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# **HOW TO DEAL WITH PILES OF SPONTANEOUSLY BOUGHT CLOTHING: A STUDY ON POST-IMPULSIVE BUYING EMOTIONS AND COPING STRATEGIES IN THE CONTEXT OF ONLINE SHOPPING**

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**How to deal with piles of spontaneously bought clothing:  
a study on post-impulsive buying emotions and coping  
strategies in the context of online shopping**

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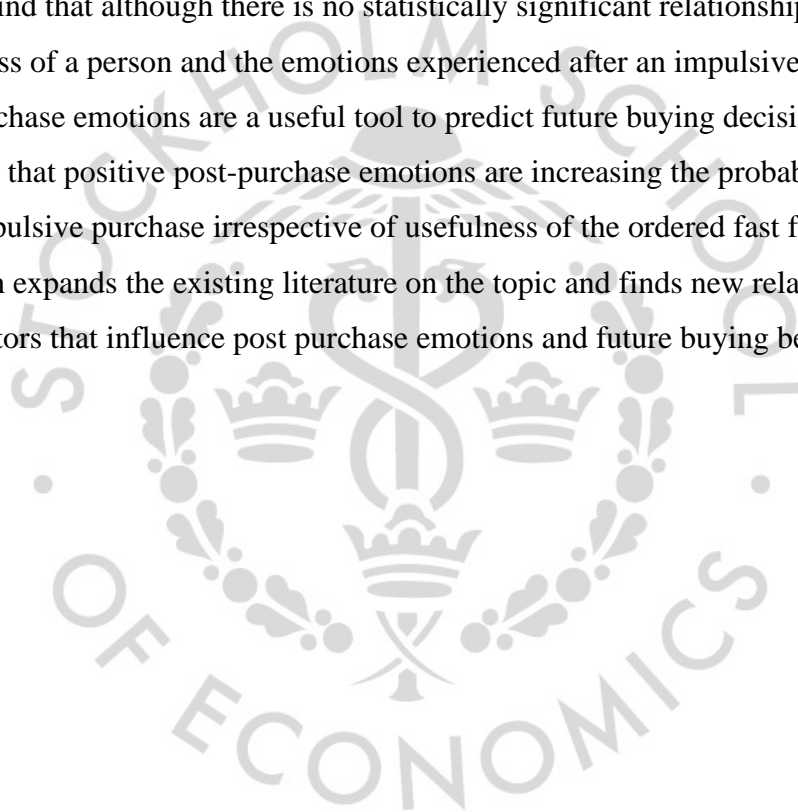
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## **Abstract**

The purpose of this paper is to study the relationship between the impulsiveness and the post-impulsive buying emotions and understand how post-purchase emotions are related to future buying decisions. The research is focuses on the online shopping of fast fashion products which is currently gaining popularity among consumers. We use a survey asking the respondents about the previous impulsive buying experience and providing them with the situational cases to reveal the propensity buy on impulse in the future. We find that although there is no statistically significant relationship between impulsiveness of a person and the emotions experienced after an impulsive purchase, the post-purchase emotions are a useful tool to predict future buying decision. Our results show that positive post-purchase emotions are increasing the probability of a repeated impulsive purchase irrespective of usefulness of the ordered fast fashion item. The research expands the existing literature on the topic and finds new relations between factors that influence post purchase emotions and future buying behaviour.



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## 1. Introduction

The fast fashion industry is experiencing a significant change in its business as online purchases are raising popularity among consumers. These effects are amplified by the COVID-19 related restrictions which have further raised the importance of online purchases. Empirical evidence shows that consumers are switching from traditional shopping for clothes in stores to online purchases (De Vet, Nigohosyan, Núñez Ferrer, Gross, Kuehl & Flickenschild, 2021), and according to a study done by McKinsey, clothing industry is subject to increase in online purchases up to 15% (McKinsey&Company, 2020). United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) survey results also show an increasing number of online shoppers in countries where online purchases were not as popular previously (UNCTAD, 2020).

According to Eurostat data, almost half of Latvians aged between 25 and 54 years have made an online purchase in the last 3 months, whereas for the younger generation (16 to 24 years old) this number increases up to 53% (Eurostat, 2021).

These results indicate that the shopping patterns are changing globally, which in turn makes people more vulnerable to various decision biases that arise from the ease of buying goods online. Online purchase can be made from any place at any time, often not requiring more than a few clicks, which makes the process easy for the customer. Furthermore, apps that people use in their leisure time such as Instagram, Pinterest etc. are serving as a source of inspiration for their users. Thus, boredom and ease of the online purchase emphasizes such decision bias as the impulsive buying (Sundström, Hjelm-Lidholm & Radon, 2019). Such behaviour is not uncommon, since, according to Spiteri Cornish (2020), 9 out of 10 consumers are subject to impulsive buying, and Wells, Parboteeah and Valacich (2011) indicate that impulsive buying is present in the e-commerce environment just as well.

The topic of impulsive buying has been widely researched, as it plays an important role in the decision-making process of the purchase and is therefore important for both retailers and consumers. Several studies look at the guilt and shame that people experience after buying spontaneously, for example, Yi and Baumgartner (2011) study how people are coping with the guilt and shame associated with an impulsive purchase. Nevertheless, researchers have not studied what happens after the impulsive purchase online, leaving the emotions and behaviour after online purchase rather unresearched (Ozer & Gultekin, 2015). Furthermore, Camille Saintives indicates that researchers

ignore the difference in emotions and behaviours that may appear when shopping in-store or online (2020).

We aim to fill the gap in the research by studying the post-purchase emotions and their relationship with future buying decisions to answer following questions:

- (1) How does the impulsive buying relate to the post-purchase emotions in the context of shopping for fast fashion products online?**
- (2) How post-purchase emotions are predicting the future online-shopping intentions?**

The paper is organized in the following way. Section 2 describes the fast fashion industry and its recent development and summarizes previous research on impulsive buying and the emotions related to post-impulsive purchases. We investigate the topic by studying the variety of emotions that people experience after impulsive online purchase and outlines the most popular coping strategies already available from the previous research. The next section outlines the methodology and describes the sample of respondents of the survey carried out during the research process. We include surveys in our methodology to obtain quantitative data that will be used for regressions that will outline most common strategies that people use for coping with negative emotions associated with an impulsive purchase. The analysis of findings obtained the survey is discussed in section 5. Section 6 concludes our research.

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## **2. Literature review**

### **2.1. Fast fashion industry**

Fast fashion is described as “an approach to the design, creation, and marketing of clothing fashions that emphasizes making fashion trends quickly and cheaply available to consumers” according to Merriam – Webster online dictionary (Merriam-Webster, n.d., para.1).

Bhardwaj and Fairhurst (2010) describe fast fashion industry as constantly aiming to decrease the time between designing the piece of clothing or accessory and delivering it to the end consumer. Furthermore, both researchers claim that there is a high competition among fast fashion retailers which results into a pressure to produce and deliver new products to customers as fast as possible. Examples of fast fashion retailers mentioned in the paper by Bhardwaj and Fairhurst are H&M, Zara, and others (Bhardwaj & Fairhurst, 2010).

Within this paper, we use the definition from Merriam – Webster online dictionary (in paragraph 1) to describe the fast fashion. However, when referring to fast fashion retailers we do not limit the term to retailers with both physical and online stores such as Zara, but also include online platforms which are selling fast fashion items. An example of such platform is About You, which sells not only items designed by high fashion brands but also fast fashion items (About You, n.d.)

Fast fashion nowadays is a significant driver of world GDP, that has a real economic force. Even in the time of crisis, the fast fashion industry was gaining speed in development and undergoing some transformations. One of the recent transformations is that with the life expectancy of people globally increasing, the fast fashion industry now focuses not only on the young generation, but also on the older one, creating separate business plans and marketing strategies for different age groups (Gazzola et al., 2020).

Most fast fashion companies admit that informational technologies and digitalization is something that could be a great opportunity for business, as it allows to cut costs on labour forces, premises for shopping and even for materials due to decentralization. Implementing the technology into business processes makes it more agile, and this, in its turn, makes the business more resistant to global changes and volatility and respond quickly to the problems (Gazzola et al., 2020).



Moreover, being agile is a requirement for such an industry, as earlier fashion producers had to forecast the trends long before the actual time to wear it came. However, nowadays, to be able to successfully beat the market, the producers need to increase the speed of providing goods, adjusting them to the recent trends seen on runways. So now the process has become less planned, but with a reduced time gap between designing and actual production. These overall trends may be described with the idea that retailers are promoting, which is “Here Today, Gone Tomorrow” (Bhardwaj & Fairhurst, 2010, p.166). Such an approach results in higher margins and lower life cycle of the product (Bhardwaj & Fairhurst, 2010).

Gazzola et al., claim that one of the main trends in fashion industry is creating opportunities for online shopping, as 57% of the Internet users globally make fashion purchases online. Consumers are becoming more and more demanding and want to see new items and collections available every week. Furthermore, they also are also seeking personalization, because clients are expecting to see high quality together with the good customer experience and choose what to buy according to their personal values, so, it is important for the fashion industry players to produce something unique and outstanding. Focus has shifted on social media and influencer marketing as well as artificial intelligence usage, as with the growth of data gathered for future improvement, there is a need for new tools to gather, keep and analyse all the data (Gazzola et al., 2020)

## ***2.2. Impulsive buying***

As the concept of impulsive buying has been studied for more than 5 decades, researchers have developed several definitions of the term. Initially, impulsive buying was referred to as unplanned buying, however, many academics are nowadays using the definition suggested by Dennis Rook where he claims that “impulsive buying occurs when a consumer experiences a sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately” (1987, p.191). Piron adds the aspect of emotions to Rook’s definition by claiming that impulsive buying always results in positive or negative emotions (1991).

Bhakat and Muruganatham also include the definition suggested by Engel and Blackwell in 1982 where impulsive buying is being referred to as “an action undertaken without previously having been consciously recognised or a buying intention formed prior to entering the store” (Bhakat & Muruganatham, 2013, p.150).

Several researchers including Arrafi and Ghabban (2021) are using the classification of impulsive buying that was introduced in 1962 by Hawkins Stern:

- 1) **“Pure impulsive buying”**, which appears when a person buys something he wasn’t going to buy just because of the influence of some stimulus (Stern, 1962, p.59).
- 2) **“Reminder impulsive buying”** implies that the person already has some previous experience with the product, or has some need of it, but wasn’t planning to buy it, before seeing some reminder (an advertisement, a product itself etc.) about the product (Stern, 1962, p.59).
- 3) **“Suggestive impulsive buying”** refers to a situation when the person does not have a previous experience with this product or has not experienced the need of it, but after seeing the product, the person feels a need in it (Stern, 1962, pp.59-60).
- 4) **“Planned impulsive buying”** is related to some promotions or discount coupons. The person is not going to purchase this particular product but visits the shop with the intention to take advantage of some discount program (Stern, 1962, p.60).

### ***2.3. Factors influencing impulsive buying behaviour***

The earlier research on impulsive buying has only recognized the product, store and marketing as the triggers of the impulsive purchase. However, in later years academics started to take into consideration different types of consumers’ personalities and their effect on the likelihood of an impulsive buying. Thus, to this day, researchers have identified several factors which affect impulsive buying behaviour and grouped them into five major categories: external factors or the shopping environment, internal factors or personal traits, cultural aspect and situational aspect and hedonic consumption aspect (Bhakat & Muruganatham, 2013; Sumetha & Vasanthi, 2014).

#### ***2.3.1. External factors***

External factors include the shopping environment and marketing strategies that are triggering the impulsive purchase. In-store shopping environments contain such triggers as the size of the store, design of premises, lighting, music, aromas, layout of products, staff attitude and service etc. (Bhakat & Muruganatham, 2013), whereas online stores induce impulsive shopping behaviour with website design, high quality

including security, navigability, and visual appeal (Wells et al., 2011), availability of credit card payments, loyalty programs and rewards for purchases (Sumetha & Vasanti, 2014). Furthermore, impulsive buying online is also enhanced by social media apps such as Instagram, Pinterest etc. which serve as a source of inspiration for the buyer and might trigger his urge to buy on impulse (Sundström et al., 2019).

As regards marketing strategies, they are acting as reminders or suggestions to buy. Bhakat and Muruganatham indicate that advertisements that create positive emotions or overstate the joy and happiness are likely to increase the urge to buy on impulse. Coupons, in-store promotions, and demonstrations are some of the examples of marketing strategies used to enhance impulsiveness of shoppers (Bhakat & Muruganatham, 2013).

### *2.3.2. Internal factors*

Internal factors refer to personal traits of a person that makes oneself more likely to purchase a product on impulse. Rook and Fisher (1995, p.307) suggested the “buying impulsiveness trait” that shows the likelihood of a person to purchase on impulse. Xiao and Nicholson included several dimensions of the buying impulsiveness trait in their research. The first one is prudence which encompasses self-regulating responsible persons with planned purchases. The second dimension is hedonism that describes spontaneity and being easily allured into spending, and the third dimension is carelessness (Xiao & Nicholson, 2013).

Other researchers also indicate that seeking variety in products and lower brand loyalty is also associated with higher urge to buy on impulse (Bhakat & Muruganatham, 2013).

Sumetha and Vasanthi (2014) suggest that personal characteristics such as openness, extraversion, mindfulness, self-esteem and the ability to control oneself are also determinants of the likelihood of an impulsive purchase. Furthermore, they mention the drive or “the initiative by the people which creates an urge inside them to do something” as an important factor as well (Sumetha & Vasanthi, 2014, p.29).

Lastly, many studies have found that mood and feelings are crucial factors affecting the likelihood to buy a product or service on impulse. For example, Ozer and Gultekin (2015) concludes that shoppers in a positive mood are more prone to make an impulsive purchase than the ones having a bad mood. Rook also suggests that positive emotions are stimulating impulsive buying (Rook, 1987).

Another side of internal factor that may potentially influence the probability to buy on impulse is so-called hot-cold empathy gap. The essence of it is that a person may ignore the influence of internal unsatisfied needs such as being hungry or thirsty on the decisions he makes. So, when a person is in cold state, which means he does not feel any unsatisfied basic need, he does not even think that being in a “hot” state, which means having an unsatisfied basic need influences the decision-making process and to which extent it does influence (Kang & Camerer, 2013, p.3).

### *2.3.3. Situational factors*

Situational factors refer to the location of the shop, buying habits and the season of the year (Bhakat & Muruganatham, 2013). Hoch and Loewenstein introduce the concept of momentum in regard to impulsive buying by claiming that buying stimulates even more buying because the person may feel that being in a shop makes it more convenient to buy unplanned items than returning to the shop again later (1991).

According to Stern, low price, number of stores or distribution channels, advertising, size of the product and its holding costs are also affecting the urge to buy on impulse (1962).

Sumetha and Vasanthi indicate that the spending power and the time allocated for shopping are significantly affecting the likelihood of an impulsive purchase. The time factor is especially important in online shopping because people perceive it as a fast way of making a purchase and do not want to spend a lot of time on finding information about the product online (Sumetha & Vasanthi, 2014). Sharma and Wadera argue that consumers do not have the ability to touch or try on the clothing, therefore they have to spend more time and effort searching for the information about the product online. They indicate that when looking for information becomes a part of the shopping behaviour, it can result in more buying on impulse (Wadera & Sharma, 2018).

Lastly, seasonal sales or clearance sales have a strong effect on impulsive buying, as they create a sense of urgency and a “good deal” which in turn result in less planned purchases (Sumetha & Vasanthi, 2014). According to Xu and Huang (2014), the main driver of online purchases is the sales promotion, e.g., price discounts, and it is triggering impulsive buying.

#### *2.3.4. Demographic, cultural and social factors*

Researchers find that demographic factors are affecting the likelihood of a person making an impulsive purchase. Findings suggest that women are more likely to buy on impulse online than men (Dittmar, Long & Meek, 2004; Lim, Ling & Yazdanifard, 2015). Bhakat & Muruganantham (2013) suggest a negative relationship between age and impulsive buying, meaning that younger generations engage more in impulsive buying. These results may be further emphasized in the online shopping context as older generations might be less likely to shop online. Sumetha and Vasanthi accentuate the importance of education and monthly income as these factors determine the spendings and savings of a person (2014).

Social and cultural factors refer to highly valued and important traditions in different nations which are affecting the overall behaviour and spending behaviour in particular (Sumetha & Vasanthi, 2014). Bhakat & Muruganantham also add the state of the local market as an important factor (2013). Mattila and Wirtz (2008) identify store environment including employees and customers in the store as a social factor which increases the likelihood of an impulsive buying behaviour.

#### *2.3.5. Hedonic Consumption*

Last category of factors influencing impulsive buying behaviour is hedonic consumption which refers to the happiness that a person experiences when buying and using products. Researchers argue that some people are buying simply because they like shopping. Therefore, people who enjoy shopping are more prone to buy on impulse, because they get positive emotions from this activity and are willing to repeat it in the future (Sumetha & Vasanthi, 2014).

#### ***2.4. Post-purchase emotions and linkage with the pre- and post-purchase mood***

Togawa, Ishii, Onzo, & Roy (2020) define four main post-purchase emotions: satisfaction, delight, regret, and happiness and claim that there are two main emotions that appear after an impulsive purchase: pleasure and guilt. Among the reasons buyers are experiencing painful emotions are financial problems, which are simply regret of the money the person had spent, and psychological problems, when the person is shaming himself for the absence of willpower and self-control (Togawa et al., 2020).

Ozer and Gultekin claim that impulsive buying behaviour may be considered as the way to either maintain, change, or improve the mood (Ozer & Gultekin, 2015). As buying on impulse may bring entertainment and joy, satisfying social or emotional needs, which means that impulsive purchases were made to have a good mood as a result. Thus, the relations between pre- and post-purchase emotions and mood may be summarized into two concepts: mood maintenance, which occurs when a person being in a good mood uses impulsive buying to keep or enhance his state, and mood management, when a person in a bad mood improves it through the impulsive buying (Ozer & Gultekin, 2015). The negative mood is also linked with making a purchase on the impulse, as Atalay and Meloy claim that bad mood is likely to induce impulsive buying as a form of “retail therapy” (Atalay & Meloy, 2011, p.639).

Several researchers claim that people value the present more than something distant. This explains why people are experiencing happiness while making an impulsive purchase, but these emotions are likely to diminish shortly after the purchase is made. So, even after the effect of mood repair, the person may feel regret if a product is further perceived as useless or unsuitable. However, positive emotions after impulsive purchase tend to reinforce impulsive buying in future (Spiteri Cornish, 2020).

There is a factor that plays a partial mediation role in the relationship between pre- and post-purchase mood, which is satisfaction. It means that the positive effect of the impulsive purchase on the mood may to some extent be explained by satisfaction (Ozer & Gultekin, 2015). Nevertheless, researchers agree that positive emotions have a positive influence on post impulsive purchase satisfaction (Li, 2015).

However, several researchers including Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky bring into attention a “hedonic treadmill effect” which reduces the effect of both positive and negative emotions and return a person to one’s baseline emotions (Bottan & Perez Truglia, 2011, p.224). In the context of online shopping on impulse it means that after experiencing either positive or negative emotions a person returns to the previous level of happiness. These findings suggest that post-purchase emotions might not be persistent over time and might not have a strong effect on the future buying behaviour.

#### *2.4.1. Positive emotions*

Among positive emotions researchers mention enthusiasm (Fenton-O’Creevy, Dibb & Furnham, 2018; Nandi, 2015; Ozer & Gultekin, 2015), happiness (Richins,

2013; Sumetha & Vasanthi, 2014; Togawa et al., 2020), excitement (Richins, 2013; Togawa et al., 2020), joy, delight (Nandi, 2015), entertainment, and content (Ozer & Gultekin, 2015).

Another side of the emotions perspective is that positive and negative emotions after impulsive buying may coexist, creating a mixed emotion. Yalin Li claims that this is the most widespread response to the impulsive purchase because while making a choice to buy or not to buy something on impulse, the person goes through a conflict between two goals: satisfying a sudden need and saving money. In any case, one goal will be attained, and a person will be happy about it and another goal will be failed, and the person will feel regret because of it. This results in mixed emotions (Li, 2015).

Positive emotions may also arise due to the effect of making a gift either the person makes it to himself or to others or enjoying the process of buying (Fenton-O'creevy et al., 2018).

#### *2.4.2. Negative emotions*

Negative emotions are likely to occur when a person feels that he failed to control himself (Li, 2015) or be self-conscious (Yi & Baumgartner, 2004) and this results in feeling guilt. Guilt makes a person wish to have behaved differently and undo the action to avoid negative consequences. This emotion occurs when people feel that they have violated their understanding of what is right (Saintives, 2020). Guilt is closely linked with shame, which is related to perceiving some events as a shortcomings of the person's core self (Yi & Baumgartner, 2004). Guilt and shame are believed to be the prior incentives to use coping strategies (Yi & Baumgartner, 2004).

Academic literature also mentions anger (Li, 2015; Yi & Baumgartner, 2004), which arises when there is something wrong with the product or service he received and he is blaming another person for it (e.g., a salesperson). Yi and Baumgartner also mention disappointment, when the product does not meet a person's expectations about it, but the person does not blame anybody, neither himself, nor salesperson etc. Regret is also mentioned in several studies. It appears when a person finds a better alternative to the product he already purchased and the persons blames himself; worry, which arises when a person thinks that a purchase he is going to make may lead to some undesirable consequences, and the person feels uncertain whether to make this purchase or not (Yi & Baumgartner, 2004).

## ***2.5. Negative consequences of the impulsive buying***

Researchers have not agreed yet upon the effect of the impulsive buying on the future shopping behaviour, as there are two clashing ideas. On one hand, researchers suggest that positive emotions (largely related to hedonic consumption) are positively affecting the future impulsive buying, therefore impulsive buying behaviour is being further encouraged (Spiteri Cornish, 2020). For example, Atalay and Meloy (2011) claim that shopping is one of the mood regulation tactics that can help to improve a bad mood.

On the other hand, different studies oppose this view by arguing that negative consequences and emotions after impulsive purchases discourage people from buying on impulse again in the future (Spiteri Cornish, 2020). Furthermore, academics argue that people prone to regular impulsive purchases are more likely to have financial problems (Fenton-O’Creevy et al., 2018).

Rook compares impulsive purchases with planned or “contemplative” buying and claims that people perceive such spontaneous behaviour rather as a bad one and feel the need to justify their purchase (Rook, 1987, p.191). Chang and Tseng (2014) claim that when buying online people are more likely to question their choices afterwards when they discover some unwanted characteristics of a product that they were unaware of. Therefore, they are more inclined to guilt, regret and other negative emotions after purchasing and tend to rethink whether their purchase was even necessary in the first place or whether they have made the right choice. Sweeney, Hausknecht and Soutar in their research suggest that in that situation people are having inconsistent cognitions, meaning that their understanding of themselves, their desires and behaviour are conflicting with their understanding of the world. Furthermore, this effect is emphasized in the presence of uncertainty (Sweeney, Hausknecht & Soutar, 2000) which appears when buying online. Academics refer to this situation as the cognitive dissonance.

After a purchase, a person involuntarily begins to evaluate its advantages and disadvantages. This behaviour leads to cognitive dissonance. Cognitive dissonance refers to “a psychological phenomenon that occurs when there exists a discrepancy between what a person believes and information that calls this into question” (George & Yaoyuneyong, 2010, p.293).

According to Sarwar, Awang, Nasir, Hussain, cognitive dissonance appears when a person thinks that there was a better way to make a choice of goods to purchase (Sarwar et al., 2020)



Researchers have found that impulsive purchases have a higher probability to cause cognitive dissonance comparing to the same purchases that were not made on impulse. Moreover, impulsive buyers are more likely to experience cognitive dissonance after the purchase (George & Yaoyuneyong, 2010).

Eddie Harmon-Jones and Judie Mills in their overview of the theory of cognitive dissonance discuss findings presented by Festinger in 1957, indicating that conflicting cognitions create a psychological discomfort and therefore motivates a person to reduce that discomfort (Harmon-Jones & Mills, 2019). The psychological reason for the emergence of cognitive dissonance in people is that the psyche seeks to avoid situations in which conflicting information is present. Therefore, in order to avoid discomfort, the human psyche starts a recovery process, during which, on the one hand, there is a search for factors that confirm and strengthen the original belief, and on the other hand, reduce the value of the information that led to cognitive dissonance (George & Yaoyuneyong, 2010).

Thus, to tackle the negative emotions and decrease the cognitive dissonance caused by impulsive purchases, people develop various coping strategies.

## ***2.6. Coping strategies***

Academics refer to coping as the “constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person” (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.460). Coping strategies are often researched in the context of stress management, reduction of negative emotions or fighting addictions. However, coping mechanisms developed by academics seem to be applicable beyond these areas.

For example, Yi and Baumgartner (2011) apply the findings of the research on coping with addictive substances done by Wills and Schiffman in 1985 to identify three stages at which coping mechanisms take place in impulsive buying. First comes the anticipatory stage at which a person manages the desire to buy on impulse before starting shopping (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011). Hoch and Loewenstein suggest that willpower is helping to fight the urge to buy on impulse (1991). Another strategy suggested by researchers is planning the list of items that will be purchased and creating a budget prior to shopping (Fenton-O’Creevy et al., 2018).

The second stage is the “immediate coping” which refers to fighting the immediate urge to buy something on impulse during the shopping itself, and the last

stage is “restorative coping” which deals with the negative emotions occurring after the impulsive purchase is made (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.460).

Planning to reduce impulsive purchases or compensate for financial losses refers to the strategy of coming up with a solution to tackle the issue of impulsive buying or losses associated with the purchase, as suggested by the name of the strategy. Seeking social support encompasses seeking for advice or discussing feelings induced by the purchase with another person. Mental disengagement is trying to forget unpleasant experiences and bad feelings associated with the purchase, whereas resignation refers to giving up on the situation and acknowledging that there is no way to solve the problem. Rationalization means trying to justify the purchase. Blaming others refers to assigning the fault to any other person instead of oneself. Lastly, mental undoing encompasses regretful wishing to be able to go back in time and change one’s actions (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011).

Currently the most comprehensive study of the coping strategies related to making purchases is done by Yi and Baumgartner (2011) who have identified eight strategies that people use to cope with negative emotions associated with purchases: “planning to reduce impulse buying”, “planning to make up for monetary loss”, “seeking social support”, “mental disengagement”, “resignation”, “blaming others”, “rationalization”, and “mental undoing” (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.460).

For the purpose of our research, we are using the framework of eight strategies of coping with negative post-purchase emotions suggested by Yin and Baumgartner (2011).

### ***2.7. Possibility to return the purchased item***

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When considering the strategy of making up for losses, one must take into account the possibility of returning the item to the retailer. Such service is offered by several online retailers, nevertheless, the terms and policies regarding returns often differ significantly in various online stores.

As suggested by Yu and Kim, one of the key differences in return policies adopted by various retailers is the strictness of the policy (2019). Researchers outline two return policy types – the “strict” policy and the “lenient” one (Yu & Kim, 2019, p.505). The strict return policy refers to policy which aims to decrease the number of returned items to a minimum, whereas a lenient return policy makes it easier for the

customer to return the item and allows for more cases when a return is possible. Yu and Kim indicate five choices that a retailer makes when choosing strictness of the return strategy, being “time limitation”, “return shipment” which specifies whether the return shipping costs are covered by the retailer or the customer, “return method”, “return processing time”, “return documentation” which refers to a requirement to present a proof of a purchase, “refund method”, and “defective products return” (Yu & Kim, 2019, p.508). By adjusting the strictness of return policy choice, one can make the return policy more strict or lenient.

This approach is supplemented by other researchers, who added two other dimensions of the return policy, namely, “return depth” (Zhang, Li, Yan, & Johnston, 2017, p.1), which is to which extent, partially or fully, the person is refunded and “return window” (Zhang, Li, Yan, & Johnston, 2017, p.1), which is the length of the period during which it is possible to return a good. Authors claim, that the return depth and return window are positively correlated with the service quality perception, however, return window does not affect the product quality perception, while return depth is positively correlated with it (Zhang, Li, Yan, & Johnston, 2017).

Yu and Kim claim that the lenient policy decreases the dissatisfaction and negative emotions that consumer may experience after a purchase and is therefore more favourable in case of online retail as it leads to better product reviews and evaluations which then in turn attract more customers to purchase the item. However, such policy results in higher financial losses for the retailer and therefore drives the price of sold items up (Yu & Kim, 2019).

According to the academic literature, the possibility of returning the item is a non-negligible factor which influences the emotions and experienced after making an impulsive purchase as well as the intensity of those emotions. Furthermore, Cook and Yurchisin (2017) emphasize that a customer uses opportunity to return a purchased fast fashion item to get rid of negative feelings after making a purchase and receiving the item.

### **3. Methodology**

Researchers suggest using the retrospective method, when the respondents are to describe one of their impulsive purchases made in the past, either the latest one, or the brightest one. They are to describe the emotions they felt before and after the purchase and the coping strategy they used (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011).

The data gathering and analysis methodology is done via an online survey. We are planning to use a survey to figure out the relationship between post-impulsive buying emotions and coping strategies that respondents are using as well as for identification of the future buying behaviour and the likelihood of having another impulsive purchase. The structure of the survey is described below and the survey itself is included in appendices (see Appendix A).

#### **3.1 Retrospective survey**

The survey consists of five blocks. The first, second, and third blocks deal with the impulsive buying experience, emotions caused by it and coping strategies employed in that particular case. The fourth part aims to link emotions and coping strategies with future buying behaviour via case scenario. In the last block we collect the demographic statistics about respondents and their impulsiveness. Each block is explained below.

##### *3.1.1. Description of previous impulsive purchase experience*

The first block deals with the actual memory of an impulsive purchase. Respondents are asked questions about an impulsive purchase that they recall. Those questions are about the item bought, its price, the shop where it was purchased, buying terms (e.g., delivery, option to return the item) and the potential reason why it was bought (including the mood which significantly affects the impulsive buying behaviour (Ozer & Gultekin, 2015; Sundström et al., 2019). Then the survey proceeds to questions about emotions after the purchase and coping strategies adopted after the purchase. These two blocks are discussed in more detail below.

##### *3.1.2. Measuring emotions*

One of the most widely used scales to measure the intensity of different emotions in a range of disciplines is the PANAS scale (Kuesten, Chopra & Meiselman, 2014). PANAS scale is a questionnaire that a person fills on his own. Positive Affect

and Negative Affect Scale combines two opposite mood factors. High positive affect arises when a person feels enthusiastic and full of energy and concentrated and low positive affect reflects that a person feels sad and apathetic; high negative affect means a wide spectrum of “aversive mood states, including anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, fear, and nervousness”, while low negative affect represents tranquility (Gamst, Meyers, Burke & Guarino, 2017, p. 1063). Positive and negative effects are represented by several items and the person measures how each item is applicable for him (Gamst, Meyers, Burke & Guarino, 2017).

Alternatively, Yi and Baumgartner are using another multi-scale to ask about the four emotions they study. Each emotion is associated with the synonyms and respondents are asked to measure each emotion using a 7-point scale, which starts from “didn’t feel like this at all” and ends with “felt like this very strongly” (Yi & Baumgartner, 2004, p. 308).

Another method that is used to measure emotional response in marketing is the pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) scale, which measures a person’s emotional response to some environmental stimulus (Richins, 2013).

However, scales proposed by Yi and Baumgartner and Richins are less complete and descriptive, than the PANAS scale, therefore we choose to use PANAS scale to measure the emotions people are experiencing after the impulsive purchase. Nevertheless, out of 20 emotions we are excluding “interested”, “strong”, “scared”, “hostile”, “alert”, “attentive”, and “afraid” as they are not relevant in the context of post-purchase emotions (Richins, 2013; Yi & Baumgartner, 2004).

### *3.1.3. Studying coping strategies*

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One of the main ways to study coping strategies is to use the Ways of Coping Questionnaire developed by Folkmann and Lazarus (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011). However, Yi and Baumgartner note that this questionnaire is designed for general cases and not all questions are applicable or even can be used in the context of impulsive buying, therefore they revise the above-mentioned questionnaire to adjust it to the topic of impulsive purchases and end up with a scale of 27 coping factors (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011).

We are further adjusting the coping factors for them to match the online shopping, as several strategies mentioned in the questionnaire are not applicable to the online environment. For example, the strategy of creating a list with items that a person

plans to purchase (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011) is not a regular activity when shopping for clothing, especially online. Similarly, we are excluding the option of blaming “someone who accompanied me to the store” (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466).

Furthermore, we add the option of selling the item or returning it suggested by Lara Spiteri Cornish to the strategy of compensating financial loss. According to her research, these activities are helping buyers to avoid admitting the uselessness of the purchase (Spiteri Cornish, 2020). Similarly, we include the option of giving the item bought on impulse to another person as a gift (Spiteri Cornish, 2020) to the strategy of rationalization. Several coping items are rephrased to match the context of online shopping. The final scale consists of 28 items grouped into 8 strategies.

#### 3.1.4. Scenarios analysis

The fourth block of the survey consists of scenario analysis suggested by Spiteri Cornish (2020). The idea behind this methodology is to simulate the purchase experience by describing a situation of an impulsive buying to the respondent and pre-determining the emotions created by the purchase. An example of the scenario is “*You are scrolling through the feed in social media and suddenly see an advertisement of an online shop which sells a very nice shirt. You immediately like it and want to buy it, although you already have plenty of clothes in your wardrobe.*” with an ending note that it makes a person feel good or alternatively that the person soon regrets the purchase suggested by several research papers (Dittmar, Beattie & Friese, 1995; Dittmar, Long & Bond, 2007). Generally, two scenarios are generated. The first one is the positive scenario with a positive shopping experience whereas the other one describes a negative buying experience.

Furthermore, based on findings of Spiteri Cornish, if respondents perceive their purchase as useful, they are more likely to feel more satisfied (2020). Thus, we add the statement about the usefulness of the purchase in scenarios. The positive scenario states that a person is wearing the shirt frequently and likes it. In contrast, the negative scenario suggests that the person is not wearing the shirt at all and realizes that it is useless.

After reading the scenario, respondents are asked to answer the question of how they are feeling about the purchase by measuring their emotions with a decision-regret scale suggested by O’Connor (1996). Next participants receive the next scenario where they face a dilemma of choosing between buying on impulse or making a planned

purchase. Spiteri Cornish suggests using a Likert scale to measure the likelihood of future impulsive buying, as there are no other measures in the academic literature relevant in the context of impulsive buying (2020). Considering this, we are also using the Likert scale in our survey.

### *3.1.5. Demographic statistics*

The last block is designed to obtain information about the respondent. Here we ask general questions about the age, gender, employment status, level of education and monthly income of a person. These questions help to create a description of our sample of respondents of the survey. Then the survey asks about online shopping behaviour, meaning how often a person shops for fast fashion goods online, what the most often visited online shops are etc. Additionally, we are including the “buying impulsiveness scale” suggested by Rook and Fisher (1995, p. 308). The scale consists of 9 statements that characterize the impulsiveness of a buyer and as indicated by researchers, can measure the impulsiveness of a person (Rook & Fisher, 1995). These findings give a general idea of the impulsive buying behaviour of the respondent and might explain different patterns in further results.

### *3.2. Sampling*

According to data presented in Eurostat, online purchases in Latvia are made by people up to 74 years old (2021), meaning that there should not be an upper limit in the age group of respondents. Additionally, as the survey is distributed online, it is only able to reach people who know how to use the Internet and therefore most likely are able to purchase goods online. However, we are putting a lower limit on the age, meaning that we are not surveying people under 16, as their purchases might be heavily influenced and controlled by their parents, thus eliminating the impulsive behaviour.

The distribution channels of the survey are therefore the social media pages and personal contacts. We exploit the snowball effect by asking respondents to distribute the questionnaire among their relatives and acquaintances to acquire more responses and obtain a diverse sample.

### **3.3. Data analysis**

The analysis of results obtained via survey are structured into four parts. In the first part we obtain the descriptive statistics of the sample using the results of the last block of questions in the survey.

The second part consists of calculation of several variables used for the analysis. For that we convert Likert scale statements into numbers (conversion principles are summarized in Appendix B). First, we calculate the Impulsiveness score of each respondent, using the “buying impulsiveness scale” suggested by Rook and Fisher (1995, p. 308). We sum up the likelihood of each statement that favours impulsive buying (from 1 to 5 according to Likert scale) and subtract the likelihood of statements that favour well-planned buying behaviour.

We also calculate the Positive and Negative affects scores separately for post-purchase and post-receiving emotions. The likelihood of each positive emotion (from 1 to 5 according to Likert scale) is summed up and divided by the number of positive emotions to get the Positive affect score (PA). The Negative affect score (NA) is calculated in a similar manner. Afterwards, we calculate the difference between Positive affect and Negative affect (PA-NA). The obtained difference is then used in regressions as the variable indicating post-purchase and post-receiving emotions. If the difference is negative, then a person feels more negative emotions regarding the purchase, and the size of the difference shows the intensity of emotions.

In addition, in a similar way by summing up the variables which refer to the corresponding type of purchase or coping strategy we calculate the score for each Type of impulsive purchase and Coping strategy.

Before moving on to the regressions, we test the internal consistency of those scores. The internal consistency “describes the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same concept or construct” (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011, p.53). Collins (2007) is suggesting a Cronbach’s alpha as a measure of validity. Several researchers use the Cronbach’s alpha to validate their findings (Mattila & Wirtz, 2000; Spiteri Cornish, 2020; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011) According to the research done by Taber (2018) who summarises practices and results of other studies, an acceptable level of Cronbach’s alpha is around 0.7, which we use as a benchmark for our study.

The Cronbach’s alphas obtained for our calculated scores are summarized in the Table 1. We exclude from regressions scores which are lower than 0.65 and cannot be



rounded to 0.7. We are also calculating correlations between variables used in the regressions to avoid the multicollinearity issues; results are summarized in Appendix C.

**Table 1: Cronbach's alphas for calculated score variables**

	<i>Observations</i>	<i>Alpha</i>	<i>Variables</i>
Impulsiveness	336	0.7576	9
PANAS_7 (Post-purchase)	202	0.7770	13
PA_7	202	0.8444	7
NA_7	202	0.7689	6
PANAS_8 (Post-receiving)	202	0.7444	14
PA_8	202	0.8383	5
NA_8	202	0.9049	8
Plan_reducing	202	0.7878	4
Make_up_loss	202	0.6902	5
Support	202	0.7563	3
Disengage	202	0.6239	3
Resignation	202	0.7691	3
Blaming	202	0.8082	2
Rationalize	202	0.5439	5
Undoing	202	0.7954	3
Pure	181	0.3918	4
Suggestive	185	0.6540	2
Planned	189	0.2401	2

*The table is created by Authors using the data collected by Authors*

Afterwards we run the following regressions:

**Regression 1:** Using post-purchase emotions as dependent variable

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Post - purchase}_i = & \alpha + \beta_1 \text{Impulsiveness}_i + \beta_2 \text{Post - receiving}_i + \beta_3 \text{Price}_i + \\
 & \beta_4 \text{Delivery time}_i + \beta_5 \text{Return possibility}_i + \beta_6 \text{Gender}_i + \beta_7 \text{Age}_i + \\
 & \beta_8 \text{Education}_i + \beta_9 \text{Employment}_i + \beta_{10} \text{Income}_i + \beta_{11} \text{Purchase frequency}_i + \\
 & \beta_{12} \text{Online purchase frequency}_i + \beta_{13} \text{Online spending}_i + \\
 & \beta_{14} \text{Coping strategy}_i + \beta_{15} \text{Type of impulsive buying}_i
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Regression 1 aims to show how post-purchase emotions are affected by variables included in the regression. The key point of interest is the relationship between *Impulsiveness* and *Post-purchase*, nevertheless the effect of other variables is taken into consideration as well.

**Regression 2:** Using post-receiving emotions as dependent variable

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Post-receiving}_i = & \alpha + \beta_1 \text{Impulsiveness}_i + \beta_2 \text{Post-purchase}_i + \beta_3 \text{Price}_i + \\
 & \beta_4 \text{Delivery time}_i + \beta_5 \text{Return possibility}_i + \beta_6 \text{Gender}_i + \beta_7 \text{Age}_i + \\
 & \beta_8 \text{Education}_i + \beta_9 \text{Employment}_i + \beta_{10} \text{Income}_i + \beta_{11} \text{Purchase frequency}_i + \\
 & \beta_{12} \text{Online purchase frequency}_i + \beta_{13} \text{Online spending}_i + \\
 & \beta_{14} \text{Coping strategy}_i + \beta_{15} \text{Type of impulsive buying}_i
 \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Regression 2 aims to show how post-receiving emotions are affected by variables included in the regression. Similarly to the first regression, we are mainly interested in the relationship between *Impulsiveness* and *Post-receiving*, nevertheless we consider the effect of other variables as well.

**Regression 3:** Explaining probability of a future impulsive buying

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Future buying probability}_i = & \alpha + \beta_1 \text{Impulsiveness}_i + \\
 & \beta_2 \text{Buying experience}_i + \beta_3 \text{Gender}_i + \beta_4 \text{Age}_i + \beta_5 \text{Education}_i + \\
 & \beta_6 \text{Employment}_i + \beta_7 \text{Income}_i + \beta_8 \text{Purchase frequency}_i + \\
 & \beta_9 \text{Online purchase frequency}_i + \beta_{10} \text{Online spending}_i + \beta_{11} \text{Emotions}_i
 \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Regression 3 is run to obtain the effect of post-purchase experience (*Buying experience<sub>i</sub>*) on the probability of a repeated impulsive online purchase of a fast fashion item (*Future buying probability<sub>i</sub>*). Similarly to previous 2 regressions, other variables are taken into consideration as well to obtain more meaningful results.

As there are no similar studies with applicable methodology, we use the combination of variables which provides the highest goodness of fit for the model and is backed by findings from the existing literature.

## 4. Results

### 4.1. Sample description

After manually deleting the responses where respondents bought the fashion item from a store which cannot be included into the category of fast fashion stores, we obtain a dataset with 482 responses on the survey and filter out unfinished responses as well as responses from people under 16 years. Afterwards we are left with 336 responses that are used in further analysis. Descriptive statistics of the sample is summarized in the Table 2.

**Table 2: Descriptive statistics of the sample**

<i>Variables</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Missing values, %</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>
Product type	336	0.00	4.22	1.77
Price	202	39.88	43.36	43.10
Delivery time	201	40.18	2.03	1.39
Return possibility	336	0.00	0.47	0.50
Emotions in a positive scenario	194	42.26	1.97	1.31
Emotions in a negative scenario	142	57.74	2.19	0.86
Coping strategy in case of negative emotions	120	64.29	3.22	2.18
Future buying likeliness	336	0.00	2.61	1.30
Gender (Male=1, Female=2)	336	0.00	1.61	0.49
Age group	336	0.00	2.76	0.99
Education	336	0.00	2.60	0.82
Employment	336	0.00	2.18	0.99
Income	336	0.00	2.29	1.44
Clothing purchase frequency	336	0.00	1.93	0.88
Clothing online purchase frequency	336	0.00	2.82	1.28
Money spent on clothing purchases online p.a.	336	0.00	2.18	1.09

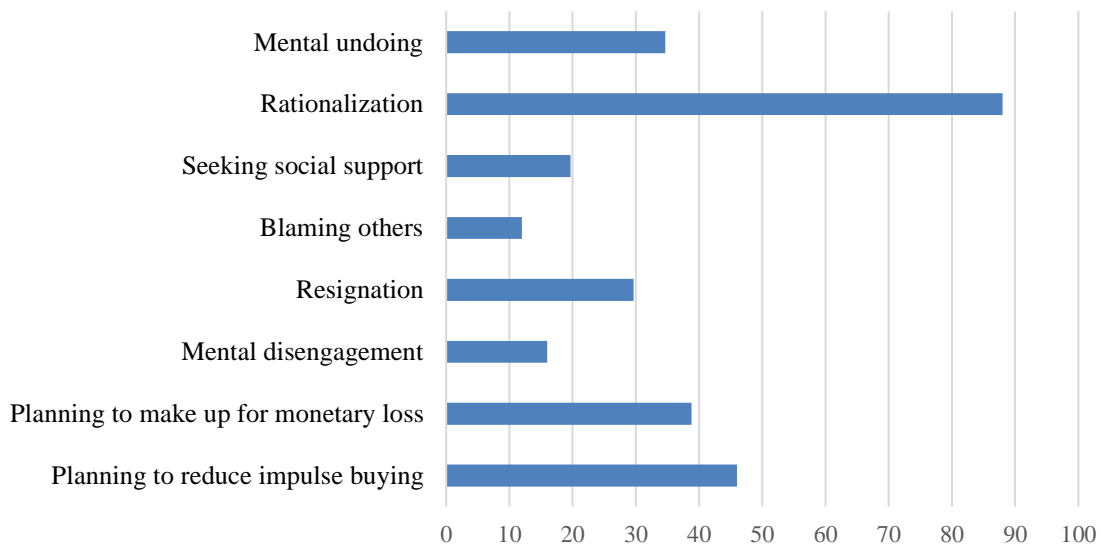
*The table reports number of observations, % of missing observations, mean and standard deviation for each variable. The table is created by Authors using the data collected by Authors.*

The number of observations differs for several variables, as the survey flow depends on answers provided by the respondent. If the respondent indicates that he/she

cannot recall an impulsive purchase of fast fashion online, the survey automatically moves on to questions related to the scenario of an impulsive online purchase and demographic questions. Thus, variables like *Price* and *Delivery time* have higher percentage of missing observations.

As regards the variable *Coping strategy* in case of a negative emotions which has the highest percentage of missing observations, the question regarding coping strategies only appeared if a person experienced negative emotion regarding a scenario of an impulsive purchase, meaning that 64.29% of respondents felt good about the purchase in any scenario.

Summary of coping strategies



**Figure 1:** The summary of the popularity of each coping strategy suggested by Yi and Baumgartner (2011, p.462) expressed by the total number of respondents who have chosen the strategy as 'somewhat agree' or 'strongly agree'. The Figure is created by Authors using the data collected by Authors.

In terms of coping strategies, we look at the total number of respondents who have chosen a particular coping strategy. As each respondent can choose several strategies, it is not possible to show meaningful results regarding the % of participants who chose each strategy. The results are summarized in the Figure 1. According to results of the survey, the most popular coping strategy among respondents is the rationalization.

#### 4.2. Impulsiveness and post-purchase emotions

**Table 3: Effects on post-purchase emotions**

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Post-purchase emotions</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	1.0442	0.1008 – 1.9876	<b>0.030</b>
Impulsiveness	0.0613	-0.0815 – 0.2040	0.398
Post-receiving emotions	0.3725	0.2593 – 0.4856	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Price	-0.0007	-0.0043 – 0.0029	0.719
Delivery time	0.0317	-0.0707 – 0.1341	0.542
Returning possibility	0.0548	-0.2938 – 0.4034	0.757
Gender (Male=1, Female=2)	-0.3458	-0.6711 – -0.0205	<b>0.037</b>
Age	-0.0497	-0.2429 – 0.1436	0.613
Level of education	-0.0016	-0.2176 – 0.2145	0.989
Employment status	0.0290	-0.1477 – 0.2058	0.746
Monthly income	0.0085	-0.1088 – 0.1259	0.886
Clothing purchase frequency	0.1121	-0.0747 – 0.2989	0.238
Online clothing purchase frequency	-0.0703	-0.2510 – 0.1104	0.443
Money spent on online shopping	-0.0540	-0.2213 – 0.1132	0.524
Plan reducing	0.0262	-0.0172 – 0.0696	0.234
Make up loss	-0.0058	-0.0535 – 0.0419	0.810
Seek support	0.0279	-0.0371 – 0.0930	0.398
Resignation	0.0513	0.0028 – 0.0999	<b>0.038</b>
Blaming	-0.0934	-0.1919 – 0.0051	0.063
Undoing	-0.0331	-0.0967 – 0.0305	0.306
Reminder	0.1675	0.0638 – 0.2713	<b>0.002</b>
Observations	188		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.335 / 0.256		
F-statistics / p-value	4.213 (df 20; 167) / <b>&lt;0.001</b>		

*This table presents results obtained from Regression 1. In the last column p-values of predictors, which are statistically significant in 90% confidence interval or higher, are indicated in bold.*

*Table is created by Authors using the data collected by Authors.*

To study the influence of different factors that influence post-purchase emotions we check the influence of the type of impulsive buying and coping strategy along with the demographic factors, price, delivery time, returning possibility, buying habits and

post-receiving emotions. Overall regression results are summarized in Table 3, and further on only variables having a statistically significant effect are discussed.

The regression results show that emotions after receiving an item (post-receiving emotions) and emotions after making a purchase are positively correlated, which means that people who experience positive emotions after receiving the item are more likely to have a positive mood after purchasing the item and vice versa.

We also find that women are more likely to experience negative emotions after making an impulsive online purchase of a fast fashion item than men.

Post-purchase emotions are also positively affected by a coping strategy of *resignation*, meaning that if a person immediately acknowledges the fact that he/she cannot stop impulsive buying behaviour, he/she is more likely to feel good about the purchase.

Lastly, a person is likely to experience more positive emotions right after the purchase if it was a *reminder* impulsive purchase.

#### **4.3. Impulsiveness and post-receiving emotions**

To study the influence of different factors that influence post-receiving emotions we check the influence of the type of impulsive buying and coping strategy along with the demographic factors, price, delivery time, returning possibility, buying habits and post-purchase emotions. Overall regression results are summarized in Table 3, and further on only variables having a statistically significant effect are discussed.

Interestingly, the *price* of the item has a positive and statistically significant effect on post-receiving emotions, meaning that a person feels better after receiving a more expensive fast fashion item bought on impulse. However, the effect is very small and might be due to the fact that more expensive fashion items are of a better quality than a clothing item from platforms which offer many cheap products such as AliExpress.

Such coping strategy as *making up for loss* (when a person makes plans to compensate the loss) positively affects emotions after receiving an item, which means that people, who choose to cope with negative emotions in such way are likely to experience more positive emotions than people who do not choose this strategy; while mental undoing (wishing to go back in time and not make a purchase) negatively affects post-receiving emotions, which means that people who mentally undo the purchase are less likely to experience positive emotions after receiving an item.

Lastly, post-purchase emotions are having the strongest effect on emotions felt right after receiving the fast fashion item.

**Table 4: Effect on post-receiving emotions**

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Post-receiving emotions</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	1.1228	-0.0188 – 2.2644	0.054
Impulsiveness	-0.0275	-0.2001 – 0.1450	0.753
Post-purchase emotions	0.5422	0.3775 – 0.7069	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Price	0.0048	0.0005 – 0.0091	<b>0.028</b>
Delivery time	-0.0861	-0.2091 – 0.0369	0.169
Returning possibility	0.0087	-0.4121 – 0.4294	0.968
Gender (Male=1, Female=2)	0.0599	-0.3376 – 0.4575	0.766
Age	-0.2013	-0.4326 – 0.0300	0.088
Level of education	0.1387	-0.1212 – 0.3985	0.294
Employment status	0.0607	-0.1524 – 0.2738	0.574
Monthly income	-0.1033	-0.2440 – 0.0374	0.149
Clothing purchase frequency	-0.0419	-0.2682 – 0.1843	0.715
Online clothing purchase frequency	0.0045	-0.2139 – 0.2229	0.968
Money spent on online shopping	0.0594	-0.1423 – 0.2612	0.562
Plan reducing	-0.0260	-0.0785 – 0.0264	0.329
Make up loss	0.0856	0.0295 – 0.1417	<b>0.003</b>
Seek support	-0.0218	-0.1004 – 0.0568	0.584
Resignation	-0.0531	-0.1118 – 0.0057	0.076
Blaming	0.0516	-0.0682 – 0.1715	0.396
Undoing	-0.1213	-0.1960 – -0.0466	<b>0.002</b>
Reminder	-0.1183	-0.2460 – 0.0093	0.069
Observations	188		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.423 / 0.353		
F-statistics / p-value	6.109 (df 20; 167) / <b>&lt;0.001</b>		

*This table presents results obtained from Regression 2. In the last column p-values of predictors, which are statistically significant in 90% confidence interval or higher, are indicated in bold. Table is created by Authors using the data collected by Authors.*

#### 4.4. Probability of future impulsive buying

To study the influence of different factors that influence probability that a person will repeat the impulse purchase in future, we check the influence of impulsiveness of a person, his/her emotions after a purchase, demographic factors, also closing and online closing purchase frequency, the amount of money people spend on online shopping and two dummy variables.

The first dummy is the *buying experience* of a person, taking value of 1 if the person had a positive scenario and 0 in case of a negative scenario (not wearing the item). The second dummy is the *post-purchase emotions*, which takes value of 1 if the respondent is content with his/her choice and 0 if the person is dissatisfied.

**Table 5: Effect on probability to repeat an impulse purchase in the future**

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Probability of a future impulsive buying</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	0.1854	0.0413 – 0.3295	<b>0.012</b>
Impulsiveness	0.0327	0.0067 – 0.0587	<b>0.014</b>
Emotions	0.0729	0.0070 – 0.1388	<b>0.030</b>
Buying experience	-0.0015	-0.0700 – 0.0671	0.967
Gender (Male=1, Female=2)	0.0667	0.0059 – 0.1275	<b>0.032</b>
Age group	-0.0240	-0.0597 – 0.0118	0.189
Level of education	0.0430	0.0016 – 0.0844	<b>0.042</b>
Employment status	0.0052	-0.0308 – 0.0411	0.778
Monthly income	-0.0096	-0.0340 – 0.0147	0.437
Clothing purchase frequency	0.0374	-0.0024 – 0.0772	0.066
Online clothing purchase frequency	0.0082	-0.0230 – 0.0395	0.605
Money spent on online shopping	0.0015	-0.0318 – 0.0349	0.928
Observations	336		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.122 / 0.092		
F-statistic / p-value	4.082 (df 11; 324) / < <b>0.001</b>		

*This table presents results obtained from Regression 3. In the last column predictors, which are statistically significant in 90% confidence interval or higher, are indicated in bold. The table is created by Authors using the data collected by Authors.*



Overall regression results are summarized in Table 3, and further on only variables having a statistically significant effect are discussed. The results show that impulsiveness, emotions, gender, and level of education have an influence on a likelihood that a person will make a purchase on an impulse again in future.

This demonstrates that impulsive people are likely to proceed with the same behaviour pattern in future. Women are more likely to buy on impulse than men, which is consistent with the previous findings of other researchers (Dittmar, Long & Meek, 2004; Lim, Ling & Yazdanifard, 2015) Interestingly, the higher the level of education of a person, the more likely he or she is to make a purchase on impulse in the future.

Interestingly, the lack of statistical significance of the buying experience variable indicates that the usefulness of the purchased item does not have an effect on future buying probability. This means that if a person is not using the purchased item (a shirt in our theoretical scenario), he/she is as likely to buy on impulse again as a person who perceives the shirt bought on impulse as a useful item.

## 5. Discussion

### 5.1. *Effect of a person's impulsiveness on post-purchase emotions*

Answering the first research question, our findings show that **impulsiveness of a person is not a good predictor of post-purchase or post-receiving emotions**. This means that an impulsive person is not bound to experience positive emotions more likely than negative. Generally, our results reflect an ongoing disagreement on the topic among researchers, as several studies claim that on one hand impulsive buying improves mood while other researchers find that a person is likely to feel guilty and regretful after an impulsive purchase (Chang & Tseng, 2014; Yi & Baumgartner, 2004) or find that impulsiveness leads to happiness or guilt (Li, 2015).

In addition, the uncertainty regarding the effect of impulsiveness on post-purchase emotions can partly be explained by specifics of online shopping. When a person purchases an item in a store, his/her hedonic need is satisfied immediately by immediate physical contact with the item which influences post-purchase emotions. Xiao & Nicholson explain that an important role in hedonic satisfaction is played by an attractive packaging (2013). However, when shopping online, this hedonic need is not satisfied immediately as the person has not yet received the purchased item and does not

see the packaging itself, therefore does not have an influence on the person's emotions right after the purchase is made. This is supported by Xiao & Nicholson who explain that buying on impulse helps a person to satisfy a hedonic need by purchasing an item in an attractive package (2013).

Instead, *post-purchase* emotions in the context of online purchases of fast fashion are influenced by other variables which are the characteristics of a person. For example, *gender* plays a significant role, as women are more likely to experience negative emotions after an online purchase of fast fashion products than men. This could be explained by the fact that women are on average more emotional than men while shopping and therefore more likely to experience negative (Imam, 2013; Putra, Said&Hasan, 2017) Another pattern is that if a person buys a product that he/she have used before meaning that the impulsive purchase is made due to some *reminder* about the product, people tend to feel happier after the purchase comparing to other types of impulsive buying. This can be explained by the nature of this type of impulsive purchase. Even though the purchase is made without a preliminary plan, the person buys a product that he/she knows well (Stern, 1962). Thus, the uncertainty about the usefulness and properties of the item is minimized and a person might therefore be more likely to feel good about the purchase.

In addition, there is a positive relationship between the post-purchase emotions and *resignation* coping strategy, which is a person's acceptance of the fact that he/she is subject to impulsive purchases and cannot do anything about it, because this is a part of his/her character. Resignation strategy implies that a person stops blaming him/herself for the purchase done on impulse and accepts that impulsive buying is a habit that one cannot stop (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011). Thus, by removing a part of the responsibility for the committed action because a person cannot be fully responsible for what he/she is not able to control, negative emotions such as guilt, shame etc. associated with the perception of impulsive buying behaviour are at least partly eliminated.

As regards *post-receiving* emotions, interestingly, the gender or other variables which affect post-purchase emotions are not playing a significant role in predicting emotions experienced after receiving the item.

A very important predictor of post-receiving emotions is how a person felt right after the purchase. This means that if a person felt good after clicking the "buy" button, he or she is more likely to feel happy after receiving the item. These findings are contrasting the effect of "hedonic treadmill effect" mentioned by Bottan & Perez

Truglia (2011, p.224), meaning that emotions experienced right after the purchase are carried to the moment of receiving the purchased item.

One of the potential explanations can be found when looking into such psychological biases as confirmation bias and commitment bias. A confirmation bias occurs when a person is looking for confirmation in the beliefs that he/she had previously (Nickerson, 1998). That is, a person who immediately after the purchase experienced positive emotions, which means that he/she is confident in the correctness of his/her decision, is inclined to seek confirmation of his or her expectations even after receiving the goods. Thus, he/she is likely to focus more on the positive aspects of the purchased product after receiving it and as a result is experiencing more positive emotions.

As regards the commitment bias, it lies within the fact that a person tends to remain committed to his behaviour in the past, even in the presence of evidence that this behaviour was wrong (Hamza & Jarboui, 2012) Thus, a person who was initially happy with his/her impulsive purchase tends to continue to be happy after receiving it and potentially tries to disregard or reduce the importance of shortcomings (rashness, uselessness, low quality) of the purchase.

Interesting observation is that people who choose *mental undoing* strategy (i.e., wanting to return to the past and undo the action) are on average experiencing more negative emotions after receiving the item. This could be explained by the fact that such coping strategy is positively related to guilt (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011). Thus, people who choose mental undoing as their coping strategy may experience negative emotions associated with guilt more than others, so, these negative emotions are embedded into the post-receiving emotions.

Our results show that *make-up loss* coping strategy, which implies that a person is trying to adjust his/her budget to compensate for the monetary loss associated with the impulsive purchase, has a positive relationship with the post-receiving emotions, meaning that the person who uses such strategy is on average likely to experience more positive emotions after receiving the purchase. Our findings are contrasting the findings of Yi and Baumgartner, who conclude that the strategy of making up for losses is related to guilt and therefore causes negative emotions (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011).

## ***5.2. Effect of post-purchase emotions after the future online-shopping intentions***

The key finding of our study is that *post-purchase emotions* have an influence on the probability that a person will repeat such behaviour in the future. **People who indicate positive emotions regarding the impulsive purchase described in the theoretical scenario are more likely repeat an impulsive purchase in the future, whereas people who find that the impulsive purchase was a bad decision tend to indicate lower likelihood of a future impulsive purchase.** These results hold true irrespective of a scenario (positive or negative) a person has received in the survey.

Furthermore, there is a statistically significant positive effect of a person's *impulsiveness* on future buying behaviour. As could be expected, people with higher impulsiveness score are more likely to repeat an impulsive purchase. This also supports findings of Lim, Ling and Yazdanifard who claim that impulsive people are “more likely to purchase impulsively and pay higher price” (2015, p.28).

However, the most interesting finding appears when comparing the size of effect of impulsiveness and emotions after the purchase. Results in Table 3 show that emotions after the purchase have bigger effect on probability of an impulsive purchase than the impulsiveness of a person. This means that even a person who is not very impulsive and prefers to plan his/her fast fashion purchases might buy on impulse again if the previous spontaneous purchase experience was positive.

Another surprising finding is that although effects of impulsiveness and post-purchase emotions are statistically significant, overall, the size of these effects is quite small. This means that the difference in future buying probability for positive or negative post-purchase emotions cannot be neglected but is rather small. As regards impulsiveness, a person with higher impulsiveness score is just a little bit more likely to repeat an impulsive purchase in the future.

These results lead to a suggestion that both positive and negative post-impulsive purchase experience can still lead to a repetition of the same behaviour. These findings are similar to the conclusion made by Spiteri Cornish (2020) about in-store impulsive buying.

In addition, we obtain results that are consistent with the findings of Lim et al. and Dittmar et al., who claim that women are more likely to buy on impulse than men (Dittmar, Long & Meek, 2004; Lim, Ling & Yazdanifard, 2015). We also see that

people with higher *level of education* are more likely to make impulsive purchases in future, meaning that higher education does not help to control the buying behaviour and decrease the number of purchases of fast fashion items bought on impulse.

Other variables such as *age, employment status, level of income* or *frequency of shopping for clothing* online and in-store are not affecting the probability of a future purchase done on impulse. These findings are similar to conclusions made by Nandi (2015) with regards to cosmetic industry.

### **5.3. Contribution of the study and practical implications**

As pointed out by Lara Spiteri Cornish (2020) the topic of impulsive buying is gaining an increasing attention from researchers, however, most of the previous work focuses solely on emotions right after an impulsive purchase and fails to draw a link between behaviour after the initial wave of emotions associated with a purchase dissipates.

Our research contributes to the overall literature related to the impulsive buying, studying its online version, as one of the main trends in shopping is shops moving from physical stores to online platforms is (Gazzola et al., 2020). Our research fills the gap in academic literature by studying the effect of post-impulsive purchase emotions in online shops of fast fashion.

The results of the study combined with findings of previous research suggest a practical implication for fast-fashion retailers suggesting that they should focus on inducing positive post-purchase emotions instead of just triggering an impulsive behaviour to improve sales volume. We find that positive emotions after the purchase are likely to be maintained when receiving the purchased item and are non-neglectable explainers of the probability of an impulsive purchase in the future. Our result is also supported by Li (2015) who studies in-store impulsive buying and states that post-impulsive purchase experience is affecting not only the repetitiveness of impulsive buying but also the probability that the customer will recommend the store or the product to his acquaintances.

In addition, considering the fact that people are likely to buy online on impulse again even after having a negative post-purchase experience and combining these results with the conclusion that impulsive buying may be resulting in financial hardships made by Fenton-O'Creevy et al. (2018), we suggest that it is important for

retailers to be responsible about their marketing and sales strategies and not to induce impulsive buying behaviour to the extent when it harms customers' prosperity.

#### ***5.4. Limitations and suggestions for further research***

One of the limitations of our study is the respondents' sample structure. Although we are using a snowball effect via asking respondents to send the survey to their relatives and friends or sharing it in the social media, a significant part of the respondents is in the age group of 16-24. Thus, to analyse the effect of age, we need more even distribution of respondents across age groups. This could be solved via using paid advertising in social media or using paid external survey distribution services as suggested by Chen, Chen & Silalahi (2021).

As argued by Yi and Baumgartner (2011) a retrospective survey introduces memory bias which may alter the true results because respondents may not recall their emotions and actions correctly. Thus, to have smaller deviation of reported emotions and actions from the actually experienced ones we should only survey people right after they have purchased clothing online on impulse. However, this is not possible with the chosen design of the research. We acknowledge this issue and therefore do not analyse each emotion separately, as people might not remember how likely they were to feel every particular emotion (e.g., guilt, happiness, pride etc.). Instead, we summarise emotions into positive and negative ones, assuming that a person will correctly recall whether he or she felt good or bad after the purchase or receiving the item.

Another limitation is that we do not analyse deeply at the psychological factors behind impulsive buying and, in particular, the nature of impulsiveness of a person and the factors that influence it. Such in-depth analysis might be useful for better understanding of the psychology of an impulsive buyer and the factors that influence his/her purchasing decisions together with the prediction of future buying patterns. However, such in-depth analysis is out of the scope of this study.

In addition, in our study we look on fast fashion clothing purchasing behaviour online in general rather than narrowing the scope down to type of clothing, price category or even shopping platform. Although this is helpful in creating broad enough target audience for the survey, the results might be significantly affected by including fast fashion goods from different price categories as one could expect that spending 50 euros on impulse might create more intense emotions than spending 5 euros. Thus, focusing on certain shopping platforms and distinguishing more expensive fast fashion

goods from the cheap ones may provide different results. Although such detailed study is out of the scope of this research, there is a potential for future research to be done in the area of impulsive online purchases of fast fashion products.



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## 6. Conclusions

With our research we aim to study the relationship between the impulsive buying and emotions occurring after the purchase in the context of online shopping for fast fashion items. Our analysis is structured in a way which helps to find answers to two research questions with the first defined as “How does the impulsive buying relate to the post-purchase emotions in the context of shopping for fast fashion products online?” and the second one formulated as “How post-purchase emotions are predicting the future online-shopping intentions?”.

To find answers to posed research questions, we run an online survey and analyse the results by separating emotions experienced immediately after buying a fast fashion item and emotions occurring after receiving the ordered item. In addition, we analyse the probability to purchase on impulse and how it is affected by reported emotions after a theoretical scenario of an impulsive purchase.

In conclusion, we find that in the context of online shopping for fast fashion items impulsive buying or impulsiveness of a person have no significant relationship with emotions felt both immediately after the purchase is made and after the item is received. These findings reflect the ongoing discussion among academics on the topic in the context of in-store shopping, as the researchers do not agree upon the positive or negative nature of the relationship between post-purchase emotions and impulsive buying.

Answering the second research question, we find out that positive post-purchase emotions are increasing the probability of repeating the impulsive buying behaviour in future, nevertheless, the effect is quite small. Thus, our research demonstrates that focusing on inducing positive post-purchase emotions to a consumer increases the chance of him/her making another impulsive purchase irrespective of whether the purchased item is useful or not.



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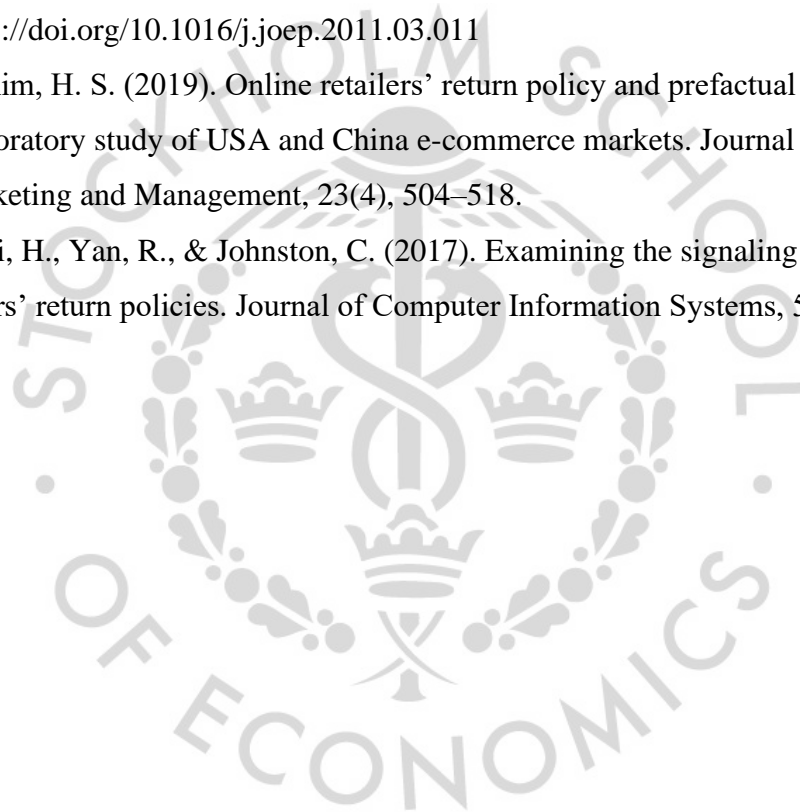
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## 8. Appendices

### *Appendix A. The survey questions*

The survey is created and distributed via Qualtrics platform. Link to the original survey in English: [https://sserigaedu.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV\\_2a7yLQVTcWTBzNA](https://sserigaedu.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_2a7yLQVTcWTBzNA)

#### **Block 1: Retrospection on the impulsive purchase**

**1. Remember your latest fashion related item purchase without previous plan of buying that item, just after seeing it. What was that item?** Shoes – Accessories –

Outerwear – Clothing – Underwear – None of the Above

**2. What was the price of the item? (text entry)**

**3. Which online shop was it ordered from? (text entry)**

**4. How much time did the delivery take?**

Less than a week – 1-2 weeks – 3-4 weeks – A month or more

**5. Was there an opportunity to return the item?**

Yes – No – I do not know

**6. Why did you buy it? (Likert scale)**

6.1. I had a bad mood and wanted to improve it

6.2. I just felt like I want to buy it

6.3. I was inspired by social media'

6.4. I was inspired to try a new product by an advertisement

6.5. I had a good mood and it inspired me to buy

6.6. I had a bad mood and wanted to improve it

6.7. I do not know, there was no reason

6.8. I had previously had it and an ad reminded me about it

6.9. It had a huge discount

6.10. Other reason (text entry allowed)

#### **Block 2: Post-purchase emotions**

**7. Right after the purchase you felt ... (PANAS scale)**

7.1. Distressed

7.8. Ashamed

7.2. Upset

7.9. Inspired

7.3. Guilty

7.10. Nervous

7.4. Excited

7.11. Determined

7.5. Enthusiastic

7.12. Jittery

7.6. Proud

7.13. Active

7.7. Irritable

**8. After receiving the item you felt ... (PANAS scale)**

8.1. Distressed

8.2. Upset

- 8.3. Guilty
- 8.4. Excited
- 8.5. Enthusiastic
- 8.6. Proud
- 8.7. Irritable
- 8.8. Ashamed

- 8.9. Inspired
- 8.10. Nervous
- 8.11. Determined
- 8.12. Jittery
- 8.13. Regretful
- 8.14. Disappointed

### **Block 3: Coping strategies**

**9. After receiving the item... (Likert scale)** Statements taken from methodology developed by Yi and Baumgartner (2011, p.466)

- 9.1. "I planned out what I would do next time when I have an impulse to buy an item of clothing" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.2. "I started to take actions that I thought would help me reduce my impulse shopping" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.3. "I decided that next time I would stop shopping as soon as I felt an impulse to buy clothing" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.4. "I tried to come up with ways of reducing my impulsive buying for the next time" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.5. "I decided not to go out or spend money for the rest of the day/week/month" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.6. "I adjusted my budget in order to make up for the money I spent on impulse buying" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.7. "I tried to cut back on other expenses in order to make up for the money I spent" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.8. I tried to sell the item
- 9.9. I tried to return the item and get a monetary compensation
- 9.10. "I lied about this impulse buying occasion so that other people would not know about it" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.11. "I ate more than usual for a short period of time after this impulse buying occasion" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.12. "I slept more than usual or went to bed earlier after this impulse buying occasion" (Yi & Baumgartner., 2011, p.466)
- 9.13. "I accepted the fact that I am unable to control my impulse buying" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.14. "I acknowledged that I couldn't get over my impulse buying no matter how hard I tried to curb it" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.15. "I faced the fact that there is little I could do about my impulse buying problem" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.16. "I blamed someone who was present while I bought on impulse" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.17. "I blamed someone who encouraged me to buy this item" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.18. "I tried to get emotional support from someone" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)



- 9.19. "I asked people who have had similar impulse shopping problems what they did to deal with it" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.20. "I talked to someone to consult what I should do to deal with this problem" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.21. "I told myself that this purchase was a treat to myself for working hard" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.22. "I thought I was entitled to purchase impulse items occasionally, including this item" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.23. "I told myself that I really needed this item" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.24. "I tried to convince myself that I purchased this item out of necessity" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.25. I told myself I can use it as a gift to someone
- 9.26. "I wished that I could start all over again and did not spend this money" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.27. "I wanted to go back to the time of impulse buying and undo the whole thing" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)
- 9.28. "I wished that the money I spent would somehow be recovered" (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011, p.466)

#### **Block 4: Scenarios**

*The survey participant receives one of 2 scenarios (positive or negative). Those scenarios and questions associated with them are shown separately.*

*Positive scenario:*

**10.a. Imagine such situation: You are scrolling through the feed in the social media and suddenly see an advertisement of an online shop which sells a very nice shirt. You immediately like it and want to buy it, although you already have plenty of clothes in your wardrobe. Nevertheless, you feel happy about the purchase. You cannot wait to receive the shirt and start wearing it. Once it is delivered, you try it on and love how it looks, therefore you find yourself often wearing this short further on.**

**How do you feel about the purchase? Match all statements that are true.** From Decision Regret scale by O'Connor (2003, p.1)

- 10.a.1. "It was the right decision" (O'Connor, 2003, p.1)
- 10.a.2. "I regret the choice that I made" (O'Connor, 2003, p.1)
- 10.a.3. "I would go for the same choice if I had to do it over again" (O'Connor, 2003, p.1)
- 10.a.4. "The choice that I made did me a lot of harm" (O'Connor, 2003, p.1)
- 10.a.5. "The decision was a wise one" (O'Connor, 2003, p.1)

*Negative scenario:*

**10.b. Imagine such situation: You are scrolling through the feed in the social media and suddenly see an advertisement of an online shop which sells a very nice shirt. You immediately like it and want to buy it, although you already have plenty of clothes in your wardrobe. At that moment you feel happy about the purchase but then realize that you do not need that shirt because you already have plenty of them. Once it is delivered, you try it on, then put it in the wardrobe and decide to wear sometime later. However, you forget about the shirt and wear other clothes instead of it.**

**How do you feel about the purchase? Match all statements that are true.** From Decision Regret scale by O'Connor (2003)

10.b.1. "It was the right decision" (O'Connor, 2003, p.1)

10.b.2. "I regret the choice that I made" (O'Connor, 2003, p.1)

10.b.3. "I would go for the same choice if I had to do it over again" (O'Connor, 2003, p.1)

10.b.4. "The choice that I made did me a lot of harm" (O'Connor, 2003, p.1)

10.b.5. "The decision was a wise one" (O'Connor, 2003, p.1)

*If in either one of scenarios options 2 and 4 are chosen, the participant receives an additional question.*

**11. After a few days you realize that you are not going to wear the shirt and you do not need it. What is the course of your action? (Choose one from all)**

11.1. You try to come up with a plan how to avoid such purchases in the future

11.2. You try to return or resell the shirt

11.3. You try to justify the purchase and convince yourself that you need that shirt

11.4. You put the shirt deep in the closet and forget about it

11.5. You admit that nothing can be done about the shirt and reconcile with it

11.6. You blame someone else for purchasing that shirt

11.7. You wish you would not have bought it

**12. After a few months a similar situation occurs. When searching for new gloves in online shop, you find a scarf which you feel would really suit these gloves.**

**Although you already have a scarf, you suddenly want to buy a new one very much.**

**How likely are you to buy the scarf? (Likert scale)**

#### **Block 5: Demographic statistics**

**13. Indicate your gender**

Male – Female – Prefer not to answer

**14. Indicate your age group**

Under 16 – 16-24 – 25-34 – 35-44 – Above 45

**15. What is your level of education? Indicate the highest level you have obtained**

Primary education – Secondary education – Bachelor's degree – Master's degree –  
Doctorate

**16. Indicate your employment status**

Student – Part-time employment – Full-time employment – Unemployed – Retired

**17. Indicate your level of monthly income**

Under 500 EUR – 500-1000 EUR – 1000-1500 EUR – 1500-2000 EUR – 2000 – 2500  
EUR – Above 2500 EUR

**18. How often do you purchase clothing?**

Less than once in 6 months – Once in 3 months – Once in a month – Every few weeks

**19. How often do you purchase clothing online?**

Never – Once in a year – Once in 6 months – Once in 3 months – Once a month – Every  
few weeks

**20. How much do you spend on clothing in online shops during a year?**

Less than 50 EUR – 50-100 EUR – 100-200 EUR – More than 200 EUR

**21. Which statements are true?** From Rook& Fischer (1995) impulsiveness scale

- 21.1. "I often buy clothing spontaneously" (Rook et al., 1995, p. 308)
- 21.2. "'Just do it' describes the way I buy clothing" (Rook et al., 1995, p. 308)
- 21.3. "I often buy clothing without thinking" (Rook et al., 1995, p. 308)
- 21.4. "'Buy now, think about it later' describes me" (Rook et al., 1995, p. 308)
- 21.5. "'I see it, I buy it' describes me" (Rook et al., 1995, p. 308)
- 21.6. "Sometimes I feel like buying clothing on the spur-of-the-moment" (Rook et al.,  
1995, p. 308)
- 21.7. "I buy clothing according to how I feel at that moment" (Rook et al., 1995, p. 308)
- 21.8. "I carefully plan most of my purchases" (Rook et al., 1995, p. 308)
- 21.9. "Sometimes I am a bit reckless about what I buy" (Rook et al., 1995, p. 308)

**Appendix B. Survey text data conversion**

**Table 6:** The table presents a summary of how the survey’s textual results data is converted in numerical values.

	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>Q1</i>	<i>Shoes</i>	<i>Accessories</i>	<i>Outerwear</i>	<i>Clothing</i>	<i>Underwear</i>	<i>None of the above</i>
<i>Q4</i>	<i>Less than a week</i>	<i>1-2 weeks</i>	<i>3-4 weeks</i>	<i>A month or more</i>		
<i>Q5</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>I do not know</i>			
<i>Q6, Q9, Q12, Q21</i>	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Somewhat disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Somewhat agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	
<i>Q7, Q8</i>	<i>Very slightly or not at all</i>	<i>A little</i>	<i>Moderate</i>	<i>Quite a bit</i>	<i>Extremely</i>	
<i>Q13</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Prefer not to answer</i>			
<i>Q14</i>	<i>Under 16</i>	<i>16-24</i>	<i>25-34</i>	<i>35-44</i>	<i>Above 45</i>	
<i>Q15</i>	<i>Primary</i>	<i>Secondary</i>	<i>Bachelor’s degree</i>	<i>Master’s degree</i>	<i>Doctorate</i>	
<i>Q16</i>	<i>Student</i>	<i>Part-time employed</i>	<i>Full-time employed</i>	<i>Unemployed</i>	<i>Retired</i>	
<i>Q17</i>	<i>Under 500</i>	<i>500-1000</i>	<i>1000-1500</i>	<i>1500-2000</i>	<i>2000-2500</i>	<i>Above 2500</i>
<i>Q18, Q19</i>	<i>Less than once in 6 months</i>	<i>Once in 3 months</i>	<i>Once in a month</i>	<i>Every few weeks</i>		
<i>Q20</i>	<i>Less than 50</i>	<i>50-100</i>	<i>100-200</i>	<i>More than 200</i>		

Created by Authors

### Appendix C. Correlation tables of variables used in regressions

As there are too many variables to create a single correlation table and insert it in the thesis, three separate tables are made. Nevertheless, a single table was created and used when analysing the data.

**Table 7:** The table presents the correlation of variables from Regressions 1 and 2.

**Correlation of variables**

	Price	Delivery time	Returning possibility	Gender	Age	Level of education	Employment status	Monthly income	Clothing purchase frequency	Online clothing purchase frequency	Money spent on online shopping	Impulsiveness	Post-purchase emotions	Post-receiving emotions
Price		-0.1396	0.1675	-0.2162	0.0325	0.0266	-0.0422	0.1666	0.0718	0.0567	0.3557	0.0379	0.0839	0.1559
Delivery time	-0.1396		-0.3533	0.0161	-0.0520	-0.0244	-0.0160	-0.0479	-0.0237	-0.0135	-0.1034	-0.0134	-0.0401	-0.1746
Returning possibility	0.1675	-0.3533		0.0634	-0.1199	-0.0275	-0.0972	-0.0115	0.2281	0.2355	0.1965	0.1254	0.0870	0.1715
Gender	-0.2162	0.0161	0.0634		0.1706	0.1420	0.1019	-0.0492	0.1961	0.1557	0.0376	0.1712	-0.1015	-0.0664
Age	0.0325	-0.0520	-0.1199	0.1706		0.5962	0.5900	0.4311	-0.0002	-0.0621	0.0218	0.1461	-0.1547	-0.2453
Level of education	0.0266	-0.0244	-0.0275	0.1420	0.5962		0.5063	0.4525	0.0724	0.0630	0.0353	0.2496	-0.0485	-0.0682
Employment status	-0.0422	-0.0160	-0.0972	0.1019	0.5900	0.5063		0.4861	-0.0102	-0.1127	0.0276	0.0982	-0.0404	-0.1253
Monthly income	0.1666	-0.0479	-0.0115	-0.0492	0.4311	0.4525	0.4861		0.0672	0.0676	0.3000	-0.0648	-0.1017	-0.1381
Clothing purchase frequency	0.0718	-0.0237	0.2281	0.1961	-0.0002	0.0724	-0.0102	0.0672		0.6291	0.4050	0.1902	0.0388	0.0169
Online clothing purchase frequency	0.0567	-0.0135	0.2355	0.1557	-0.0621	0.0630	-0.1127	0.0676	0.6291		0.5583	0.2337	0.0100	0.0395
Money spent on online shopping	0.3557	-0.1034	0.1965	0.0376	0.0218	0.0353	0.0276	0.3000	0.4050	0.5583		0.1087	-0.0221	0.0500
Impulsiveness	0.0379	-0.0134	0.1254	0.1712	0.1461	0.2496	0.0982	-0.0648	0.1902	0.2337	0.1087		0.0403	-0.0306
Post-purchase emotions	0.0839	-0.0401	0.0870	-0.1015	-0.1547	-0.0485	-0.0404	-0.1017	0.0388	0.0100	-0.0221	0.0403		0.4773
Post-receiving emotions	0.1559	-0.1746	0.1715	-0.0664	-0.2453	-0.0682	-0.1253	-0.1381	0.0169	0.0395	0.0500	-0.0306	0.4773	

Computed correlation used pearson-method with listwise-deletion.

Table created by Authors using the data collected by Authors

**Table 8:** The table presents the correlation of variables from Regressions 1 and 2.

**Correlation of variables**

	<i>Impulsiveness</i>	<i>Post-purchase emotions</i>	<i>Post-receiving emotions</i>	<i>Plan reducing</i>	<i>Make up loss</i>	<i>Seek support</i>	<i>Disengage</i>	<i>Resignation</i>	<i>Blaming</i>	<i>Rationalization</i>	<i>Undoing</i>	<i>Pure</i>	<i>Suggestive</i>	<i>Reminder</i>	<i>Planned</i>
<i>Impulsiveness</i>		0.0405	-0.0272	0.1123	0.0878	0.1205	0.1514	0.1963	0.0813	0.0396	0.0770	0.1519	0.0044	0.0922	-0.0987
<i>Post-purchase emotions</i>	0.0405		0.4680	0.0076	0.0462	0.0054	-0.0011	0.0670	-0.0897	0.2341	-0.1465	0.1973	-0.0268	0.1690	0.0927
<i>Post-receiving emotions</i>	-0.0272	0.4680		-0.1193	0.0714	-0.1006	-0.0112	-0.1093	-0.0878	0.1965	-0.3044	0.2087	-0.1752	-0.0487	0.0852
<i>Plan reducing</i>	0.1123	0.0076	-0.1193		0.6271	0.5144	0.3982	0.2962	0.3260	0.2805	0.5325	0.2521	0.1910	0.0892	-0.0330
<i>Make up loss</i>	0.0878	0.0462	0.0714	0.6271		0.4726	0.5244	0.3882	0.3058	0.3399	0.5576	0.2528	0.2196	0.0953	0.0286
<i>Seek support</i>	0.1205	0.0054	-0.1006	0.5144	0.4726		0.5235	0.3418	0.4957	0.1706	0.5346	0.1996	0.0838	0.0806	0.0971
<i>Disengage</i>	0.1514	-0.0011	-0.0112	0.3982	0.5244	0.5235		0.3987	0.4992	0.2308	0.5320	0.1471	0.1977	0.1442	0.0554
<i>Resignation</i>	0.1963	0.0670	-0.1093	0.2962	0.3882	0.3418	0.3987		0.2824	0.3565	0.4143	0.2375	0.2855	0.0271	-0.0615
<i>Blaming</i>	0.0813	-0.0897	-0.0878	0.3260	0.3058	0.4957	0.4992	0.2824		0.0450	0.4436	0.1601	0.0523	0.1331	0.1526
<i>Rationalization</i>	0.0396	0.2341	0.1965	0.2805	0.3399	0.1706	0.2308	0.3565	0.0450		0.0312	0.2329	0.1441	0.0846	0.2408
<i>Undoing</i>	0.0770	-0.1465	-0.3044	0.5325	0.5576	0.5346	0.5320	0.4143	0.4436	0.0312		0.1277	0.2689	0.0942	-0.0425
<i>Pure</i>	0.1519	0.1973	0.2087	0.2521	0.2528	0.1996	0.1471	0.2375	0.1601	0.2329	0.1277		0.1432	0.0197	-0.0803
<i>Suggestive</i>	0.0044	-0.0268	-0.1752	0.1910	0.2196	0.0838	0.1977	0.2855	0.0523	0.1441	0.2689	0.1432		0.2064	0.0058
<i>Reminder</i>	0.0922	0.1690	-0.0487	0.0892	0.0953	0.0806	0.1442	0.0271	0.1331	0.0846	0.0942	0.0197	0.2064		0.0298
<i>Planned</i>	-0.0987	0.0927	0.0852	-0.0330	0.0286	0.0971	0.0554	-0.0615	0.1526	0.2408	-0.0425	-0.0803	0.0058	0.0298	

*Computed correlation used pearson-method with listwise-deletion.*

*Table created by Authors using the data collected by Authors.*

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**Table 9:** This table presents the correlation of variables from Regression 3.

**Correlation of variables**

	<i>Probability of a future impulsive buying</i>	<i>Impulsiveness</i>	<i>Purchase experience</i>	<i>Emotion</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Level of education</i>	<i>Employment status</i>	<i>Monthly income</i>	<i>Clothing purchase frequency</i>	<i>Online clothing purchase frequency</i>	<i>Money spent on online shopping</i>
<i>Probability of a future impulsive buying</i>		0.2256	-0.0389	0.0907	0.1928	0.0275	0.1466	0.0517	-0.0215	0.2084	0.1649	0.1078
<i>Impulsiveness</i>	0.2256		-0.1532	0.0039	0.1999	0.1772	0.2217	0.1441	-0.0450	0.2400	0.1926	0.1377
<i>Purchase experience</i>	-0.0389	-0.1532		0.5193	-0.2145	0.0195	-0.0605	0.0257	-0.0637	-0.2645	-0.3746	-0.3275
<i>Emotion</i>	0.0907	0.0039	0.5193		-0.1184	0.0088	-0.0070	0.0216	-0.0516	-0.1628	-0.1752	-0.1419
<i>Gender</i>	0.1928	0.1999	-0.2145	-0.1184		0.2401	0.2102	0.1620	-0.0272	0.2562	0.2324	0.1573
<i>Age</i>	0.0275	0.1772	0.0195	0.0088	0.2401		0.5366	0.5563	0.3776	-0.0119	0.0017	0.0557
<i>Level of education</i>	0.1466	0.2217	-0.0605	-0.0070	0.2102	0.5366		0.4749	0.4066	0.0822	0.1006	0.1386
<i>Employment status</i>	0.0517	0.1441	0.0257	0.0216	0.1620	0.5563	0.4749		0.5023	0.0043	0.0120	0.1031
<i>Monthly income</i>	-0.0215	-0.0450	-0.0637	-0.0516	-0.0272	0.3776	0.4066	0.5023		0.0818	0.1311	0.3276
<i>Clothing purchase frequency</i>	0.2084	0.2400	-0.2645	-0.1628	0.2562	-0.0119	0.0822	0.0043	0.0818		0.6263	0.4473
<i>Online clothing purchase frequency</i>	0.1649	0.1926	-0.3746	-0.1752	0.2324	0.0017	0.1006	0.0120	0.1311	0.6263		0.6193
<i>Money spent on online shopping</i>	0.1078	0.1377	-0.3275	-0.1419	0.1573	0.0557	0.1386	0.1031	0.3276	0.4473	0.6193	

*Computed correlation used pearson-method with listwise-deletion.*

*Table created by Authors using the data collected by Authors*

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