

ISTANBUL BILGI UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE PROGRAMS  
ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAM

JOB STRAIN AMONG WHITE-COLLAR EMPLOYEES AND ITS EFFECT  
ON CONSUMPTION

Elif Beriřler

116632007

Assoc. Prof. İdil Iřık

İSTANBUL

2019

Job Strain Among White-Collar Employees and Its Effect  
on Consumption

Beyaz Yaka Çalışanlarında İş Tükenmişliği ve Bunun  
Tüketime Etkisi

Elif Berişler

116632007

**Tez Danışmanı :** Doç.Dr. İdil Işık  
İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi

(İmza) .....

**Jüri Üyeleri :** Prof. Dr. Yonca Aslanbay  
İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi

(İmza) .....

Prof. Dr. Ela Ünler  
Bahçeşehir Üniversitesi

(İmza) .....

Tezin Onaylandığı Tarih : 10.01.2019

Toplam Sayfa Sayısı: 123

Anahtar Kelimeler (Türkçe)

Anahtar Kelimeler(İngilizce)

1)Kompulsif Tüketim

1) Compulsive Buying

2) İş Tükenmişliği

2) Job Strain

3) BIS-BAS

3) BIS-BAS

4) İş Ortamı

4) Work Environment

5) İş İstek-Kontrol-Destek Modeli  
Model

5) Job Demand-Control-Support

*Perhaps when we find ourselves wanting everything,  
it is because we are dangerously close to wanting nothing.*

-Sylvia Plath

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

*-for my dear mother, I love you.*

I would like to thank my dear family who have supported me throughout this thesis adventure, and especially my grandmother who never stopped giving me the willpower to end this thesis. Thank you for always believing in me.

I'm very grateful for my thesis advisor, Assoc. Prof. İdilışık, for her endless patience with me, for her understanding nature, and for her help throughout the research.

My dearest friend TuğbaAydoğdu, thank you for all your support, both research wise and emotionally. Not even the stars in the sky would have been enough to express my gratitude. We have started this thesis journey together, and thankfully we are coming to an end together.

My dear close friends who have supported me, motivated me, and gave me their love, I will be forever grateful to have you as my friends.

Finally, I would like to thank all the participants who have contributed to this study and make it possible. Without your help and answers, this study would not happen.

## TEŞEKKÜRLER

*-canım anneme, seni seviyorum.*

Tez maceram süresince beni destekleyen canım aileme, özellikle bana tezi bitirebilmem için güç vermeyi asla bırakmayan anneanneme teşekkür ederim. Bana her zaman inandığınız için teşekkürler.

Tez danışmanım Assoc. Prof. İdil Işık'a sonsuz sabrı, anlayışlı mizacı ve araştırma boyunca sağladığı yardım için minnetlerimi sunuyorum.

Canım arkadaşım Tuğba Aydoğdu, araştırmaya olan desteğin ve duygusal desteğin için teşekkür ederim. Gökyüzündeki yıldızlar bile sana olan minnettarlığımı anlatmaya yeterli değil. Bu tez yolculuğuna beraber başladık ve ne mutlu ki sonuna da beraber geliyoruz.

Beni destekleyen, motive eden, sevgilerini veren canım yakın arkadaşlarım, sizin gibi arkadaşlarım olduğu için sonsuza kadar minnettar olacağım.

Son olarak, bu çalışmaya katılan ve bu çalışmanın gerçekleşmesini sağlayan katılımcıların hepsine teşekkür etmek istiyorum. Sizin yardımınız ve cevaplarınız olmasaydı bu çalışma gerçekleşmezdi.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>Title Page</b> .....	i
Acknowledgements .....	iii
Teşekkürler.....	iv
List of Tables.....	viii
List of Figures .....	ix
Abstract .....	x
Özet .....	xi
<b>Chapter 1 - Introduction</b> .....	1
1.1. Consumer Buying Behavior .....	1
1.1. Compulsive Buying Behavior .....	7
1.2. Antecedents of Compulsive Buying Behavior .....	12
1.4. Personal and Social Motives of Buying Strategies and Their Relation to Compulsive Consumption .....	16
1.5. Behavioral Inhibition System and Behavioral Activation System (BIS/BAS) .....	18
1.6. Job Strain .....	20
1.6.1. Organizational Demand and Control .....	22
1.6.2. Organizational Support (Social Support).....	24
1.7. Research Aim .....	26
<b>Chapter 2 - Method</b> .....	28
2.1. Participant.....	28
2.2. Instruments .....	29
2.2.1. Swedish Demand-Control-Support-DCSQ Scale. ....	29

2.2.2.	Compulsive Consumption Scale .....	30
2.2.3.	Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation Scale (BIS-BAS).....	30
2.2.4.	Additional Questions about Consumption Habits of the Participants.....	31
2.3.	Procedure .....	32
2.3.1.	Human Participant Research Ethics Committee Approval .....	32
2.4.	Data Collection.....	32
2.5.	Data Analysis .....	33
<b>Chapter 3 - Results</b>	.....	<b>34</b>
3.1.	Consuming Habits of the Participants .....	34
3.2.	Factor Analysis of Questionnaires .....	37
3.2.1.	Swedish Job Demand-Control-Support-DCSQ Scale.....	37
3.2.2.	Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation Scale (BIS-BAS).....	39
3.2.3.	Compulsive Consumption Scale .....	41
3.3.	Inter-correlations among Variables .....	43
3.4.	Mediation Effect of Organizational Support.....	45
3.5.	Moderation Effect of Organizational Support.....	50
3.6.	Participants That Have Compulsive Buying Tendencies .....	52
<b>Chapter 4 - Discussion</b>	.....	<b>60</b>
4.1.	Contribution of the study.....	71
4.2.	Limitation and Further Studies.....	72
<b>References</b>	.....	<b>74</b>
<b>Appendix</b>	.....	<b>91</b>
	Appendix A: Swedish Job – Demand – Support -DCSQ Scale (Turkish) .....	91

Appendix B: Swedish Job – Demand – Support -DCSQ Scale (English).....	92
Appendix C: Compulsive Buying Scale (Turkish).....	93
Appendix D: Compulsive Buying Scale (English).....	94
Appendix E: BIS/BAS Scale (Turkish).....	95
Appendix F: BIS/BAS Scale (English) .....	97
Appendix G: Result of Evaluation by Ethics Committee.....	99
Appendix H: Screenshots of the Questionnaire given to the Participants.....	100
Appendix I: Informed Consent Form (Turkish).....	109
Appendix J: Informed Consent Form (English) .....	110
Appendix K: Demographic Information Form (Turkish).....	110
Appendix L: Demographic Information Form (English) .....	111



## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1. Kotler and Armstrong (2006)'s model of decision making process .....	5
Table 1.2. Table of Carver and Weintraub's Coping Mechanisms .....	14
Table 3.1: Descriptives of Consumption Habits Related Questions .....	35
Table 3.2.: Descriptives of Payment Method Preferences and Product Purchasing Preferences .....	36
Table 3.3.: Table of Factor Analysis of Swedish Job-Demand-Control-Support-DCSQ Scale .....	38
Table 3.4.: Table of Factor Analysis of Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation Scale (BIS - BAS) .....	40
Table 3.5.: Table of Factor Analysis of Compulsive Consumption Scale .....	42
Table 3.6. Table of Correlation Analysis .....	44
Table 3.7.: Regression analysis results for the mediating effect:.....	48
Table 3.8.: Model Summary of The Moderation Effect of Organizational Support in The Relationship of Reward Seeking and Impulsive Buying .....	51
Table 3.9.: Frequencies, means, and standard deviations of the first four of the extra questions for participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies.....	55
Table 3.10. Descriptives of payment method preferences and product purchasing preferences of participants with higher tendencies of compulsive buying .....	56
Table 3.11.: T-test results of participants' consuming tendencies .....	58

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1.: Decision Latitude and Psychological Demand's Relation with Job Strain .....	24
Figure 1.2.: Research Model .....	27
Figure 3.1.: Moderation Analysis Structure .....	50
Figure 3.2.: The Moderation Effect of Organizational Support in The Relationship between Reward Seeking and Consumption.....	52
Figure 3.3. Final Structure of Research Results.....	59

## ABSTRACT

This study is an exploratory research done to investigate the relation between compulsive consumption, job strain, and drives that push people to do something. The aim of this study is to open a door to investigation of these topics and to examine the relationship between consumption, job strain, and Behavioral Inhibition System / Behavioral Activation System (BIS/BAS) drives.

With the use of Behavioral Inhibition / Activation System (BIS-BAS) scale, Compulsive Consumption scale, and Job Demand-Control-Support scale, it is examined if the shopping is an act to reward individuals when they do well at work and relax themselves from their negative mood caused by work. Moreover, with the use of Job Demand – Control – Support Scale and Compulsive Consumption Scale whether having a good work environment helps to diminish the chances of having job strain and developing compulsive consumption habits of employees was investigated. A total of 175 participants in the areas of communication, computer sciences, textile, etc. have participated in the study. As to the best of knowledge of researcher, compulsive consumption and its relation to job strain has never been examined in Turkey before, this research is designed to open the way for further investigation in the subject.

It was found in this study that job strain has no significant relation with job strain and compulsive consumption. However, positive and significant relation between compulsive consumption and BIS/BAS have been identified. Moreover, a moderator role of organizational support in the relation of reward seeking and consumption have been identified. Furthermore, mediating role of BIS in the relationship between reward seeking and buying impulse has been identified, as well as the mediating role of reward seeking in the relationship of fun seeking and buying impulse.

*Keywords:* compulsive buying, job strain, BIS-BAS, work environment, Job Demand-Control-Support model.

## ÖZET

Bu çalışma tüketimin, iş tükenmişliğinin ve insanların harekete geçmesini sağlayan güdüler arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmak amacıyla yapılmış bir inceleme araştırmadır. Bu çalışmanın amacı incelenen konular hakkındaki ileri araştırmalara kapı açmak, tüketimin, iş tükenmişliğinin ve BIS/BAS güdülerinin arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir.

BIS/BAS ölçeğinin, Kompulsif Tüketim ölçeğinin ve İş Talep-Kontrol-Destek ölçeğinin kullanımıyla çalışanların işlerini iyi yaptıktan sonra kendilerini alışverişle ödüllendirip ödüllendirmediği ve iş yüzünden oluşan olumsuz ruh hallerinden kurtulmak ve rahatlamak için alışveriş yapıp yapmadıkları incelenmiştir. İş Talep-Kontrol-Destek ölçeği ve Kompulsif Tüketim ölçeğinden faydalanılarak iş yerindeki ortam iyi olursa, bunun çalışanların iş tükenmişliğini ve kompulsif tüketim alışkanlıklarına sahip olma ihtimallerini azaltıp azaltmadığı araştırılmıştır. İletişim, bilgisayar bilimleri, tekstil ve bunun gibi sektörlerden toplam 175 katılımcı bu çalışmaya katılmıştır. Değişkenlerin ölçülmesi amacıyla, Kompulsif Tüketim ölçeği, BIS/BAS ölçeği ve İş İstek-Kontrol-Destek ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Araştırmacının bildiği ve araştırdığı kadarıyla, kompulsif tüketim ve onun iş tükenmişliğine olan etkisi daha önce Türkiye’de araştırılmadığından dolayı, bu araştırmanın ileride aynı konuda yapılacak araştırmalara yol açması umulmaktadır.

Çalışmada kompulsif tüketim ve iş tükenmişliği arasında ilişki bulunamamıştır. Fakat, BIS/BAS güdeleri ve kompulsif tüketim arasında anlamlı ve pozitif ilişki bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, örgütsel desteğin ödül arama ve kompulsif tüketim arasında moderatör etkisi bulunduğu görülmüştür. Buna ek olarak, BIS in ödül arama ve kompulsif tüketim arasındaki ilişkide ve eğlence arayışının ödül arayışı ve kompulsif tüketim arasında mediator olduğu görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: kompulsif tüketim, iş tükenmişliği, BIS-BAS, iş ortamı, İş İstek-Kontrol-Destek modeli

## INTRODUCTION

When thinking about shopping, most people perceive it as buying products and nothing more than that. However, nowadays, shopping has become a source to reward one's self and it is seen as an entertaining activity to do in their free time (Maraz, Griffiths, & Demetravios, 2015). As a result, more people started to use shopping as a way of relaxing. However, if shopping becomes a habit, it can lead to Compulsive Buying Behavior, which is known to be a psychological disorder (Black, Shaw, McCormick, Bayless, & Allen, 2012). There are researches on consumer behavior and job strain separately, however combining them in the same research has not been done thoroughly. Consumer motivation gets influenced in many aspects, and as people work to earn money, their job environment holds an important place. Work has been seen as a distinct part of everyone's life, separated from their social everyday life. However, people spend the most of their time at work, thus forming social relationships with their co-workers and experiencing emotional outcomes related to their experiences at work. It is possible to evaluate that the work related emotional states influence consumers' decision process associated with their overall job satisfaction. The motive of this research is to find whether or not there is a relation between job strain and consumption behavior, as well as exploring the behavioral activation / behavioral inhibition systems of the employees' and its relation to compulsive buying behavior.

### **1.1. Consumer Buying Behavior**

Consumer buying behavior has been defined as the process of choosing, purchasing, using, and disposing of products or services to satisfy the needs and wants of an individual or a group (Solomon et al., 1995). As Stallworth (2008) stated, the use of goods and services lead up to the satisfaction of emotional and

mental needs and provides behavioral responses. Therefore, understanding consumer behavior is an important and positive contribution to economy (Egan, 2007). As individuals have different wants, needs, and desires, they also have different buying behaviors (Attiq, 2013). Decision processes made during shopping are influenced by internal and external factors (Attiq, 2013). There are four factors that influence a consumer's buying behavior; which are cultural, social, personal, and psychological factors (Singh, Dhayal, & Shamim, 2014). Buying patterns are formed with these aspects (Attiq, 2013). Cultural factors are relevant to consumers' values which affect their decision processes (Singh, et al., 2014). According to this factor, the social class and culture the consumer belongs in, effects the decision-making process of buying. Second factor is personal factors, which include the overall demographics of the consumer which can affect their buying behavior (Singh et al., 2014). For example, the consumer's age, occupation, and life style can influence their decision-making process. The third factor that influences buying behavior is social factors (Singh et al., 2014). Social factors include groups and roles that can influence the purchase decision directly or indirectly. Lastly, the psychological factors including motivations, perceptions, attitudes and beliefs influence the purchasing behavior as well (Singh et al., 2014). All of these factors altogether develop brand and product references for consumers (Singh, et al., 2014).

Honey (1964) depicts two kinds of consumption style as conspicuous consumption and sustainable consumption. Conspicuous consumption has first been referred to by Thornstein Veblen in 1899, as a term to describe the competitive consumption practices and leisure activities a consumer does to gain a membership in superior social class. Conspicuous consumption is the use of bought items to show one's wealth and it includes two dimensions which are social visibility and uniqueness of services, experiences, and products (Roy Chaduri, Mazumdar, & Ghoshal, 2011). Uniqueness of a bought products is considered as means for becoming differentiated from others (Nguyen, Ngamsiriudom, Pelton & Dubinsky, 2015). It is proposed that, people who tend to make conspicuous consumption identify themselves with the products they

purchase, in a way the products get them status and prestige (Bagwell & Bernheim, 1996). On the other hand, which is the consumption of sustainable goods, is related to the purchase of items that respond to basic needs with the use of minimal natural resources. Sustainable consumption incorporates simplifiers and global impact consumers (Cherrier, 2009); avoiding unnecessary consumption (Cherrier, 2009) and consequently having the purpose of helping humanity (Nguyen et al., 2015).

When it comes to decision making process during purchasing, consumers go through five stages which are; need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, buying decision, and post purchase behavior (Singh et al., 2014). The mental orientation of the consumer characterizes the approach to decision making process of purchasing (Sproles, 1983). In 1986, Sproles and Kendall has developed an inventory which consists of eight decision making styles, named consumer style inventory (CSI). The eight decision making styles are; brand-conscious, quality conscious (perfectionist), price-conscious, recreation-conscious (hedonistic), impulsive, confused, habitual (brand loyal), and novelty- fashion conscious. Consumers who tend to buy well-known brands for expensive prices have brand-conscious consumer style. Quality conscious consumers tend to investigate a lot, and they tend to compare quality and value before making purchasing decisions. Price-conscious consumption style is the used consumer style when the consumer tends to compare price and value before making the purchasing decision. Consumers who have this style tend to seek out sales and discounts. Consumers who have recreation-conscious (hedonistic) consumption style lean to see shopping as a form of enjoyment. Consumers who have impulsive consumption style are characterized to be careless, and they go towards making the purchasing decision without making a cognitive or emotional connection with the object they are purchasing. Confused consumer style is characterized by the confusion occurred by the consumer when making a purchasing decision because of the too-many choices, therefore consumers who have this consumption style tend to experience information overload. Consumers who have habitual-brand loyal consumption style have favorite brands and shops

and they gravitate towards making similar purchases from similar stores, and they don't evaluate products much before they buy it. Lastly, consumers who seek out new products for excitement have novelty-fashion conscious consumer style. Consumer decision styles are important to make marketing segmentation as consumers favor staying stable in regards of their consumption styles. (Mishra, 2015).

Kotler and Armstrong (2006) have presented a model of consumer decision making process, with three components; (a) marketing and other stimuli, (b) the buyer's black box, and (c) the buyer responses. These can be described as follows;

**(a)** Marketing mix consists of product, price, place, and promotion which is also called 4P (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006). Product aspect of marketing consists of the features, appearance, attributes, and packaging of the purchased product. Price aspect involves value and cost of the purchased product. Place aspect is the location, convenience, and accessibility of the purchased product. Lastly, promotion aspect is the advertisings, publicity, and other promotional activities done to promote the product.

**(b)**The buyer's black box includes buyer's characteristics and buyer's decision process within it. Buyer's characteristics include cultural, social, personal and psychological state of the consumer. Personal state of the consumer includes the age, occupation, lifestyle, personality, and the occupation of the consumer. Psychological state involves the consumer's motivation to purchase a certain product, perception of the product, learning pattern of the consumer, and beliefs of the consumer. Cultural state includes the social class the consumer lives in, the culture they live in and the sub-culture they share the same values with. Social state includes family of the consumer, friends, peers, groups of the consumer, role and status of the consumer and reference groups the consumer takes notes to. Buyer's decision process includes problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post purchase behavior. Problem recognition is the first stage of decision process where consumer recognizes a need to fulfill. This need can be triggered by an internal or external stimulus



(Kotler & Armstrong, 2006). Second stage is the information search stage, in which the consumer seeks for information about the product that they feel the need to purchase. The third stage of the decision process is evaluation of alternatives in which the consumer evaluates different alternatives of the needed product. Purchasing decision is the fourth stage of the decision-making process which includes the decision to what to buy, where to buy, how much to buy, when and how to buy, and whom to buy from (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006). The fifth and final stage of decision process is the post purchase behavior in which the consumer evaluates the purchased product. This feedback can affect their future purchase decisions (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006).

(c) Buyer responses include the choices made by the consumer about the product, brand, timing, amount and dealer of the product.

**Table 1.1. Kotler and Armstrong (2006)'s model of decision making process**

Stimuli - External Factors	Black Box (Buyer's Mind) Internal Factors	Responses
Marketing Mix	Consumer Characteristics	Purchase
Product	Beliefs / Attitudes	Product
Price	Values	Brand
Place	Knowledge	Source
Promotion	Motives	Amount
	Perceptions	Method of Payment
	Lifestyle	
Environmental	Decision-Making Process	
Economic	Problem solving	
Technological	Information search	
Political	Alternate evaluation	No Purchase
Cultural	Purchase	
Demographic	Post purchase	
Situational	Evaluation	

Additionally, consumers' perceived risk of purchasing affects their purchasing decision. Dowling and Staelin (1994) has defined the perceived risk as the perceptions of consequences of the purchasing activity and the uncertainty in purchasing activity. Perceived risks involve; financial risk, performance risk, social risk, psychological risk, and physical risk (Ross, 1975). Financial risk is the potential of experiencing critical financial loss due to a purchasing decision, which is one of the many consequences of compulsive buying behavior. Performance risk is referred to as the perceived risk of purchased product or service not performing as supposed to. Social risk is the risk of losing social status as a result of poor purchasing decisions, moreover, compulsive consumers are likely to be criticized by the society because of their purchasing decisions. Purchasing decision resulting with a loss of self-esteem, which compulsive consumers can feel by reason of their compulsive buying behavior, is called psychological risk. Finally, the potential harm that can be experienced with the decision of purchasing is termed as physical risk. If the consumer feels that they can experience consequences after making the purchasing decision which can be the occurrence of these risk, they can forgo the purchasing of the product in order to avoid the risk (Büttner, Schulz, & Silberer, 2006).

According to buying process phenomena, the choices taken during shopping are determined consciously by information processing, task-related inputs, and perceived preferences (Bettman, Luce, & Payne, 1998). However, it was seen that the buying of some products involved conscious thinking while some involved the unconscious (Attiq, 2013). Purchases made by compulsive consumers are often driven by mood, desire, and emotions (Etzioni, 1986). Psychological desires such as improving self-esteem, overcoming negative feelings, expressing individual identities, or just having fun are the main motivators for compulsive consumers instead of just buying products that they need (Attiq, 2013). Moreover, buying act is the primary motivation for those who are driven to shopping by mood, desire, and emotions, rather than the consumption of the product which has been bought during shopping (Tauber, 1972).

Hausman (2000) has stated that human urges are defined in two sub-categories, which are human primary urges and secondary urges. According to Hausman (2000), primary urges are essential physiological urges, and secondary urges are formed within time with the influence of social environment and social pressures. Developing addictions are also common in secondary urges (Attiq, 2013). People tend to adopt addictions whether it is eating, drinking, smoking, or shopping. Impulsive and compulsive buying are also reflected as addictions; therefore, they can be considered as secondary urges (Attiq, 2013).

### **1.1. Compulsive Buying Behavior**

Faber and O'Guinn (1992) and Ridgway (2008), defined Compulsive Buying Behavior as the repetitive, uncontrollable impulse to buy as a primary response to negative feelings. Compulsive buying was first mentioned back in early 1900s by Kraepelin and Dleuler, who referred to compulsive buying as oniomania (Mueller, Mitchell, Black, Crosby, Berg, & de Zwaan, 2010; Harvanko et al., 2013). It is characterized by uncontrollable, repetitive, excessive, and time-consuming shopping which is a response to negative mood states and situations (Faber & O'Guinn, 1992; McElroy, Keck, Pope, Smith, & Stakowski, 1994; Ergin, 2010). Compulsive buying is separated from functional buying by its disruptive nature, denial of negative consequences, items bought on a whim and not for their intrinsic value, being an attempt to regulate negative emotional moods, and a consistent urge or drive to buy (Faber et al., 1987; Krueger, 1988; O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Valence et al., 1988). The primary motivation for compulsive buyers is not the possession of purchased items but the psychological contributions achieved from the buying process (Faber & O'Guinn, 1989). It is a tendency which includes constant and uncontrollable drives to shop despite having negative results, which involve excessive consumption of time and financial difficulties (Müller, Claes, Georgiadov, Möllenkamp, Voth, Faber, & de Zwaan, 2014).

For most people, shopping has a therapeutic effect and it is considered to be good for self-development and self-esteem. However, unrestrained and repetitive purchasing behavior can lead to controversial results which can become unhealthy for the person who is engaging in this act (Lo & Harvey, 2012). Excessive and repetitive shopping can be seen as an addiction, in fact, it is a compulsion (Clark & Calleja, 2008). Compared to non-compulsive buyers, compulsive buyers can also buy items that are not for their basic needs (Mueller et al., 2011). A study done by Christenson et al. (1994) found that compulsive buyers experience stress that drives them to shop and attain positive feelings while shopping. However, negative feelings tend to replace these positive feelings after shopping (Christenson et al., 1994).

Impulse control disorder (ICD) and obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) are incorporated in compulsive buying behavior (Rigdway, Kukar-Kinney, & Monroe, 2008). In a study done by McElroy et al. (1994), it was reported that 80% of compulsive buyers possess high levels of obsessive-compulsive disorders (OCD), and 40% have impulse control disorders (ICD). Compulsive buyers make purchases repetitively and excessively which results with purchasing act becoming time consuming. Recurrent and intrusive thoughts of purchasing are experienced with compulsive buyers with compulsivity traits, which can only be reduced with excessive buying (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). Obsessive thoughts about buying and compulsive nature of compulsive buying behavior are also featured as obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) characteristics. On the other hand, compulsive buyers can't control their impulses to buy in order to escape their negative feelings, which resembles the characteristics of Impulse control disorder (ICD). They also have uncontrollable need and urge to purchase and a mounting tension that can only be relieved by buying (Christenson et al., 1994).

Compulsive buying behavior can be affected or triggered by external and internal factors (Attiq, 2013). External factors are social, environmental, situational stimuli that lead individuals to excessive buying whereas internal factors are individual's psychological states, such as personality traits, motives,

etc. (Attiq, 2013). The difference between impulsive buying and compulsive buying is that impulsive buying is affected by external factors while compulsive buying is affected by internal factors. Impulsive buying is a strong, sudden, and persistent urge to buy something immediately (Rook, 1987) which is stimulated by an external factor like a product on the shelf (Desarbo & Edwards, 1996), while compulsive buying is the craving to buy something (Lee, Lee, & Park, 2012), which is stimulated by internal factors like anxiety to buy something to escape negative emotional mood (Desarbo & Edwards, 1996).

According to “time-inconsistent preferences” theory, compulsive buying behavior is a conscious act caused by strong urges / desires and self-control failure (Attiq, 2013). Faber and Vohs (2004) and Baumeister (1990), have stated that compulsive shopping may be related to escapism. Compulsive shopping is a way to mask or escape their lives and self-awareness for compulsive buyers (Baumeister, 1990; Faber & Vohs, 2004). Moreover, in a research done by Andrew Richard Wilczak (2006), main motivating causes of compulsive shopping have been found to be the feeling of emptiness and a need for personal freedom. Black, Repertinger, Gaffney, and Gabel (1997) stated that compulsive shopping was also be related to depression. It has been seen that compulsive buyers are likely to feel negative psychological states such as anxiety, depression, lower self-esteem, and stress (Black, Shaw, McCormick, Bayless, & Allen, 2012). Also, individuals with depressive mood, low self-esteem, and anxiety have also been seen to relieve themselves from their internal distress with compulsive consumption (Lejoyeux, Ades, Tassain, & Solomon, 1996). As a result, it can be said that individuals who are experiencing these negative emotional and psychological states are likely to use compulsive buying as a coping strategy (Rigdway et al., 2008).

Social influence is also a motive for the compulsive buying behavior (Attiq, 2013). Social values and norms form individual’s perception about proper and improper behavior, and it has the potential to influence and regulate the individual’s behavior (Attiq, 2013). Socio-cultural environment and society is one

of the causes of compulsive buying behavior (Attiq, 2013; Damon, 1988; Faber, 1992; Magee, 1994). Social environment can influence purchase decisions and buying behavior as the society has information sources that can influence an individual's perception, such as peers, family, and reference groups (Attiq, 2013). Compulsive buying behavior can also be the outcome of an abnormal socialization process (Attiq, 2013; Faber & O'Guinn, 1988; Fabien & Jolicoeur, 1993).

Compulsive buying act is a result of psychological factors along with socio-cultural factors (Moon & Attiq, 2018). Compulsive buying behavior has common characteristics with addictive disorders, as compulsive buying behavior is defined as a craving to purchase specific things, however, it has not been listed as an addiction (Black et al., 2012). Compulsive buying behavior has been considered as a compulsive behavior similar to gambling, sexual, or internet addictions, which are called behavioral or process addictions (Zhang, Brook, Leukefeld, De La Rosa, & Brook, 2017). Large shopping malls and various choices of shops has resulted in the increase of hedonic shopping, therefore increasing the chance of Compulsive Buying Behavior (Horvarth & Adigüzel, 2018; Maraz, Griffiths, & Demetrios, 2016; Moon & Attiq, 2018).

Compulsive buying behavior is influenced by psychological constructs such as hedonic motives, purchase decision involvement, materialistic attitude, and impulsive buying intention (Attiq, 2013). Hedonic motive is an emotion drive that regulate buying behavior by having strong desires (Childers, Carr, Peck, & Carson, 2002). Hedonic motives influence impulsive buying behavior (Hausman, 2000). Purchase decision involvement is referred to when the decision of purchase is viewed as an engaging and meaningful activity, and it holds a considerable part of the consumer's life (Attiq, 2013). Purchase decision involvement and compulsive buying behavior has positive relation between them (Yurchisin & Johnson, 2009). Consumers who have materialistic attitude view buying as an important life task which brings satisfaction and happiness (Attiq, 2013). Materialism is the consideration that money and material goods are the most

important aspect of personal happiness and social progress (Ward & Wackman, 1971), therefore individuals who have materialistic attitude also view shopping as a way to gain happiness and social progress. Impulsive buying intention is the final factor of consumer's psychology, and it refers to subsequent purchases done for the act of shopping and not for the object that is bought (Attiq, 2013; Bagozzi, 1983; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Compulsive buying behavior can lead to psychological, social, and financial consequences (Black et al., 2012). Compulsive consumers tend to shop in order to suppress unpleasant emotions such as lack of control, lack of self-esteem, and emotional void. However, the decrease of these negative emotions is not permanent, as it leads to increase in guilt and anxiety (Donnelly, Ksendzova, Howell, & Vohs, 2016). Psychological consequences include depression, anxiety, etc., while social consequences include criticism, family arguments, legal problems, etc., and lastly financial problems include inability to meet payments and debts. As said, compulsive buying behavior may be a coping strategy formed by the habit of shopping, and compulsive buyers can shop as a response to negative feelings, however, the results of compulsive buying behavior shows that this coping strategy is not positive. Individuals with compulsive buying behavior require treatment and assistance, which includes apprehension of triggers and cues to adjust their decision-making process while shopping to overcome their disorder (Ergin, 2010). Cognitive behavioral therapy is suggested to be an effective treatment method for individuals who are compulsive buyers (Frost & Hartl, 1996), likewise, it was reported that compulsive buyers' behaviors improved with cognitive behavioral therapy (Mitchell et al., 2006).

## **1.2. Antecedents of Compulsive Buying Behavior**

Drives guide us to act in certain ways. People have general drives such as activity drives, visceral drives, aesthetic drives, and emotion drives, and they are social beings. Being social drive people to make decisions, including purchasing decisions (Britt, 1950). General drives individuals have influence their purchasing behavior and decisions. The Maslow's hierarchy of needs which has five levels of needs, is used in many areas to understand motivation. Buying motives are not all predicated on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, however it is one of the most important theories of need. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, people have five main needs which are; physiological needs, safety needs, belonging needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. All these needs follow an order, which means the individual must have physiological needs satisfied beforehand for other needs to be given attention. Individuals who have low self-esteem use compulsive consumption to deal with their esteem needs (Lejoyeux, Ades, Tassain, & Solomon, 1996). By buying and consuming certain products, people can satisfy their esteem needs and self-actualization needs. The purchasing decision is made in accordance with the needs and motives of the consumer. The connecting spot between the chosen brand and the motive to purchase is consumer's brand preference (Rossiter & Percy, 1991).

Purchase Motivations and Emotions theory (Rossiter & Percy, 1991) focuses on negative and positive motives and emotions a consumer has when making the purchasing decision. According to Rossiter and Percy (1991), positive motives include; intellectual stimulation, sensory gratification, and social approval / conformity. On the other hand, negative motives include; problem removal, incomplete motivation, mixed approach avoidance, problem avoidance, and normal depletion. These motives are triggered by emotions. In aspect of positive motives, consumers are almost always feel neutral before the shopping action. For example; the consumer feels dull or neutral before buying a certain product, and after buying it, they feel sensory anticipation because of the purchase, which is



sensory gratification positive motive. If the consumer feels bored or neutral before buying a certain product, and after buying the product they feel excited, it is described as intellectual stimulation positive motive. Additionally, if the consumer feels apprehensive or ashamed, they can shop to feel flattered or proud, and this positive motive is called social approval / conformity positive motive. In case of negative motives; the consumer is annoyed; therefore, they shop in order to find relief. This is the problem removal negative motive. If the consumer fears something, they shop to relax, and this is termed as problem avoidance negative motive. The consumer who has conflicts in their day to day life, can shop in order to find peace-of-mind, and it is termed as mixed approach avoidance negative motive. Grated that they are disappointed of certain everyday events, they can shop to find optimism in themselves, and this action is defined as incomplete satisfaction negative motive. Finally, if an individual has mild annoyance at something, they can shop for convenience, which is called normal depletion negative motive. Compulsive buyers usually have negative motives when they are making a purchasing decision. They believe that with shopping, they can escape from their negative emotional moods and everyday problems.

Clarke and Belk (1979) has stated if the consumer is motivated to engage in purchasing behavior and search for information about the product, it is called consumer involvement, and it is separated in two which are low involvement and high involvement. If the consumer has a low risk of suffering a psycho-social loss, which means the risk of getting affected psychologically and socially being low, it is called low involvement. In case the individual who has low involvement with the purchasing behavior does a poor purchasing decision, the consequence of that action which is psycho-social loss, would be small. However, if having a psycho-social loss is high, it is called high involvement. Making a bad choice of purchasing with high involvement may result with a high psycho-social loss (Percy & Rossiter, 1992). Individuals who have compulsive buying behavior are likely to have high involvement and therefore it is highly likely for these individuals to experience high psycho-social loss.

### 1.3. Shopping as a Coping Strategy

Coping is how people respond and interact with a problem (Zamble&Gekoski, 1994). In our day to day life, we encounter with various problems, from small problems such as forgetting a car key at home, to large problems such as having a family member pass away. The way we deal with these situations can make these problems easier to surmount or result in various undesirable consequences (Baqutayan, 2015). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) have introduced a theory of psychological stress and coping development, and this theory have been expanded by Carver (1989). In this theory, coping has been identified as the mediator of stressful person-environment relations and long-range outcomes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Carver, 1989). It has been defined that stress is a negative emotional and physiological state, therefore coping methods are used to reduce, tolerate, and master these negative emotional and physiological states (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980).

**Table 1.2. Table of Carver and Weintraub's Coping Mechanisms**

Coping Mechanisms (Carver and Weintraub (1989))		
Problem-focused Coping	Emotion-focused Coping	Dysfunctional Coping
Suppression of Competing Activities	Seeking Social Support for Emotional Reasons	Focus On and Venting for Emotions
Seeking Social Support for Instrumental Reasons	Positive Reinforcement and Growth	Behavioral Disengagement
Planning	Acceptance	Mental Disengagement
Restraint Coping	Turning to Religion	Alcohol-Drug Use
Active Coping	Humor	Denial

According to Lazarus (1987), coping strategies are distinguished as problem-focused strategies, and emotion-focused strategies. Problem focused coping is considered to be a rational approach, and the problem at hand is handled with either by changing how the person interacts with the environment or changing something in the environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). Emotion-focused coping is used to manage all sorts of emotional distress caused by various factors. Including psychological problems such as anxiety, stress, depression, etc. Problem focused coping includes; confrontative coping, seeking social support, and planful problem-solving, whereas emotion focused coping includes; self-control, seeking social support, positive appraisal, distancing, escape / avoidance, and accepting responsibility.

Carver and Weintraub (1989), introduced dysfunctional coping, which includes; focus on and venting for emotions, behavioral disengagement, mental disengagement, denial, and alcohol-drug use. Alcohol-drug use is considered to be a habit, and a compulsive behavior. With this perspective, many researchers have included compulsive buying behavior as belonging into the same category as alcohol-drug use, therefore labeling compulsive consumption as a dysfunctional coping method as both are compulsive behaviors that can result in catastrophes in the long run. Compulsive buying behavior has been described as an addiction because of being triggered by psychological strain which leads to relief and frustration (Valence et al. 1988). Moreover, being performed repeatedly even though having a disruptive nature which leads to negative consequences also establishes compulsive buying behavior as an addiction (Krych, 1989). Addictive compulsive buying is a result of negative emotional moods and it is a behavior to fill an emotional void (Ergin, 2010).

As mentioned, compulsive buying behavior is a coping method as a response to negative feelings. Compulsive buyers possess a more negative self-image and a lower self-esteem compared to other shoppers (Dittmar & Drury, 2000; Faber & O'Guinn, 1992), leading them to purchase products that satisfy their need of self-expression (Ridgway et al., 2008). Moreover, compulsive buyers

frequently experience negative emotional moods and feelings (Faber & O'Guinn, 1992), buying becomes a coping mechanism and the process of buying makes compulsive buyers happy (Aboujaoude et al., 2003). Therefore, compulsive buying behavior works as a coping mechanism to enhance the buyer's self-esteem and improve the buyer's negative mood states and emotions.

#### **1.4. Personal and Social Motives of Buying Strategies and Their Relation to Compulsive Consumption**

Tauber (1972) mentions eleven personal motives and social motives of buying strategies. Diversion, role playing, learning about new trends, self-gratification, sensory stimulation and physical stimulation are mainly the personal motives. On the other hand, social experiences outside the home, communication with others having similar interests, peer-group attraction, status and authority, and pleasure of bargaining are the social motives of buying strategies. According to Tauber (1972), diversion buying represents a form of relaxation time, an escape from the daily routine. A housewife is seen to be to have the role of food shopping, and this is called role playing. Being trend conscious and keeping up with the latest trends is the learning about new trends motive. When an individual feels bored or lonely, they can go for shopping to satisfy their need for social contact, and this is called the self-gratification motive. Imagine a shop decorated for Christmas to attract customers. Sensory stimulation motive pushes consumers to explore that store. The last personal motive is the physical activity motive, where the individual is motivated by the thought of exercise shopping can provide to them.

As mentioned before, Tauber (1972) also categorized five social motives for buying which are; social experiences outside the home, communication with others having similar interests, peer-group attraction, status and authority, and pleasure of bargaining. Social experiences outside the home motive indicate the people-watching and socializing with friends during shopping. For people who

have similar hobby-related interests, stores that are related to those interests can be the interaction point. This social motive is called communication with others having similar interests. If an individual wants to belong in a group and that group frequents a certain type of store (record stores etc.) peer-group attraction motive is the social motive for that individual. Status and authority motive is the social motive people with the expectation of attention and respect have. Last of all, pleasure of bargaining motive is the social motive for people who enjoy bargaining in order to get price reduced from the products they are going to buy.

Impulse buying has been seen as a similar action to diversion buying which is one of the buying strategies (Stern, 1962). Tauber (1972) has defined impulse buying to have four distinct subcategories; pure impulse buying, suggestion impulse buying, planned impulse buying, and reminder impulse buying. Impulse buying has been seen as a way to reduce stress, however diversion buying is seen as aiming more at the release of stress (Hama, 2001). Hama (2001) found that, 49.2% of the participants in a study done with 182 participants, have responded that they went shopping because they were feeling stressed. Among these, 67.4% went shopping to buy what they wanted, and 30.3% has stated that they went shopping to buy expensive things. As a result of shopping, emotions like refreshment and enjoyment have been felt by participants therefore resulting in the release of stress (Hama, 2001). This has shown that shopping in order to relieve stress (diverse shopping), is not the same as impulsive shopping because 60.4% of the participants of the study have stated that “The feeling of satisfaction doesn’t change.”, therefore differentiating it from impulse shopping which people feel regret after buying a certain product impulsively.

### **1.5. Behavioral Inhibition System and Behavioral Activation System (BIS/BAS)**

Individuals who engage in compulsive consumption are either doing it to reward themselves (De Sarbo & Edwards, 1996; Mueller, Mitchell, Black, Crosby, Berg, & de Zwaan, 2010; Yi, 2013) or to deal with negative emotions and negative mood states (Miltenberger, Redlin, Crosby, Stickney, Mitchell, Wonderlich, & Smyth 2003; Müller, Mitchell, Crosby, Cao, Claes, & de Zwaan, 2012). The two neurobiological systems which are the behavioral inhibition system (BIS) and the behavioral activation system (BAS) are relevant to these separation between compulsive consumption attitudes (Gray, 1987). Whereas the BIS scale is unidimensional, the BAS scale has three factors which assesses behavioral responses to reward, fun-seeking, and drive.

Gray (1982) has suggested that behavioral activation system (BAS) is a neurological system which motivates behaviors in the possibility of a reward. Carver and White (1994) didn't simply highlight reward seeking, but also fun seeking and drive. Behavioral activation has been associated with impulsivity (Gray, 1994; Smillie, Jackson & Dalgleish, 2006), novelty seeking (Cloninger, 1987), and extraversion (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). All the aspects have different motives of approach. People who are high in fun seeking tend to get motivated to try new experiences, and in this way, it is similar to impulsivity (Baumann et al., 2014). Being high on the aspect of reward responsiveness leads individuals to get motivated by rewards. The third aspect which is drive is seen to be similar to perseverance in the way that once a person high on the aspect of drive sets a goal for themselves, they pursue it tenaciously (Baumann et al., 2014). The BAS scales have been found to have strong relation with extraversion, processing of pleasant information, and positive affect (Campbell-Sills, Liverant, & Brown, 2004; Gomez & Gomez, 2002; Jorm et al., 1999). Not all behavioral activation concepts are relevant to impulsivity, as by nature, impulsivity does not consider results and benefits before taking a certain action. Reward seeking aspect

involves consideration of the result product of an action, which is the reward itself. Drive aspect also involves consideration of an act before it is taken. Therefore, it can be said that only fun seeking is relevant to impulsivity as their natures are similar. Moreover, a research done before by Abbasi, Sadeghi, Pirani, and Vatandoust (2016) has shown that behavioral activation systems and addictive behaviors such as television addiction, cigarette addiction, mobile addiction, etc. has a positive and significant relationship between them. As compulsive buying behavior is also considered to be an addiction, it can be expected that behavioral activation to also have a positive and significant relationship with compulsive buying behavior.

On the other hand, Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS), is the state of escaping from negative consequences and punishments (Carver & White, 1994). Behavioral inhibition system gets activated by negative stimuli or events (Gable, Reis, & Elliot, 2000). Being high on the BIS aspect is found to be related to negative affect, neuroticism, anxiety, social anxiety, and vigilance (Fowles, 1988; Gray, 1994; Kaiser & Ross, 2011). Behavioral inhibition system (BIS) activates reactions of withdrawal and avoidance in case of anxiety-related signals, which can be non-reward, novelty, and punishment (Fowles, 1980; Gray, 1982). Also, the BIS scale is highly correlated with negative affect, processing of unpleasant information, and neuroticism (Campbell-Sills et al., 2004; Gomez & Gomez, 2002; Jorm et al., 1999).

People who use BIS have a higher tendency to shop in order to regulate their negative feelings and mood (Pickering, Smillie, & Jackson, 2006). BAS which is associated with seeking for reward tends to lead people to shopping in order to reward themselves and satisfy their sense of gratification. Shopping can turn into a conditioned stimulus for people, as in whenever they feel negative emotions, they would feel the need to shop in order to get rid of the emotion, and whenever they feel like they achieved something, they would go shopping in order to reward themselves (Clark & Calleja, 2008). The higher the price for an object, the higher the pleasure attained from purchasing the product becomes for

most compulsive buyers who rate high in reward seeking (Kukar-Kinney, Ridgway, & Monroe, 2012). In order to enhance their mood and reward themselves, buyers who are high in reward seeking tend to continue shopping compulsively (Faber & Christenson, 1996).

BIS and BAS can also be used to understand employee personality, withdrawal, and job performance ratings (Renn, Steinbauer&Fenner, 2014). The Big Five trait model has been useful in understanding employee personality, job performance ratings, and withdrawal (Conte &Gintoft, 2005; Ones, 2005; Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran& Judge, 2007; Renn, Steinbauer&Fenner, 2014). The Big Five trait model has helped in advancing the knowledge in the areas of employee personality, job performance ratings, and withdrawal, however there are also other personality theories that can be used to predict important work outcomes (Barrick, 2005; Renn, Steinbauer&Fenner, 2014), one of which is BIS/BAS theory. Employees high on BIS and employee BAS have been found to have a positive relation with goal attainment (Jackson, 2001). Moreover, BIS and BAS sensitivities have been found to predict greater interpersonal and organizational deviance (Diefendorff& Mehta, 2007) and BIS sensitivity has been found to be related negatively to performance of a decision task (Koy& Yeo, 2008). High employee BAS sensitivity has also been found to be positively related to lower manager rating of employee job performance, which consists of job knowledge, teamwork, communication, and work goal attainment (Renn, Steinbauer, &Fenner, 2014).

## **1.6.Job Strain**

Work environment can influence employees' mood highly. Stress has been one of the most common results of negative job environment. Job strain is one of the consequences of long-time job stress and it is the series of reactions employees give when they are up against disparity between their knowledge, the demands of the work, their aptitudes, and their skills (Leka, Griffiths, & Cox,



2003). Also, non-sufficient support from colleagues and employee's social environment can also lead to job strain (Borteyrou, Truchot, & Rasclé, 2009; Elo, Leppanen, & Jahkola, 2003; Leka et al., 2003).

Job demands are the psychological stressors of the work environment, which include time pressures, pace of work, interruption rate, amount of work, etc. (Karasek, 1979). The decision latitude of the employee is how much authority the employee has and how much control employee holds of their tasks (Karasek, 1979). Demands of the job and the control an employee has over decisions influence the stress of the employee.

Robert Karasek (1979) developed the job demand-control model which concerns with the relation between job demands, the control the employee has over those demands and job strain. Four distinctive job categories were introduced with the job demand-control model; passive jobs, low strain jobs, high strain jobs, and active jobs. Each category has different levels of psychological demands required by the job and the control employee has over the job. The Demand-Control Model stated that high job demands, and low decision latitudes are the major source of job strain (Karasek, 1979), and jobs who possess these characteristics are high strain jobs. The theory suggests that high demands and low decision latitude lead to not being able to moderate the stress, time management, and learning of new skills. Long term exposure to stress lead to strain, and continuous strain produce health problems, such as coronary heart diseases, depression, and hypertension. Illnesses caused by job strain also affect the companies in terms of reduced performance, increased staff turnover, absenteeism, and increased risks of accidents at work (Leka, et al., 2003; World Health Organisation, 2008).

Johnson and Hall (1988) added social support at work to this model. It concerns with the trust among employees and the socio-emotional integration within the company (Karasek & Theorell, 1989). Organizational support perceived by the employee satisfy socio-emotional needs of the employee (Uçar & Ötken, 2010). Perceived Organizational Support (POS) helps employees perceive the

value of their contributions to the job and the organizations care about the employee's wellbeing (Uçar&Ötken, 2010). Moreover, perceived Organizational Support (POS) increase employees' commitment to the organization, their expectations of reward given for their efforts, and their motivation to help the organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995; Uçar&Ötken, 2010). Furthermore, Perceived Organizational Support (POS) regulate job satisfaction (Çakar&Yıldız, 2009), organizational commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lamastro-Davis, 1990), job involvement (George & Brief, 1992), and intention to leave (Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994). Being with high perceived organizational support leads the employee to support organizational goals, and to have positive organizational behaviors and job attitudes (Loi, Hang-Yue, & Foley, 2006).

### **1.6.1. Organizational Demand and Control**

As suggested by Karasek (1979), psychological strain can occur according to psychological demands and the decision latitude an employee has over the job. This means, if the employee has low control (decision latitude) over a job, and the job has low psychological demands, that job is considered to be a passive job. Passive jobs can result in learned helplessness (Seligman, 1975). If the job has low psychological demands and the employee has high control (decision latitude) over the job, that job is a low-strain job. If the employee has high control over a job and the job also has high psychological demands, that job is an active job. Lastly, if the psychological demands of the job are high and the control the employee has over the job are low, that job is a high-strain job. As the control an employee has over a job augments, and the psychological demands a job has also gets high, new behavior patterns surface and the learning motivation of the employee gets high. However, as the job's psychological demands and the employee's control over the job diminishes, the risk of having job strain therefore physical illness gets higher. According to Kerckhoff and Back (1968), if the job's

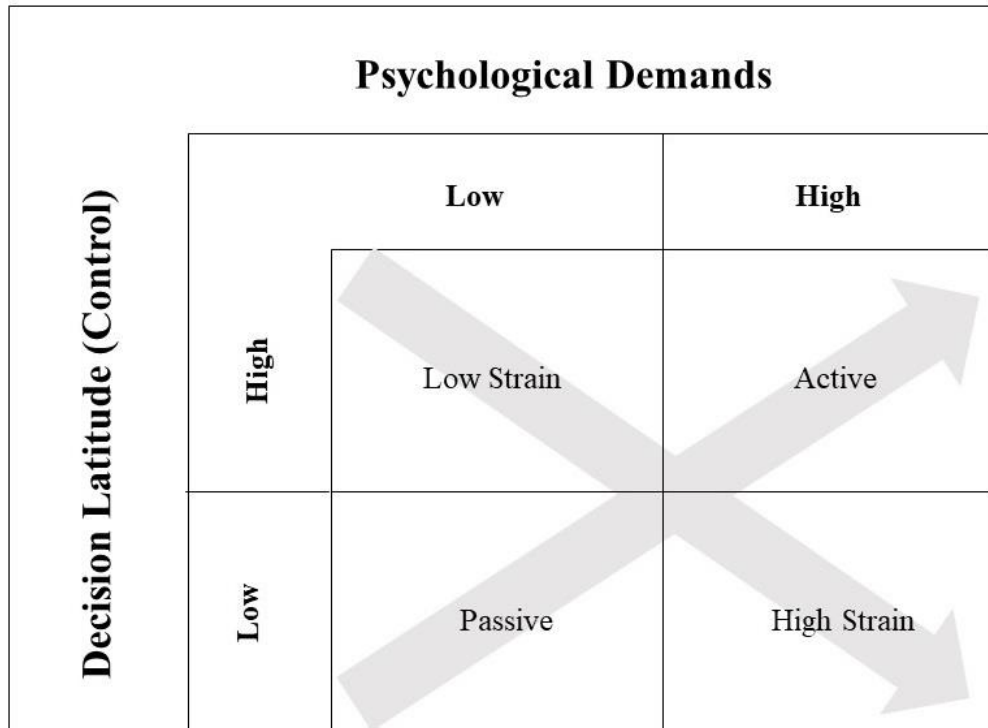
psychological demands and the control employee has over the job changes, it can result in behavioral symptoms of strain such as hysteria, fainting, and social contagion.

The control employee has over a job is important to release tension from the work, as the employee could decide when to give break (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). Decision latitude also refers to the employee's freedom to use their skill and control their behavior in work. There are two components of the decision latitude (control) scale which are; task authority and skill discretion (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). Task authority is also referred to autonomy as the employee has control over detailed tasks. Skill discretion is the control over the skills and employee can use to perform the task.

Psychological demands a job requires can be coordination problems, stimulation necessary to complete a task, and the presence of deadlines. Also, personal conflicts with other employees can result in job strain, and that will be investigated under organizational support headline.

Figure 1.1. shows the decision latitude and psychological demand figure developed by Karasek (1979).

**Figure 1.1.: Decision Latitude and Psychological Demand's Relation with Job Strain**



### 1.6.2. Organizational Support (Social Support)

Johnson (1986) added social support (organizational support) to Karasek's Demand – Control Model (Johnson, 1986; Kristensen, 1995). It has been suggested that jobs which have high psychological demands, where employees have low control over the job, and also low social support at work have the highest risk of job strain which can possibly result in illnesses. Tension release in work is important for stress relief. Employees who have control over their job may decide when to have break times, which can be a “ritual” for them, like coffee breaks, and smoke breaks (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). The trust between co-workers and emotion integration between them can be a buffering aspect

for psychological strain, and it is called socio-emotional support (Israel & Antonucci, 1987).

According to Thomas and Linstead (2002), identity of one's self is formed through social interactions and exchanges. Identity is constructed by experiences and interactions one has within their social environment (Akman, 2009). Thus, work environment has the power to affect the individual's identity through work and social interactions within the work, as it affects individuals' everyday life and experiences (Akman, 2009). A change in the work environment can cause change in individuals' way of life (Barley & Kunda, 2001). Moreover, social roles, preferences of certain products, and leisure activities are used by individuals to constitute their identities (Cherrier & Murray, 2007). Use of certain products and consumption styles of consumers have relation with how consumer identifies themselves (Firat & Dholakia, 2003).

Consumption has been defined by Baudrillard (1998) as communication, signification, classification, and social differentiation. It is a cultural and social process that establishes differences between social groups (Bourdieu, 1984; Douglas & Isherwood, 1980; Veblen, 1994). Consumption patterns form and maintain differences between social groups and differentiate individuals as those who belong in the group and those who don't (Bocock, 1997). Social norms and values influence and regulate an individual's behavior and decision-making process (Attiq, 2013), therefore society can lead individuals to compulsive buying behavior (Attiq, 2013; Damon, 1988; Faber, 1992; Magee, 1994). Being susceptible to others' reactions leads individuals to make purchasing decisions that conform to others to gain social acceptance (Bearden et al., 1989).

As a part of the perspectives on consumer culture, socially constructed meaning attached to products leads consumers to feel satisfaction when they buy said products (Featherstone, 1991; Tan Çelebi, 2007). Compulsive consumers consider the acquirement of certain products enhance their self-worth and at the same time increase their chances of social approval (DeSarbo & Edwards, 1996). As a consequence of their need for social approval, compulsive buyers are more

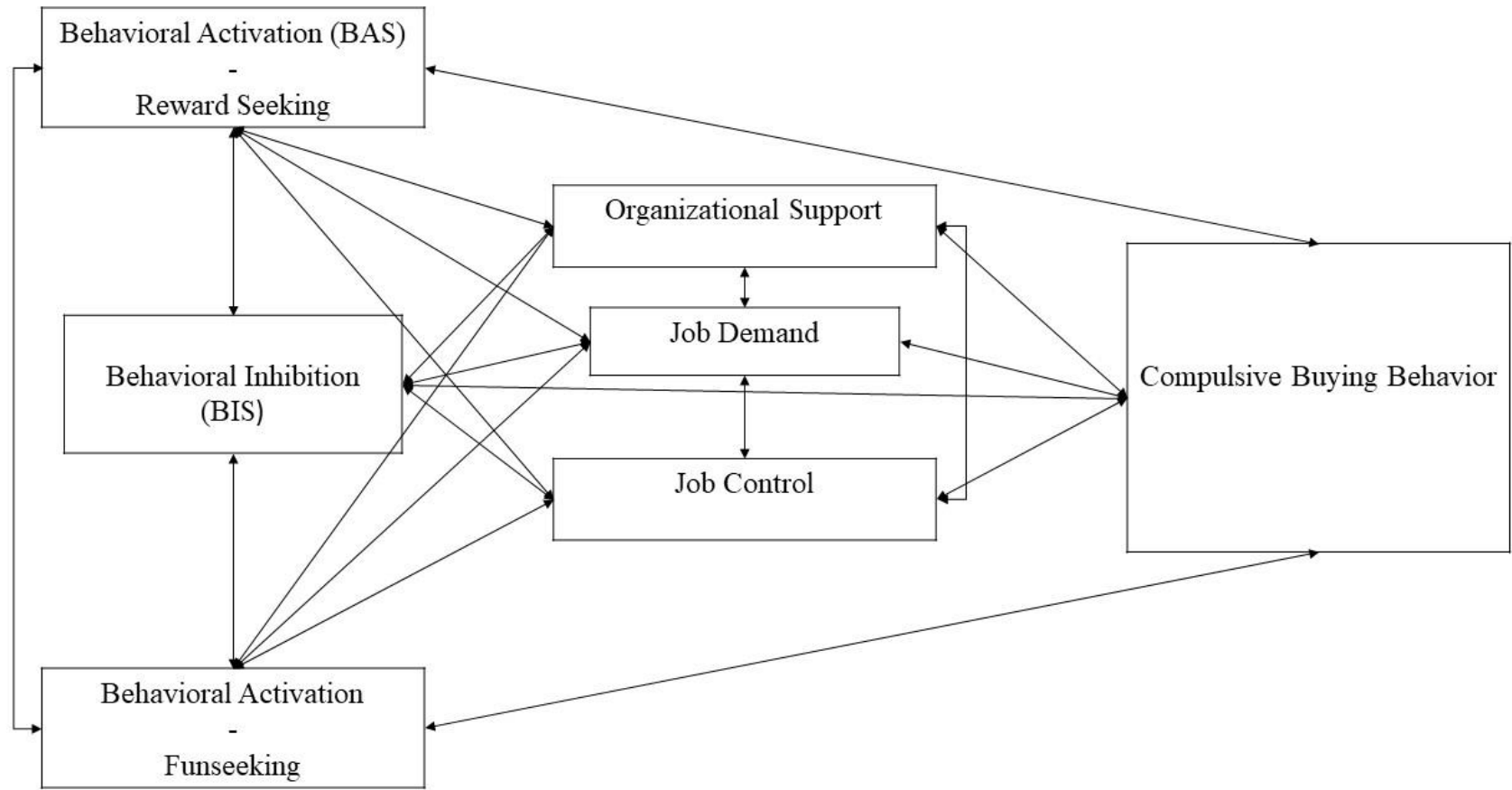
aware of the reactions of others about themselves and they give importance to those reactions (Bearden & Rose, 1990). Zeren and Gökdağlı (2017) investigated online compulsive buying behavior and found socio-normative shopping motivation has a positive and significant relation with compulsive buying behavior. As Turkish consumers are influenced by their peers and give value to their opinions, it can be said that social support can lead to compulsive buying behavior (Zeren & Gökdağlı, 2017).

### **1.7. Research Aim**

Different job groups are exposed to different levels of risks of strain. In the current research, the relationship between job strain factors, employees' purchasing habits, and behavioral activation / inhibitions of the employees' have been thoroughly examined. Furthermore, the individual relation between BIS/BAS factors which are funseeking, reward seeking, and BIS have been investigated. The relationship between individual job strain factors which are organizational support (social support), job demand, and job control have also been explored.

We also investigate whether or not employees shop in order to reward themselves or get rid of their negative moods caused by their job. This research predicts that behavioral inhibition and behavioral activation of an employee stimulates compulsive buying behavior. Moreover, the current study also examines the moderation effect organizational support has over compulsive buying behavior and reward seeking. Research model is given on Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2.: Research Model



## CHAPTER 2 – METHOD

### 2.1. Participant

Total of 325 participants contributed to this research, however, following data cleaning, sample size of 175 were taken to analysis.

Participants have been reached by convenience sampling, and they are in between the ages of 21 and 58. Mean of the participant age is 34.06 ( $SD=9.89$ ).

Participants who have declared that they are females make up 51.4% ( $n=94$ ), 40 % ( $n=70$ ) of participants have stated their gender as male, and 6.2 % ( $n=11$ ) of participants selected to not declare their gender in the study.

White-collar participants who are currently working from communication ( $n=52$ ), computer sciences ( $n=24$ ), and other various sectors ( $n=99$ ), with the majority being from banking ( $n=10$ ), education ( $n=9$ ), and textile ( $n=7$ ), have participated in the study.

Participants contributed to the study from eight different cities. The most participating cities were İstanbul with 48.5 % ( $n=85$ ) of the participants, İzmir with 34.2 % ( $n=60$ ) of the participants, and Ankara with 10.8 % ( $n=19$ ) of the participants.

Among the participants, 72.6% ( $n=127$ ) of the participants are university graduates, whereas 17.1% ( $n=30$ ) of participants hold a higher education degree (masters, PhD). Additionally, 9.7% ( $n=17$ ) of the participants are high school graduates, and .6% ( $n=1$ ) of the participants hold a middle school degree.

Most of the participants are single [57.7% ( $n=101$ )], 37.1% ( $n=65$ ) of the participants have declared that they are married, and 5.1 % ( $n=9$ ) of the participants have declared that they have been divorced.



Participants have also been asked about their financial status and 57.7% (n=101) of the participants, which is the majority of the participants, stated that they can make expenditure with thinking. Moreover, 16.6% (n=29) of the participants stated that they can do expenditure without feeling unease, 13.7% (n=24) stated that they can do expenditure comfortably, 8.6% (n=15) of them stated that they can hardly do expenditure except from necessities, , 1.7% (n=3) of the participants stated that they can do expenditure without thinking, and also 1.7% (n=3) of the participants stated that they can hardly cover their necessities.

## **2.2. Instruments**

### **2.2.1. Swedish Demand-Control-Support-DCSQ Scale.**

This scale measures psychological demands, control over the job, and social support in the work. Support factor signifies the support felt from the co-workers and the overall environment of the work. As the demand factor indexes the overall felt demand and workload of the job; control factor signifies the overall decision and control power an employee has over a job. Turkish version was standardized in 2007 by Demiral et al. and Theorell in a study done for measuring the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. In this study, 463 municipality workers and 55 health administrators have contributed as participants. DCSQ is a shorter and modified version of Karasek's Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ). It includes 17 questions and items are originally based on a 4-point Likert Scale. Turkish version of the scale has two subscales which are skill discretion (Cronbach Alpha=0.48) and authority over decision (Cronbach Alpha=0.78) (Demiral et al., 2007). The scale's English and Turkish versions can both be found in Appendix A and Appendix B.

### **2.2.2. Compulsive Consumption Scale**

This scale is a self-report instrument designed by Valence, d'Astous, and Fortier (1998) and it assesses intensity of one's compulsive buying tendency. The scale contains 13 items (Cronbach's  $\alpha=0.78$ ). Turkish version including 11 items was standardized by Eren, Eroglu and Hacıoğlu (2012) and items are originally based on a 5-point Likert Scale. Higher scores indicate a higher compulsive buying tendency. Additional to the original Turkish version, one item from the English version (item about mails and messages from the companies) has been re-added as it is significant to the study. Turkish and English versions of the Compulsive Consumption Scale can be found in Appendix C and Appendix D.

### **2.2.3. Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation Scale (BIS-BAS).**

This scale was designed by Carver & White (1994) and it measures two components; behavioral inhibition and behavioral activation. While BIS assesses avoidance of punishment, worry, and concern for potential punishment, BAS assesses reward seeking, drive, and fun seeking. Reward factor falls into the category of Behavioral Activation and it indicates the driven force of a behavior is reward seeking, meaning the person who does a job expects a reward as a result of it. Fun seeking, which is one of the factors of Behavioral Activation, assesses the driven force behind a behavior and indicates whether or not behavior is triggered by fun seeking. Behavioral Inhibition (BIS), assess the avoidance from potential punishment, real punishment, and worry. BIS-BAS scale was translated to Turkish by Sisman (2012) It consists of 24 items (BIS= 7, BAS=13) There are 4 additional filler items. In the current study, these four additional items have been not included to the data analysis. Jorm, Christensen, Henderson, Jacomb, Korten, and Rodgers (1999) reports that Cronbach's alphas for BAS (all factors included),

BAS drive, BAS funseeking, BAS reward responsiveness, and BIS are consequently; 0.83, 0.80, 0.70, 0.65, and 0.76. Turkish and English versions of Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation Scale can be found in Appendix E and Appendix F. Items are originally based on 4-point Likert Scale. Lower points indicate greater level of behavioral inhibition and behavioral activation.

#### **2.2.4. Additional Questions about Consumption Habits of the Participants**

In order to further investigate the participants' purchase decisions and consuming tendencies six extra questions were added at the end of the questionnaire. The questions asked are "I have a difficulty in controlling my shopping behavior because of credit card payment systems.", "I prefer shopping online.", "Shopping is a tool/way for me to cope with the everyday emotional states of work stress, strain, etc.", "How much of your monthly income do you feel like you are wasting uncontrollably?", "Which products do you usually buy when you shop? (You can select multiple answers)." and "Which way of payment do you prefer while you are spending money?". First four questions' answer frequencies show variability from 1 (lowest), to 6 (highest). For fifth question, participants were asked to select which kind of products they tend to buy, and they were given 5 choices which are; personal care products, books and stationery, technological products, clothing items, and other items. The sixth question intended to figure out the purchasing method tendencies of the consumers and participants were given four different method of payment (cash, credit card or bank card, credit card with installments, virtual credit card) and they were asked to select the option that they preferred the best.

## **2.3. Procedure**

### **2.3.1. Human Participant Research Ethics Committee Approval**

Ethics application of this study has been done to the İstanbul Bilgi University. Data collection started after the approval from the committee was given. The approval was given on 20<sup>th</sup> of March 2018 (issue number 2018-20024-31). Approval form can be found in the Appendix G.

## **2.4. Data Collection**

Survey Monkey which is an online platform (<https://surveymonkey.com>) was used for data collection. The link to the survey was sent via mail. The online survey structure can be found in the Appendix H.

Participants have been given information about the research and asked for their consent. They have been informed that they can choose whether or not to participate and they can also choose to leave the survey anytime they want, and also choose to not answer the questions they don't want to answer. Participants have been kept anonymous and their participation IDs are also coded anonymously.

The sequence of the scales was as follows; Job-Demand Control Scale, BIS and BAS Scales, and Compulsive Consumption Scale. Additionally, demographical questions have been asked at the end of survey.

## **2.5. Data Analysis**

All the results have been analyzed with the use of SPSS Statistics software. First of all, descriptive analysis of the data was done. Factor analysis of each scale have been done to see the factor structure of each scale. After that reliability analysis was done to make sure the scales used gave reliable results. Pearson coefficient correlation analysis and regression analysis has been done. Mediation analysis and moderation analysis was applied. T-test analysis has been done for compulsive buyers and non-compulsive buyers.

## CHAPTER 3–RESULTS

### 3.1. Consuming Habits of the Participants

At the end of the questionnaire, six extra questions related to the consuming tendencies of the participants have been asked to further investigate the participants' choices during consumption decisions. First four questions asked are; "I have a difficulty in controlling my shopping behavior because of credit card payment systems.", "I prefer shopping online.", "Shopping is a tool/way for me to cope with the everyday emotional states of work stress, strain, etc.", and "How much of your monthly income do you feel like you are wasting uncontrollably?". The answer frequencies of these questions show variability from 1 (lowest), to 6 (highest). Table 3.1. shows the frequencies, means, and SD's of the first four questions.

**Table 3.1: Descriptives of Consumption Habits Related Questions**

Consumption Habits Items	1 (low)	2	3	4	5	6 (high)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. I have a difficulty in controlling my shopping behavior because of credit card payment systems.	61 (34.9%)	34 (19.4%)	29 (16,6%)	26 (14.9%)	16 (9.1%)	8 (4.6%)	2,574	1,536
2. I prefer shopping online.	16 (9.1 %)	33 (18.9 %)	36 (20.6%)	44 (25.1%)	27 (15.4%)	18 (10.3%)	3.500	1.457
3. Shopping is a tool / way for me to cope with the everyday emotional states of work stress, strain, etc.	63 (36.0 %)	43 (24.6 %)	26 (14.9%)	19 (10.9 %)	10 (5.7 %)	13 (7.4 %)	2,477	1,564
4. How much of your monthly income do you feel like you are wasting uncontrollably?	2 (1.1 %)	73 (41.7%)	55 (31.4 %)	27 (15.4 %)	11 (6.3 %)	6 (3.4 %)	2.942	1.089

Additionally, it was asked to participants which products they tend to buy: “Which products do you usually buy when you shop? (You can select multiple answers).”. The participants were told to choose personal care, book and stationary, technological products, clothing, and other kind of products, and they could choose multiple answers. Last of all, it was asked to participants “Which way of payment do you prefer while you are spending money?” and they were given four choices; cash, credit card or bank card, credit card (on installments) and virtual bank card. Table 3.2. shows the frequencies of selections made by the participants for the remaining two additional questions.

**Table 3.2.: Descriptives of Payment Method Preferences and Product Purchasing Preferences**

Payment Method	Cash	Credit Card or Bank Card (Paid Cash)	Credit Card (on installments)	Virtual Bank Card	-
5. Which way of payment do you prefer while you are spending money?	31 (17.7 %)	110 (62.9%)	31 (17.7%)	3 (1.7%)	
Products Bought	Personal Care	Book and Stationery	Technological Products	Clothing	Other
6. Which products do you usually buy when you shop? (You can select multiple answers)	95 (54.3%)	90 (51.4 %)	61 (34.9%)	140 (80%)	25 (14.3%)



## **3.2. Factor Analysis of Questionnaires**

For all factor analysis to assess the structures of the questionnaires, Principal Axis Factor Analysis with Direct Oblimin rotation was used. The reliability analysis (Cronbach alpha) was applied as well.

### **3.2.1. Swedish Job Demand-Control-Support-DCSQ Scale**

According to principal axis factor analysis with Direct Oblimin rotation for the 18 items of Swedish Job Demand-Control-Support-DCSQ Scale, four items have been excluded from the analysis because they did not hold sufficient loading. Table 3.1. shows the pattern matrix of the scale.

Original factors of DCSQ holds three factors which are “demand”, “control”, and “support”. In our analysis, three factors were found where items fall into same factors.

The first factor, with six items is “Support” and explains 29,7% of variance, “Demand” factor 18,7% (4 items), and “Control” factor 12,6% (4 items).

The results showed that factors were consistent with the original form, as the items fall into the same categories, except “Does your work require much ability or specialized knowledge?” (the fourth item of the second factor) which falls into the category of control. We may interpret this shift as the reflection of diverse culture where this item was perceived as “Demand” and not “Control”. However, we can say that, diverse culture and the difference of perception caused the fourth item to be seen as “Demand” and not “Control”.

With the analysis of internal consistency of the factors and the scale, it was seen that the Cronbach’s Alpha for the scale is .789 (for factors “Support” = .869, “Demand” = .763, and “Control” = .673.)

The mean of the overall scale is 4.204 (SD=1.56) [organizational support = 4.266 (SD=.78), demand = 4.327 (SD=.70), control = 3.986 (SD=.81)].

**Table 3.3.: Table of Factor Analysis of Swedish Job-Demand-Control-Support-DCSQ Scale**

	Factor Loading	Eigen Values	Total Variance Explained	Cronbach Alpha	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Scale Total			29.774	.789	4.204	1.569
Factor 1= Organizational Support (6 items)		4.168	26.708	.869	4.265	.789
13-At work, do you have a good relationship with each other?	.924					
14-Can you rely on the support of your coworkers?	.811					
17-Do you like your coworkers?	.764					
15-If you are not having a good day, do your coworkers understand you?	.751					
12-Is there a calm and pleasant environment where you work?	.622					
16-At work, do you have a good relationship with your superiors?	.551					
Factor 2= Demand (4 items)		2.618	15.583	.763	4.326	.705
2-Do you have to work intensely?	.906					
1- Do you have to perform your tasks quickly?	.749					
3-Does your work require too much from you?	.636					
7-Does your work require much ability or specialized knowledge?	.437					
Factor 3= Control (4 items)		1.772	15.583	.673	3.985	.819
11-Can you choose WHAT to do in your job?	.733					
10-Can you choose HOW to do your job?	.712					
6-Is it possible for you to learn new things through your work?	.437					
8-Does your work requires you to show initiative?	.432					

### **3.2.2. Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation Scale (BIS-BAS)**

Principal axis factor analysis with Direct Oblimin on 24 items of the BIS-BAS Scale excluded 9 items because of insufficient loading, therefore the scale reduced to 15 items. The Table 3.2. shows the pattern matrix of the scale.

Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation Scale originally consists of four factors which are “Behavioral Inhibition (BIS)”, “Reward-Seeking”, “Drive”, and “Fun seeking”. In line with the original form, in the current study factors are named as “Behavioral Inhibition (BIS)”, “Reward-Seeking”, and “Fun seeking”. However, only two items of the original “Drive” factor was used in the analysis as the other items didn’t hold sufficient loading. The items that hold sufficient loading from the “Drive” factor (“When I want something I usually go all-out to get it.” and “If I see a chance to get something I want I move on it right away.”) has been included in the Reward factor

“Reward” is the first factor with six items and explains 30,4% of the variance, “BIS” is the second factor with five items, explaining 15,77% of the variance, lastly, third factor with four items which is “Fun seeking” holds 11,97% of the variance.

With the analysis of internal consistency of the factors and the scale, it was seen that the Cronbach’s Alpha for the scale is .789 (for factors “Support” = .869, “Demand” = .763, and “Control” = .673.)

According to the analysis of internal consistency, the Cronbach’s Alpha for the overall scale is .823 (for factors; “Reward” = .796. “BIS” = .832, “Fun seeking” = .789).

The mean of the overall scale is 4,593 (SD= 1.99) [Reward Seeking = 5,055 (SD=.71), BIS = 4,481 (SD=.98), Fun Seeking = 4,009 (SD=1.07)].

**Table 3.4.: Table of Factor Analysis of Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation Scale (BIS - BAS)**

	Factor Loading	Eigen Values	Total Variance Explained	Cronbach Alpha	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Scale Total			30.421	.823	4.593	1.995
Factor 1= Reward Seeking (6 items)		4.563	27.023	.796	5.055	.713
4-If I see a chance to get something I want I move on it right away.	.805					
3-When I want something I usually go all-out to get it.	.666					
13-When I get something I want, I feel excited and energized.	.583					
14-When I see an opportunity for something I like I get excited right away.	.531					
16-It would excite me to win a contest.	.530					
15-When good things happen to me, it affects me strongly.	.492					
Factor 2= BIS (Inhibition) (5 items)		2.366	12.649	.832	4.481	.987
20-- If I think something unpleasant is going to happen I usually get pretty "worked up."	-.835					
21-I feel worried when I think I have done poorly at something important.	-.740					
19-I feel pretty worried or upset when I think or know somebody is angry at me.	-.698					
18-Criticism or scolding hurts me quite a bit.	-.677					
22-I worry about making mistakes.	-.594					
Factor 3= Fun Seeking (4 items)		1.796	8.655	.789	4.009	1.076
8-I will often do things for no other reason than that they might be fun.	.820					
10-I crave excitement and new sensations.	.766					
7-I'm always willing to try something new if I think it will be fun.	.653					
9-I often act on the spur of the moment.	.541					

### **3.2.3. Compulsive Consumption Scale**

Twelve items of the Compulsive Consumption Scale were analyzed with the principal axis factor analysis with Direct Oblimin rotation. The Table 3.3. shows the pattern matrix of the scale.

Compulsive Consumption scale originally has a single factor which have been confirmed by the current study as well. Higher scores in the items indicate a higher compulsive buying tendency.

With 56.37% explained variance all 12 items fall into the same factor with the highest loading item being “I sometimes feel that something inside pushed me to go shopping” [Cronbach’s Alpha is .927, mean score 4.20 (SD= 1.15)].

**Table 3.5.: Table of Factor Analysis of Compulsive Consumption Scale**

	Factor Loading	Eigen Values	Total Variance Explained	Cronbach Alpha	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Scale Total			56.377	.927	4.204	1.995
Factor 1= Buying Impulse (12 items)		6.765	52.839	.927	4.265	1.155
I sometimes feel that something inside pushed me to go shopping.	.889					
There are times when I have a strong urge to buy.	.851					
I often have an unexplainable urge, a sudden and spontaneous desire, to go and buy something.	.822					
For me, shopping is a way of facing the stress of my daily life and relaxing.	.799					
As soon as I enter a shopping center or mall, I have an irresistible urge to go into a shop and buy something.	.793					
I have often bought a product that I did not need, while knowing that I have very little money left.	.773					
I am often impulsive in my buying behavior.	.709					
At times, I have felt somewhat guilty after buying a product, because it seemed unreasonable.	.630					
There are some things I buy that I do not show to anybody for fear of being perceived as irrational in my buying behavior.	.629					
I am one of those people who often respond to direct mail offers.	.625					
I am a spendthrift.	.601					
When I have money, I cannot help but spend part or all of it.	.487					

### 3.3. Inter-correlations among Variables

To examine the inter-correlations of the variables, Pearson correlation analysis was conducted.

Buying impulse score was significantly and positively correlated with Reward Seeking (BAS),  $r(170)=.221, p=.004$ . Buying impulse score was also positively and significantly correlated with Behavioral Inhibition (BIS),  $r(171)=.274, p=0$ . Moreover, buying impulse score is positively related to Fun Seeking,  $r(171)=.209, p=.006$ . Buying impulse was also positively related to Support,  $r(171)=.158, p=.039$ . BAS Reward is significantly and positively correlated with Behavioral Inhibition (BIS),  $r(171)=.348, p=000$ . Fun Seeking and Reward Seeking are positively correlated,  $r(171)=.330, p=000$ . Support and Reward Seeking are also significantly and positively correlated,  $r(170)=.240, p=.002$ .

Behavioral Inhibition (BIS) is positively correlated with Fun Seeking,  $r(171)=.172, p=.024$ . Support is positively and significantly correlated with Control  $r(171)=.323, p=000$ . Also, Demand is positively correlated with Control,  $r(171)=.169, p=.027$ .

However, BIS is not positively correlated with Support, [ $r(171)=-.046, p=.548$ ], [Demand,  $r(171)=.076, p=.320$ ], and Control, [ $r(171)=-.034, p=.662$ ]. Moreover, Fun Seeking is also not positively correlated with Support, [ $r(171)=-.076, p=.326$ ], Demand, [ $r(171)=.134, p=.080$ ], and Control, [ $r(171)=-.018, p=.816$ ]. Support is not significantly correlated with Demand, [ $r(172)=.038, p=.624$ ]. Reward Seeking is not significantly correlated with Demand [ $r(170)=-.135, p=.080$ ] and Control, [ $r(170)=.032, p=.680$ ]. Buying impulse score was not positively correlated with Demand, [ $r(171)=.063, p=.413$ ] and Control, [ $r(171)=-.035, p=.649$ ].

**Table 3.6. Table of Correlation Analysis**

		Buying Impulse	Reward Seeking	Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS)	Funseeking	Organizational Support	Organizational Demand
Reward Seeking	Pearson Correlation	.221					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004					
	N	170					
Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS)	Pearson Correlation	.274	.348				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000				
	N	171	171				
Funseeking	Pearson Correlation	.209	.330	.172			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.000	.024			
	N	171	171	172			
Organizational Support	Pearson Correlation	.158	.240	-.046	.076		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.039	.002	.548	.326		
	N	171	170	171	171		
Organizational Demand	Pearson Correlation	.063	.135	.076	.134	.038	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.413	.080	.320	.080	.624	
	N	171	170	171	171	172	
Organizational Control	Pearson Correlation	-.035	.032	-.034	-.018	.323	.169
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.649	.680	.662	.816	.000	.027
	N	171	170	171	171	171	171



### **3.4. Mediation Effect of Organizational Support**

Linear regression analysis was performed, and mediation effect was tested given the possibility that variables of this study might have the effect of mediation on buying impulse. Mediator variables are applied when there is a strong and significant relationship between variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Mediation analysis requires three paths (Baron & Kenny, 1986); first path, the independent should account for variations of the presumed mediator (Path a). Second path, the mediator should significantly account for variations in the dependent variable (Path b). Lastly, in third path, if the relation between independent and dependent variables are no longer significant with the paths a and b controlled, mediation is demonstrated. Independent variables should become less significant or not-significant in the final model for it to be mediation. If the independent variable has a significant effect on the dependent variable in Model 3, there is a partial mediation (Bartram et al., 2012). If the independent variable has a non-significant effect in Model 3, there is a full mediation (Bartram et al., 2012).

Baron and Kenny (1986) described the analysis for testing mediational hypothesis. First step is the establishment of an affect that can be mediated, for that, initial variable should be correlated with the outcome variable. Second step involves treating the mediator variable as an outcome variable, and the results should show that initial variable has significant relation with the mediator. Third step of Baron and Kenny's procedure involves the control of the initial variable while establishing the correlation of the other variables, meaning there should be correlation between the mediator and the outcome variable. Last step of Baron and Kenny's procedure, the forth step, is the establishment of the complete mediation among the variables.

Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation (BIS/BAS) factors and job demand-control-support factors was involved in the mediation analysis with the dependent variable being buying impulse. It was seen that organizational support, organizational demand, and organizational control does not have

significant relationship with buying impulse on their Model 1, therefore they have been excluded from the mediation analysis per Baron and Kenny's procedure's first step. Table 3.7. shows regression analysis results for the mediating effect of variables in relation with buying impulse.

In terms of reward seeking, Model 1 and Model 2 showed that reward seeking had a significant effect on buying impulse ( $\beta = -.221, t(175) = 2.938, p = .004$ ).and organizational support ( $\beta = .240, t(175) = 3.210, p = .002$ ). Model 3 showed organizational support did not have a significant effect on buying impulse ( $\beta = .158, t(175) = 2.082, p = .039$ ). Model 4, last requirement for the mediation effect, showed thatreward seeking has a non-significant effect on buying impulse ( $\beta = .203, t(175) = 2.608, p = .010$ ), however organizational support does not have a significant effect on buying impulse ( $\beta = .106, t(175) = 1.366, p = .174$ ). As it was seen on Model 3 that organizational support did not have a significant effect on buying impulse, even though Model 4 showed that independent variable no longer has a significant effect on buying impulse, it is not considered to be a mediation. Moderation analysis of organizational support on the relationship of reward seeking and buying impulse has been done, and it is given in the following part, "Moderation Effect of Organizational Support".

It was seen that Behavioral Inhibition has a significant effect on buying impulse ( $\beta = .274, t(175) = 3.702, p = .000$ ), however in model 2 it was seen that it does not have a significant effect on fun seeking ( $\beta = .172, t(175) = 2.270, p = .024$ ). Fun seeking has a significant effect on buying impulse ( $\beta = .209, t(175) = 2.775, p = .006$ ). It was seen on the final model (Model 4) that buying impulse and fun seeking lost significance when they were examined together [ $(\beta = .247, t(175) = 3.312, p = .001)$ ,  $(\beta = .164, t(175) = 2.203, p = .029)$  respectively]. Since model 2 was found to be not significant, and the independent variable still has a significant effect on Model 4, it can be said that this is a partial mediation.

Reward seeking was found to have a significant effect on buying impulse ( $\beta = .221, t(175) = 2.938, p = .004$ ) and behavioral inhibition ( $\beta = .348, t(175) = 4.823, p = .000$ ). Moreover, behavioral inhibition has a significant effect on

buying impulse ( $\beta = .274, t(175) = 3.702, p = .000$ ). Finally, in Model 4, it was seen that reward seeking have a non-significant effect on buying impulse and behavioral inhibition has a significant effect on buying impulse [ $(\beta = .139, t(175) = 1.764, p = .079)$ ,  $(\beta = .226, t(175) = 2.858, p = .005)$  respectively]. As reward seeking has a non-significant effect on buying impulse on the model 4 while it has a significant effect on model 1, it can be said that behavioral inhibition has a mediating role between reward seeking and buying impulse.

Behavioral Inhibition was found to have a significant effect on buying impulse ( $\beta = .274, t(175) = 3.72, p = .000$ ). However, behavioral inhibition does not have a significant effect on organizational control ( $\beta = -.034, t(175) = -.438, p = .662$ ). Also, organizational control has a non-significant effect on buying impulse ( $\beta = -.035, t(175) = -.456, p = .649$ ). In model 4, it was seen that behavioral inhibition still has significant effect on buying impulse and organizational control has non-significant effect on buying impulse [ $(\beta = .268, t(175) = 3.583, p = .000)$ ,  $(\beta = -.024, t(175) = -.318, p = .751)$  respectively]. Thus, it was seen that organizational control doesn't have a mediating role in the relation between behavioral inhibition and buying impulse, as the independent variable (behavioral inhibition)'s significance on Model 4 did not diminish.

Fun seeking has a significant relation with buying impulse ( $\beta = .209, t(175) = 2.775, p = .006$ ) and reward seeking ( $\beta = .330, t(175) = 4.551, p = .000$ ). On Model 3, it was reward seeking also has a significant relation with buying impulse ( $\beta = .221, t(175) = 2.938, p = .004$ ). Finally, in Model 4, both fun seeking and reward seeking was seen to have non-significant effect on buying impulse [ $(\beta = .156, t(175) = 1.968, p = .051)$ ,  $(\beta = .173, t(175) = 2.179, p = .031)$  respectively]. As the independent variable (fun seeking) became non-significant on Model 4, it can be said that reward seeking has a full mediation role in the relation between fun seeking and buying impulse.

**Table 3.7.: Regression analysis results for the mediating effect:**

	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	F	$R^2$	$R^2_{adj}$
Model 1				8.629	.049	.043
IV: Reward Seeking DV: Buying Impulse	.221	2.938	.004			
Model 2				10.303	.058	.052
IV: Reward Seeking DV: Organizational Support	.240	3.210	.002			
Model 3				4.334	.025	.019
IV: Organizational Support DV: Buying Impulse	.158	2.082	.039			
Model 4				5.537	.063	.052
Reward Seeking	.203	2.608	.010			
Organizational Support	.106	1.366	.174			
Model 1				13.704	.075	.070
IV: Behavioral Inhibition DV: Buying Impulse	.274	3.702	.000			
Model 2				5.153	.029	.024
IV: Behavioral Inhibition DV: Fun seeking	.172	2.270	.024			
Model 3				7.701	.044	.038
IV: Fun Seeking DV: Buying Impulse	.209	2.775	.006			
Model 4				9.419	.101	.091
Behavioral Inhibition	.247	3.312	.001			
Fun seeking	.164	2.203	.029			
Model 1				8.629	.049	.043
IV: Reward Seeking DV: Buying Impulse	.221	2.938	.004			
Model 2				23.262	.121	.116
IV: Reward Seeking DV: Behavioral Inhibition	.348	4.823	.000			
Model 3				13.704	.075	.070
IV: Behavioral Inhibition DV: Buying Impulse	.274	3.702	.000			
Model 4				8.444	.092	.081
Reward Seeking	.139	1.764	.079			
Behavioral Inhibition	.226	2.858	.005			

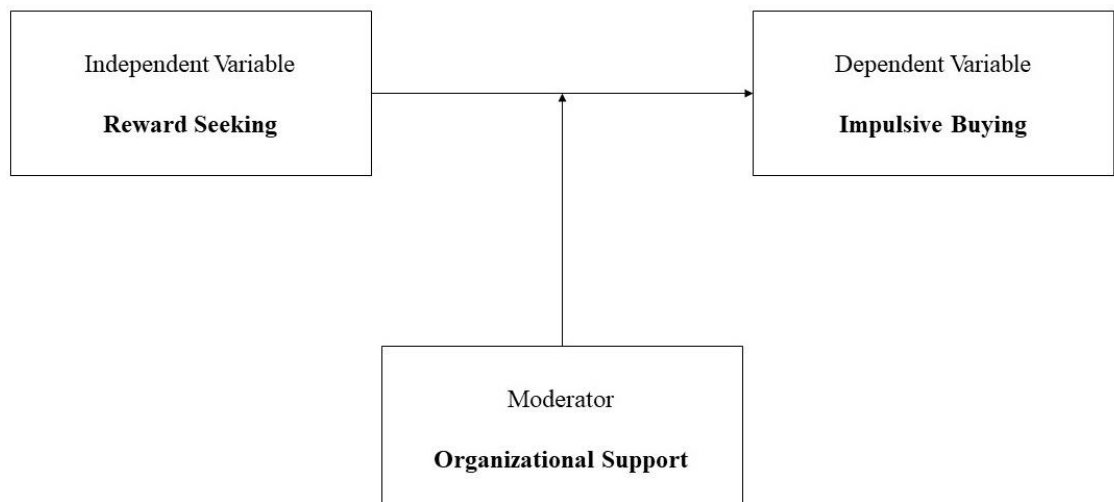
	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	$F$	$R^2$	$R^2_{adj}$
Model 1				13.704	.075	.070
IV: Behavioral Inhibition DV: Buying Impulse	.274	3.702	.000			
Model 2				.192	.001	-.005
IV: Behavioral Inhibition DV: Organizational Control	-.034	-.438	.662			
Model 3				.208	.001	-.005
IV: Organizational Control DV: Buying Impulse	-.035	-.456	.649			
Model 4				6.492	.073	.061
Behavioral Inhibition	.268	3.583	.000			
Organizational Control	-.024	-.318	.751			
Model 1				7.701	.044	.038
IV: Fun Seeking DV: Buying Impulse	.209	2.775	.006			
Model 2				20.714	.109	.104
IV: Fun Seeking DV: Reward Seeking	.330	4.551	.000			
Model 3				8.629	.049	.043
IV: Reward Seeking DV: Buying Impulse	.221	2.938	.004			
Model 4				6.434	.072	.061
Fun Seeking	.156	1.968	.051			
Reward Seeking	.173	2.179	.031			

### 3.5. Moderation Effect of Organizational Support

The moderation effect of Organizational Support on reward seeking and buying impulse has been tested using a multiple hierarchical regression analysis. The multiple hierarchical regression analysis included buying impulse, and the product term of reward seeking and organizational support. Product term of reward seeking, and organizational support had been calculated by multiplying the moderator variable and the independent variable.

The first step of the multiple hierarchical regression analysis includes buying impulse as the dependent variable, reward seeking as the independent variable, and organizational support as the moderator variable. The second step includes buying impulse, reward seeking, organizational support, and the product term of organizational support and reward seeking. If there is a significant increase in R<sup>2</sup> caused by the addition of the product term, it can be said that there is a significant moderation affect (Bartram, Casimir, Djurkovic, Leggat, and Stanton, 2012).

Figure 3.1.: Moderation Analysis Structure



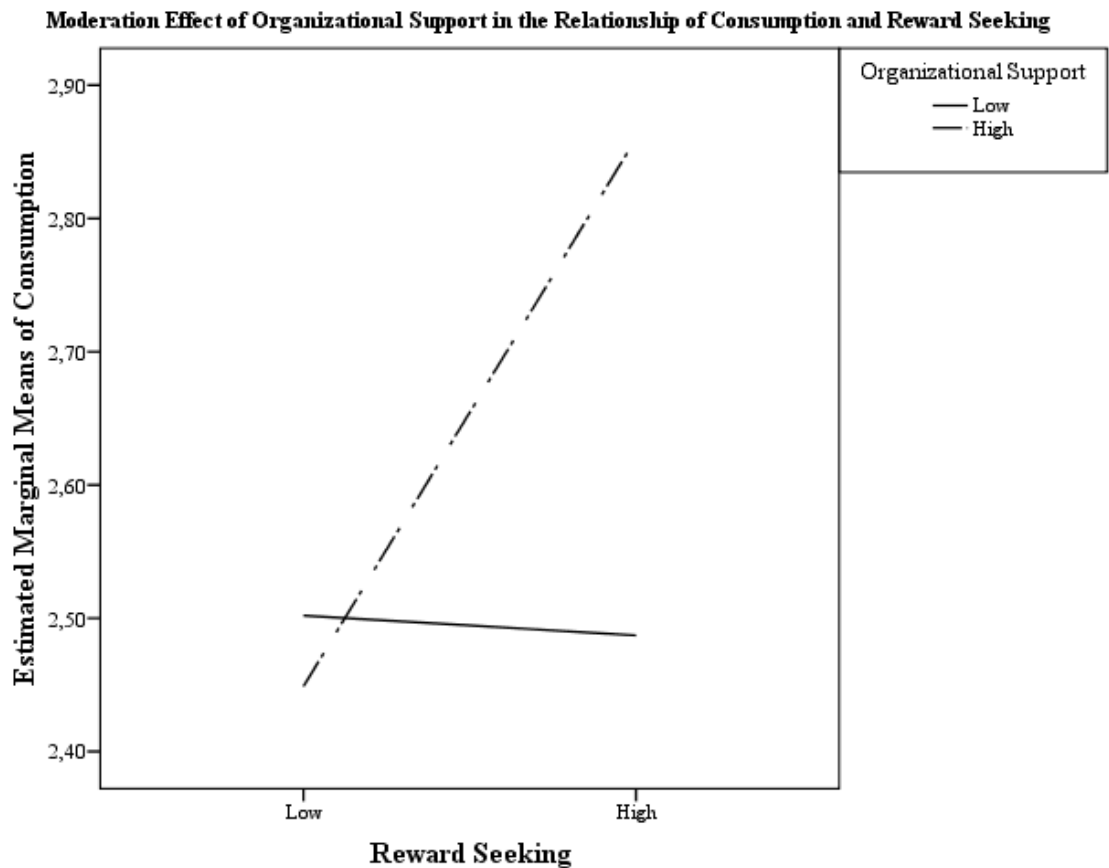
The addition of the multiplication of organizational support and reward seeking, which is the product term, has caused a significant increase in R-square, therefore it can be said that organizational support is a moderator in the relationship between buying impulse and reward seeking. Table 3.8. is the model summary of the analysis done to investigate the moderator effect of organizational support in the relationship between buying impulse and reward seeking.

**Table 3.8.: Model Summary of The Moderation Effect of Organizational Support in The Relationship of Reward Seeking and Impulsive Buying**

	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	F	$R^2$	$\Delta R^2$
Model 1				5.537	.063	.052
Organizational Support	.106	1.366	.174			
Reward Seeking	.203	2.608	.010			
Model 2				5.213	.087	.070
Organizational Support	-.721	-1.783	.076			
Reward Seeking	-.426	-1.368	.173			
Product term	1.166	2.083	.039			

When organizational support is low, and reward seeking is high, estimated impulsive buying rate gets higher. If the organizational support is high, and the reward seeking is high, the estimated impulsive buying rate does not go higher, but rather stays mostly in the same rate. It means, if organizational support felt by the individual is low, it is most likely that the individual would depend on impulsive buying when they are seeking for reward. Overall, it has been seen that the strength and direction of the relationship between reward seeking and consumption increases when organizational support is the moderator of the relation between them.

**Figure 3.2.: The Moderation Effect of Organizational Support in The Relationship between Reward Seeking and Consumption.**



### **3.6. Participants That Have Compulsive Buying Tendencies**

Sample size of 175 were taken to analysis for their compulsive buying tendencies. Participants who scored higher than 35.81 point on the compulsive consumption scale were grouped as “participants who have high compulsive buying tendencies” (n=52). Participants who have high compulsive buying tendencies were above 70% of overall participants.

Participants who have higher compulsive buying tendencies are in between the ages of 21 and 57. Mean of these participants’ age is 32.62 ( $SD=9.89$ ).



Female participants who have higher compulsive buying tendencies are 69.2% (n=36) of the participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies whereas male participants make up 28.8% (n= 15). 1 participant did not declare their gender (1.9%).

They are currently working at communication (n=15), computer sciences (n=10), and other sectors (n=27), with the majority of the other sectors being education (n=4), human resources (n=3), and purchasing (n=2).

All the participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies live in the most populated cities of Turkey, which are İstanbul with 53.8% (n=28) of the participants, İzmir with 32.7% (n=17) of the participants, and Ankara with 11.5% (n=6) of the participants.

Among the participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies, 69.2% (n=36) of them are university graduates, and 19.2% (n=10) of them hold a higher education degree (masters, doctorate). Additionally, 9.6% (n=5) of the participants are high school graduates, and 1.9% (n=1) of the participants hold a middle school degree.

Majority of the participants are single (69.2%, n=36), while 23.1% (n=12) of the participants have declared that they are married, and 7.7 % (n=4) of the participants have declared that they have been divorced.

Participants have also been asked about their financial status and 63.5% (n=33) of the participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies stated that they can make expenditure with thinking. Moreover, 17.3% (n=9) of the participants stated that they can do expenditure comfortably, 9.6% (n=5) of them stated that they can hardly do expenditure except from necessities, 5.8% (n=3) stated that they can do expenditure without feeling unease, 1.9% (n=1) of the participants stated that they can do expenditure without thinking, and also 1.9% (n=1) of the participants stated that they can hardly cover their necessities.

The answers of the participants with high compulsive buying tendencies for extra six questions related to the consuming tendencies that have been added

to the end of the questionnaire was intended to further investigate the participants' choices during consumption decisions. As stated before, the first four questions show variability from 1 (lowest) to 6 (highest), and they are; "I have a difficulty in controlling my shopping behavior because of credit card payment systems.", "I prefer shopping online.", "Shopping is a tool/way for me to cope with the everyday emotional states of work stress, strain, etc.", and "How much of your monthly income do you feel like you are wasting uncontrollably?". Table 3.9. shows the frequencies, means, and SD's of the first four questions for participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies.

**Table 3.9.: Frequencies, means, and standard deviations of the first four of the extra questions for participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies**

	1 (low)	2	3	4	5	6 (high)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
I have a difficulty in controlling my shopping behavior because of credit card payment systems	10 (19.2%)	5 (9.6%)	7 (13.5%)	10 (19.2%)	12 (23.1%)	8 (15.4%)	3.634	1.738
I prefer shopping online.	7 (13.5%)	12 (23.1%)	9 (17.3%)	10 (19.2%)	6 (11.5%)	8 (15.4%)	3.384	1.646
Shopping is a tool/way for me to cope with the everyday emotional states of work stress, strain, etc.	4 (7.7%)	6 (11.5%)	6 (11.5%)	14 (26.9%)	8 (15.4%)	13(25%)	4.078	1.585
	1-20%	20-40%	40-60%	60-80%	80-100%	-	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
How much of your monthly income do you feel like you are wasting uncontrollably?	13 (25%)	18 (34.6%)	14 (26.9%)	5 (9.6%)	2 (3.8%)	-	3.326	1.079

One of the remaining two extra questions were which products they tend to buy: “Which products do you usually buy when you shop? (You can select multiple answers).”and they were asked to choose personal care, book and stationary, technological products, clothing, and other kind of products, and they could choose multiple answers. The final extra question asked was “Which way of payment do you prefer while you are spending money?” and they were given four choices; cash, credit card or bank card, credit card (on installments) and virtual bank card. Table 3.10. shows the frequencies of selections made by the participants who have higher compulsive buying tendencies for the remaining two additional questions.

**Table 3.10. Descriptives of payment method preferences and product purchasing preferences of participants with higher tendencies of compulsive buying**

Payment Method	Cash	Credit Card or Bank Card (Paid Cash)	Credit Card (on installments)	Virtual Bank Card	-
Which way of payment do you prefer while you are spending money?	7 (13.5%)	30 (57.7%)	14 (26.9%)	1 (1.9%)	-
Products Bought	Personal Care	Book and Stationery	Technological Products	Clothing	Other
Which products do you usually buy when you shop? (You can select multiple answers)	29 (55.7%)	20 (38.4%)	16 (30.7%)	49 (94.2%)	4 (7.6%)

T-test was performed to identify whether there is a significant difference between non-compulsive participants and participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies on the basis of their responses to first four additional questions asked. For “I have a difficulty in controlling my shopping behavior because of credit card payment systems”, non-compulsive participants ( $M= 2.08$ ,  $SD= 1.15$ ) were significantly different than the participants with compulsive buying tendencies ( $M=3.63$ ,  $SD= 1.73$ ),  $t(170) = -6.88$ ,  $p = .000$ .

Concerning thesecond statement which is “I prefer shopping online.”, it was found that non-compulsive participants ( $M= 3.52$ ,  $SD= 1.37$ ) were not significantly different from participants with compulsive buying tendencies ( $M= 3.38$ ,  $SD= 1.64$ ),  $t(170) = .579$ ,  $p=.563$ .

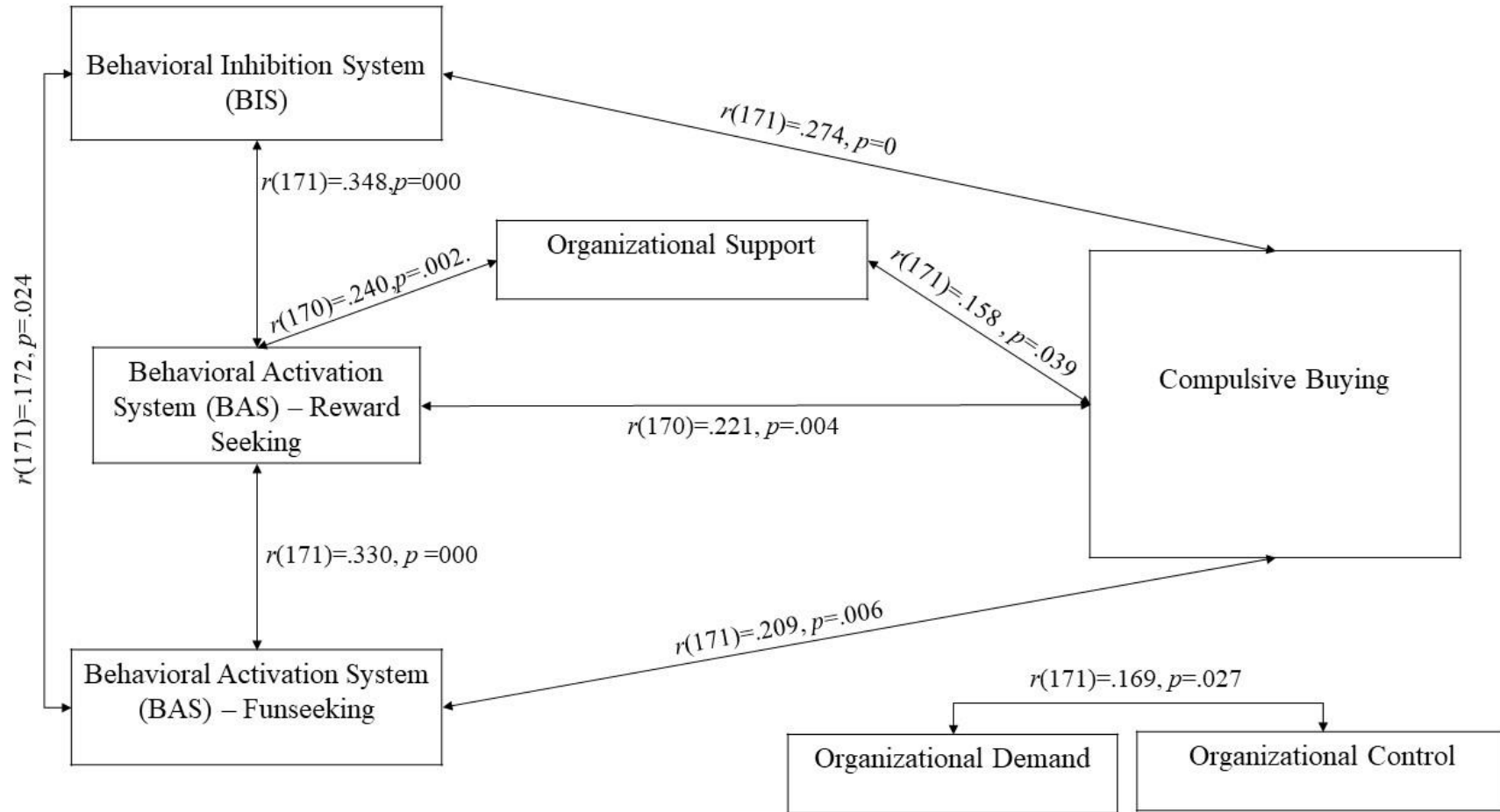
For the statement “Shopping is a tool/way for me to cope with the everyday emotional states of work stress, strain, etc.”, there was a significant difference between non-compulsive participants ( $M=1.78$ ,  $SD=.941$ ) and participants with high compulsive buying tendencies ( $M= 4.07$ ,  $SD=1.58$ ),  $t(170) = 11.756$ ,  $p=000$ .

The last of the four additional questions related to consuming tendencies which is “How much of your monthly income do you feel like you are wasting uncontrollably?”, there was also a significant difference between non-compulsive participants ( $M= 2.77$ ,  $SD= 1.06$ ) and participants with high compulsive buying tendency ( $M= 3.32$ ,  $SD=1.07$ ),  $t(170) = 3.109$ ,  $p=.002$ . T-test results of the participants’ consuming tendencies were given in Table 3.11.

**Table 3.11.: T-test results of participants' consuming tendencies**

		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
I have a difficulty in controlling my shopping behavior because of credit card payment systems.	Non-compulsive	120	2.083	1.156	-6.884	.000
	Compulsive	52	3.634	1.738		
I prefer shopping online.	Non-compulsive	120	3.525	1.371	.579	.563
	Compulsive	52	3.384	1.646		
Shopping is a tool/way for me to cope with the everyday emotional states of work stress, strain, etc.	Non-compulsive	121	1.785	.941	11.756	.000
	Compulsive	51	4.078	1.585		
How much of your monthly income do you feel like you are wasting uncontrollably?	Non-compulsive	120	2.775	1.064	3.109	.002
	Compulsive	52	3.326	1.079		

Figure 3.3.: Final Structure of Research Results



## CHAPTER 4 – DISCUSSION

The present study has aimed to investigate the relation between consumption, job strain, and Behavioral Inhibition System / Behavioral Activation System (BIS / BAS) drives. The study has been designed as an exploratory research, to explore the overall relationship of the said factors. As there are little to none studies done about consumption and its relation to job strain with BIS/BAS drives, correlation analysis, regression analysis, and t-test analysis was performed with all variables. The purpose of this research was to determine whether there is a relationship between job strain and compulsive consumption, and whether there is a relationship between BIS/BAS drives and compulsive consumption. It was seen that job strain is solely related to the job environment and it does not affect the compulsive buying tendencies of the participants. However, it was also seen that BIS/BAS drives had strong relation with compulsive buying tendencies. Moreover, it was seen that participants with high compulsive buying tendencies gave significantly different answers to the additional questions related to buying habits than other participants.

Swedish Job Demand – Control – Support scale originally has three dimensions (factors) which are “demand”, “control”, and “support”. In this study, it was also found that the scale has three main dimensions, them being “demand”, “control”, and “support”. On the other hand, Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation Scale (BIS / BAS Scale) originally has four dimensions; “Reward-Seeking”, “Behavioral Inhibition (BIS)”, “Drive”, and “Funseeking”. In the current study, “Drive” factor has been excluded as it didn’t carry sufficient loading, therefore analysis has been done with “Funseeking”, “Reward-Seeking”, and “Behavioral Inhibition (BIS)”. Lastly, Compulsive Consumption Scale has a single factor, therefore it has been put into investigation accordingly.

In this study, it was seen that reward seeking and buying impulse has a relation. These two dimensions have been found positively correlated, thus, it can be said that participants liked to shop to reward themselves for various



achievements. Reward-seeking is a drive that motivates people to get in action in expectation for the result being reward-like. Participants regarded shopping as a rewarding activity and, they lean to using shopping as a reward for their achievements and accomplishments. At the end of the day, they can just go shopping as a congratulations gift for themselves that they got through the day.

Organizational support has been found to have a positive relation with buying impulse and reward seeking. As buying impulse and reward seeking also has a positive relation, it should be considered while inspecting all of these dimensions relation within each other. People who are high on reward seeking dimension tend to get motivated by possible rewarding and positive outcomes, therefore it can be said that organizational support is seen by the participants as an overall rewarding and positive aspect. As it is a rewarding and positive aspect, it can be also said that organizational support is a chance to enhance the possibility of a reward and positive environment within the organization. When it comes to the relation between organizational support and buying impulse, the reward aspect of the organizational support must be considered within the relation. Both of the dimensions have relation with reward seeking therefore it can be said that both of the dimensions have a rewarding aspect within them. Moreover, organizational support can affect the buying impulse as an individual spends the most of their time during the weekdays at work. Social circles influence purchase decisions and they also regulate an individual's behaviors. In order to belong to the group, individuals give attention to what others think, and they try to please them. Thus, it can be said that an employee who has good organizational support can reward themselves with shopping, and the support within the organization can also be a driving motivation for them to shop to look decent, presentable, etc. within the people the individual works with.

According to the analysis done between organizational support, buying impulse, and reward seeking, it has been seen that organizational support has a moderating role in the relation between buying impulse and reward seeking. Buying impulse and reward seeking have found to be correlated. When

organizational support becomes the moderator in the relation between consumption and reward seeking, the strength and direction of the relation between reward seeking and consumption changes. When organizational support is low, whether the reward seeking is high or low, the consumption rate doesn't significantly change. However, if the organizational support is high, reward seeking dimension affects the consumption significantly. This meaning, if the organizational support and the reward seeking dimension are both high, the consumption rate is also high. Overall, it has been seen that the strength and direction of the relationship increases between reward seeking and consumption when organizational support is the moderator of this relation.

In the current study, Behavioral Inhibition and buying impulse has a positive and significant relationship between them. Behavioral Inhibition is a neurological system where the individual escapes negative consequences and punishments (Carver & White, 1994). The system gets activated by negative or boring events, and punishments (Gable, Reis, Elliot, 2000). It has been stated before by Miltenberger (2003) and by Müller (2012) that people who are high on BIS score can deal with negative emotions and negative mood states by shopping. In the current study, it was seen that there is a relation between BIS and buying impulse, therefore the earlier statements have stayed relevant to this study. It can be said that the participants who have been through negative events, who are having negative emotions and a negative mood, tend to shop to escape from those negative emotions and events.

As it has been stated, people who are high on the behavioral inhibition avoid negative consequences and punishments (Carver & White, 1994). Behavioral Inhibition was found to have a positive and significant correlation with reward seeking in the current study. People who get driven by rewards tend to pull through hard jobs by thinking about the reward at the end of that job. Also avoiding negative consequences and seeking for positive consequences (reward seeking) are relevant, therefore the relation between them is strong. Thus, it can be said that people who are high on the BIS aspect avoid negative consequences

and tend to deal with negative moods with rewarding activities such as shopping. Following this path, mediation analysis has been done between reward seeking and buying impulse as the mediator being BIS. It was seen that BIS had a full mediating role in the relationship between reward seeking and buying impulse.

It was also found that funseeking has a positive correlation with Behavioral Inhibition. People high on behavioral inhibition tend to avoid negative outcomes, negative moods and negative emotions, whereas people who are high on funseeking tend to seek out fun and new experiences. As it has been found that funseeking and Behavioral Inhibition has a positive relationship, it can be said that people who seek out fun and new experiences, and therefore having fun experiences, are highly unlikely to have negative outcomes because of it, as the experience overall is seen as rewarding. Conclusively, funseeking and reward seeking have a positive relation, so it can be said that the experience is seen as a rewarding activity, and as funseeking and BIS has a positive correlation, a rewarding activity cannot have fully negative consequences as the experience itself is fun, rewarding, and therefore positive.

People who have high funseeking drives tend to get motivated to try new experiences (Baumann et al., 2014), and as they are eager to try new experiences, they are also likely to try new products and follow trends. In the current study, funseeking and buying impulse was found to have a significant and positive relation. People who have high funseeking attributes can go shopping, discover and try new products to have a fun and good time. Discovering new brands, looking at constantly changing shop windows, and trying new products can all be seen as new experiences and therefore if the person is high on fun seeking, they can shop for the experience it provides to them. Overall, it can be said that the participants who are high on funseeking see shopping as a fun activity.

As fun seeking has significant and positive relations with both BIS and buying impulse, mediation analysis has been done in the relationship between Behavioral Inhibition (BIS) and buying impulse with the mediator being fun

seeking. It was seen that fun seeking has a partial mediating role in the relationship between Behavioral Inhibition (BIS) and buying impulse.

It was seen in the literature that people who are high on reward seeking tend to get motivated with the positive and rewarding possible outcomes, and people who are high on funseeking tend to get motivated by trying new experiences. Moreover, people who seek out new and fun experiences tend to also seek for positive and rewarding outcomes. Thus, funseeking was found to have a positive correlation with reward seeking in the current study. A fun and new experience is a reward itself because it is an overall positive and rewarding experience for people who are both high on the reward seeking and fun seeking aspect. It is likely to have a good and rewarding result because they have a fun experience doing the job to begin with. Following this path, mediation analysis has been done between fun seeking and buying as the mediator being reward seeking. It was seen that reward seeking has a full mediation role in the relationship between fun seeking and buying impulse.

In the current study, job strain consists of three factors which are; organizational demand, organizational control, and organizational support. Job strain's overall relation with the compulsive buying behavior has been investigated and it was seen that apart from organizational support, job strain does not have a significant relation with compulsive buying behavior. Moreover, it was also seen that job strain doesn't have a significant relation with BIS/BAS factors, apart from the relation between organizational support and reward seeking.

It was seen in the study that organizational support and organizational demand has a relation with organizational control. Organizational control is the decision latitude (control) an employee has over a job. If the employee has high decision latitude towards the job, they can control and decide what to do in the job and how to do it. If the employee has low decision latitude (control) over the job, the employee can't decide what to do to get the job done and which way to follow to get the job done. As said before, organizational control also plays an important role in the tension release in work, as the employee can decide when to give break

during the job (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). The organizational demand is the psychological demands of the job. Psychological demands a job has are coordination problems, stimulation necessary to complete a task, and the presence of deadlines. Karasek (1979) has presented the job demand-control theory which differentiated low strain and high strain jobs. According to Karasek, if a job has high psychological demands and high decision latitude, that job is an active job. If the job has low psychological demands and low decision latitude, that job is a passive job. If the job has high decision latitude and low psychological demands, it is a low-strain job. Lastly, if the job has low decision latitude and high psychological demands, that job is a high-strain job. In this aspect, as the study showed that organizational demand (psychological demand) and organizational control (decision latitude) of the participants to have a relation, it can be said that for the participants of this study the psychological demands a job requires and the decision latitude an employee has over that job is related.

As said, in the current study organizational support and organizational control has a positive correlation. When an employee has high decision latitude over the job and they can decide what to do and how to do the job, they also can decide when to take a break from the job. Csikszentmihalyi (1975) has stated that office breaks, such as coffee breaks, have the power to reduce stress caused by work. Employees can chat and socialize during that time therefore they can strengthen their relationship with their co-workers, resulting with a positive job environment. A positive job environment and social support is seen as organizational support. The positive relationship between co-workers can be supported by having a high decision latitude over the job, and as a result of that, employees who have high decision latitude and social support are said to have socio-emotional support (Israel & Antonucci, 1987), which diminishes the chance of psychological strain.

On the other hand, organizational support does not have a positive or significant relation with funseeking in the current study. Funseeking dimension as stated before is a dimension in which people who is high on funseeking gets

motivated by fun and new experiences, and also, they get excited in the possibility of an experience that can be fun. People who are high on funseeking can do something just because it is fun, thus the funseeking dimension is often compared to impulsiveness. Organizational support is the social support an employee has with their co-workers. It has been seen that the relationship between the co-workers are not seen as a fun and new experience. Social relationships in the work is a concrete piece of the organizational environment, therefore it can be said that it is not seen as a new and exciting experience but a piece of the organization's culture. Therefore, these two dimensions are not related.

Furthermore, it has also been seen that Behavioral Inhibition does not have a relation with organizational support. As it was mentioned before, organizational support is the social support an employee has from their co-workers at work, and it is an important piece of the organizations culture. BIS on the other hand is the tendency a person has to avoid negative outcomes, negative moods and negative emotions. The higher BIS is on a person, the higher the tendency to avoid negative environments. These two dimensions, BIS and organizational support are not related.

Reward seeking, behavioral inhibition (BIS), and funseeking have been found to not have a correlation with organizational demand and organizational control. Therefore, it can be said that job strain has no relation with behavioral activation system and behavioral inhibition system. Both systems are neurological systems which are formed by drives a person has that leads them to take action. A company has its own psychological demands which are basically requirements of the job, and its own state of control, in which an employee either has control over the job or not. These two dimensions of the job cannot change according to an individual. For example; a person can be high on funseeking, however that only effects the decision of choosing a job. If the person is already in a job, they cannot change the demands of the job or the control they have over to how to do a job. Overall, it has become apparent with this study that a person's behavioral

activation and behavioral inhibition system doesn't affect a person's likelihood to experience job strain.

Organizational support has also found to be not related to organizational demand. A job's psychological demands and requirements form the organizational demand dimension. The organizational demand is present when an employee gets the job, and it usually stays about the same if the company doesn't go through a huge transformation. The work's requirements don't change whether or not the employee is in a supportive environment. As it was mentioned before, work related strain can diminish with the overall control an employee has over a job, as they can decide when to give breaks and socialize. However, being in a supportive environment within the work doesn't change the requirements a job already has; therefore, it can be said that organizational support and organizational demand doesn't have a relation. The employee can still get along with their co-workers meanwhile experiencing strain related to high psychological demands.

As a result of this, it has been seen that, having a socially supportive environment within the work can influence an employee's control over their work, and the control they have over the work can also influence their social environment. That means, an employee can strengthen their relationships if they have a control over when to give break, and also, if they have supportive environment within the work, they can talk and decide when to give breaks, how to divide the work, and what to do with the work in hand. Furthermore, organizational control and organizational demand has a positive correlation. As both are what forms a job, it is natural that these two elements of the job are correlated. The control over the work and the psychological demands that job requires are the main points that forms an organization.

A person can be in a high strain or low strain job, passive or an active job, and it won't influence their buying behavior. That means, overall job strain doesn't affect a person's buying decisions. It was identified in the current study that organizational control and organizational demand were not related with buying impulse. Therefore, it can be said that job strain has no relation with buying

impulse. However, additional questions related to buying have been asked to participants. As compulsive consumption and impulsive buying to lighten the bad mood is not a usual thing but has an obsessive nature, it is considered normal that not all the employees who experience job strain would seek comfort in shopping.

According to the compulsive consumption scale that has been given to the participants, only 52 participants have compulsive consumption tendencies among 175 participants. Compulsive buying behavior is an addiction, and it is affected by negative motives that lead to purchase decision making (Faber & O'Guinn, 1992). Not all individuals who experience negative moods, stress, emotional void, and other causes of compulsive buying behavior find the solution in compulsive buying. People with compulsive buying behavior has difficulty controlling their repetitive, impulsive, and uncontrollable purchase behavior. All of these aspects make compulsive buying behavior related impulse control problems and obsessive-compulsive disorder (Rigdway, Kukar-Kinner, & Monroe, 2008). Its compulsive nature leads compulsive buyers to constantly reach shopping as a coping method for their negative states whether the consequences harm them or not (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). The process of shopping is the main motivator for compulsive buyers. They feel rewarded as a result of shopping, and they also feel happy about their experience of shopping. Overall, the characteristics of compulsive buyers are not similar to typical, practical consumers (Faber et al., 1987; Krueger, 1988; O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Valence et al., 1988). Thus, it is impartible that compulsive consumption tendencies are seen in the minority of the current study's participants.

According to the additional questions asked to the participants, 24 participants in total have stated that either they are always having difficulty in controlling their shopping behavior while paying with a credit card or they are almost always having difficulty in controlling their shopping behavior while paying with a credit card. Likewise, 26 participants have stated that they are likely to have difficulty in controlling their shopping behavior while paying with a credit card. That being said, a total of 50 participants among 175 participants have stated



that they have difficulty controlling their buying behavior. This number is considerable as the difficulty in controlling their buying behavior while paying with a credit card shows that these participants are impulsive buyers and they are likely to be compulsive consumers.

Also, an additional statement has been given to the participants to check whether or not they shop as a way to cope with work stress and strain. The statement given is “Shopping is a tool/way for me to cope with the everyday emotional states of work stress, strain, etc.”. Participants who have stated that they are always coping with everyday work stress and strain by shopping is 13 participants. Additionally, 10 participants have stated that they almost always cope with the work stress and strain by shopping, and 19 participants have stated that they are more likely to shop to cope with the work stress and job strain. As a result, it has been seen that total of 42 participants among 175 participants are currently using shopping as a way to cope with work stress and job strain. It should also be remembered that not all participants are expected to experience work stress and job strain, therefore the result is surprisingly high, and it can be said that using shopping as a coping method is not something that is affecting a minority of employees. About one in every four employees are likely to use shopping as a coping method to relieve their work stress and job strain.

To examine the differences between participants with higher tendencies of compulsive buying and those who don't have compulsive buying tendencies, further investigation was done. Participants have been grouped as “participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies” and “non-compulsive participants” and they were investigated separately. Most of the participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies were females, and most of them were university graduates. Furthermore, the majority of these participants also stated that they can make expenditure with thinking. This statement is important in the aspect that the majority of participants who have higher tendencies to compulsive buying does their shopping not impulsively, without thinking about the prices, but with thinking and planning of the purchase beforehand.

According to the t-test analysis performed to additional questions about consumption habits to identify the differences between non-compulsive participants and participants with higher tendencies to shop compulsively, the answers to these questions came out to be significantly different. Participants with higher tendencies of compulsive buying rated higher in the question “I have a difficulty in controlling my shopping behavior because of credit card payment systems.” than non-compulsive participants. They also rated higher in “Shopping is a tool/way for me to cope with the everyday emotional states of work stress, strain, etc.” and “How much of your monthly income do you feel like you are wasting uncontrollably?”. The significant differences between non-compulsive participants and participants with higher tendencies to compulsive buying shows that these participants have different buying habits. Participants with higher tendencies to compulsive buying also have more difficulty in controlling their shopping behavior and they are also likely to waste their money uncontrollably. In the study, job strain and compulsive buying have not been found to be significantly related, however, according to the t-test done to these questions, especially to “Shopping is a tool/way for me to cope with the everyday emotional states of work stress, strain, etc.”, it was seen that participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies were very likely to use shopping as a coping mechanism for work stress and job strain. Job strain doesn’t seem to cause compulsive buying tendencies, however people with compulsive buying tendencies are more likely to use shopping as a coping method.

It was seen from this study that job strain doesn’t have a relation with drives that form BIS/BAS and buying impulse. Therefore, it can be said that an individual’s drives do not affect their work environment and the stress / strain caused by the job. They can have reward seeking and/or funseeking attributes, or they can be high on behavioral inhibition, however this does not influence the requirements of the job and therefore it doesn’t influence the possible job strain that can be caused by psychological demands and the control the employee has over their job. BIS/BAS drives can only be affective in the state of choosing a job, however after the job is taken, they are no longer playing an important role to

avoid strain. Also, the attributes a job has doesn't influence an employee's buying behavior. This means, whether or not a person is experiencing job related strain, their buying impulse doesn't change according to it. However, through additional questions it has been seen that there are employees who use shopping as a way of coping with work related stress and strain, moreover participants with higher compulsive buying tendencies also rated higher in the additional questions. Therefore, it can be said that buying impulse doesn't generally increase with the increase of work related stress and strain, however, an individual's drives and their tendency to compulsive buying plays a big role in making compulsive buying a coping method for job stress and job strain. Shopping can be used to relieve stress, and employees can use shopping as a way to reward themselves. It can also be used to escape from negative emotions and moods, as it was seen that BIS and buying impulse were positively correlated. Moreover, shopping can also be a way to have fun. Overall, it can be said that, participants of this study are likely to use shopping as a way to escape from negative emotions and moods, they are seeing shopping as a rewarding activity, and they also see shopping as a fun experience, meanwhile participants with higher tendencies on compulsive buying can use shopping as a coping method for their job stress/strain.

#### **4.1. Contribution of the study**

This study is an exploratory research study to investigate a new subject, which is the relation of job strain, Behavioral Inhibition/Behavioral Activation System (BIS/BAS) and buying impulse a person has. In the literature, buying impulse has never been investigated thoroughly with the overall job strain that person has. Therefore, this study had the aim to open a new area of research and meanwhile seek out relevant information about buying impulse and its relation to job strain. As a result of this study, it has been seen that job strain had no significant relation with buying impulse, and also it had no significant relation with BIS/BAS drives. In the end, the result was that job strain is only relevant to

the organizational environment. However, with additional questions, it has been seen that for people who have high tendencies of compulsive buying, shopping was being used as a coping method in order to deal with job strain and work-related stress. Buying impulse has been seen to have relations with funseeking, reward-seeking, BIS, and organizational support. Another important finding was that organizational support was a moderator in the relation between buying impulse and reward seeking. Additionally, it was seen that BIS has a mediating role in the relationship between reward seeking and buying impulse, and reward seeking has a mediating role in the relationship between fun seeking and buying impulse. It was also seen that fun seeking has a partial mediating role in the relationship between BIS and buying impulse. Lastly, this study provided an overall investigation in the area of buying behavior among Turkish white-collar workers, the drives that affect their buying behavior, and whether job strain was related to BIS/BAS drives and buying impulse.

#### **4.2. Limitation and Further Studies**

Due to the fact that previous literature related to job strain and its relation to buying behavior is very limited, close to none, the literature review of this study has also been very limited in that aspect. With the help of similar topics, the topic in hand has been investigated. However, it is hoped that this study will open the way for further studies in the area of job strain and buying behavior, and therefore, further researches in the topic, which is buying impulse and job strain, can use this study as a source of help. Also, the research of this study has been conducted in a quantitative way, therefore deductions related to the findings had to be explained cautiously without assumptions. Qualitative study might have brought more elaborate understanding the issue. Furthermore, his research has been mostly based on correlational relations and mediations, therefore the deductions related to causality should be conducted in further studies. Finally, making deductions among the participants who have compulsive consumption

tendencies and impulsive consumption tendencies with the use of qualitative research methods, such as interviews, could have given more strong findings.

## REFERENCES

- Aboujaoude, E., Gamel, N., & Koran, L. (2003). A 1-year naturalistic follow-up of patients with compulsive shopping disorder. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry, 64*(8), 946–950.
- Abbasi, M., Sadeghi, H., Pirani, Z., & Vatandoust, L. (2016). Behavioral activation and inhibition system's role in predicting addictive behaviors of patients with bipolar disorder of Roozbeh Psychiatric Hospital. *Iranian journal of nursing and midwifery research, 21*(6), 616-621.
- Akman, Ö. (2009). *Exploring the roots of knowledge workers' identity in their everyday life and consumption practices*. (İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi, Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://openaccess.bilgi.edu.tr:8080/xmlui/handle/11411/487>
- Attiq, S. (2013). *Tendencies of Consumer's Compulsive Buying Behavior*. (Mohammad Ali Jinnah University, Islamabad, Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <https://cust.edu.pk/static/uploads/2018/10/Saman-Attiq.pdf>
- Bagwell L. S, & Bernheim B. D. (1996). Veblen Effects in a Theory of Conspicuous Consumption. *The American Economic Review, 86*(3), 349-373.
- Bagozzi, R. P. (1983). A holistic methodology for modeling consumer response to innovation. *Operations Research, 31*(1), 128-176.
- Barley, S.R & Kunda, G. (2001). Bringing work back in. *Organization Science, 12* (1), 76-95.
- Baron, R.M. & Kenny, D.A. (1986) The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1173-1182.

- Barrick, M. R. (2005). Yes, personality matters: Moving on to more important matters. *Human Performance*, 18(4), 359–372.
- Bartram, T., Casimir, G., Djurkovic, N., Leggat, S.G., & Stanton, P. (2012). Do perceived high performance work systems influence the relationship between emotionallabor, burnout and intention to leave? A study of Australian nurses. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 68, 1567- 1578.
- Baudrillard, J. (1998) *The Consumer Society: Myths and Structures*. London: Sage.
- Baumann, M.R., Oviatt, D., Garza, R.T., Gonzalez-Blanks, A.G., Lopez, S.G., Alexander-Delpech, P., Beason, F.A., Petrova, V.I. & Hale, W.J. (2014). Variation in BAS-BIS profiles across categories of cigarette use. *Addictive Behaviors*, 39, 1477-1483.
- Baumeister, R.F. (1990). *Anxiety and deconstruction: On escaping the self*. Hillsdale, NJ, England: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Bayton, J. A. (1958) Motivation, Cognition, Learning: Basic Factors in Consumer Behavior. *Journal of Marketing*, 22(3), 282-289.
- Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G., & Teel, J. E. (1989). Measurement of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15(4), 473–481.
- Bearden, W. O., & Rose, R. L. (1990). Attention to social comparison information: An individual difference factor affecting consumer conformity. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(4), 461–471
- Bettman, J.R., Luce, M.F. & Payne, J.W. (1998) Constructive Consumer Choice Processes. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 25, 187-217.

- Black, D. W., Shaw, M., McCormick, B., Bayless, J. D., & Allen, J. (2012). Neuropsychological performance, impulsivity, ADHD symptoms, and novelty seeking in compulsive buying disorder. *Psychiatry Research*, *200*(2), 581-587.
- Bocock, R. (1997) *Consumption*. London: Routledge.
- Bourdieu, P. (1984) *Distinction: A Social Critique of the Judgement of Taste*. London: Routledge.
- Borteyrou, X., Truchot, D., & Rasclé, N. (2009). Le stress chez le personnel travaillant en oncologie: une tentative de classification des stratégies de coping. *Psychologie du travail et des organisations INSS*, *16*(4), 380-398.
- Britt, S. H. (1950). The Strategy of Consumer Motivation. *Journal of Marketing*, *14*(5), 666-674.
- Büttner, O.B., Schulz, S. & Silberer, S (2006). Perceived Risk and Deliberation in Retailer Choice: Consumer Behavior towards Online Pharmacies. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *33*, 197-202.
- Campbell-Sills, L., Liverant, G.I., & Brown, T. A. (2004). Psychometric evaluation of the behavioral inhibition / behavioral activation scales in a large sample of outpatients with anxiety and mood disorders. *Psychological Assessment*, *16*(3), 244-254.
- Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Weintraub, J. K., (1989). Assessing coping strategies: A theoretically based approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *56*(2), 267-283.
- Carver, C. S., & White, T. L. (1994). Behavioral inhibition, behavioral activation, and affective responses to impending reward and punishment: The BIS/BAS Scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *67*, 319-333.



- Cherrier, H. (2009). Anti-consumption discourses and consumer-resistant identities. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 181-190.
- Cherrier, H. & Murray, J. B. (2007). Reflexive dispossession and the self: Constructing a processual theory of identity. *Consumption, Markets & Culture*, 10 (1), 1-29.
- Childers, T. L., Carr, C. L., Peck, J., & Carson, S. (2002). Hedonic and utilitarian motivations for online retail shopping behavior. *Journal of Retailing*, 77(4), 511-535.
- Christenson, G.A., Faber, R.J., de Zwaan, M., Raymond, N.C., Specker, S.M., Ekern, M.D., Mackenzie, T.B., Crosby, R.D., Crow, S.J., Eckert, E.D., et al. (1994). Compulsive buying: descriptive characteristics and psychiatric comorbidity. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 55(1), 5-11.
- Clarke, K. & Belk, R.W. (1979). The Effects of Product Involvement and Task Definition on Anticipated Consumer Effort. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 6, 313-318.
- Clark, M. & Calleja, K. (2008). Shopping addiction: A preliminary investigation among Maltese university students. *Addiction Research and Theory*, 16(6), 633-649.
- Cloninger, C. R. (1987). A systematic method for clinical description and classification of personality variants: A proposal. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 44(6), 573-588.
- Conte, J. M. & Gintoft, J. N. (2005). Polychronicity, Big Five personality dimensions, and sales performance. *Human Performance*, 18, 427-444.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1975). *Beyond Boredom and Anxiety*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

- Çakar, N. D. & Yıldız, S. (2009), The Effects of Organizational Justice on Job Satisfaction: Is “Perceived Organizational Support” A Mediator? *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*, 8 (28), 68-90.
- Damon, J. (1988). *Shopaholics*. Los Angeles: Price Stern and Sloan. Retrieved from: [fsap.harvard.edu/moneyaddictions.html](http://fsap.harvard.edu/moneyaddictions.html).
- Demiral, Y., Ünal, B., Kılıç, B., Soysal, A., Bilgin, A.C., Uçku, R., & Theorell, T. (2007). İş Stresi Ölçeğinin İzmir Konak Belediyesi’nde Çalışan Erkek İşçilerde Geçerlik ve Güvenilirliğinin İncelenmesi. *Toplum Hekimliği Bülteni*, 26(1), 11-18.
- DeSarbo, W.S., & Edwards, E.A., (1996). Typologies of compulsive buying behavior, a constrained cluster wise regression approach. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 5(3), 231–262.
- Donnelly, G.E., Ksendzova, M., Howell, R.T., Vohs, K.D., & Baumeister, R.F. (2016). Buying to blunt negative feelings: Materialistic escape from the self. *Review of General Psychology*, 20(3), 272-316.
- Douglas, M. & Isherwood, B (1980). *The World of Goods: Towards an Anthropology of Consumption*. England: Penguin Books.
- Diefendorff, J. M., & Mehta, K. (2007). The relations of motivational traits with workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 967–977.
- Dittmar, H., & Drury, J. (2000). Self-image—Is it in the bag? A qualitative comparison between ‘ordinary’ and ‘excessive’ consumers. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 21(2), 109–142.
- Dowling, G. R. & Staelin, R. (1994). A Model of Perceived Risk and Intended Risk Handling Activity. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21(1), 119-134.
- Egan, J. (2007). *Marketing Communications*. London: Cengage Learning
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S. & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.

- Eisenberger, R., Fasola, P., & Lamastro-Davis, V. (1990). Perceived Organizational Support and Employee Diligence, Commitment and Innovation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*, 51-59.
- Elo, A.L., Leppanen, A., & Jahkola, A. (2003). Validity of a single-term measure of stress symptoms. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health, 29* (6), 444-451.
- Eren, S. S., Eroğlu, F., & Hacıoğlu, G. (2012). Compulsive buying tendencies through materialistic and hedonic values among college students in Turkey. *Procedial Social and Behavioral Sciences, 58*, 1370-1377.
- Ergin, E. A. (2010). Compulsive buying behavior tendencies: The case of Turkish consumers. *African Journal of Business Management, 4*(3), 333-338.
- Etzioni, A. (1986). The case for a multiple utility conception. *Economics and Philosophy, 2*, 159-183.
- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, M. W. (1985). *Personality and individual differences: A natural science approach*. New York: Plenum.
- Faber, R. J. (1992). Money changes everything: Compulsive buying from a biopsychosocial perspective. *American Behavioral Scientist, 35*, 809-819.
- Faber, R. J., & Christenson, G. A. (1996). In the mood to buy: differences in the mood states experienced by compulsive buyers and other consumers. *Psychology & Marketing, 13*(8), 803-819.
- Faber, R. J., & O'Guinn, T. C. (1992). A clinical screener for compulsive buying. *Journal of Consumer Research, 19*(3), 459-469.
- Faber, R. J., & O'Guinn, T. C. (1988). Expanding the view of consumer socialization: a nonutilitarian mass-mediated perspective. *Research in Consumer Behavior, 3*, 49-77.

- Faber, R. J. & Vohs, K. D. (2004) *To buy or not to buy?: Self-control and self-regulatory failure in purchase behavior*. New York, NY, US: Guilford Press.
- Fabien, L., & Jolicoeur, D. (1993). Socialization as an etiological factor of compulsive buying behavior among young adult consumers. *European Advances in Consumer Research*, 1, 262-268.
- Featherstone, M. (1991) *Consumer Culture and Postmodernism*. London: Sage.
- Firat, A. F. & Dholakia, N. (2003). *Consuming People: From Political Economy to Theaters of Consumption*. London: Routledge
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1980). An analysis of coping in middle-aged community sample. *Journal of health and social behavior*, 21, 219-239.
- Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S., (1985). If it changes it must be a process: A study of emotion and coping during three stages of a college examination. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 48, 150-170.
- Folkman, S. Lazarus, R. S., Dunkel-Schetter, C., DeLongis, A., & Gruen, R.J. (1986). Dynamics of stressful Encounter: Cognitive appraisal, coping, and encounter outcomes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50(5): 992-1003.
- Fowles, D. C. (1980). The three-arousal model: Implications of Gray's two-factor learning theory for heart rate, electrodermal activity, and psychopathy. *Psychophysiology*, 17(2), 87-104.
- Fowles, D. C. (1988). Psychophysiology and psychopathology: A motivational approach. *Psychophysiology*, 25(4), 373-391.
- Frost, R. O., & Hartl, T. L. (1996). A cognitive-behavioral model of compulsive hoarding. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 34, 341-350.

- Gable, L.S., Reis, T.J. & Elliot, J.A. (2000). Behavioral activation and inhibition in everyday life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78, 1135-1149.
- George, J. M. & Brief, A.P. (1992). Feeling Good–Doing Good: A Conceptual Analysis of the Mood at Work–Organizational Spontaneity Relationship. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112, 310–329.
- Gomez, A. & Gomez, R. (2002). Personality traits of the behavioral approach and inhibition systems: Associations with processing of emotional stimuli. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 32, 1299-1319.
- Gray, J. A. (1982). *The neuropsychology of anxiety: An enquiry into the functions of the septohippocampal system*. New York (NY): Oxford University Press.
- Gray, J. A. (1987). *The psychology of fear and stress*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gray, J. A. (1994). *Personality dimensions and emotion systems*. In P. Ekman, & R. J. Davidson (Eds.), *The nature of emotion*, 329-331. New York (NY): Oxford University Press.
- Guzzo, R. A., Noonan, K.A., & Elron, E. (1994). Expatriate managers and the psychological contract. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 617–626.
- Hackman, J. R., & Lawler, E. E. (1971). Employee reactions to job characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 55, 259-286.
- Hama, Y. (2001). Shopping as a coping behavior for stress. *Japanese Psychological Research*, 43(4), 218-224.
- Harvanko, A., Lust, K. Odlaug, B. L., Schreiber, L. R. N., Derbyshire, K., Christenson, G., & Grant, J. E. (2013). Prevalence and characteristics of compulsive buying in college students. *Psychiatry Research*, 210, 1079-1085.

- Hausman, A. (2000). A multi-method investigation of consumer motivations in impulse buying behavior. *Journal of Consumer marketing*, 17(5), 403-426.
- Hoang, T.G., Corbiere, M., Negrini, A., Pham, M.H., &Reinharz, D. (2013). Validation ofThe Karasek-Job Content Questionnaire to measure job strain in Vietnam. *Psychological Reports: Employment Psychology & Marketing*, 113 (2), 363-379.
- Horney K. (1964). *The neurotic personality of our time*. New York, NY: W. W. Norton &Co.
- Horváth, C., &Adıgüzel, F. (2018). Shopping enjoyment to the extreme: Hedonic shopping motivations and compulsive buying in developed and emerging markets. *Journal of Business Research*, 86, 300-310.
- Israel, B. & Antonucci, T. (1987). Social Network Characteristics and Psychological Well-Being: A Replication and Extension. *Health Education & Behavior*, 14(4), 461-481.
- Jackson, C. J. (2001). Comparison between Eysenck & Gray's models of personality in the prediction of motivational work criteria. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 31, 129–144.
- Johnson, J.V. (1986) *The impact of the workplace social support, job demands, and work control upon cardiovascular disease in Sweden*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, John Hopkins University, Stockholm.
- Johnson, S. L., Turner, R. J., & Iwata, N. (2003). BIS/BAS levels and psychiatric disorder: An epidemiological study. *Journal of Psychopathology and BehavioralAssessment*, 25(1), 25–36.
- Jorm, A. F., Christensen, H., Henderson, A. S., Jacomb, P. A., Korten, A. E., & Rodgers, B. (1999). Using the BIS/BAS scales to measure behavioral inhibition and behavioral activation: Factor structure, validity and norms in a large community sample. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 26, 49-58.

- Karasek, R.A., & Theorell, T. (1989). *Healthy Work: Stress, Productivity, and the Reconstruction of Working Life*. Basic Books. New York.
- Karasek, R. A. (1998). Demand/Control Model: A social, emotional, and physiological approach to stress risk and active behaviour development. *Encyclopedia of occupational health and safety (International Labour Office, Geneva) 34*, 6-14.
- Karasek, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. *Administrative science quarterly*, 24(2), 285-308.
- Keiser, H. N., & Ross, S. R. (2011). Carver and Whites' BIS/FFFS/BAS scales and domains and facets of the five factor model of personality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51, 39–44.
- Kellett, S., & Bolton, J. V. (2009). Compulsive buying: A cognitive-behavioural Model. *Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy*, 16, 83-99.
- Kerkhoff, A.L. & Back, K.W. (1968). *The June bug: A study of hysterical contagion*. New York, NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Kotler P. & Armstrong G. (2006). *Principles of marketing* (11th Ed.). Upper Saddle River: New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Koy, A. & Yeo. G. (2008). BIS sensitivity, negative affect and performance: Dynamic and multilevel relationships. *Human Performance*, 21, 198–225.
- Kristensen, T. S. (1995). The Demand-Control-Support Model: methodological challenges for future research, *Stress Medicine*, 11, 17–26.
- Krueger, D.W. (1988). On compulsive shopping and spending: A psychodynamic inquiry. *American Journal of Psychotherapy*. 42(10), 574- 584.
- Krych, R. (1989). Abnormal consumer behavior: A model of addictive behaviors. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 16, 745-748.

- Kukar-Kinney, M., Ridgway, N. M., & Monroe, K. B. (2009). The relationship between consumers' tendencies to buy compulsively and their motivations to shop and buy on the Internet. *Journal of Retailing*, 85(3), 298-307.
- Kukar-Kinney, M., Ridgway, N. M., & Monroe, K. B. (2010). The role of price in the behavior and purchase decisions of compulsive buyers. *Journal of Retailing*, 88, 63-71.
- Lee, E.J., Lee, S.S., & Park, J.K. (2012). What drives online compulsive buying: The role of consumer skill, knowledge, and facilitating conditions. *International Journal of E-Services and Mobile Application*, 4 (4), 48-60.
- Lejoyeux M., Ades, J., Tassain, V. & Solomon, J. (1996). Phenomenology and psychology of uncontrolled buying. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 153(12). 1524-1529.
- Leka, S. L., Griffiths, A., & Cox, T. (2003). *Work organization and stress: systematic problem approaches for employers, managers and trade union representatives*. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- Lo, H. & Harvey, N. (2012). Effects of shopping addiction on consumer decision making: Web-based studies in real time. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 1(4), 162-170.
- Loi, R., Hang-Yue, N., & Foley, S. (2006). Linking Employee Justice Perceptions to Organizational Commitment and Intention to Leave: The Mediating Role of Perceived Organizational Support. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 79, 101-120.
- Magee, A. (1994). Compulsive buying tendency as a predictor of attitudes and perceptions. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 21(1), 590-594.
- Maraz, A., Griffiths, M. D., & Demetrovics, Z. (2016). The prevalence of compulsive buying: a meta-analysis. *Addiction*, 111(3), 408-419.



- McElroy, S.L., Keck, P.E., Pope, H.G., Smith, J.M.R., & Stakowski, S.M. (1994). Compulsive Buying: A Report of 20 Cases. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 56, 33-51.
- Miltenberger, R. G., Redlin, J., Crosby, R., Stickney, M., Mitchell, J., Wonderlich, S., & Smyth, J. (2003). Direct and retrospective assessment of factors contributing to compulsive buying. *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry*, 34, 1-9.
- Mishra, A. (2015). Consumer innovativeness and consumer decision styles: a confirmatory and segmentation analysis. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 25 (1), 35-54.
- Mitchell, J. E., Burgard, M., Faber, R., Crosby, R. D., & Zwaan, M. (2006). Cognitive behavioral therapy for compulsive buying disorder. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 44, 1859-1865.
- Mitchell, V.W. & Boustani, P. (1994). A Preliminary Investigation into Pre- and Post-Purchase Risk Perception and Reduction. *European Journal of Marketing*, 28(1), 56-71.
- Moon, M.A., & Attiq, S. (2018). Compulsive Buying Behavior: Antecedents, Consequences and Prevalence in Shopping Mall Consumers of an Emerging Economy. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences*, 12(2), 548-570.
- Mueller, A., Mitchell, J. E., Black, D.W., Crosby, R. D., Berg, K., & de Zwaan, M., (2010). Latent profile analysis and comorbidity in a sample of individuals with compulsive buying disorder. *Psychiatry Research*, 178(2), 348–353.

- Mueller, A., Mitchell, J. E., Crosby, R. D., Gefeller, O., Faber, R. J., Martin, A., Bleich, S., Glaesmer, H., Exner, C., & de Zwaan, M., (2010). Estimated prevalence of compulsive buying in Germany and its association with sociodemographic characteristics and depressive symptoms. *Psychiatry Research, 180*(1-2), 137-142.
- Mueller, A., Claes, L., Mitchell, J. E., Faber, R. J., Fischer, J., & de Zwaan, M. (2011). Does compulsive buying differ between male and female students? *Personality and Individual Differences, 50*, 1309-1312.
- Mueller, A., Mitchell, J. E., Peterson, L. A., Faber, R. J., Steffen, K. J., Crosby, R. D., & Claes, L. (2011). Depression, materialism, and excessive Internet use in relation to compulsive buying. *Comprehensive Psychiatry, 52*, 420-424.
- Müller, A., Mitchell, J. E., Crosby, R. D., Cao, L., Claes, L., & de Zwaan, M. (2012). Mood states preceding and following compulsive buying episodes: An ecological momentary assessment study. *Psychiatry Research, 200* (2-3), 575–580.
- Müller, A., Claes, L., Georgiadou, E., Möllenkamp, M., Voth, E. M., Faber, R. J., & de Zwaan, M. (2014). Is compulsive buying related to materialism, depression or temperament? Findings from a sample of treatment-seeking patients with CB. *Psychiatry Research, 216*, 103-107.
- Nguyen, T., Ngamsiriudom, W., & Pelton, L. (2015). Interrelationships among facets of self, motivation, and conspicuous and sustainable consumption behavior. *International Journal of Business Science and Applied Management, 10*(2), 16-31
- O'Guinn, T. C. & Faber, R. J. (1989). Compulsive buying: A phenomenological exploration. *Journal of Consumer Research, 16*, 147–157.
- Ones, D. S. (2005). Personality at work: Raising awareness and correcting misconceptions. *Human Performance, 18*, 389–404.

- Ones, D. A., Dilchert, S., Viswesvaran, C., & Judge, T. A. (2007). In support of personality assessment in organizational settings. *Personnel Psychology*, *60*, 995–1027.
- Renn, R.W., Steinbauer, R., & Fenner, G. (2014). Employee behavioral activation and behavioral inhibition systems, manager rating of employee job performance, and employee withdrawal. *Human Performance*, *27*, 347-371.
- Percy, L. & Rossiter, J. (1992). A Model of Brand Awareness and Brand Attitude Advertising Strategies. *Psychology and Marketing*, *7*(4), 263- 274.
- Ridgway, N. M., Kukar-Kinney, M., & Monroe, K. B. (2008). An expanded conceptualization and a new measure of compulsive buying. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *35*(4), 622-639.
- Ridgway, N. M., Kukar-Kinney, M., Monroe, K. B., & Chamberlin, E. (2008b). Does excessive buying for self-relate to spending on pets? *Journal of Business Research*, *61*(5), 392–396.
- Rodríguez-Villarino R, González-Lorenzo M, Fernández-González A, Lameiras FernándezM, & Foltz M. L. (2006). Individual factors associated with buying addiction: An empirical study. *Addiction Research and Theory*, *14*(5), 511-525.
- Rhoades, L. & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived Organizational Support: A Review of the Literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*, 698-714.
- Rook, D.W. (1987) Buying Impulse. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *14*, 189-199.
- Ross, I. (1975). Perceived Risk and Consumer Behavior: A Critical Review. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *2*, 1-20.
- Rossiter, J.R. & Percy, L. (1991). Emotions and Motivations in Advertising. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *18*, 100-110.

- Roy Chaudhuri H, Mazumdar S, & Ghoshal A. (2011). Conspicuous consumption orientation: Conceptualisation, scale development and validation. *Journal of Consumer Behavior*, 10(4), 216-224.
- Seligman, M. & Miller, W.R. (1975). Depression and Learned Helplessness. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 84(3), 228-238.
- Shore, L. M. & T. H. Shore (1995). *Organizational Politics, Justice, and Support: Managing the Social Climate of the Workplace*. London: Quorum Books.
- Singh, A., Dhayal, N., & Shamim, A. (2014). Consumer Buying Behavior. *International Research Journal of Management Sociology & Humanity*, 5(12), 17-21.
- Smillie L.D., Pickering A.D. & Jackson, C.J. (2006). The new reinforcement sensitivity theory: Implications for personality measurement. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 10(4), 320-35.
- Smillie, L. D., Jackson, C. J., & Dalgleish, L. I. (2006). Conceptual distinctions among Carver and White's (1994) BAS scales: A reward-reactivity versus trait impulsivity perspective. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 40(5), 1039-1050.
- Solomon, M. (1995). *Consumer Behaviour* (3rd edition), New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Sproles, G. B. (1983). Conceptualisation and measurement of optimal consumer decision making. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 17(2), 421-438.
- Sproles, G. B., & Kendall, E. L. (1986). A methodology for profiling consumers' decision marking styles. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 20 (2), 267 -279.
- Stallworth, P. (2008). *Consumer behaviour and marketing strategic*, online, pp.9.
- Stern, H. (1962). The significance of impulse buying today. *Journal of Marketing*, 24, 59-62.

- Şişman, S. (2012). Davranışsal inhibisyon sistemi, davranışsal aktivasyon sistemi ölçeği'nin Türkçe'ye uyarlanması: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması. *Psikoloji Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 32(2), 1-22.
- Tan Çelebi, İ. (2007). Distinctive consumption practices in urban everyday life. (Master's Thesis). Retrieved from İstanbul Bilgi University, <http://openaccess.bilgi.edu.tr:8080/xmlui/handle/11411/573>
- Tauber, E. M. (1972). Marketing notes and communications. *Journal of Marketing*, 36, 46-59.
- Tauber, E. M. (1972). Why do people shop? *The Journal of Marketing*, 36(4), 46-49.
- Taylor, F.W. (1911), *The Principles of Scientific Management*. New York, NY, USA and London, UK: Harper & Brothers.
- Thomas, R. & Linstead, A. (2002). Losing the Plot? Middle Managers and Identity. *Organization*, 9(1), 71-93.
- Uçar, D. & Ötken, A.B. (2010). Perceived organizational support and organizational commitment: The mediating role of organization based self-esteem. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 25(2), 85-105.
- Valence G., d'Astous A, & Fortier L. (1988). Compulsive buying: Concept and measurement. *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 11(4); 419-433.
- Veblen, T. (1994). *The Theory of the Leisure Class: An Economic Study in the Evolution of Institutions*. New York: Dover.
- Ward, S., & Wackman, D. (1971). Family and media influences on adolescent consumer learning. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 14, 415-427.
- Wilczaki, A. R. (2006) Understanding compulsive buying: The dimensions and management of addictive shopping. (Master's Thesis). Retrieved from Eastern Michigan University, <https://commons.emich.edu/theses/186>

- World Health Organization (2008). Sensibilisation au stress professionnel dans les pays endéveloppement. *Série Protection de la santé des travailleurs*, 6, 1-20.
- Yi, S. (2013). Heterogeneity of compulsive buyers based on impulsivity and compulsivity dimensions: A latent profile analytic approach. *Psychiatry Research*, 208, 174- 182.
- Yurchisin, J., & Johnson, K. K. P. (2009). Compulsive buying behavior and its relationship to perceived social status associated with buying, materialism, self-esteem, and apparel product Involvement. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 32(3), 291-314.
- Zeren, D. & Gökdağlı, N. (2017). Satın alma motivasyonları: Tüketicilerin sanal kompulsif davranışları üzerine bir araştırma. *Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi Pazarlama Kongresi Özel Sayısı, Mayıs*, 41-58.
- Zhang, C., Brook, J.S., Leukefeld, C.G., De La Rosa, M. & Brook, D.W. (2017) Compulsive buying and quality of life: An estimate of monetary cost of compulsive buying among adults in early midlife. *Psychiatry research*, 252, 208-214.

## APPENDIX

### Appendix A: Swedish Job – Demand – Support -DCSQ Scale (Turkish)

#### Turkish Version of Job-Demand-Support-DCSQ Scale

1. İşinizde çok hızlı çalışmak zorunda mısınız?
2. İşinizde çok yoğun çalışmak zorunda mısınız?
3. İşiniz çok fazla kuvvet (efor) gerektirir mi?
4. İşinizde, işinizle ilgili görevleri yetiştirecek kadar zamanınız oluyor mu?
5. İşinizde sizden birbiriyle çelişen şeyler istenir mi?
6. İşinizde yeni şeyleri öğrenme olasılığı var mıdır?
7. İşiniz yüksek düzeyde beceri veya uzmanlık gerektirir mi?
8. İşinizde sizden yenilikler yapmanız beklenir mi?
9. İşinizde her gün aynı şeyleri mi yaparsınız? İşiniz monoton mudur?
10. İşinizi NASIL yapacağınız konusunda karar vermede seçim hakkınız var mı?
11. İşinizde NE yapacağınıza karar vermede seçim hakkınız var mıdır?
12. Çalıştığım yerde sakin ve hoş bir ortam var.
13. Çalıştığım yerde birbirimizle iyi geçiniriz.
14. İşyerinde çalışanlar beni destekler.
15. Kötü günümdeysem işyerindekiler durumumu anlarlar.
16. Üstlerimle ilişkilerim iyidir.
17. İş arkadaşlarımla çalışmak hoşuma gider.

## **Appendix B: Swedish Job – Demand – Support -DCSQ Scale (English)**

### **Job-Demand-Support-DCSQ Scale**

1. Does your job require you to work very fast?
2. Does your job require you to work very hard?
3. Does your job require a too great work effort?
4. Do you have sufficient time for all your work tasks?
5. Do conflicting demands often occur in your work?
6. Do you have the opportunity to learn new things in your work?
7. Does your job require creativity?
8. Does your job require doing the same tasks over and over again?
9. Do you have the possibility to decide for yourself how to carry out your work?
10. Do you have the possibility to decide for yourself what should be done in your work?
11. There is a quiet and pleasant atmosphere at my place of work.
12. There is good collegiality at work.
13. My co-workers (colleagues) are there for me (support me).
14. People at work understand that I may have a 'bad' day.
15. I get along well with my supervisors
16. I get along well with my co-workers.



## Appendix C: Compulsive Buying Scale (Turkish)

### Turkish Version of Compulsive Buying Scale

1. Param olduđunda, tamamını veya bir kısmını harcamaktan kendimi alamam.
2. Sıklıkla, plansız bir şekilde bir mağazada gördüğüm şeyi sadece ona sahip olmuş olmak için satın alırım.
3. Alışveriş, sıkıntılarıımı unutmanın ve rahatlamamın bir yoludur.
4. Bazen içimde beni alışveriş yapmaya iten bir şey olduğunu hissediyorum.
5. Kıyafet, ayakkabı, vb. satın almak için içimde çok güçlü bir dürtü olduđu zamanlar oluyor.
6. Bazı zamanlar, birşeyler satın aldıktan sonra kendimi biraz suçlu hissediyorum çünkü bu satın alma çok mantıksız gözüküyor.
7. Satın aldıklarımın kimseye göstermediğim şeyler var çünkü insanların saçma bir harcama yaptığını ve paramı boşa harcadığımı düşünmesinden korkuyorum.
8. Sıklıkla, alışverişe çıkıp birşeyler satın almak için gerçekten istek duyuyorum.
9. Bir alışveriş merkezine girer girmez bir mağazaya gidip alışveriş yapmak istiyorum.
10. Markalardan gelen kampanya, indirim vb. mesajları beni alışveriş yapmaya iter.
11. Çok az paramın kaldığını bildiğim zamanlarda bile sık sık bir ürün satın alabilirim.
12. Para harcamayı seviyorum

## **Appendix D: Compulsive Buying Scale (English)**

### **Compulsive Buying Scale by Valence. D'Astous& Fortier**

Please express the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Please place an X on the line that best indicates how you feel about each statement.

1. When I have money, I cannot help but spend part or all of it.
2. I am often impulsive in my buying behavior.
3. For me, shopping is a way of facing the stress of my daily life and relaxing.
4. I sometimes feel that something inside pushed me to go shopping.
5. There are times when I have a strong urge to buy.
6. At times, I have felt somewhat guilty after buying a product, because it seemed unreasonable.
7. There are some things I buy that I do not show to anybody for fear of being perceived as irrational in my buying behavior.
8. I often have an unexplainable urge, a sudden and spontaneous desire, to go and buy something.
9. As soon as I enter a shopping center or mall, I have an irresistible urge to go into a shop and buy something.
10. I am one of those people who often respond to direct mail offers.
11. I have often bought a product that I did not need, while knowing that I have very little money left.
12. I am a spendthrift.
13. I have sometimes thought "If I had to do it over again, I would..." and felt sorry for something I have done or said.

## Appendix E: BIS/BAS Scale (Turkish)

### Turkish Version of BIS-BAS Scale

Bu testteki her madde, insanların kendilerinden bahsederken kullandıkları bazı ifadeleri tanımlamaktadır. Lütfen her maddeyi okuyunuz ve size ne kadar uygun olup olmadığına karar veriniz. Her madde için, 4 seçenekten (Tamamen katılıyorum, Biraz katılıyorum, Biraz katılmıyorum, Hiç katılmıyorum) sizi en iyi ifade eden seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Lütfen hiçbir maddeyi boş bırakmayınız ve her madde için sadece bir seçenek işaretleyiniz. Cevaplarınızın tutarlı olup olmayacağından endişe duymadan her maddeyi tek bir maddeymiş gibi cevaplayınız. Lütfen olabildiğince dürüst olunuz ve samimi cevaplar veriniz.

1. Bir insanın ailesi, hayatındaki en önemli şeydir.
2. Başıma kötü bir şey gelmek üzere olsa bile, nadiren korkarım veya sinirlenirim.
3. İstediğim şeyleri elde etmek için, her yolu denerim.
4. Bir şeyi yapmakta iyiysem, onu devam ettirmeyi severim.
5. Eğlenceli olacağını düşündüğüm yeni şeyleri denemeye her zaman istek duyarım.
6. Nasıl giyindiğim benim için önemlidir.
7. İstediğim şeyi elde ettiğimde, heyecanlı ve enerji dolu olurum.
8. Eleştirilme veya azarlanma beni oldukça incitir.
9. Bir şeyi istediğimde, genellikle onu elde etmek için elimden ne geliyorsa yaparım.
10. Çoğu zaman bir şeyleri başka bir sebep olmaksızın, sırf eğlenceli olabilecek diye yapmak isterim.
12. İstediğim şeyi elde etmek için bir ihtimal görürsem, hemen harekete geçerim.
13. Birisinin bana kızgın olduğunu bildiğimde veya düşündüğümde, oldukça endişelenirim veya üzülürüm.
14. İstediğim bir şey için bir fırsat yakaladığımda hemen heyecanlanırım.

15. Çoğu zaman düşünmeden o an aklıma eseni yaparım.
16. Eğer hoş olmayan bir şeyin olacağını düşünürsem, genellikle oldukça “gerilirim”.
17. Çoğu zaman insanların neden öyle davrandıklarını merak ederim.
18. Başıma iyi şeylerin gelmesi, beni çok olumlu etkiler.
19. Önemli bir şeyi kötü yaptığımı düşün- düğümde endişelenirim.
20. Heyecan ve yeni duygular yaşamayı çok isterim.
21. Bir şeyi elde etmeye çalıştığım zaman “kural tanımam”.
22. Arkadaşlarıma kıyasla çok az korkum vardır.
23. Bir yarışmayı kazanmak beni heyecanlandırır.
24. Hata yapmaktan endişelenirim.

## **Appendix F: BIS/BAS Scale (English)**

### **BIS/BAS Scale**

1. A person's family is the most important thing in life.
2. Even if something bad is about to happen to me, I rarely experience fear or nervousness.
3. I go out of my way to get things I want.
4. When I'm doing well at something I love to keep at it.
5. I'm always willing to try something new if I think it will be fun.
6. How I dress is important to me.
7. When I get something I want, I feel excited and energized.
8. Criticism or scolding hurts me quite a bit.
9. When I want something I usually go all-out to get it.
10. I will often do things for no other reason than that they might be fun.
11. It's hard for me to find the time to do things such as get a haircut.
12. If I see a chance to get something I want I move on it right away.
13. I feel pretty worried or upset when I think or know somebody is angry at me.
14. When I see an opportunity for something I like I get excited right away.
15. I often act on the spur of the moment.
16. If I think something unpleasant is going to happen I usually get pretty "worked up."
17. I often wonder why people act the way they do.
18. When good things happen to me, it affects me strongly.
19. I feel worried when I think I have done poorly at something important.
20. I crave excitement and new sensations.
21. When I go after something I use a "no holds barred" approach.
22. I have very few fears compared to my friends.
23. It would excite me to win a contest.
24. I worry about making mistakes.

Items other than 2 and 22 are reverse-scored.

BAS Drive: 3, 9, 12, 21

BAS Fun Seeking: 5, 10, 15, 20

BAS Reward Responsiveness: 4, 7, 14, 18, 23

BIS: 2, 8, 13, 16, 19, 22, 24

Items 1, 6, 11, 17 are fillers.

## Appendix G: Result of Evaluation by Ethics Committee

### ETİK KURUL DEĞERLENDİRME SONUCU/RESULT OF EVALUATION BY THE ETHICS COMMITTEE

(Bu bölüm İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurul tarafından  
doldurulacaktır /This section to be completed by the Committee on Ethics in research  
on Humans)

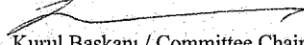
**Başvuru Sahibi / Applicant:** Elif Beşirler

**Proje Başlığı / Project Title:** Job Strain Among White Collar Employees and Its Effect on  
Compulsive Consumption

**Proje No. / Project Number:** 2018-20024-31

1.	Herhangi bir değişikliğe gerek yoktur / There is no need for revision	XX
2.	Ret/ Application Rejected Reddin gerekçesi / Reason for Rejection	

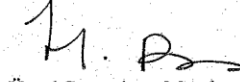
Değerlendirme Tarihi / Date of Evaluation: 20 Mart 2018

  
Kurul Başkanı / Committee Chair


Doç. Dr. İtir Erhart

  
Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Aslı Tunç

  
Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Hale Bolak

  
Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Turgut Tarhanlı

  
Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Koray Akay

  
Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Ali Demirci

  
Üye / Committee Member

Doç. Dr. Ayhan Özgür Toy

## Appendix H: Screenshots of the Questionnaire given to the Participants

**Elif Beriřler Yksek Lisans Tezi Anketi**

Bu proje beyaz yaka alıřanı olan katılımcıların tketim alışkanlıklarına iliřkin tanımlayıcı veri elde etmeyi amalamaktadır.

Arařtırma İstanbul Bilgi niversitesi, rgtsel Psikoloji Yksek Lisansı'nda đrenci olan Elif Beriřler tarafından yrtlmektedir. Elde edilen veriler Elif Beriřler'in yksek lisans tezinde kullanılacaktır.

Bu arařtırmada  lek sunulmaktadır. leklerin uygulanması tahmini 10 dakika srmektedir. Ltfen lek zerine isim yazmayınız. Katılımcıların kiřisel bilgileri gizli tutulacak ve elde edilen bulgular sadece bilimsel amala kullanılacaktır.

Katılımınız tamamen gnlllk zerine kuruludur. alıřma sırasında sebep bildirmeksizin alıřmayı bırakabilirsiniz. Arařtırmaya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir sorunuz olduđu takdirde ya da arařtırma sonularını elde etmek iin Elif Beriřler ile irtibata geebilirsiniz.

**İletişim Bilgileri:**

**Elif Beriřler**  
rgtsel Psikoloji Yksek Lisans đrencisi  
İstanbul Bilgi niversitesi  
e-posta: elifberisler@hotmail.com

\* 1. Arařtırmaya katılmayı kabul ediyor musunuz?

Kabul ediyorum.

Kabul etmiyorum.









	1-Hiçbir zaman	2	3	4	5	6-Her zaman
Kötü günümdeysem işyerimdekiler bana anlayış gösterirler.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Üstlerimle ilişkilerim iyidir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
İş arkadaşlarımı severim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



	1-Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum.	2	3	4	5	6-Kesinlikle Katılıyorum.
Bir alışveriş merkezine girer girmez, bir mağazaya gidip bir şey satın almak için dayanılmaz bir istek duyuyorum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Markalardan gelen kampanya, indirim vb. mesajları beni alışveriş yapmaya iter.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Çok az paramın kaldığını bildiğim zamanlarda bile ihtiyacım olmayan bir ürün satın aldığım olmuştur.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Para harcamayı seviyorum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

## Elif Berişler Yüksek Lisans Tezi Anketi

5. Lütfen size en doğru olan cevabı seçiniz.

	1-Hiçbir zaman.	2	3	4	5	6-Her zaman.
Kredi kartı ile ödeme yöntemleri nedeniyle alışveriş davranışımı kontrol altına almakta zorluk yaşıyorum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
İnternette alışveriş yapmayı tercih ederim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Alışveriş benim için gün içinde yaşadığım iş stresi, gerginlik vb. duygu halleriyle başa çıkmam için bir araç/yöntemdir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

6. Genellikle alışveriş yaptığınızda ne tür ürünler alırsınız. (Birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz.)

- Kıyafet  Teknoloji
- Kişisel Bakım  Kitap-Kırtasiye
- Diğer (lütfen belirtin)

7. Aylık bütçenizin yaklaşık yüzde kaçını planlı olmayan bir şekilde harcadığınızı hissediyorsunuz?

- %0  %40-60
- %1-20  %60-80
- %20-40  %80-100

8. Harcamalarınızı yaparken en çok hangi ödeme yöntemini tercih edersiniz?

- Nakit
- Kredi Kartı veya Banka Kartı (Peşin)
- Kredi Kartı (Taksitli)
- Sanal Banka Kartı

## Elif Berişler Yüksek Lisans Tezi Anketi

### Demografik Bilgiler

#### 9. Meslek Grubu

- İletişim (Reklamcılık, Sinema, Halkla İlişkiler, Fotoğraf, Görsel İletişim Tasarımı, vb.)  Bilgisayar Bilimleri (Yazılım Mühendisliği, Bilgisayar Mühendisliği, vb.)
- Diğer (lütfen belirtin)

#### 10. Yaş

#### 11. Cinsiyet

- Kadın
- Erkek

#### 12. Yaşadığınız Şehir

#### 13. En son bitirdiğiniz okul

- İlkokul  Üniversite
- Ortaokul  Yüksek Lisans
- Lise

#### 14. Medeni durumunuz

- Bekar
- Evli
- Boşanmış
- Dul

#### 15. Ekonomik durumunuzu en iyi tarif eden ifadeyi işaretleyiniz.

- Hiç düşünmeden harcama yapabilirim.  Düşünerek harcama yapabilirim.
- Rahat harcama yapabilirim.  Temel ihtiyaçlarım dışında oldukça zor harcama yapabilirim.
- Sıkılmadan harcama yapabilirim.  Temel ihtiyaçlarımı bile zor karşılıyorum.



## Appendix I: Informed Consent Form (Turkish)

### Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Bu proje beyaz yaka çalışanı olan katılımcıların iş yerindeki sıkıntı seviyelerine ve katılımcıların tüketim alışkanlıklarına ilişkin tanımlayıcı veri elde etmeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Araştırma İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi, Örgütsel Psikoloji Yüksek Lisansı'nda öğrenci olan Elif Berişler tarafından yürütülmektedir. Elde edilen veriler Elif Berişler'in yüksek lisans tezinde kullanılacaktır.

Bu araştırmada üç ölçek sunulmaktadır. Ölçeklerin uygulanması tahmini 30 dakika sürmektedir. Lütfen ölçek üzerine isim yazmayınız. Katılımcıların kişisel bilgileri gizli tutulacak ve elde edilen bulgular sadece bilimsel amaçla kullanılacaktır.

Katılımınız tamamen gönüllülük üzerine kuruludur. Çalışma sırasında sebep bildirmeksizin çalışmayı bırakabilirsiniz. Araştırmaya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir sorunuz olduğu takdirde ya da araştırma sonuçlarını elde etmek için Elif Berişler ile irtibata geçebilirsiniz.

<p>Yukarıdaki çalışmanın amacını ve içeriğini belirten bildiriye okudum, anladım ve araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorum.</p> <p>Lütfen aşağıdaki boşluğa kendi el yazınızla <b>“Bu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle katılıyorum”</b> yazınız.</p> <hr/>	<p>İletişim Bilgileri:</p> <p>Elif Berişler Örgütsel Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi</p> <p>e-posta: <a href="mailto:elifberisler@hotmail.com">elifberisler@hotmail.com</a> Telefon: 05368293388</p>
---	--

## Appendix J: Informed Consent Form (English)

### Informed Consent Form

This project aims to obtain descriptive data about white collar workers job strain and their consumption habits.

The research is conducted by Elif Berişler from İstanbul Bilgi University, Organizational Psychology masters program, and will be used as a part of master thesis.

Three questionnaires will be applied in this research. Answering the questionnaires will take about 30 minutes. Please don't write your name on the questionnaires. Personal information of the participants will be kept confidential and data collected will only be used for the aims of the present study.

Your participation is completely voluntary. You can quit answering the questionnaire any time without mentioning an excuse. The results of the study will be sent to you if you send a request. You can contact Elif Berişler if you have any further questions on the study.

<p>I have read and understand the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.</p> <p>Please write your approval with you had writing as <b>“I voluntarily participate in this study”</b></p> <hr/>	<p>Contact Information:</p> <p>Elif Berişler Masters of Organizational Psychology Istanbul Bilgi University</p> <p>Mail: <a href="mailto:elifberisler@hotmail.com">elifberisler@hotmail.com</a> Phone: 05368293388</p>
---	--

## Appendix K: Demographic Information Form (Turkish)

## Demografik Bilgi Formu

**Meslek Grubu:** Bilgisayar Bilimleri ( ) İletişim ( )

Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz ( ) \_\_\_\_\_

**Yaş:** \_\_

**Cinsiyet:** Kadın ( ) Erkek ( )

**Yaşadığınız Şehir:**

**En son bitirdiğiniz okul:** İlkokul( ) Ortaokul( ) Lise( )

Üniversite( ) Yüksek lisans( )

**Medeni durumunuz:** Bekar( ) Evli( ) Boşanmış( ) Dul( )

**Ekonomik durumunuzu en iyi tarif eden ifadeyi işaretleyiniz:**

( ) Hiç düşünmeden harcama yapabilirim.

( ) Rahat harcama yapabilirim.

( ) Sıkılmadan harcama yapabilirim.

( ) Düşünerek harcama yapabilirim.

( ) Temel ihtiyaçlarım dışında oldukça zor harcama yapabilirim.

( ) Temel ihtiyaçlarımı bile zor karşılıyorum.

**Appendix L: Demographic Information Form (English)**

## Demographic Information Form

**Occupational Group:** Computer Sciences ( ) Communication ( ) Other ( )

**Age:** \_\_\_\_

**Gender:** Female ( ) Male ( )

**City:**

**Last Graduated School:** Elementary ( ) Secondary School ( )

High School ( ) University ( )

Graduate School( )

**Marital Status:** Single ( ) Married ( ) Divorced ( ) Widowed ( )

**Choose the best statement that describes your financial status:**

- ( ) I can do expenditure without thinking.
- ( ) I can do expenditure comfortably.
- ( ) I can do expenditure without feeling unease.
- ( ) I can do expenditure with thinking.
- ( ) I can hardly do expenditure except from necessities.
- ( ) I can hardly cover my necessities.