

Impact Of Mindfulness On Stages Of Self-Regulated Behaviour Change Towards Impulsive Buying: A Systematic Review

*¹Amar B. Sathe, ²Dr. Som Aditya Juyal

ABSTRACT

The impulsive buying behavior is studied largely in the consumer behavior domain with the marketer aspect – how to make the marketing environment more impulsive for the consumer? but focuses less on consumer overall wellbeing. Consumer with lower self-consciousness readily react impulsively to situation and then regrets for the self-regulation failure. Through mindfulness individual becomes aware of the present moment and accept the feelings and emotions in the present moment without dwelling on the past or future, thus help in regulating the impulsive behavior. Little research is focused on how the consumer can change their impulsive behavior through various stages of intentions. This study seeks to model the change in impulsive buying behavior through various intention stages and how the mindfulness helps to strength the intentions at various stages.

Keywords: *Impulsive buying, Impulsive Buying Behavior, Behavior change, Mindfulness.*

INTRODUCTION

Today's irresponsible and unstable consumption behavior has a negative impact on society, the environment, and individuals. Sermboonsang et al., says that next generation will face natural resources depletion, a highly polluted environment, and inequalities socio-economically (Sermboonsang et al., 2020). People choose to spend more on luxuries than on basic items necessary to fulfill basic needs, such as healthy food, clean water, etc (Worldwatch Institute, 2013). This indicates that hedonic values overtake utilitarian values. Materialistic possession of items creates temporary pleasure or satisfaction, behind which the long-term effects on the individual, society, and the environment are ignored. (Schultee 2014) contends that platforms with advanced technology can provide consumer satisfaction and escape. Therefore, consumers are unconsciously trapped under the iceberg of impulses, habits, addictions, compulsions, and decisional biases (Bahl et al., 2016). (Bahl et al. 2016) argue that the major determinant of an unhealthy and unsustainable lifestyle is mindlessness. The transformative consumer research area focuses on determining ways to empower consumers to make conscious consumption through behavioral change (Mick et al., 2012). However, not simply informing people about their irrational choices is sufficient (Bahl et al., 2016).

Impulsive Buying Behavior (IBB) is one of the promising areas of irrational behavior. This can be defined as an immediate, spontaneous, and unplanned decision to buy compelling and spontaneously urge-arousing offerings (Rook, 1987; Stern, 1962) regardless of the long-term consequences of the purchase (Yiğit, 2020). In the era of online shopping, consumers are surrounded by a multitude of temptations. These temptations trigger the urge

¹Research Scholar, Himalayan School of Management Studies, Swami Rama Himalayan University, Dehradun.

²Professor, Himalayan School of Management Studies, Swami Rama Himalayan University, Dehradun.

*Corresponding Author: Amar B. Sathe

to consume more for better life-balance, resulting in impulse buying. Various online surveys conducted indicate that 84 - 90 percent of consumers recently purchased on impulse and two-fifths describe themselves as impulsive buyers (Kossman, 2016; McDermott, 2021). However, impulse buying can elevate negative emotions and depressed moods, because it is a form of retail therapy (Gardner & Rook, 1988; Vohs & Faber, 2007). With such encouragement from marketing functions, organizations create opportunity and incentives, but at the expense of consumers' long-term interests. The IBB may have many negative consequences, which are evaluated by the consumer after purchase. Challenges include financial complications (Rook, 1987; Rook & Fisher, 1995; Dittmar & Drury, 2000), strains on personal relationships such as unacceptability of behavior by partners (McDermott, 2021), as well as feelings of guilt or disappointment (Yi & Baumgartner, 2011; Yi, 2012) after noticing a lack of self-control in the buying process. (Baumeister, 2002; Vohs & Faber, 2007)

Post-purchase regret due to self-control failure is the most common outcome of IBB (Wood, 1998; McDermott, 2021). Self-control involves controlling one's emotions, mental state, and attention to resist. The more imbalanced these states are, the higher the probability of impulse buying. Self-control failure is caused by conflicts of goals, missing self-monitoring tasks, or ego-depletion (lower mental resources) (Baumeister, 2002). In situations of self-control failure, the individual will show poor attention to and low awareness of the possible negative consequences of their behavior. Self-regulation may help curb buying when impulses are aroused; individuals should not surrender all their emotional and mental resources to marketing triggers.

Therefore, to self-regulate, an individual must make choices with more mindfulness. Mindfulness is paying conscious attention to the present moment or reality and knowing it (Brown et al., 2007; Hanh, 2008). Mindfulness can be defined as a natural ability within individuals, but at varying levels (Kabat-Zinn, 2003; Brown & Ryan, 2004). Mindfulness involves being aware of the present moment and accepting the feelings and emotions in the present moment without dwelling on the past or future.

Various studies postulate an inverse correlation between impulse buying behavior and mindfulness. The lower the consciousness, the higher the likelihood of impulse buying (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Giluk, 2009; Armstrong, 2011; Peter et al., 2011; Papies et al., 2012; Park & Dhandra, 2017). The higher the awareness and attention level, the lower the engagement possibility (Dandra, 2020; Sermboonsang, 2020). Impulsivity and mindfulness both focus on the present moment. Mindful individuals view temptation without judging (positive or negative) and exercise the ability to let emotions settle, whereas, with impulsivity, one is compelled to buy an item unconsciously and act upon it automatically (Dandra, 2020). Previous research suggests that mindfulness provides individuals with awareness of eating habits based on external cues (Maheswari, 2020). Mindfulness has helped students regulate their harmful texting behavior while walking on the road (Panek et al., 2015). When consumers are aware of an impulse or urge, mindfulness can help regulate their purchasing behavior.

Even if the post-impulsive purchase experience is regretted, individuals reengage in impulsive buying, because the focus is on the purchase experience i.e. pleasure and pleasant emotions (Cornish, 2020). But this cycle can be broken by shifting the focus from purchasing to the consumption experience of the item. This can be accomplished through deliberate analysis of products based on utility, financial impact, and psychological effect (Cornish, 2020) during temptation. However, such a change in behavior requires deliberation and attention to emotions during impulse conditions. It also requires boosted self-control to withstand temptation, and strong self-regulation. In addition, all of these are affected by cognitive and affective factors such as personal and social norms, attitudes,

intentions, and perceptions of behavioral control. These factors contribute to changing impulse buying behavior. The Stage Model of Self-Regulated Behavior Change (SSBC) developed by Bamberg S, (2013) considers all these factors towards changing harmful behavior. SSBC integrates constructs from the model of action phase (MAP) (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987; Gollwitzer, 1990), Norm-activation model (NAM) (Schwartz, 1977) and theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991).

Using a self-regulation model, this study reviews the influence of mindfulness on reinforcing rationality in purchases made by consumers during impulse situations. Furthermore, this study also reviews how mindfulness influences buying behavior throughout the family life cycle.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Impulsive Buying Behavior (IBB)

While impulsivity has been widely discussed, the focus is on how companies can profit from such behavior. Product, price, promotion, and place/distribution are the 4P's of marketing that create temptations among consumers to consume more products (Akram et al., 2017). In addition to this the online shopping environment has added instant gratification of ownership due to convincing ordering, high proximity to products and rich information. In addition, there is a lower perceived risk which leads to impulse purchases on the internet (Akram et al., 2017). As compared to traditional (offline) shopping, online shopping comes with the benefits of overcoming the constraints of limited operating hours, travelling and location issues, place and time availability, social pressure from shop staffs, etc (Eroglu, 2001). Online shopping reports 40 percent of consumers report unplanned and sudden purchases of items without prior purchase or need analysis (Verhagen & Dolen, 2011). So impulsive buying is universally present and epidemic with communication and technology (Yiğit, 2020). The majority of research focuses on how companies can design their websites, promotion strategies, information content, and reward programs to appeal effectively to impulse shoppers. This is to maximize impulse purchases (de Kervenoael et al., 2009; Park et al., 2012; Verhagen & Dolen, 2011; Wells et al., 2011). Impulsive buying is affected by a variety of factors. The researchers looked at these triggers from three perspectives: individual traits, resources and motives, and marketing stimulation (Iyer et al., 2020).

Individual trait approach

The individual trait approach argues that some traits such as sensation seeking, impulse behavior tendency, and maintaining self-identity lead to impulsive buying (Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001). Individuals not displaying these traits are less likely to display sudden buying behavior (Rook & Hoch, 1985).

Resource and Motivation Approach

It is not only traits that account for individuals' impulsive buying behaviors, but also the basic motives for consumption and resources. Motives can be hedonistic and utilitarian, while resources such as time, money, physical performance, age, and gender can also affect individuals' behavior (Baumeister, 2002). Higher hedonic motives lead to impulse buying for pleasure and enjoyment (Gültekin & Özer, 2012). Hedonic motives like novelty seeking, praise from others, fun, escapism from negative feelings are positively related to impulsive buying behavior (Dey & Srivastava, 2017). Resources available to consumers such as money, time, and psychics facilitate positive emotions, encourage browsing and simulate impulse buying by mediating the effect (Luo, 2005; Dey & Srivastava, 2017; Atulkar & Kesari, 2018). As per demographics, young consumers are more spontaneous buyers whereas older consumers can regulate their emotions and exert self-control towards impulsivity (Kacen & Lee, 2002). With respect to gender, males and females are likely to

purchase different product categories and consider varying factors during impulse buying (Dittmar et al. 1995). Female consumers are also more impulsive than male consumers (Prakash et al., 2017).

Marketing Stimuli Approach

The market stimuli approach suggests that the appropriate store environment or website design and interaction with consumers should be developed to stimulate psychological motivation to purchase (Berry et al., 2002; Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Foxall & Greenley, 1999). External marketing stimuli that arouse impulses include price discount, product display, store atmosphere, and information availability (Mohan, Sivakumaran & Sharma, 2013). In online impulse buying, other factors such as perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness of the website, low perceived financial risk, and high perceived trust in the retailer also affect impulse buying (Akaram, 2017; Habib & Qayyum, 2018). The service is often bundled with additional benefits, like free gifts or discounted prices, leading to impulsive purchases (Youn & Faber, 2000; Kim & Dawson, 2010).

As mentioned earlier, impulsive buying behavior is associated with post-purchase regret regarding lack of self-control during the purchase process (McDermott, 2021), and many consumers report that they struggle to overcome their impulsive buying (Wood, M, 1998). During impulse buying the individual is focused on the present moment which gives pleasant emotions and immediate gratification. He is unaware of the negative consequences prior to purchasing (Maheshwari, 2020). Consumers fall into the trap of instant gratification due to efficient marketing stimuli (Mischel et al., 1972) and become consumed with the purchasing experience. A consumer with an impulse to buy a particular item feels deprived or perceives loss when the item is not acquired (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991). The affective pattern is so strong that future product consumption experience or utility of the item is not deliberately analyzed. Lack of self-control plays a major role in impulsive buying behavior (Baumeister, 2002). One cannot control the urge to buy. An individual who fails to maintain self-control exhibits low attention and awareness of the possible negative consequences of their unconscious buying behavior. Impulsive buyers reported that their purchases had less utility, burdened their financial status, and regretted their lack of self-control (Cornish, 2020). Self-control failure is primarily caused by conflict between goals during impulse experiences and forgetting about monitoring. In order to change impulse behavior, a strong personal goal must be formed.

As such, self-regulation is vital to curb impulse buying. Self-regulation involves individuals' ability to bring their emotions, thoughts, and behaviors in line with set standards by regulating feelings, thoughts, and emotions. With strong emotional and mental resources individuals can resist potential temptations (Vohs & Baumeister, 2004; Verplanken & Sato, 2011; Gross, 2013).

Respondents reported a variety of strategies to cope with impulse shopping. These strategies include defining strong personal goals regarding spending (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006), reflecting on the costs and benefits of an urged purchase (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991), and delaying (delaying gratification) purchases (Mead & Patrick, 2016). The most unsuccessful strategies include avoiding marketing stimuli and relying solely on willpower to resist temptations.

Most research studies focus on the relationship between various psychological and social factors and impulse buying behavior. Only a few studies have examined consumer well-being as a way to curb impulse buying (Moser et al., 2019). Also transformative consumer research lacks a process-based approach to self-managing impulsive behavior. In this study, we plan to use the Stage model of self-regulated behavior change (SSBC) model by

(Bamberg 2013) to learn how to curb impulsive buying behaviors or change IBB to rational buying.

Stage Model of Self-Regulated Behavior Change (SSBC)

SSBC consists of four stages – Pre-decision, Pre-action, Action and Post-action stages in series. Stable behavior is formed by participating in specific tasks for each stage membership as well as expressing three transition intentions (goal, behavior, and implementation) to successfully transition between the stages (Bamberg, 2013; Richter & Hunecke, 2020). SSBC (Fig. 1) integrates constructs from the model of action phase (MAP) (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987; Gollwitzer, 1990) focusing on goal-directed linear progression of behavioral change, Norm-Activation Model (NAM) (Schwartz, 1977) focusing on the personal norm to be the strongest predictor of behavior, and Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) considers intention which is influenced by situational norms, attitude, and perceived behavior control, as a major predictor of behavior.

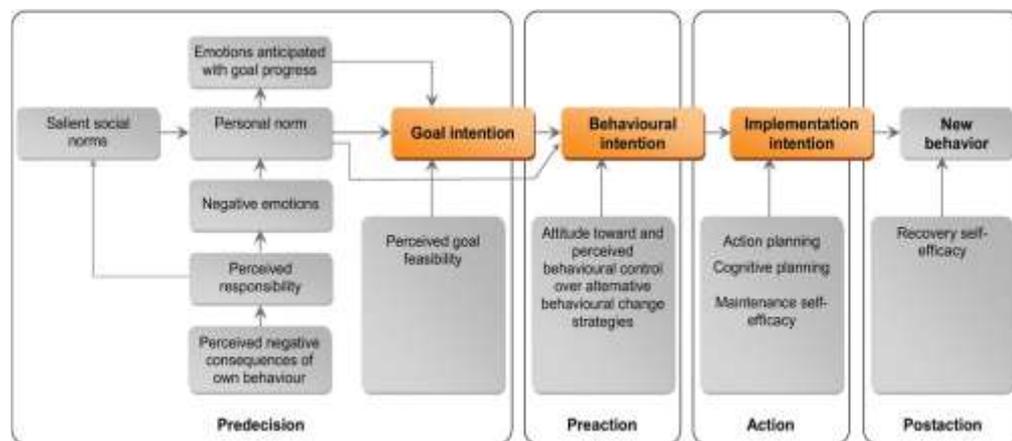


Fig. 1. A stage model of self-regulated behavioral change (Adapted from: Bamberg, S, 2013).

Changing environmentally harmful behaviors: A stage model of self-regulated behavioral change. *Journal of Environmental Psychology* 34: 151-159)

Pre-decision Stage – NAM constructs

In the pre-decision stage, the individual is unaware of the problem associated with the irrational/harmful/unhealthy behavior and has no interest in changing it (Richter & Hunecke, 2020). Current behavior is performed habitually and without conscious thought (Richter & Hunecke, 2020). Individuals progress to the next pre-action stage, when the goal intention is strongly supported by personal norms based on moral responsibility to change unhealthy behavior (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987; Klöckner, 2017). At this stage NAM constructs are used to make an individual aware of the negative consequences for self, others and the environment after performing current behavior. Having an awareness of negative consequences leads to a sense of responsibility for causing harm. Assigning responsibility (AR) results in unpleasant feelings about behavior, which motivate change for the benefit of the individual, others, and the environment, thus affecting the personal norm of behavior change in the individual (Bamberg, 2013). Personal norms are the feeling of obligation to act according to moral values (Bamberg, 2013; Olsson, et al., 2018). An individual also desires to change their behavior in accordance with an influential reference group. Through social norms and reactions to consequences, negative emotions are heightened, which creates a binding commitment to modify current behavior (Bamberg, 2013). A perception of change in behaviour and a personal norm will activate positive emotions in us. This will encourage us to develop a goal-oriented attitude towards

modifying our behavior. Commitment to goal intention depends on the perceived feasibility of goals; if one neglects the consequences either by avoiding them or by forgetting them, goal feasibility is weak (Bamberg, 2013) and one continues as before.

Impulse buyers learn the adverse consequences of impulsive buying. This includes financial difficulties, strain on personal relationships like unacceptability of behavior from partners, feelings of guilt or disappointment and low self-worth (Moser, et al., 2019). Individuals who realize that they did not exercise self-control during the buying process take responsibility for reducing the negative impact of impulse buying (Vohs & Faber, 2007; Baumeister, 2002). This results in negative feelings and a sense of personal norm to change impulsive buying behavior to more rational behavior. This is to change from the purchasing experience to the consumption experience. Individuals aim to reduce impulsive buying behavior (Weibel, et al., 2019).

Pre-action Stage – TBP constructs

As the individual progresses to the Pre-action stage, they are ready to determine the alternative behavior necessary to achieve their goals. When a person adopts a strong attitude and believes that he or she is in control of alternative behavior, a behavior intention is formed. This relates to a commitment to changing behavior (Richter & Hunecke, 2020; Nachreiner et al., 2015). At this stage, the socio-cognitive approach to planned behavior is applied to predict behavioral intentions. Instead of situational norms, personal norms influenced by social norms or social disapproval, in combination with attitude and perceived behavioral control, are considered direct predictors of behavioral intentions (Bamberg, 2013). At this point, the individual evaluates the alternatives and formulates a perception of altered behavior as a manifestation of the goals achieved. Then the individual evaluates the perceived difficulty of performing the changed behavior, which is known as perceived behavior control (PBC). Behavior intention is formed by selecting the option with the most positive favorable attitude and the lowest difficulty balance (Klöckner, 2017). In case of impulsive buying behavior, the alternative behavior would be 'whenever the impulse is experienced I will postpone the purchase decision' or 'whenever the impulse is experienced I will reflect deliberately on the purchasing activity.'

Action Stage

Through determining the behavioral intention (BI), the individual proceeds to the next action phase of SSBC to form the implementation intention (II). When implementing an intention, the individual plans when, where, and how to perform the changed behavior, which is called action planning. There can be hurdles to establishing a long-term habit over time, so an individual must imagine similar situations and prepare a plan for coping with the hindrances which is called coping planning (Schwarzer, 2008). Implementation intentions become stronger with confidence and the ability to stick to new behaviors despite perceived barriers, which is known as maintenance of self-efficacy (Schwarzer, 2008). For the postponement strategy, if the individual feels an overwhelming urge, the focus could be directed at something else. This could be meditation, listening to music, or stepping outside for a walk to cool down the urge. Using a reflection strategy, your deliberations can become more detailed. This includes recording the cost details, item utility, and the partner's or known individual's acceptance of the behavior.

Post-action Stage

With strong implementation intention, the updated behavior is implemented in the next post-action stage. Here, the main task for the individual is to avoid regressing to old impulsive buying habits and maintain the new behavior of postponement or reflection. To maintain the new behavior, recovering self-efficacy, or the ability to recover from regression to former habits, is crucial (Nachreiner et al., 2015). Reflecting on the feedback from changed behavior on the path to recovery can improve self-efficacy. The conversion

of these healthy behaviors into habits is enabled by higher recovery readiness, attitude, and perceived behavior control (Weibel et al., 2019).

The SSBC has been successfully applied to reducing car usage (Olsson et al., 2018), reduction in meat consumption (Weibel et al., 2019), reduction in beef consumption (Klößner, 2017), organic food consumption (Richter & Hunecke, 2020), reducing electricity consumption (Nachreiner et al., 2015), and using reusable coffee cups (Keller et al., 2019).

Mindfulness

Mindfulness, as a concept was originally explored in Buddhism. In Pali (the language of ancient India), mindfulness is known as 'sati', which means 'remembering' or 'the presence of the mind' (Brown et al., 2007). Mindfulness means being present in the present moment and aware of it as it unfolds (Brown et al., 2007; Hanh, 2008). Mindfulness can be described as a dispositional trait present in varying degrees (Kabat-Zinn, 2003; Brown & Ryan, 2000). Mindfulness can be considered a disposition in individuals. Researchers have adopted two approaches to mindfulness: (1) Western socio-cognitive based approaches (Langer, 1989; Langer, 1997) and (2) Eastern Buddhist meditation based approaches (Kabat-Zinn, 1990; Kabat-Zinn, 1994).

Western Socio Cognitive-Bases Approach

Persistent behaviour for a considerable duration shapes individual habits, which they carry out with limited consciousness or awareness, until forced to behave consciously (Langer et al., 1978). Habitual behaviour without conscious attention among individuals with increased mindlessness prompts external influences like priming and cognitive biases (Langer, 1989). 'Mindless states are characterized by overreliance on past categories and distinctions. The individual is context-dependent and therefore oblivious to novel (or simply alternative) aspects of the situation in this state.' (Langer, 1997). Among individuals, mindlessness seems to be the default cognitive function. Individuals make decisions based on categories and differences from the past, avoiding alternatives or novelty. In reality the individual is blind to reality. Mindlessness may relieve costly cognitive functions. However, being in an automatic habit even when conscious awareness is necessary can have adverse or unhealthy effects on cognitive performance and well-being (Langer, 1989; Langer, 2005).

On the contrary, a mindful person is always attentive and creative towards creating novel categories of information for a given context or situation. Moreover, a mindful individual has more options to respond to as he or she knows multiple perspectives. A state of mindfulness is when an individual is aware of the context and content of information that is being presented to them (Langer, 1992). The socio-cognitive approach to mindfulness as explained by Langer (1992) identifies 'engagement', 'novelty-seeking', 'novelty-producing' and 'flexibility' as major features of socio-cognitive mindfulness.

Higher levels of mindfulness can be attained by conducting instructional interventions including creative mental tasks and activities. These interventions will lead to interruptions in mindless cognitive automaticity and enhancements in dispositional and trait mindfulness (Langer, 1989; Djikic et al., 2008). Mindfulness levels differ among individuals (Ostafin, 2015) and can be placed at the edge of personality and cognitive ability (Sternberg, 2000). Mindfulness empowers individuals to deal with uncertain situations differently, sustainably, and sustainably in dynamic environments by avoiding norms (Langer, 2002). Social norms which are readily defined force us to avoid or reduce uncertainty. However, the external environment is dynamic and not always stable. Furthermore, willingness for novelty and novelty produces alternative perspectives for creativity, out-of-the-box

thinking about current events, convergent thinking, and cognitive elasticity (Langer & Piper, 1987).

Eastern Meditation-Based Approach to Mindfulness

This second approach to meditative mindfulness is deeply rooted in the Theravada Buddhist tradition. Nyanaponika Thera (1972) was first to introduce mindful mediation. He defined it as 'being aware of what actually occurs to us and in us at successive moments of perception with clarity and single-minded focus'. As we discussed earlier, mindfulness is derived from the word 'sati', which in Pali language means 'to remember' or, in terms of consciousness, it simply means being mindful (Bodhi, 2000; Nyanaponika, 1973). Zen Master Thich Nhat Hanh describes it as 'keeping consciousness alive in the present reality' (Hanh, 2008).

This approach was first examined for use in addressing mental health issues by Jon Kabat-Zinn (1982) in the Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction (MBSR) study. He defines mindfulness as the 'art of living'. He suggests that mindfulness 'is the process by which we deepen our attention and awareness, refining them and putting them to effective practical use in our lives' (Kabat-Zinn, 1994). Kabat-Zinn (1994) explains how mindfulness is categorized through seven traits: non-judgmental (viewing all events the same), patience (letting things happen), beginner's mind (seeing things as they are), trust (taking responsibility), non-striving (non-doing), acceptance (accepting as it is) and letting be (non-attached to feelings). Besides the above mentioned cognitive qualities required for mindfulness, the affective qualities (attitudes) of 'gratitude', 'generosity' and 'empathy and compassion' also play a prominent role in shaping mindfulness in an individual (Shapiro & Schwartz, 2000). Mindfulness also 'a compassionate and affectionate atmosphere among the attendees, as well as a sense of open-heartedness and friendliness' (Kabat-Zinn, 2003).

Comparing approaches

Most of the core principles of both approaches are similar. Both approaches aim at cognitive development and individual wellness (Langer, 2002; Kabat-Zinn, 2003). However, meditation-based mindfulness applies a deeper and broader approach by considering attention and awareness of both external and internal stimuli, whereas Langer's approach focuses on external stimuli (Hart et al., 2013). Another major difference is that Langer's mindfulness approach values affective aspects at a minimum level. This includes generosity, empathy, gratitude, and compassion which are considered significant in the meditation-based approach along with cognitive development (Shapiro & Schwartz, 2000; Kabat-Zinn, 2003).

Beyond the differences, the following discussion illustrates the numerous similarities or correlations between the two approaches. In Langer's approach, 'attention to awareness' or 'engagement' are similar to 'beginners mind' and 'being in the present moment' from meditation-based mindfulness. Two features relate to overcoming 'premature cognitive commitment,' in which people fail to critically evaluate information, resulting in mindlessness (Khoury et al., 2017). Another aspect of Langer's mindfulness approach is novelty seeking which is similar to openness to novel aspects of curiosity. Meditation scores high on curiosity, according to a study (Lau et al., 2006). In meditation-based mindfulness, the 'beginner's mind' is further elaborated as the act of experiencing each moment uniquely through various opportunities (Kabat-Zinn, 2003). Thus, certain aspects of meditation-based mindfulness are highly correlated with Langer's novelty-seeking approach.

Langer's approach includes considering situations from multiple perspectives (Langer, 1989; Langer, 2005). As a result of constant feedback from their environment, an individual

adopts or changes their behavior as a result. By observing events in an unbiased manner or detaching from preconceived interpretations or judgments, meditative mindfulness cultivates multiple perspectives through a non-judgmental attitude (Kabat-Zinn, 2003; Khoury et al., 2017).

Measuring mindfulness

Studies show mindfulness can be enhanced through meditation and cognitive interventions. Both schools of thought view mindfulness as an inherent quality, but as a dispositional trait (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Brown & Ryan, 2004; Kabat-Zinn, 2003; Khoury et al., 2017). These differences in mindfulness levels correlate with differences in individuals' well-being and mental health (Brown & Ryan, 2004; Baer et al., 2006; Ostafin & Kassman, 2012). Thus considering mindfulness as a dispositional trait, it can be measured through self-report scales. In order to measure mindfulness, five major instruments have been developed: MAAS, FFMQ, FMI, KIMS, TMS, and CMS (Pirson et al., 2018). The most applicable scale is the Five Facets Mindfulness Questionnaire (FFMQ) (Baer et al., 2008), which was developed by integrating constructs from each of the remaining instruments (Pirson et al., 2018).

The FFMQ measures mindfulness through five major components (1) observing (2) non-reactivity (3) acting with awareness (4) non-judging (5) describing (Baer RA, et al, 2006, Baer RA, et al, 2008). Mindfulness can be viewed through two major components - the focus of attention component and the quality of attention component (Bishop, 2004). The focus of attention component consists of the ability to self-regulate attention through observing, knowing, and describing internal experiences moment-to-moment at an emotional and mental level. The quality of attention component describes an individual's ability to maintain equanimity by non-judging and non-reacting to experiences. Observing is simply knowing internal thoughts and feelings as well as external stimuli (Richter & Hunecke, 2020). Acting with awareness refers to the ability to pay complete attention to events or actions happening in the present moment (Chien et al., 2020; Karl & Fischer, 2020). Describing involves explaining or elaborating on the present moment's experiences, thoughts, or feelings (Chien et al., 2020). Non-judgment refers to refraining from evaluating the attentive inner experience as pleasant or not pleasant and accepting it as such (Owen et al., 2018). The non-reactivity component is the ability to let go of personal thoughts, feelings, and experiences, without elaborating on them (Karl & Fischer, 2020). By adopting mindfulness, a person can break the stimulus-response-reward cycle by becoming attentively aware of external stimuli and inner experiences, accepting and evaluating their meaning, and letting them flow without reacting to them (Owen et al., 2018).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Impulse Buying and the Stage Model of Change Behavior

Impulse buying refers to the unplanned purchase of an item based on an emotional response. It has become part of consumers' daily lives. Around 61 percent of shoppers make unplanned purchases without considering the item's consumption experience (Sermboonsang et al., 2020). If impulse buying persists, the consumer may fall into the trap of more problematic and harmful compulsive buying behavior. The individual indulges in impulsive buying due to lack of self-control and self-regulation (Dholakia, 2006; Vohs & Faber, 2007; Baumeister, 2002; Siltan et al., 2012; Maheshwari, 2020).

Self-regulation often fails due to conflict between goals, long-term personal goals versus immediate goals during impulse experiences. To self-regulate, strong goal intention and behavioral intention are required, as described by the Stage model of self-regulated behavior change. To form a habit of healthy behaviors, SSBC models behavior change as

a transient process involving three intentions - goal, behavior, and implementation (Bamberg, 2013). The Stage model provides steps and skills to enhance conscious awareness of unhealthy behavior consequences and provides an alternative perspective through critical self-reflection (Moore, 2005). Conscious awareness of impulse buying experiences and critical self-reflection about how to cope with impulses lead to a change in behavior with a positive attitude (Sermboonsang et al., 2020). Application of stage behavior to changing impulsive buying behavior to rational buying behavior is not well studied. The SSBC has been successfully applied to explain pro-environment behavior and behavior change from harmful towards pro-environmental behavior such as reduced car use, reduced meat consumption etc (Bamberg, 2013; Klöckner, 2017).

Impulse buying and mindfulness

Impulse buying involves focusing on the immediate gratification of acquiring a product without deliberate planning and consideration. It is characterized by irresistible and rapid responses to arousing stimuli. Irresponsible buying is characterized by guilt following the purchase of the purchased product (Rook, 1987; Rook & Gardner, 1988; Piron, 1991; Park & Dhandra, TK, 2017; Cornish, 2020). A mindful individual can be described as someone who can self-regulate attention to create awareness of present-moment experiences without judging them, and by not reacting to them, allows them to fade away. Mindful individuals accept the present state openly. This non-judgmental attitude leads to perspective change by engaging in more rational and healthy decision making while maintaining a non-reactive attitude towards thoughts, habits, or unhealthy patterns (Richter & Hunecke, 2020; Ward, 2014; Brown & Ryan, 2003).

Based on focus, impulsivity and mindfulness are related. This is because the individual's attention is focused on the present moment but the quality of that attention towards thoughts, feelings, and emotions differs (Yiğit, 2020). Impulsivity consists of judgmental and reactionary decision-making towards the urge to buy. There is a negative relationship between dispositional mindfulness and impulsive buying behavior, according to recent studies (Armstrong, 2011; Brown & Ryan, 2003; Giluk, 2009; Peters et al., 2011; Papiés et al., 2012; Park & Dhandra, 2017). Higher levels of awareness and attention lead to lower impulsive buying behaviors (Sermboonsang et al., 2020; Dhandra, 2020). By shifting the focus from the purchasing experience of the present moment to the consumption experience of the product, in terms of financial binding, usefulness, and life of the product, a mindful individual considers the consequences of their acts and self-regulates (Cornish, 2020). Recent studies have shown that mindfulness is not a direct predictor of impulsive buying behavior. Studies show the relationship is mediated by self-regulation, emotional characteristics (Park & Dhandra, 2017), self-esteem (Dhandra, 2020), and the pro-environment perspective (Richter & Hunecke, 2020).

Mindfulness is a limited predictor of socio-psychological factors that impact impulsive buying behavior change. Thus, this study suggests integrating the dispositional mindfulness trait (five facets) with factors of the stage model of changing behavior to determine the impact of factors on willingness to change impulsive buying behavior to more rational behavior.

Mindfulness, Impulse Buying and SSBC

The conceptual framework extends the SSBC by assuming that mindfulness facets (observation, acting with awareness, describing, non-judging, and non-reactivity) are predictors of stage-specific variables (personal norm, social norm, attitude, perceived behavioral control, and self-efficacy for regulating impulsive buying behavior toward rational buying behavior).

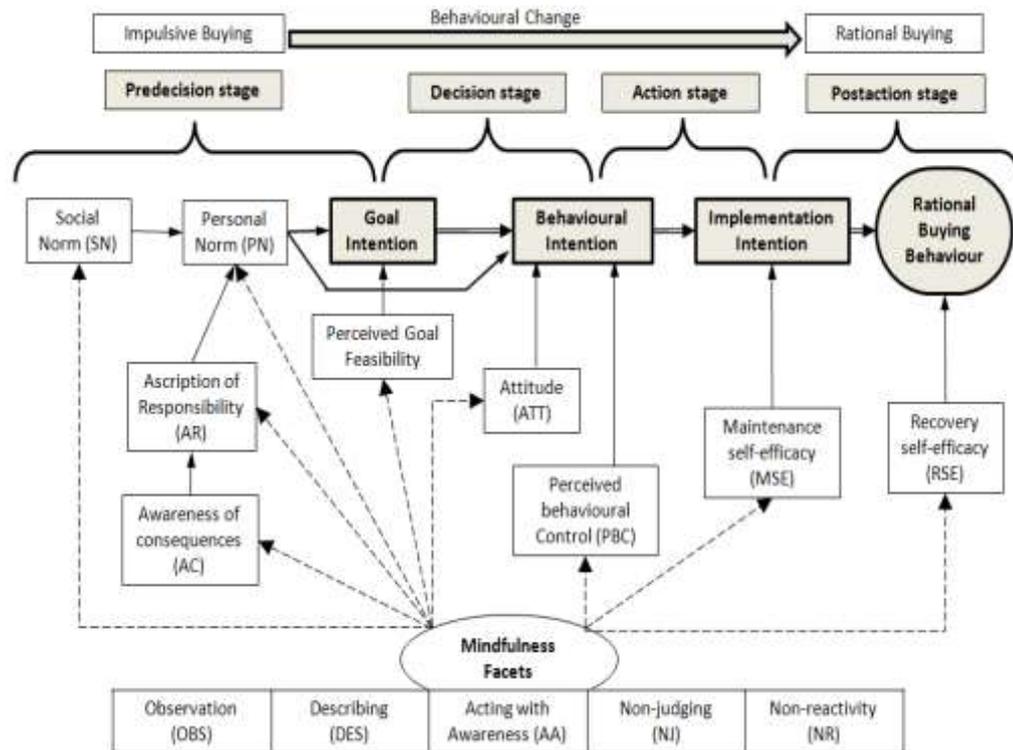


Fig. 2. Conceptual framework for extended stage model of behavioral change towards impulsive buying behavior with mindfulness facets

Source: Proposed by the authors.

Observation is the most crucial phase and the first phase of mindfulness. It initiates the reflective process of developing intentions and behavior depending on the situation (Richter & Hunecke, 2020). Being the basic facet of mindfulness, observation can have a significant relationship with stage-specific variables, intentions and rational buying behavior. The acting with awareness component of mindfulness explains the act of engaging the self in current activities or events with complete attention. A person who indulges in impulsive buying is less attentive to impulses and emotions. This results in an urge to purchase a product without much consideration and regret afterwards. Acting with awareness plays an instrumental role in self-regulating during temptations by heightening awareness of impulses and emotions instead of reacting automatically (Richter & Hunecke, 2020). Taking action with awareness can be positively associated with awareness of consequences and perceived behavioral control, and coping self-efficacy variables of the stage model, which indirectly relate positively to changing impulsive behavior.

Mindfulness is the ability to express feelings and emotions attentively and observe them in short words or phrases. Previous studies have shown a low association between description and emotion regulation (Luberto et al., 2014). Defining one's emotions and feelings in the present moment can help analyze life goals and decisions. Thus, describing can be positively related to pre-decision and pre-action stage variables and intentions. Also, describing might be related to coping with present moment experiences and achieving personal goals.

Mindfulness describes non-judgment as the quality of paying attention to inner experiences without evaluating it. Impulsive buying is characterized by feelings of enjoyment and pleasure that occur when an individual experiences an impulse for immediate gratification (Habib & Qayyum, 2018). This makes it difficult for consumers to resist buying, making

impulse buying the only option. Mindful individuals observe inner thoughts and external stimuli with openness and flexibility, without judging or evaluating them. The result is a change in perception and an individual can shift their attention from purchasing to consumption. There is a low or no association between non-judging aspects and stage-specific variables in previous studies (Richter & Hunecke, 2020). Here, the non-judging facet is associated with attitude, perceived behavioral control, and coping self-efficacy, as well as maintenance self-efficacy, which are predictors of behavioral and implementation intentions toward impulsive buying behavior change (rational buying behavior).

Mindfulness views emotions, thoughts and events as transitory that shift, rise and fade with time. Non-reactivity is a feature of mindfulness that refers to the ability to allow the flow of inner emotions, thoughts, and feelings without reacting or responding to them. Non-reactivity can help break the stimulus-response-reward cycle by not responding to stimulus and viewing immediate reward as contradictory to personal goals. Research has shown that higher non-reactivity to impulses can curb impulsive buying behavior (Dholakia et al., 2006; Park & Dhandra, 2017). Non-reactivity helps you control your impulses and self-regulate the healthy or rational behavior (Richter & Hunecke, 2020). Thus non-reactivity can be strongly associated with perceived behavior control, coping self-efficacy, and maintenance of self-efficacy which are predictors of behavioral and implementation intentions towards change in Impulsive Buying Behavior (Rational Buying Behavior).

This study will examine the impact of mindfulness dimensions on impulsive buying behavior using the stage model. It will also use cognitive constructs associated with specific stages in the stage model. Since the focus is solely on changing impulsive buying behavior to rational buying behavior, action stage planning abilities are not considered.

Family Life Cycle Stages

Research regarding the influence of Family Life Cycle stages on consumers' impulsive buying behavior is limited. Younger generations are most vulnerable to impulsive behavior, so studies are conducted to determine whether mindfulness affects their buying behavior. Demographics show young consumers tend to be impulse buyers, while older consumers are better at regulating their emotions and exercising self-control (Kacen & Lee, 2002). As the individual transits through the stages of the family life cycle, situational and behavioral changes are more prominent irrespective of age (Amirthal et al., 2018, 2020). FLC model is a multi-dimensional construct consisting of various demographic factors such as age, marital status, children in the family and their ages, income and employment status of members with respect to family transition time (Jain, 1975). Also, the FLC model is dynamic. It considers changes in family needs, resource allocations (time, money, information, and space) over stages of FLC (Hornik, 2021). All these parameters lead to changes in family consumption behavior over time. Early in a family's life, such as a single adult or newlywed couple, they spend hedonistically, while families with children consume utilitarianly (Brown & Venkatesh, 2005). Consumers behave more rationally as further FLC stages are attained. Consumer behavior can be assumed to be variable with respect to FLC stages and mindfulness traits. For the study the FLC models of Murphy and Staples' (1979) and Wells and Gubar's (1966) are devised and modified to include both traditional and non-traditional forms of FLC. FLC categories include bachelor, newly married, married with children less than 6 years, married with children more than 6 years and dependent, married with children but independent, and widow/widower.

RESEARCH CONCERNS

Emerging Research Questions

Based on the literature review and conceptual understanding above the following research questions emerge:

1. Are there any strategies consumers can use to limit impulsive purchases? How does impulsive buying affect consumers' purchase process?
2. Does consumer family life cycle affect their buying behavior?
3. Is there any difference in the impulsive buying behavior of consumers practicing or not practicing mindfulness?
4. How practicing mindfulness confirms rational buying behavior during various FLC stages with respect to dimensions of mindfulness (observing, acting with awareness, describing, non-judgmental, and non-reactivity) and intentions (goal, behavioural, and implementation) towards changing impulsive buying behavior.

Research Objectives

The research objectives of the proposed research arrived at on the basis of the above mentioned research questions include:

1. Understanding how impulsive buying behavior influences consumers' purchasing decisions and discovering strategies consumers use to limit their impulsive buying behaviour.
2. How do Family Life-Cycle (FLC) Stages impact their IBB?
3. Is there a difference in the impulsive buying behavior of consumers practicing or not practicing mindfulness?
4. Identify whether practicing mindfulness correlates with rational buying behavior during various FLC stages, according to dimensions of mindfulness (observing, acting with awareness, describing, and non-reactivity) and intentions (goal, behavioural, and implementation) towards changing impulsive buying behavior.

Accordingly, the proposed study examines the role of socio-cognitive mindfulness in transitioning from impulsive to rational buying behavior while applying a process-based approach to the Self-Regulated Behavior Stage Model.

Conclusion

The systematic review underscores the significant potential of mindfulness interventions in fostering stages of self-regulated behavior change concerning impulsive buying tendencies. Through a comprehensive analysis of diverse studies, it becomes evident that mindfulness practices facilitate heightened awareness, motivation, goal setting, planning, and maintenance of more mindful consumption behaviors. By encouraging individuals to approach their impulses with non-judgmental awareness and fostering present-moment focus, mindfulness equips them with the tools necessary to recognize triggers, regulate emotions, set realistic goals, and implement effective coping strategies. Furthermore, the sustained practice of mindfulness demonstrates promise in promoting long-term maintenance of self-regulated behavior change, offering a holistic and sustainable approach to addressing impulsive buying habits. Nonetheless, further research is essential to delve deeper into the mechanisms underlying this relationship and optimize intervention strategies tailored to individual needs.

REFERENCES

1. Ajzen, I. (1991). The Theory of Planned Behavior, *Organizational Behavior And Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179-211.
2. Akram, U., Hui, P., Khan, M. K., Saduzai, S. K., Akram, Z., & Bhati, M. H. (2017). The plight of humanity: Online impulse shopping in China. *Human Systems Management*, 36(1), 73-90.
3. Amirtha, R., & Sivakumar, V. J., (2018). Does family life cycle stage influence e-shopping acceptance by Indian women? An examination using the technology acceptance model. *Behaviour & Information Technology*, 37(3), 267-294.
4. Amirtha, R., Sivakumar, V. J., & Hwang, Y., (2021). Influence of Perceived Risk Dimensions on e-Shopping Behavioural Intention among Women—A Family Life Cycle

- Stage Perspective. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research*, 16(3), 320-355.
5. Armstrong, A., (2011). Mindfulness and compulsive buying. Living sustainably: values, policies, practices. RESOLVE conference, London.
 6. Atulkar, S., & Kesari, B., (2018). Role of consumer traits and situational factors on impulse buying: does gender matter? *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 46(4), 386-405.
 7. Baer, R. A., Smith, G. T., Lykins, E., Button, D., Krietemeyer, J., Sauer, S., ... & Williams, J. M. G. (2008). Construct validity of the five facet mindfulness questionnaire in meditating and nonmeditating samples. *Assessment*, 15(3), 329-342.
 8. Baer, R. A., Smith, G. T., Hopkins, J., Krietemeyer, J., & Toney, L., (2006). Using self-report assessment methods to explore facets of mindfulness. *Assessment*, 13(1), 27-45.
 9. Bahl, S., Milne, G. R., Ross, S. M., Mick, D. G., Grier, S. A., Chugani, S. K., ... & Boesen-Mariani, S. (2016). Mindfulness: Its transformative potential for consumer, societal, and environmental well-being. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 35(2), 198-210.
 10. Bamberg, S., (2013). Changing environmentally harmful behaviors: A stage model of self-regulated behavioral change. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 34, 151-159.
 11. Baumeister, R. F., (2002). Yielding to Temptation: Self-Control Failure, Impulsive Purchasing, and Consumer Behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 28(4), 670-676.
 12. Berry, L. L., Seiders, K., & Grewal, D., (2002). Understanding service convenience. *Journal of Marketing*, 66(3), 1-17.
 13. Bishop, S. R., (2004). Mindfulness: A proposed operational definition. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 11(3), 230-241.
 14. Bodhi, B., (2000). *The connected discourses of the Buddha: a translation of the Samyutta Nikāya*. Boston: Wisdom.
 15. Brown, K. W., & Ryan, R. M., (2004). Perils and promise in defining and measuring mindfulness: observations from experience. *Clinical Psychology: Science & Practice*, 11(3), 242-248.
 16. Brown, K. W., & Ryan, R. M., (2003). The benefits of being present: Mindfulness and its role in psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(4), 822-848.
 17. Brown, K. W., Ryan, R. M., & Creswell J. D., (2007). Mindfulness: Theoretical Foundations and Evidence for its Salutary Effects. *Psychological Inquiry*, 18(4), 211-237.
 18. Brown, S., & Venkatesh, V., (2005). Model of Adoption of Technology in Households: A Baseline Model Test and Extension Incorporating Household Life Cycle. *MIS Quarterly*, 29(3), 399-426.
 19. Chamorro-Premuzic, T., (2015), *The Psychology of Impulsive Shopping*, The Guardian, November 26, <https://www.theguardian.com/media-network/2015/nov/26/psychology-impulsive-shopping-christmas-black-friday-sales> [Accessed Feb 01, 2021].
 20. Chien, W. T., Chow, K. M., Chong, Y. Y., Bressington, D., Choi, K. C., & Chan, C. W. H., (2020). The role of five facets of mindfulness in a mindfulness-based psychoeducation intervention for people with recent-onset psychosis on mental and psychosocial health outcomes. *Frontiers in psychiatry*, 11, 177.
 21. Cornish, S. L., (2020). Why did I buy this? Consumers' post-impulse-consumption experience and its impact on the propensity for future impulse buying behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 19(1), 36-46.
 22. Csikszentmihalyi, M., (2000). The Costs and Benefits of Consuming. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27(2), 267-72.
 23. Dey, D. K., & Srivastava, A., (2017). Impulse buying intentions of young consumers from a hedonic shopping perspective. *Journal of Indian Business Research*, 9(4), 266-282.
 24. Dhandra, T. K., (2020). Does self-esteem matter? A framework depicting role of self-esteem between dispositional mindfulness and impulsive buying. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 55, 102135.
 25. Dholakia, U. M., Gopinath, M., Bagozzi, R. P., & Natarajan, R., (2006). The role of regulatory focus in the experience and Self-control of desire for temptations. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 16(2), 163-175.
 26. Dittmar, H., Beattie, J., & Friese, S., (1995). Gender identity and material symbols: Objects and decision considerations in impulse purchases. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 16(3), 491-511.

27. Dittmar, H., & Drury, J. (2000). Self-image – is it in the bag? A qualitative comparison between “ordinary” and “excessive” consumers. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 21(2), 109-142.
28. Djikic, M., Langer, E. J., & Stapleton, S. F., (2008). Reducing stereotyping through mindfulness: Effects on automatic stereotype-activated behaviors. *Journal of Adult Development*, 15(2), 106-111.
29. Eroglu, S. A., Machleit S. A., & Davis, L. M., (2001). Atmospheric qualities of online retailing: A conceptual model and implications. *Journal of Business research*, 54(2), 177-184.
30. Foxall, G. R., & Greenley, G. E., (1999). Consumers' emotional responses to service environments. *Journal of Business Research*, 46(2), 149–158.
31. Gardner, M. P., & Rook, D. W., (1988). Effects of Impulse Purchases on Consumers' Affective States. *Advances in Consumer Research*. Association for Consumer Research (U.S.), 15(1), 127-130.
32. Giluk, T. L., (2009). Mindfulness, Big Five personality, and affect: A meta-analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 47(8), 805-811.
33. Gollwitzer, P. M., (1990). Action phases and mind-sets. In Sorrentino R. M. & Higgins E. T. (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation and cognition: Foundations of social behavior* (pp. 53–92). Guilford Press.
34. Gollwitzer, P. M., & Sheeran, P., (2006). Implementation Intentions and Goal Achievement: A Meta-analysis of Effects and Processes. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Academic Press, 38, 69-119.
35. Gross, J. J., (Ed.), (2013). *Handbook of emotion regulation*. Guilford publications.
36. Gültekin, B., & Özer, L., (2012). Store image's influence on perceived quality of store brands and store brand purchasing behavior. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(6), 189-189.
37. Habib, M. D., & Qayyum, A., (2018). Cognitive emotion theory and emotion-action tendency in online impulsive buying behavior. *Journal of Management Sciences*, 5(1), 86-99.
38. Hanh, T. N., (2008). *The World We Have: A Buddhist Approach to Peace and Ecology*. Booksurge Llc. US
39. Hart, R., Ivtzan, I., & Hart, D., (2013). Mind the gap in mindfulness research: A comparative account of the leading schools of thought. *Review of General Psychology*, 17(4), 453-466.
40. Heckhausen, H., & Gollwitzer, P. M., (1987). Thought contents and cognitive functioning in motivational versus volitional states of mind. *Motivation and Emotion*, 11, 101–120.
41. Hoch, S. J., & Loewenstein, G. F., (1991). Time-inconsistent Preferences and Consumer Self-Control. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17(4), 492–507.
42. Hornik, J., (2021). The Temporal Dimension of Shopping Behavior. *Journal of Service Science and Management*, 14, 58-71.
43. Iyer, G. R., Blut, M., Xiao, S. H., & Grewal, D., (2020). Impulse buying: a meta-analytic review. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 48(3), 384-404.
44. Jain, S. C., (1975). Life cycle revisited: applications in consumer research. *Advances in consumer research*, 2, 39-50.
45. Kabat-Zinn, J., (1990). *Full catastrophe living: Using the wisdom of your body and mind to face stress, pain, and illness*. New York, NY: Delacorte.
46. Kabat-Zinn, J., (1994). *Wherever you go, there you are: mindfulness meditation in everyday life*. New York: Hyperion.
47. Kabat-Zinn, J., (2003). Mindfulness-based interventions in context: past, present, and future. *Clinical psychology: Science and practice*, 10(2), 144-156.
48. Kacen, J. J., & Lee, J. A., (2002). The influence of culture on consumer impulsive buying behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 12(2), 163–176.
49. Karl, J. A., & Fischer, R., (2020). Revisiting the five-facet structure of mindfulness. *Measurement Instruments for the Social Sciences*, 2, 1-16.
50. Keller, A., Eisen, C., & Hanss, D., (2019). Lessons Learned From Applications of the Stage Model of Self-Regulated Behavioral Change: A Review. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 1091.
51. de Kervenoael, R., Aykac, D. S. O., & Palmer, M. (2009). Online social capital: Understanding e-impulse buying in practice. *Journal of retailing and consumer services*, 16(4), 320-328.

52. Khoury, B., Knäuper, B., Pagnini, F., Trent, N., Chiesa, A., & Carrière, K. (2017). Embodied mindfulness. *Mindfulness*, 8, 1160-1171.
53. Kim, M., Dawson, S., (2010). Cues on apparel web sites that trigger impulse purchases. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 14(2), 230–246.
54. Klöckner, C. A., (2017). A stage model as an analysis framework for studying voluntary change in food choices–The case of beef consumption reduction in Norway. *Appetite*, 108, 434-449.
55. Kossman, S., (2016). Survey: 5 in 6 Americans admit to impulse buys. Princeton Survey Research Associates International for CreditCards.com
56. Langer, E. J., (1989). *Mindfulness*. Cambridge, MA: Da Capo Press.
57. Langer, E. J., (1992). Matters of mind: Mindfulness/mindlessness in perspective. *Consciousness and Cognition*, 1(3), 289–305.
58. Langer, E. J., (1997). *The power of mindful learning*. Cambridge, MA: De Capo Press.
59. Langer, E. J., (2002). Well-being: Mindfulness versus positive evaluation. In Snyder, C. R., Lopez, S. J., (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 214–230). New York: Oxford University Press.
60. Langer, E. J., (2005). *On Becoming an Artist: Reinventing Yourself through Mindful Creativity*. NY: Ballantine Books.
61. Langer, E. J., Blank, A., & Chanowitz, B., (1978). The mindlessness of ostensibly thoughtful action: The role of ‘placebic’ information in interpersonal interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 36(6), 635–642.
62. Langer, E. J., & Piper, A.I., (1987). The prevention of mindlessness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 53(2), 280-287.
63. Lau, M. A., Bishop, S. R., Segal, Z. V., Buis, T., Anderson, N. D., Carlson, L., ... & Devins, G. (2006). The Toronto mindfulness scale: Development and validation. *Journal of clinical psychology*, 62(12), 1445-1467.
64. Luberto, C. M., Cotton, S., McLeish, A. C., Mingione, C. J., & O’Bryan, E. M. (2014). Mindfulness skills and emotion regulation: The mediating role of coping self-efficacy. *Mindfulness*, 5, 373-380.
65. Luo, X., (2005). How does shopping with others influence impulsive purchasing?. *Journal of Consumer psychology*, 15(4), 288-294.
66. Maheshwari, H., (2020). Mindfulness: Helps Curb Impulsive Buying Through Improving Self Control. *Journal of Modern Accounting and Auditing*, 16(9), 415-430.
67. McDermott, J., (2021). The problem with impulse spending: 88.6percent of Americans have fallen prey to impulsive online shopping. Technical Report. finder.com.
68. Mead, N. L., & Patrick, V. M., (2016). The taming of desire: Unspecific postponement reduces desire for and consumption of postponed temptations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 110(1), 20–35.
69. Mick, D. G, Pechmann, C., Ozanne, J. L., & Pettigrew, S., (2012). *Transformative Consumer Research for Personal and Collective Well-being*. United Kingdom: Routledge.
70. Mischel, W., Ebbesen, E. B., & Raskoff Z. A., (1972). Cognitive and attentional mechanisms in delay of gratification. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 21(2), 204.
71. Mohan, G., Sivakumaran, B., & Sharma, P., (2013). Impact of store environment on impulse buying behavior. *European Journal of Marketing*, 47(10), 1711–1732.
72. Moore, M. J., (2005). The transtheoretical model of the stages of change and the phases of transformative learning: Comparing two theories of transformational change. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 3(4), 394-415.
73. Moser, C., Schoenebeck, S. Y., & Resnick, P., (2019). Impulse buying: Design practices and consumer needs. In *Proceedings of the 2019 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, 1-15.
74. Nachreiner, M., Mack, B., Matthies, E., & Tampe-Mai, K., (2015). An analysis of smart metering information systems: A psychological model of self-regulated behavioural change. *Energy Research & Social Science*, 9, 85-97.
75. Neulinger, A., & Radó, M., (2018). The impact of household life-cycle stages on subjective well-being: Considering the effect of household expenditures in Hungary. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 42(1), 16– 26.
76. Nyanaponika, T., (1973). *The Buddha and his Teachings*. Kuala Lumpur: Buddhist Missionary Society

77. Olsson, L. E., Huck, J., & Friman, M., (2018). Intention for car use reduction: applying a stage-based model. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 15(2), 216.
78. Ostafin B. D., Robinson M. D., & Meier B. P., (2015). Introduction: The Science of Mindfulness and Self-Regulation. In: Ostafin B., Robinson M., Meier B. (eds) *Handbook of Mindfulness and Self-Regulation*. Springer, New York, NY. (1-6).
79. Ostafin, B. D., & Kassman, K. T., (2012). Stepping out of history: Mindfulness improves insight problem solving. *Consciousness and Cognition*, 21(2), 1031-1036.
80. Owen, B., Heisterkamp, B., Halfmann, A., & Vorderer, P., (2018). Trait mindfulness and problematic smartphone use. Hauppauge: Nova Science, 181-206.
81. Panek, E. T., Bayer, J. B., Dal Cin, S., & Campbell, S. W., (2015). Automaticity, mindfulness, and self-control as predictors of dangerous texting behavior. *Mobile Media & Communication*, 3(3), 383-400.
82. Papiés, E. K., Barsalou, L. W., & Custers, R., (2012). Mindful attention prevents mindless impulses. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 3(3), 291-299.
83. Park, E. J., Kim, E. Y., Funches V. M., & Foxx, W., (2012). Apparel product attributes: Web browsing, and e-impulse buying on shopping websites. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(11), 1583-1589.
84. Park, H. J., & Dhandra, T. K., (2017). Relation between dispositional mindfulness and impulsive buying tendency: Role of trait emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 105, 208-212.
85. Peters, J. R., Erisman, S. M., Upton, B. T., Baer, R. A., & Roemer, L., (2011). A preliminary investigation of the relationships between dispositional mindfulness and impulsivity. *Mindfulness*, 2(4), 228-235.
86. Piron, F., (1991). Defining Impulse Purchasing. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 18, 509-514.
87. Pirson, M. A., Langer, E., Zilcha, S., (2018). Enabling a Socio-cognitive Perspective of Mindfulness: The Development and Validation of the Langer Mindfulness Scale. *Journal of Adult Development*, 25, 168-185.
88. Prakash, G., Sahney, S., Kodati, S., & Shrivastava, A., (2017). Gender effects on impulse buying behavior. *Emerald Emerging Markets Case Studies*, 7(7), 1-12.
89. Richter, N., & Hunecke, M., (2020). Facets of Mindfulness in Stages of Behavior Change Toward Organic Food Consumption. *Mindfulness*, 11, 1354-1369.
90. Rook, D. W., & Hoch, S. J., (1985). Consuming Impulses. In Hirschman E. C. & Holbrook M. B. (Eds.), *Advances in consumer research* (pp. 23-27). Chicago, IL: Association for Consumer Research.
91. Rook, D. W., (1987). The Buying Impulse. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(2), 189-199.
92. Rook, D. W., & Fisher, R. J., (1995). Normative Influences on Impulsive Buying Behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22(3), 305-313
93. Schulte, B., (2014). *Overwhelmed: Work, Love and Play When No One Has The Time*. United Kingdom: Bloomsbury Publishing.
94. Schwartz, S. H., (1977). Normative influences on altruism. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 10(1), 221-279.
95. Schwarzer, R., (2008). Modeling health behavior change: How to predict and modify the adoption and maintenance of health behaviors. *Applied psychology*, 57(1), 1-29.
96. Sermboonsang, R., Tansuhaj, P. S., Silpakit, C., & Chaisuwan, C., (2020). Mindfulness-based transformational learning for managing impulse buying. *Journal of Education for Business*, 95(2), 129-137.
97. Shapiro, S. L., & Schwartz, G. E., (2000). The role of intention in self-regulation: toward intentional systemic mindfulness. *Handbook of self-regulation* New York. Academic Press, 253-273.
98. Stern, H., (1962). The Significance of Impulse Buying Today. *Journal of Marketing*, 26(2), 59-62.
99. Sternberg, R. J., (2000). Images of mindfulness. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56(1), 11-26.
100. Sultan, A. J., Joireman, J., & Sprott, D. E., (2012). Building consumer self-control: The effect of self-control exercises on impulse buying urges. *Marketing Letters*, 23(1), 61-72.
101. Verhagen, T., & Dolen W. V., (2011). The influence of online store beliefs on consumer online impulse buying: A model and empirical application. *Information & Management*, 48(8), 320-327.

102. Verplanken, B., & Herabadi, A., (2001). Individual differences in impulse buying tendency: Feeling and no thinking. *European Journal of Personality*, 15(1), 71–83.
103. Verplanken, B., & Sato, A., (2011). The Psychology of Impulse Buying: An Integrative Self-Regulation Approach. *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 34, 197–210.
104. Vohs, K. D., & Baumeister, R. F., (2004). Understanding self-regulation. *Handbook of self-regulation*, 19.
105. Vohs, K. D., & Faber, R. J., (2007). Spent Resources: Self-Regulatory Resource Availability Affects Impulse Buying. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 33(4), 537–547.
106. Ward, S., (2014). *Tradermind: Get a mindful edge in the markets*. John Wiley & Sons.
107. Weibel, C., Kossmann, K., Schaffner, D., & Ohnmacht, T., (2019). Reducing individual meat consumption: The role of socio-psychological factors and the stage model of behavioral change. *Journal of Food Quality and Preference*, 73, 8-18.
108. Wells, J. D., Parboteeah, V., & Valacich, J. S., (2011). Online impulse buying: Understanding the interplay between consumer impulsiveness and website quality. *Journal of the Association for Information System*, 12(1), 32-56.
109. Wood, M., (1998), Socio-economic status, delay of gratification, and impulse buying, *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 19(3), 295-320.
110. Worldwatch Institute (2013). *The State of Consumption Today*.
www.worldwatch.org/node/810
111. Yi, S., (2012). Shame-Proneness as a Risk Factor of Compulsive Buying. *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 35, 393–410.
112. Yi, S., & Hans Baumgartner, H., (2011). Coping with guilt and shame in the impulse buying context. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 32(3), 458-467.
113. Yiğit, M. K., (2020). Consumer mindfulness and impulse buying behavior: testing moderator effects of hedonic shopping value and mood. *Innovative Marketing*, 16(4), 24-36.
114. Youn, S., Faber, R. J., (2000). Impulse Buying: Its Relation to Personality Traits and Cues. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 27, 179-185.