs evaluated: WEE (0.861), WS (0.824), IBT (0.741), IB (0.719), and SC (0.900). The results indicate that all factors have sufficient internal consistency. AVE values were 0.554 for WEE, 0.439 for WS, 0.491 for IBT, 0.462 for IB, and 0.531 for SC. Although some AVE values were initially below the recommended threshold of 0.50, the high composite reliability (CR) values supported the overall convergent validity of the constructs (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Accordingly, two items with low factor loadings (WEE6 and WS7) were excluded from further analysis. Following their removal, all factor loadings were above 0.50, suggesting satisfactory convergent and discriminant validity. Overall, both convergent and discriminant validity of the model are adequate. Table 6 shows the correlations for the measurement model.

According to Table 6, the AVE square roots of the variables (values in italics) were found to be greater than or close to the correlation coefficients of each variable with other variables; this shows that discriminant validity was generally achieved in the measurement model.

Looking at the values related to the fit of the model, the χ^2/sd ratio is 3.932 and is within acceptable limits, but it does not reach the perfect fit level. GFI (0.892) and AGFI (0.869) values are just below and within the acceptable level, respectively, but both indices do not meet the perfect fit criterion. The CFI value is below the acceptable lower limit of 0.842, indicating that the model does not have a good fit. Methodological studies suggest that a model may still demonstrate acceptable fit even when certain incremental fit indices, such as CFI, fall below conventional threshold values, provided that other goodness-of-fit indicators support the overall model adequacy and the results are interpreted cautiously (Chow, Snowden, and McConnell 2001). On the other hand, NFI (0.921) and NNFI/TLI (0.922) values are at an acceptable level, indicating that the model has a moderate structural fit. The RMSEA value is within acceptable limits with 0.071 ($0.05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.08$), but it does not reflect a perfect fit. In general, when the fit indices of the model are evaluated in terms of construct validity, it can be said that the model has an acceptable but not perfect fit and that the model can be improved to a higher fit

Table 6. Correlations for the measurement model

Variable	Statistics	1	2	3	4	5
Work-Related Emotional Burnout (1)	r	*0.708*				
Work Stress (2)	r	0.714	*0.642*			
Self-Control, Self-Management(3)	r	-0.303	-0.318	*0.701*		
Impulsive Buying Tendency (4)	r	0.356	0.345	-0.226	*0.680*	
Impulsive Buying (5)	r	0.314	0.34	-0.343	0.560	*0.680*

Italic=AVE Square Root

Table 7. Model fit index values

Indexes	Value	Acceptable Values	Excellent Values
X2/sd	3.932	2 ≤ X2/sd ≤ 4	0 ≤X2/sd ≤ 2
GFI	0.892	0.90 ≤ CFI ≤ 0.95	0.95 ≤ GFI ≤ 1.00
AGFI	0.869	0.85 ≤ AGFI ≤ 0.90	0.90 ≤ AGFI ≤ 1.00
CFI	0.842	0.90 ≤ CFI ≤ 0.95	0.95 ≤ CFI ≤ 1.00
NFI	0.921	0.90 ≤ NFI ≤ 0.95	0.95 ≤ NFI ≤ 1.00
NNFI (TLI)	0.922	0.90 ≤ NNFI ≤ 0.95	0.95 ≤ NNFI ≤ 1.00
RMSEA	0.071	0.05 ≤ RMSEA ≤ 0.08	0.00 ≤ RMSEA ≤ 0.05

level with some improvements. When the fit indices of the model are evaluated in general, it is seen that most of the values obtained are within acceptable limits but below the perfect fit criteria. In the final stage, hypothesis test results are detailed in Table 8.

Within the model, the direct effect of Work-Related Emotional Exhaustion (WEE) on Impulsive Buying Tendency (IBT) was significant (β = 0.257; p < 0.001), showing that higher burnout leads to greater impulsive buying tendency (H1 – Accepted). This suggests that mental fatigue and emotional exhaustion make individuals more prone to uncontrolled spending as a way to seek instant relief. Similarly, WEE also significantly affected Impulsive Buying (IB) (β = 0.148; p = 0.001), indicating burnout directly influences purchasing behaviors (H2 – Accepted). Work stress (WS) had a significant effect on impulsive buying tendency (IBT) (β = 0.134; p = 0.016), meaning increased stress raises impulsive tendencies (H3 – Accepted). Likewise, WS significantly affected Impulsive Buying (IB) (β = 0.168; p = 0.004), showing that higher work stress leads to more impulsive purchases (H4 – Accepted). These results indicate work stress directly impacts consumption habits, pushing individuals, especially those with busy workloads, to use shopping as a way to relax and escape stress.

The indirect effect of work-related emotional exhaustion on impulsive buying tendency through self-control and self-management was significant (β = 0.121; p < 0.001) (H5 – Accepted). This indicates that higher burnout lowers self-control skills, which in turn increases impulsive buying tendency. Thus, self-control mediates the impact of burnout on impulsive tendencies. Self-control helps manage emotional and behavioral impulses, but burnout and work stress weaken this ability, leading to more impulsive behavior. Similarly, the indirect effect of burnout on impulsive buying behavior through self-control was also significant (β = 0.071; p < 0.001) (H6 – Accepted). As burnout rises, self-control decreases, causing an increase in impulsive buying. Self-control plays a key mediating role in linking burnout to impulsive purchasing behaviors. The indirect effect of work stress on impulsive buying tendency through self-control and self-management is significant (β = 0.058; p < 0.001) (H7 – Accepted). This shows that work stress reduces individuals' self-control skills, which then increases impulsive buying tendencies. Thus, self-control mediates the relationship between work stress and impulsive buying. Lower self-control leads to less planned and more emotional spending. This finding highlights how work stress influences personal financial decisions

Table 8. Hypothesis tests

Model			Coefficient	SE	Critical Value	p	Hypothesis
IBT	<---	WEE	0.257	0.044	5.812	***	H1- Accepted
IB	<---	WEE	0.148	0.046	3.230	0.001	H2- Accepted
IBT	<---	WS	0.134	0.056	2.416	0.016	H3- Accepted
IB	<---	WS	0.168	0.059	2.844	0.004	H4- Accepted
WEE>	SC>	IBT	0.121	-	-	***	H5- Accepted
WEE>	SC>	IB	0.071	-	-	***	H6- Accepted
WS>	SC>	IBT	0.058	-	-	***	H7- Accepted
WS>	SC>	IB	0.082	-	-	***	H8- Accepted

and links organisational health to financial behaviors. The indirect effect of work stress on impulsive buying behavior through self-control and self-management was also significant ($\beta = 0.082$; $p < 0.001$) (H8 – Accepted). This indicates that increased work stress lowers individuals' self-control, leading to more impulsive purchasing behaviors. Thus, self-control and self-management significantly mediate the effect of work stress on buying behavior. Bootstrap results revealed a significant indirect effect of IB on IBT through SC (95% CI = [0.1258, 0.2235]). In addition, SC significantly mediated the relationship between WS and IB (95% CI = [−0.2587, −0.1587]). In both cases, the confidence intervals did not include zero, confirming the significance of the mediation effects.

4. Discussion

This study examined the effect of work stress and emotional burnout on impulsive purchasing tendencies and behaviours, and tested the mediating role of self-control. The findings indicate that demographic variables such as gender, age and education create significant differences in both stress levels and impulsive buying behaviour; this is highly consistent with previous research highlighting the role of demographic characteristics in psychological processing and stress experiences (Klein et al. 2016; Smith and Wesselbaum 2025). However, as some studies have reported no significant relationship between demographic factors and stress levels (Peggy et al. 2020), there is no complete consensus in the literature.

The results also indicate that impulsive purchasing tendencies are relatively higher among young people and women, consistent with studies highlighting demographic differences in self-control capacity and emotional regulation (Akhator and Audu 2018; Urošević, Kocić, and Dukić 2023). However, contrary evidence suggests that demographic variables may not have a significant effect on impulsive purchasing behaviour (Basalma, 2024). The study shows that work-related stress and emotional exhaustion are significantly associated with impulsive purchasing tendencies and behaviours, and that self-control plays a key role as a psychological mechanism in transforming work-related stress factors into consumption outcomes. These results suggest that impulsive buying is not merely limited to reflecting situational purchasing impulses; it may also function as a coping response to long-term psychological stress experienced in the workplace. The findings are in line with studies showing a positive relationship between stress and impulsive buying (Shams et al. 2021). This is particularly significant in emerging markets, where work-related stress is one of the key determinants of consumer behaviour. In this context, Ürkmez and Wagner (2020) report that consumers in Turkey and Poland tend to turn to 'retail therapy' as a compensatory response to work-related stress, burnout, and the strain caused by routine working life. Similarly, Bisht and Desu (2024) demonstrate that such behaviours function as an avoidance-based coping strategy, whilst Wang and Sim (2025) highlight comparable diffusion mechanisms in tourism consumption. These findings are consistent with previous research highlighting the role of negative emotional states and psychological stress in shaping impulsive and emotion-driven consumption behaviours (Rook and Gardner 1993; Sneath, Lacey and Kennett-Hensel 2009; Randikaparsa, Aryoko, and Firjatilah 2024). From the perspective of self-regulation and burnout, long-term exposure to stress reduces individuals' regulatory capacity and increases their tendency towards impulsive decision-making (Baumeister 2002; Baumeister, Vohs, and Tice 2007). However, the literature is unclear and shows a need for further empirical clarification (da Silva Schuster da Veiga Dias and Battistella 2016; Maharani and Utami 2023; Thomas et al. 2024). Furthermore, the findings help to harmonise the results of previous studies. Some studies suggest that burnout reduces purchasing intentions, whereas this study shows that emotional burnout can increase impulsive buying under certain psychological conditions. This difference may stem from differences in conceptual focus, because impulsive buying is more closely linked to emotion control than planned consumption behaviour.

5. Theoretical implications

From a theoretical perspective, this study makes several contributions. Firstly, it extends the frameworks of self-regulation and work-related burnout by demonstrating how work-related stress factors influence consumer behaviour through the depletion of self-regulation resources. Secondly, by integrating perspectives from organisational psychology and consumer behaviour, it offers a process-based explanation of how occupational stress manifests in consumption outcomes. Finally, by making a distinction between impulsive purchasing tendencies and behaviour, it emphasises the importance of examining both personality and behavioural dimensions in stress-related consumption research.

6. Practical implications

At the organisational level, the findings indicate that work-related stress and burnout must be managed not only in terms of performance outcomes but also in terms of broader behavioural consequences. Organisations can implement stress management and burnout prevention programmes, including psychosocial support systems, awareness-based interventions, and training programmes aimed at developing self-control and emotional regulation. Flexible working arrangements and policies supporting work-life balance can also reduce the negative effects of stress on employees' personal and financial decision-making processes. Furthermore, offering financial advice and guidance on budgeting can help employees avoid maladaptive coping strategies such as excessive or impulsive spending. The early identification of employees experiencing high levels of stress or burnout can enable proactive interventions that support both psychological well-being and responsible consumption behaviour.

From a marketing perspective, the findings indicate that emotional and psychological factors play a critical role in shaping consumer behaviour. While segments such as young consumers and women may demonstrate higher tendencies towards impulse buying, marketers should approach these insights with caution. Responsible marketing strategies should emphasise transparency, ethical communication and consumer well-being, rather than taking advantage of sensitive emotional states. Particularly emotionally exhausted consumers may be more susceptible to time-limited offers and promotional stimuli. Therefore, marketing communications should avoid manipulative practices and instead support informed and balanced decision-making. Adopting an ethical and consumer-focused approach can enhance long-term trust, satisfaction and brand loyalty. Finally, given that impulsive purchasing can, in extreme cases, resemble patterns of addictive behaviour (Rezaieh Ghorbani and Farahani 2023), interdisciplinary collaboration between organisational and clinical psychology perspectives may be necessary to better understand and manage such risks.

7. Limitations and future research

This study has several limitations. First, the sample is largely composed of young and highly educated individuals; this may make it difficult to apply the results to other groups. More heterogeneous samples should be used in future studies to improve external validity. Second, the use of a cross-sectional survey design limits causal inferences. Although procedural adjustments have been made and Harman's one-factor test has shown that common method bias is not a major problem, future studies should use longitudinal and experimental designs. Future research can be enhanced by integrating qualitative methods such as in-depth interviews or focus group discussions to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the psychological mechanisms driving stress-induced consumer behavior.

Ethics Statement

All procedures performed during the research were conducted in accordance with relevant legal regulations and institutional ethical guidelines. Informed consent was obtained from all participants, and the privacy rights of the participants were strictly respected.

Declaration of Generative AI and AI-assisted Technologies in the Writing Process

During the preparation of this study, the author(s) used DeepL to improve the clarity, translation and language of the article. After using this tool, the author(s) reviewed and edited the content. The author(s) are solely responsible for the content of the published article.

References

Ahola, K., and Hakanen, J. 2014. Burnout and health. In Burnout at Work, 10–31. Psychology Press.

Akhator, A. P. P., and Audu, E. 2018. Effects of demographic factors on impulse buying behavior of consumers in Auchi, Edo State, Nigeria. Nigerian Journal of Management Sciences 6 (2): 126–138.

Anaza, N. A., Harrison, D. E., and Rutherford, B. N. 2020. Multi-faceted organizational buyer burnout. Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing 35 (6): 1113–1124.

Andrade, G. F., Menolli, P. V. D. S., Clemente, P. A., Mesas, A. E., Silva, D. C., and Girotto, E. 2021. Burnout syndrome and consumption of alcohol and illicit substances in university students. Paidéia (Ribeirão Preto) 31: e3134.

Arnold, M. J., and Reynolds, K. E. 2003. Hedonic shopping motivations. Journal of Retailing 79: 77–95.

Aruldoss, A., Berube Kowalski, K., Travis, M. L., and Parayitam, S. 2022. The relationship between work–life balance and job satisfaction: Moderating role of training and development and work environment. Journal of Advances in Management Research 19 (2): 240–271.

Ayhan Gökcek, H., and Yurtsever, A. E. 2022. Dürtüsel satın alma ile depresyon ilişkisi ve demografik değişkenlere göre farklılıkların belirlenmesine yönelik bir araştırma. Akademik Hassasiyetler 9 (19): 487–515.

Badgaiyan, A. J., and Verma, A. 2014. Intrinsic factors affecting impulsive buying behavior: Evidence from India. Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services 21 (4): 537–549.

Bakusic, J., Schaufeli, W., Claes, S., and Godderis, L. 2017. Stress, burnout and depression: A systematic review on DNA methylation mechanisms. Journal of Psychosomatic Research 92: 34–44.

Basalma, E. 2024. Exploring the influence of gender, age, education level, and income on online impulsive purchasing behavior among college students. Malaysian Journal of Business, Economics and Management 3 (1): 33–41.

Baumeister, R. F. 2002. Yielding to temptation: Self-control failure, impulsive purchasing, and consumer behavior. Journal of Consumer Research 28 (4): 670–676.

Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., and Tice, D. M. 2007. The strength model of self-control. Current Directions in Psychological Science 16 (6): 351–355.

Bayley, G., and Nancarrow, C. 1998. Impulse purchasing: A qualitative exploration of the phenomenon. Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal 1 (2): 99–114.

Beatty, S. E., and Ferrell, M. E. 1998. Impulse buying: Modeling its precursors. Journal of Retailing 74 (2): 169–191.

Beehr, T. A., and Franz, T. M. 1987. The current debate about the meaning of job stress. Journal of Organizational Behavior Management 8 (2): 5–18.

Bi, C. 2024. The influence of anchor burnout mood on consumers' consumption psychology and behavior. Interdisciplinary Humanities and Communication Studies 2 (5): 1–6.

Bisht, K., and Desu, S. T. 2024. Stress, coping, and shopping: Exploring behavioral responses. Journal of Scientific Research and Reports 30 (9): 624–630.

Bok, M., and Seo, J. 2015. Consumption stress coping types among married women consumers and related variables: Focused on socio-economic variables, social class, perceived health status, and consumption stress. Korean Journal of Human Ecology 24 (1): 25–38.

Cameron Montgomery, D., Blodgett, J. G., and Barnes, J. H. 1996. A model of financial securities salespersons' job stress. Journal of Services Marketing 10 (3): 21–38.

Chang, H. J., Eckman, M., and Yan, R. N. 2011. Application of the stimulus-organism-response model to the retail environment: The role of hedonic motivation in impulse buying behavior. The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research 21 (3): 233–249.

Charoensukmongkol, P., Moqbel, M., and Gutierrez-Wirsching, S. 2016. The role of coworker and supervisor support on job burnout and job satisfaction. Journal of Advances in Management Research 13 (1).

Chein, T. S., Hui, O. T., and Lee, C. J. 2020. Factors affecting impulsive buying behavior–Evidence from Malaysia. Global Business & Management Research 12 (2).

Chou, L. P., Li, C. Y., and Hu, S. C. 2014. Job stress and burnout in hospital employees: Comparisons of different medical professions in a regional hospital in Taiwan. BMJ Open 4 (2): e004185.

Chow, J. C. C., Snowden, L. R., and McConnell, W. 2001. A confirmatory factor analysis of the BASIS-32 in racial and ethnic samples. The Journal of Behavioral Health Services & Research 28 (4): 400–411.

Clover, V. T. 1950. Relative importance of impulse-buying in retail stores. Journal of Marketing 15 (1): 66–70.

da Silva Schuster, M., da Veiga Dias, V., and Battistella, L. F. 2016. Estressado, vá às compras? A investigação da compra compulsiva como estratégia de enfrentamento de burnout (Stressed, go to shopping? The investigation of compulsive buying as burnout coping strategy). Revista Ciências Administrativas 22 (2): 483–506.

De Brabander, M., Banks, A., Johnson, R., Byers, A., Washington, J., Evans, D. G., Boland, G., and Salami, T. 2025. Coping and organizational support as moderators of work stress and sleep quality among officers who have experienced a critical incident: A risk-protection model. Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health 41 (1): 219–237.

Deng, S., Wang, W., Xie, P., Chao, Y., and Zhu, J. 2020. Perceived severity of Covid-19 and post-pandemic consumption willingness: The roles of boredom and sensation-seeking. Frontiers in Psychology 11: 567784.

Dewi, M. A. A., Nurrohmah, I., Sahadi, N., Sensuse, D. I., and Noprison, H. 2017. Analysing the critical factors influencing consumers' e-impulse buying behavior. Paper presented at the International Conference on Advanced Computer Science and Information Systems (ICACSIS), Bali, Indonesia, October.

Duxbury, L. 2014. Consuming to cope: Development of a measure [Master's thesis, Australian Catholic University]. https://acuresearchbank.acu.edu.au/items/6c8d8134-9d35-492b-9afe-cca106dd85ea

Dyrbye, L. N., Shanafelt, T. D., Johnson, P. O., Johnson, L. A., Satele, D., and West, C. P. 2019. A cross-sectional study exploring the relationship between burnout, absenteeism, and job performance among American nurses. BMC Nursing 18: 1–8.

Efeoğlu, İ. E. 2006. İş-aile yaşam çatişmasinin iş stresi, iş doyumu ve örgütsel bağlilik üzerindeki etkileri: İlaç sektöründe bir araştirma [Doctoral thesis, Çukurova University]. Thesis Center.

Erzincanlı, Y., Akbulut, G., Çubukcu, B. B., and Taş, H. G. 2024. Role of self-control, financial attitude, depression, anxiety, and stress in predicting consumers' online shopping addiction. Frontiers in Public Health 12: 1382910.

Fenton-O'Creevy, M., Dibb, S., and Furnham, A. 2018. Antecedents and consequences of chronic impulsive

buying: Can impulsive buying be understood as dysfunctional self-regulation? Psychology & Marketing 35 (3): 175–188.

Festinger, L. 1957. A theory of cognitive dissonance. Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson.

Fornell, C., and Larcker, D. F. 1981. Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. Journal of Marketing Research 18 (1): 39–50.

Ganster, D. C., and Rosen, C. C. 2013. Work stress and employee health: A multidisciplinary review. Journal of Management 39 (5): 1085–1122.

Gantulga, U., and Dashrentsen, D. 2023. Factors influence impulsive buying behavior. Humanitas University's Research Papers Management 24 (1): 9–25.

Gianaros, P. J., and Wager, T. D. 2015. Brain-body pathways linking psychological stress and physical health. Current Directions in Psychological Science 24 (4): 313–321.

Gümüştekin, G. E., and Öztemiz, A. B. 2004. Örgütsel stres yönetimi ve uçucu personel üzerinde bir uygulama. Erciyes Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi 23.

Günay, A. 2021. İşe bağlı duygusal tükenmişlik: Bir ölçek uyarlama çalışması. Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi 30 (1): 142–149.

Hameli, K. 2024. Foundations of organizational culture: A comprehensive review. Journal of Balkan Economies and Management 1 (1): 53–66.

Hammes, G., De Souza, E. D., Rodriguez, C. M. T., Millan, R. H. R., and Herazo, J. C. M. 2020. Evaluation of the reverse logistics performance in civil construction. Journal of Cleaner Production 248: 119212.

Heinemann, L. V., and Heinemann, T. 2017. Burnout research: Emergence and scientific investigation of a contested diagnosis. Sage Open 7 (1): 1–17.

Hollon, N. G., Burgeno, L. M., and Phillips, P. E. 2015. Stress effects on the neural substrates of motivated behavior. Nature Neuroscience 18 (10): 1405–1412.

House, R. J., and Rizzo, J. R. 1972. Role conflict and ambiguity as critical variables in a model of organizational behavior. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 7 (3): 467–505.

Huang, S. C., Silalahi, A. D. K., Eunike, I. J., and Riantama, D. 2024. Understanding impulse buying in E-commerce: The Big Five traits perspective and moderating effect of time pressure and emotions. Telematics and Informatics Reports 15: 100157.

Iyer, G. R., Blut, M., Xiao, S. H., and Grewal, D. 2020. Impulse buying: A meta-analytic review. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science 48: 384–404.

Jabutay, F. A., and Limpachote, T. 2024. Young adults' perceived social isolation and e-impulse buying on social commerce platforms: Linking roles of perceived stress and hedonic browsing. Young Consumers 25 (6): 807–823.

Jain, A., Dash, S., and Malhotra, N. 2023. Consumption coping to deal with pandemic stress: Impact on subjective well-being and shifts in consumer behavior. European Journal of Marketing 57 (5): 1467–1501.

Jang, M. H., Gu, S. Y., and Jeong, Y. M. 2019. Role of coping styles in the relationship between nurses' work stress and well-being across career. Journal of Nursing Scholarship 51 (6): 699–707.

Jones, M. A., Reynolds, K. E., Weun, S., Beatty, S. E., and Woodside, A. G. 2003. The product-specific nature of impulse buying tendency. Journal of Business Research 56: 505–511.

Kafadar, H., and Yılmaz, S. 2022. Impulsive buying tendecy: The role of cognitive factors, personality traits and affect. Yaşam Becerileri Psikoloji Dergisi 6 (12): 127–142.

Kalaycı, Ş. 2010. SPSS uygulamalı çok değişkenli istatistik teknikleri. Vol. 5, 359. Asil Publishing and Distribution.

Kang, M., and Johnson, K. K. P. 2011. Retail therapy: Scale development. Clothing and Textiles Research Journal 29 (1): 3–19.

Kaschka, W. P., Korczak, D., and Broich, K. 2011. Burnout: A fashionable diagnosis. Deutsches Ärzteblatt International 108 (46): 781.

Kaur, P., and Singh, R. 2007. Uncovering retail shopping motives of Indian youth. Young Consumers 8 (2): 128–138.

Kelly, L. A., Gee, P. M., and Butler, R. J. 2021. Impact of nurse burnout on organizational and position turnover. Nursing Outlook 69 (1): 96–102.

Kelly, M., Soles, R., Garcia, E., and Kundu, I. 2020. Job stress, burnout, work-life balance, well-being, and job satisfaction among pathology residents and fellows. American Journal of Clinical Pathology 153 (4): 449–469.

King, K. A., Vidourek, R., and Schwiebert, M. 2009. Disordered eating and job stress among nurses. Journal of Nursing Management 17 (7): 861–869.

Klein, E. M., Brähler, E., Dreier, M., Reinecke, L., Müller, K. W., Schmutzer, G., Wölfling, K., and Beutel, M. E. 2016. The German version of the Perceived Stress Scale–psychometric characteristics in a representative German community sample. BMC Psychiatry 16 (1): 159.

Koç, H., Şimşir Gökalp, Z., and Seki, T. 2023. The relationships between self-control and distress among emerging adults: A serial mediating roles of fear of missing out and social media addiction. Emerging Adulthood 11 (3): 626–638.

Koob, G. F., and Schulkin, J. 2019. Addiction and stress: An allostatic view. Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews 106: 245–262.

Kong, Y., Zhang, Y., Sun, P., Zhang, J., Lu, Y., Li, J., and Zheng, Y. 2024. Interdisciplinary cooperation with solution-focused brief therapy to reduce job stress, burnout, and coping in Chinese nurses: A randomised controlled trial. Heliyon 10 (22).

Kwon, J., and Ahn, J. 2021. The effects of cruise attributes on impulse buying behavior: The mediating role of impulsive buying tendency. International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences 13 (3): 456–470.

Larsen, A. C., Ulleberg, P., and Rønnestad, M. H. 2017. Depersonalization reconsidered: An empirical analysis of the relation between depersonalization and cynicism in an extended version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Nordic Psychology 69 (3): 160–176.

Lavuri, R., Jaiswal, D., and Thaichon, P. 2023. Extrinsic and intrinsic motives: Panic buying and impulsive buying during a pandemic. International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management 51 (2): 190–204.

Lazarus, R. S., and Folkman, S. 1984. Stress, appraisal, and coping. Springer Publishing Company.

Leone, M. C., Lambert, E. G., Keena, L. D., Hayes, S. H., and May, D. 2024. Examining the effects of key workplace variables on job burnout of southern prison staff. The Prison Journal 104 (2): 173–193.

Lim, H., Park, C., Yook, J., Kim, M., Kim, H., and Hong, Y. 2021. The association between effort-reward imbalance, work-life balance and depressive mood in Korean wage workers: The 4th Korean working conditions survey. Annals of Occupational and Environmental Medicine 33.

Lim, N., Kim, E. K., Kim, H., Yang, E., and Lee, S. M. 2010. Individual and work-related factors influencing burnout of mental health professionals: A meta-analysis. Journal of Employment Counseling 47 (2): 86–96.

Luo, X. 2005. How does shopping with others influence impulsive purchasing? Journal of Consumer Psychology 15 (4): 288–294.

Maharani, S. A. D., and Utami, N. P. 2023. Coping mechanisms of stress: The impact on online purchase impulsivity. JBMS 3 (3): 164–180.

Maslach, C., and Jackson, S. E. 1984. Burnout in organizational settings. Applied Social Psychology Annual 5: 133–153.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., and Leiter, M. P. 2001. Job burnout. Annual Review of Psychology 52: 397–422.

McEwen, B., and Sapolsky, R. 2006. Stress and your health. Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism 91 (2).

Moschis, G. P. 2007. Stress and consumer behavior. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science 35 (3): 430–444.

Nevanperä, N. J., Hopsu, L., Kuosma, E., Ukkola, O., Uitti, J., and Laitinen, J. H. 2012. Occupational burnout, eating behavior, and weight among working women. The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 95 (4): 934–943.

O'Connor, D. B., Thayer, J. F., and Vedhara, K. 2021. Stress and health: A review of psychobiological processes. Annual Review of Psychology 72 (1): 663–688.

Parker, D. F., and DeCotiis, T. A. 1983. Organizational determinants of job stress. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 32 (2): 160–177.

Peggy, N. M., Kevin, K. N. U., Suubi, R., Simeon, A. N., Oluwole, I., Babatunde, A. A., and Kasirye, F. 2020. The establishment of the proportion of stress levels and its association with the demographic factors among individuals that participated in the Taxpayers' Appreciation Week 2018, Kampala, Uganda. Psychology 11 (12): 1854.

Pozas, M., Letzel-Alt, V., and Schwab, S. 2023. The effects of differentiated instruction on teachers' stress and job satisfaction. Teaching and Teacher Education 122: 103962.

Rachlin, H. 1974. Self-control. Behaviorism 2 (1): 94–107.

Randikaparsa, I., Aryoko, Y. P., and Firjatilah, A. K. 2024. Investigating how consumer susceptibility moderates the relationship between job burnout, ego depletion, and compulsive buying among Indonesian migrant workers. Fokus Bisnis Media Pengkajian Manajemen dan Akuntansi 23 (1): 97–112.

Rezaieh, S. A., Ghorbani, N., and Farahani, H. 2023. Mediating role of splitting in relation to attachment styles and shopping addiction. Frontiers in Psychology 14.

Roberts, J. A., and Manolis, C. 2012. Cooking up a recipe for self-control: The three ingredients of self-control and its impact on impulse buying. Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice 20 (2): 173–188.

Rook, D. W. 1987. The buying impulse. Journal of Consumer Research 14 (2): 189–199.

Rook, D. W., and Gardner, M. P. 1993. In the mood: Impulse buyings' affective antecedents. Research in Consumer Behavior 6 (7): 1–28.

Ryan, E., Hore, K., Power, J., and Jackson, T. 2023. The relationship between physician burnout and depression, anxiety, suicidality and substance abuse: A mixed methods systematic review. Frontiers in Public Health 11: 1133484.

Sandi, C., and Haller, J. 2015. Stress and the social brain: Behavioral effects and neurobiological mechanisms. Nature Reviews Neuroscience 16 (5): 290–304.

Schiffman, L., and Kanuk, L. 2010. Consumer behavior. New Delhi: Prentice Hall.

Shaffer, J. D. 1960. The influence of "impulse buying" or in-the-store decisions on consumers' food purchases. Journal of Farm Economics 42 (2): 317–324.

Shams, H. A., Hussain, S., Feroze, T., Saki, S. A., Shams, M. A., Abbasi, K. A., and Munir, S. 2021. Stressors, stress and impulsive buying behavior: Moderating role of emotional intelligence. International Journal of Business and Economic Affairs 6 (3): 164–174. Retrieved from https://ijbea.com/ojs/index.php/ijbea/article/view/219

Sinha, R. 2007. The role of stress in addiction relapse. Current Psychiatry Reports 9 (5): 388–395.

Slavich, G. M. 2016. Life stress and health: A review of conceptual issues and recent findings. Teaching of Psychology 43 (4): 346–355.

Smith, M. D., and Wesselbaum, D. 2025. Global evidence on the prevalence of and risk factors associated with stress. Journal of Affective Disorders 374: 179–183.

Sneath, J. Z., Lacey, R., and Kennett-Hensel, P. A. 2009. Coping with a natural disaster: Losses, emotions, and impulsive and compulsive buying. Marketing Letters 20: 45–60.

Stern, H. 1962. The significance of impulse buying today. Journal of Marketing 26 (2): 59–62.

Szcześniak, M., Falewicz, A., Wnuk, M., Bielecka, G., and Madej, D. 2024. The mediating effect of hope agency on perceived stress and professional burnout among Polish corporate employees. Scientific Reports 14 (1): 1859.

Şenyiğit, G. 2004. Çalışma hayatında stres. Verimlilik Dergisi 3. https://izlik.org/JA89ZW82JN

Tabachnick, B. G., and Fidell, L. S. 2013. Using multivariate statistics. 6th ed. Boston, MA: Pearson.

Tangney, J. P., Boone, A. L., and Baumeister, R. F. 2018. High self-control predicts good adjustment, less pathology, better grades, and interpersonal success. In Self-regulation and Self-control, 173–212. Routledge.

Taris, T. W., Le Blanc, P. M., Schaufeli, W. B., and Schreurs, P. J. 2005. Are there causal relationships between the dimensions of the Maslach Burnout Inventory? A review and two longitudinal tests. Work & Stress 19 (3): 238–255.

Tenorio, B. M. H. 2021. Estrés laboral y trastornos adictivos en empleados en trabajo desde casa: Una aproximación mediante el modelo JD-R. RECAI Revista de Estudios en Contaduría, Administración e Informática: 1–22.

Thomas, T. A., Schmid, A. M., Kessling, A., Wolf, O. T., Brand, M., Steins-Loeber, S., and Müller, A. 2024. Stress and compulsive buying-shopping disorder: A scoping review. Comprehensive Psychiatry 132: 152482.

Urošević, A., Kocić, M., and Dukić, A. 2023. The influence of demographic factors on impulsive consumer behavior. International Journal of Economic Practice and Policy 20 (2): 90–106.

Ürkmez, T., and Wagner, R. 2020. Retail therapy for consumers of accessible luxury: A qualitative study from Poland and Turkey. Journal of Management Review 40 (2): 1–40.

Verplanken, B., and Herabadi, A. 2001. Individual differences in impulse buying tendency: Feeling and no thinking. European Journal of Personality 15: 71–83.

Wang, Y., Lu, H., and Wang, D. 2020. Buy or not: How the presence of others affects the occurrence of consumers' impulsive buying behavior. Journal of Contemporary Marketing Science 3 (2): 207–224.

Wang, Y., Pan, J., Xu, Y., Luo, J., and Wu, Y. 2022. The determinants of impulsive buying behavior in electronic commerce. Sustainability 14 (12): 7500.

Wang, X., and Sim, J. 2025. The relationship between work stress and compensatory tourism consumption: Exploring new directions for individual sustainable tourism. Sustainability 17 (4): 1606.

Wharton, A. S. 1993. The affective consequences of service work: Managing emotions on the job. Work and Occupations 20 (2): 205–232.

WHO. 2019. Burn-out an "occupational phenomenon": International classification of diseases. https://www.who.int/news/item/28-05-2019-burn-out-an-occupational-phenomenon-international-classification-of-diseases2019

Wongsuwan, N., Phanniphong, K., and Na-Nan, K. 2023. How job stress influences organisational commitment: Do positive thinking and job satisfaction matter? Sustainability 15 (4): 3015.

Youn, S., and Faber, R. J. 2000. Impulse buying: Its relation to personality traits and cues. Advances in Consumer Research 27 (1).

Zare, R., Kazemi, R., Choobineh, A., Cousins, R., Smith, A., and Mokarami, H. 2024. Development of a work systems stress questionnaire to predict job burnout: A mixed methods study based on a macroergonomics approach. Heliyon 10 (23).

Zhang, M., and Shi, G. 2022. Consumers' impulsive buying behavior in online shopping based on the influence of social presence. Computational Intelligence and Neuroscience 2022: 6794729.

Zhao, S., Yang, Q., Im, H., Ye, B., Zeng, Y., Chen, Z., and Huang, D. 2022. The impulsive online shopper: Effects of COVID-19 burnout, uncertainty, self-control, and online shopping trust. Future Business Journal 8 (1): 58.